



## Nematicidal Weeds in the Control of Plant Parasitic Nematodes

Bahadır ŞİN<sup>1</sup> , Lerzan ÖZTÜRK<sup>2\*</sup> 

<sup>1</sup> Department of Plant Protection, Faculty of Agriculture, Sakarya University of Applied Science, 54580, Arifiye, Sakarya, Turkey bahadirsin@subu.edu.tr

<sup>2</sup> Viticulture Research Institute, 59100, Süleymanpaşa, Tekirdag, Turkey, [lerzanozturk@gmail.com](mailto:lerzanozturk@gmail.com)

### ABSTRACT

Weeds are one of the important pests of agricultural production that affect the yield of cultivated plants. These unwanted plants pose a problem, especially in vegetable fields. Synthetic chemicals are used against weeds, but their use is limited due to the uncontrolled application of these substances threatening animal and environmental health, the risk of residues in air, soil and food products, the emergence of poor-quality products by causing phytotoxicity in plants, and the formation of resistance in the targeted pests. The use of plant secretions provides eco-friendly nematode control. In this review, the allelochemicals secreted by plants were discussed and the information on weed species with nematicidal potential was given.

**Keywords:** Nematode, weed, suppression, allelopathy, secondary metabolites.

### Introduction

Regular growth in world population increases the demand for agricultural land and products. The inability to supply food will lead to the emergence of hunger in the future. In parallel with the population increase, the production areas are decreasing day by day due to the opening of agricultural lands for zoning in order to solve the housing problem. For this reason, agriculture is carried out in many countries with the aim of obtaining the highest yield in limited areas. Agricultural production encounters various abiotic and biotic factors that negatively affect crop yield. Causing significant yield loss, weeds, soil-born pathogens and plant parasitic nematodes gain importance within biotic factors. On-time management of these harmful organisms is recommended to achieve production with higher yield [32].

---

\* Sorumlu yazar: [lerzanozturk@gmail.com](mailto:lerzanozturk@gmail.com)

Plant parasitic nematodes are important soil born pests of agricultural production that significantly affect crop yield. Many species were identified all around the world and these threaten especially vegetable production. There are 4,100 species of herbivorous nematodes identified and these species are the leading species that cause yield and quality losses in cultivated plants [61]. Among plant parasitic nematodes, 250 species belonging to 43 genera are considered harmful pests in agricultural production in many countries in the world, and 126 species belonging to 33 genera are included in the quarantine pests list [62]. Plant parasitic nematodes feed on parts of the plant such as roots, stems, leaves and flowers. Plant feeders are divided into three groups as endoparasites, ectoparasites and semi-endoparasites according to their feeding patterns in the plant. Ectoparasitic nematodes including genera such as *Longidorus*, *Criconema* and *Xiphinema* feed by sinking their stylets from the outer surface of the plant root, while *Meloidogyne* sp. and *Pratylenchus* sp. endoparasitic nematodes enter the root and feed inside the cell. Semiocto and endoparasitic nematodes usually immerse the head of the body into the tissue [63]. While nematodes feed on their stylets in the plant, they cause death by emptying the cell contents. Some nematodes do not cause cell death but stimulate elongation and growth, and as a result, giant cells with richer nutrient content are formed [64]. In addition to these harmful effects, nematodes lead important pathogens to enter the plant and cause disease [65].

Various methods have been proposed for the control of nematodes but cannot be applied due to inefficient results. In Europe, there were 520 licensed pesticides with active substances in 2019, of which 64% are synthetic chemicals, 9% are organics, 7% are inorganic substances and pheromones, 5% planted extracts and oils, 2% are fatty acids, 1% plant hormones, 1% paraffin and 4% others. Only 110 of these active substances were in the low risk group in terms of harmful effects, and the majority of them planted extracts and pheromones. In chemical control, broad-spectrum fumigants such as methyl bromide and specific pesticides are used. However, a big portion of pesticides is banned in some European countries and some states of the USA due to their harm to human and environmental health and residues that reach dangerous levels in groundwater [66]. Despite the significant increases in the application of synthetic chemicals, their use is limited by harmful effect to the environment and animal health as a result of their uncontrolled use, residual risks on air, soil and food resources, decrease in product quality due to phytotoxicity in plants, and the emergence of resistance in target organisms.

Based on these disadvantages, researches on eco-friendly alternative management methods have become one of the most studied issues in recent years. Until now the efficiency of several

methods including allelopathy, crop rotation, mulching, was approved in many studies and nonharmful, environmentally friendly and low-cost management was achieved with the use of plants and their secretions with nematode suppressive potential.

### **Allelochemicals**

Many plants can secrete chemicals that will affect the growth of other organisms around them, and the phenomenon of affecting other living things in this way is called allelopathy. Allelopathic interaction can occur between different plants, between plants and other organisms (fungi, viruses and microorganisms), or between different kinds of organisms (fungi, virus and microorganisms) [58]. This phenomenon has been observed for 2000 years, and the first serious studies began in the 1900s. The term allelopathy was first defined by the German scientist Molisch in 1973. In later years, Rice [54] from the University of Oklahoma explained allelopathy in all its aspects.

Chemical secretions with an allelopathic effect are called allelochemicals [11]. The suppressive effect of many allelochemicals from different organisms have been studied for years and plant derived allelochemicals gave the most promising result in the control of several weed species, nematodes and plant pathogens. Plant derived allelochemicals are found in all plant parts, including leaves, flowers, fruits, stems, roots, rhizomes, seeds and pollen and their release to the environment occurs by root exudation, plant residue decomposition, leaching from plants and volatilization [67]. Allelochemicals are grouped into several categories including organic acids, fatty acids, lactones, coumarins, flavonoids, quinones, phenols, aliphatic aldehydes, terpenoids and steroids, alkaloids, amino acids and peptides, nucleosides and tannins, sulfides and glucosinolates, nucleosides and purines ([54]; [11]). The number of 10,000 different allelochemicals with the varying modes of action are It has been estimated that higher plants can produce over 10,000 different allelochemicals, which vary in their activity and mode of action in receptor plants. A single plant may contain and secrete more than one allelochemical and these components together increase the plant's allelopathic potential. The plants with this feature increase the success in pest and disease management [30].

The allelochemicals are applied in crop protection in four different ways; 1) Using allelopathic plant residues as mulch or manure material; 2) Growing allelopathic plants in crop rotation or intercropping; 3) Cultivation of crop plants with allelopathic potential as a cover crop; 4) Applying the aqueous extracts of the plants with allelopathic potential ([8]).

Weeds are harmful plants that also secrete many allelochemicals that affect the growth of plants and many organisms. Weed can be defined as unwanted plants competing with crops for water, light and nutrients, causing yield and quality losses [68]. Weeds are very dense and common in areas with suitable temperature and moisture conditions. Depending on various abiotic and biotic factors such as temperature and crop system, weed density varies, but weeds continue to cause damage in infested areas every year. Among 250.000 identified plants in the world 8000 have been recognized as weeds and of these 250 were included in the list of most harmful pests [20], [21]. Unless there is no interference by humans, animals, microorganisms and other plants weeds have high adaptation potential to newly introduced environments [69]. Furthermore, some pests and pathogens overwinter and survive on weed plants. A dense weed population complicates agriculture and increases production expenditures [43]. Weeds also may interfere with the harvested product and endanger human and animal health.

Weeds produce toxic derivatives like phenolic acids, glycosides, terpenoids, alkaloids, terpenes and flavonoids may have detrimental effect on soil microorganisms and crop plants [48]. Allelochemicals play four different roles in increasing or decreasing nematode density; 1) Release of nematicidal secretions from roots that kill nematodes, inhibit nematode movement, affect physiological and biological parameters like egg hatching; 2) Release of nematode suppressing substance after decomposition of weed residues in the soil; 3) Increase of microorganisms antagonistic to nematodes due to improvement of soil organic matter through weed residues and secretions; 4) Alteration of host plant defense system due to promotion or inhibition of plant growth by allelochemicals [8].

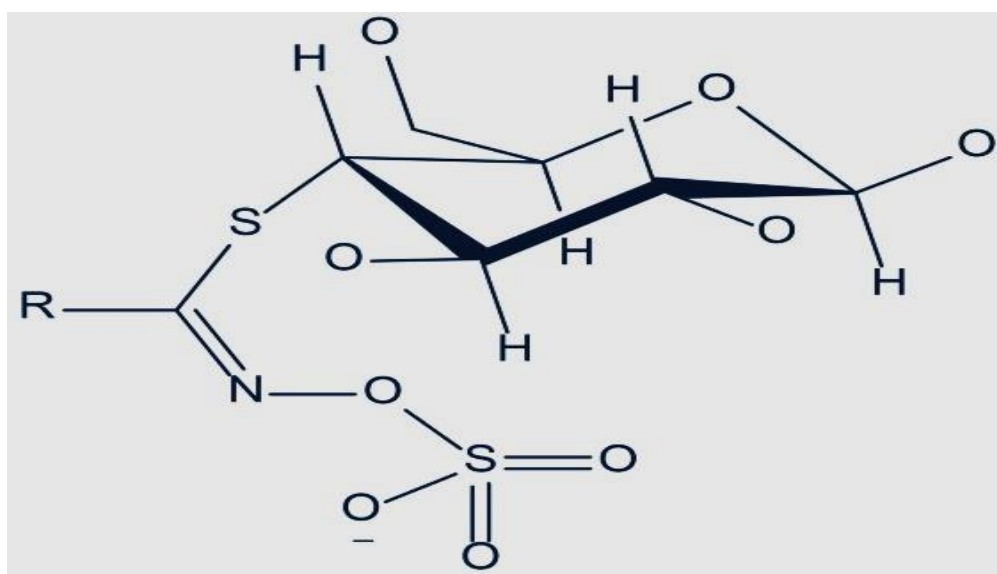
### **Nematicidal Allelochemicals**

Nematicidal weeds mostly belonged to Asteraceae, Compositae, Fabaceae and Brassicaceae families. Glucosinolates, saponins, limonoid triterpenes, essential oils, polyphenols, alkaloids, phenolics, flavonoids, tannins, cyanogenic glycosides are the main groups of nematicidal compounds produced by weeds.

#### **- Glucosinolates**

The order Brassica includes 3000 plant species belonging to 350 genera. Species in this order produce glucosinolate secondary metabolites that enable plants to protect themselves from biotic and abiotic stress conditions. Furthermore, glucosinolates were found in about 500 dicotyledonous species which are not belonged to Brassica [25]. These are accumulated in the leaf, root, seed and stems of plants from Caricaceae, Resedaceae, Akaniaceae, Brassicaceae, Bataceae, Capparidaceae, Gyrostemonaceae, Moringaceae, Limnanthaceae, Tropaeolaceae

Pentadiplandraceae, Salvadoraceae, Tovariaceae, Koeberliniaceae, Cleomaceae, Emblingiaceae, and Setchellanthaceae families [37]. The number of glucosinolates is higher in Brassicales which contain more than 80% [22]. Glucosinolates (GSL) are secondary metabolites containing S and N. These metabolites are composed of sulfonated oxime and  $\beta$ -thioglucose [70]. It is an organic anion (Figure 1). When glucosinolates are hydrolyzed by the myrosinase enzyme in plants, chemicals such as isothiocyanate, thiocyanate and nitrile are released. Hydrolysis occurs after cell disruption due to severe plant damage. All these compound have biopesticidal impacts on nematodes, pathogens and harmful organisms. Because of these properties, these plants are also called biofumigants ([39]; [66]; [71]).



**Figure 1.** Structure of glucosinolates [9]

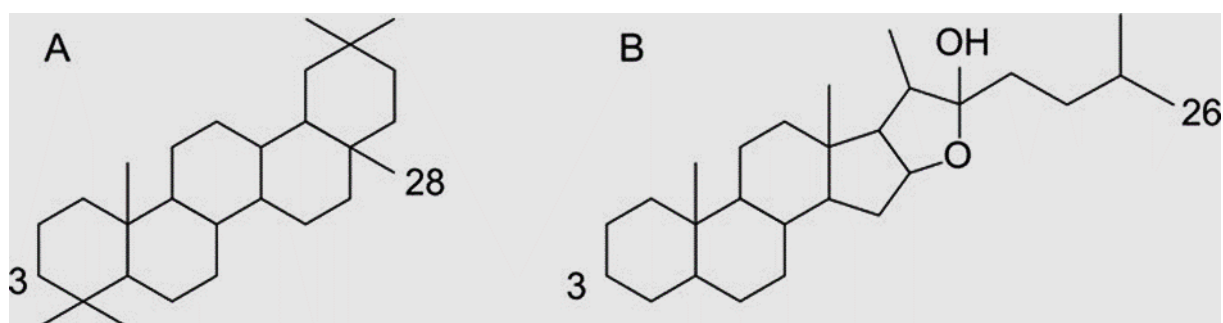
GSL, has a function in the defense against fungi and pests, regulation of growth, regulation of nitrogen and sulfur metabolism. It also plays a role in plant defense against heat-related stress effects. More than 130 different compounds were identified belonging to the group of glucosinolates and they are divided into three groups as aliphatic, indole, and aromatic glucosinolates. The nematode suppressive substances called isothiocyanates are released by aliphatic and aromatic glucosinolates. Indole glucosinolates have no ability to produce isothiocyanates ([72]; [2]).

The suppressive effect of *Brassicales* crops (*Brassica napus*, *Brassica hirta*, *Raphanus sativus* L. ssp. *oleiformis*, *Eruca sativa* L.) species has been investigated for years and experiments with these plants have yielded promising results regarding their use as an alternative bio-

nematicide to synthetic chemicals. The significant nematode reduction was observed in *Xiphinema index*, *X. americanum*, *Goboderia rostochiensis*, *G. pallida*, *Meloidogyne incognita*, *M. hapla*, *M. javanica*, *M. chitwoodi*, *Tylenchus semipenetrans*, *Pratylenchus penetrans*, *P. neglectus*, *Heterodera carotae* ([40]; [51]; [59]; [33]; [56]; [7]; [24]). Common glucosinolates with nematicidal potential include gluconapin, progoitrin, sinigrin, glucoraphanin, glucocapparin, gluconasturtin, glucolepdiin, grucin, glucoiberin, glucotropeolin, sinalbin, epi-progoitrin, ([59]; [7]). In many studies, it has been revealed that many weeds from the brassica order, as well as cultivated plants, have nematidal potential.

### - Saponins

Saponins are secondary metabolites divided to two groups based on steroid or triterpenoid aglycone content. In saponins steroids or triterpenoids are attached via three carbons of sapogenin (Figure 2). More than 50.000 plants have been reported to possess saponins in their seeds, flowers, leaves, stems and fruit. The highest level of these compounds was measured in legume crops [18].



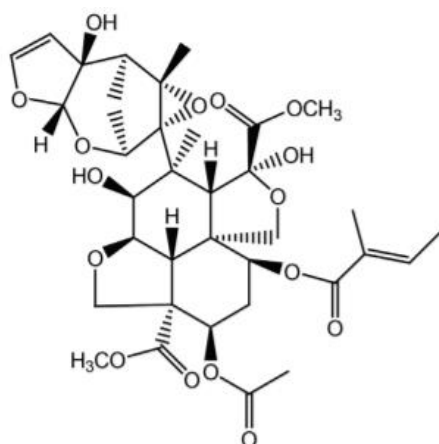
**Figure 2.** Structure of saponins A: Triterpenoid B: Steroidal saponins (Kreigel et al., 2017).

Until now 150 different natural saponins were revealed in plants and they were grouped into 11 classes including tirucallanes, cycloartanes, cucurbitanes, dammaranes, lupanes, oleananes, hopanes, ursanes, taraxasteranes, lanostanes and steroids [35]. Saponins have been isolated from some plants belonging to families like Leguminosae, Agavaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Amarathaceae, Apiaceae, Araliaceae, Chenopodiaceae, Euphorbiaceae, Rosaceae, Prumulaceae, Poaceae, Liliaceae, Convolvulaceae, Fabaceae, Scrophulariaceae and Solanaceae. The distribution of saponins vary among different plants. In some plants, saponins accumulate in the root phloem, while in some in the epidermal cell membrane or the periderm and outer cambium tissue of the root [17]. Species from the *Medicago* genus have higher saponin content and contain 95 saponin species which belonged to triterpene glycosides, steroid alkaloid glycosides, and steroid glycosides groups [57]. The nematicidal potential of *Medicago*

*arborea*, *M. heyniiana* Greuter, *M. lupulina* L. and *M. truncatula* Gaertn., *M. arabica*, *M. hybrida* (Pourr.) Trautv., *M. murex* Willd and *M. sativa* against *Meloidogyne incognita*, *Xiphinema index*, *H. Carotae* and *Gobodera rostochiensis* were demonstrated in several studies. These secondary metabolites are found to affect cell permeability of mature or juvenile nematodes and decrease cholesterol levels of eggs [6]; [23].

#### - Limonoid triterpenes

Limonoids are formed after an alteration of triterpenes. Families belonging to Cneoraceae Rutaceae, Cucurbitaceae, Simaroubaceae and Meliceae contain a higher amount of limonoids (Figure 3). The number of limonoids identified across the world reached 227 and these belonged to plants from 21 families [49]. *Azadrachta indica* A. Juss neem tree was the most studied plant that carried more than 100 limonoids such as salannin, mahmoudin, gedunin, nimbolide, azadirachtin, nimbidin, sodium nimbidate and nimbin ([73]; [31]). These compounds are accumulated in leaves, seeds, stem, bark and fruits of plants [14].



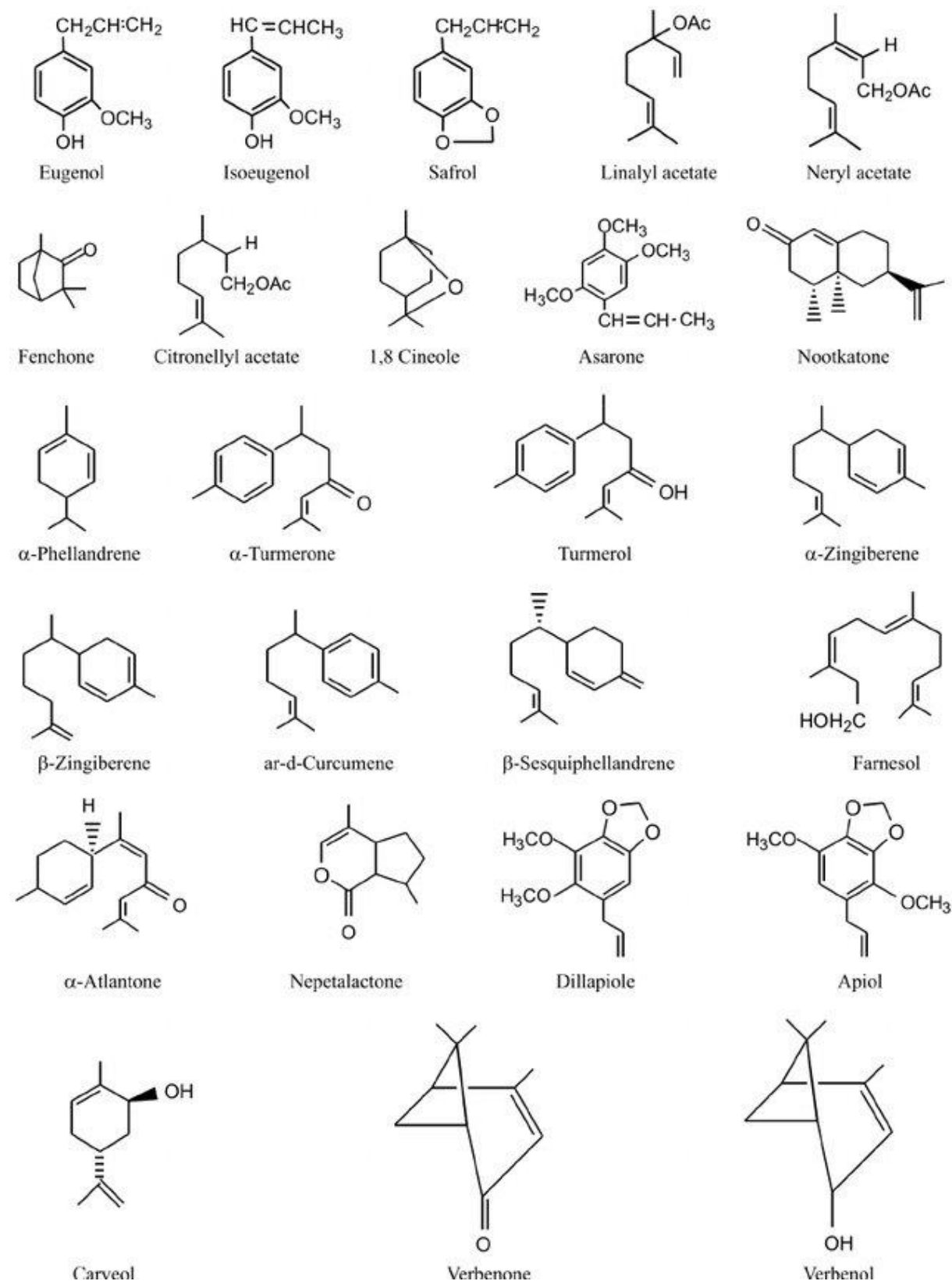
**Figure 3.** Structure of azadirachtin [42].

The nematicidal effect of azadirachtin from neem was revealed in several studies. The suppressive impact was determined on *Heterodera jacani*, *Heterodera glycines*, *Meloidogyne incognita* and some other nematode species ([41]; [55]; [34]).

#### - Essential oils

Essential oils (EOs) are secondary metabolites produced by plants belonging to families such as Myrtaceae, Apiaceae, Burseraceae, Asteraceae, Laurenceae, Lamiaceae, Zingiberaceae, Poacea and Pinaceae. The plants from genera *Thymus*, *Mentha*, *Artemisia*, *Cympogon*, *Ocimum*, *Lavandula*, *Oreganum*, *Rosmarinus*, *Melaleuca*, *Citrus*, *Eucalyptus* and *Eugenia* contain higher amount of essential oils. Essential oils contain non-polar and polar compounds (Figure 4).

These secondary metabolites are classified into four groups like Phenylpropanoids, terpenes, sulphur or nitrogen containing compounds, straight chain compounds.





**Figure 4.** Structure of essential oils [29].

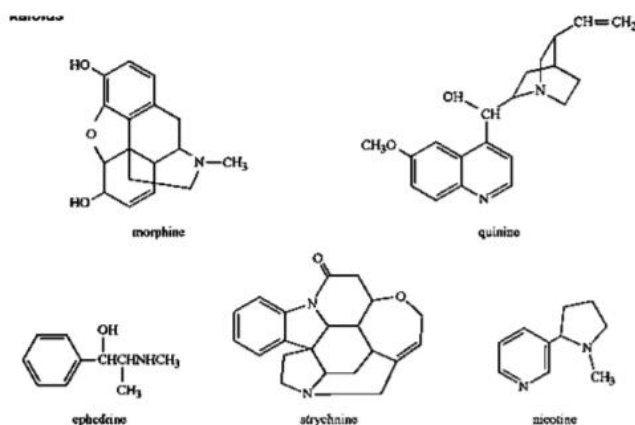
The impact of these compounds on nematodes was investigated and results indicated the nematicidal potential of several plants. Root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne* spp. was successfully suppressed by oils from *Mentha rotundifolia*, *Carum carvi*, *Foeniculum vulgare* and *Mentha spicata* plants [46]. More than 310 plant species like *Artemisia arborescens*, *Boswellia carterii*, *Cymbopogon citrates*, *Cinnamomum zeylanicum*, *Coriandrum sativum*, *Zingiber officinalis*, *Origanum vulgare*, *Pimenta dioica*, *Thymus vulgaris*, *Allium cepa*, *Paeonia moutan*, *Perilla frutescens*, *Schizonepeta tenuifolia*, *Pelargonium inquinans*, *Syzygium aromaticum*, *Coriandrum sativum*, *Liquidambar orientalis* and *Pimpinella anisum* decreased *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus* nematode populations in in-vitro studies [5].

**- Polythienyls**

Polythienyls are compounds accumulated in plant parts of Asteraceae family [12]. *Tagetes* spp. is the genus that accumulates polythienyls and contains plant species with nematicidal potential. *Tagetes petula* and *T. erecta* caused significant death of *Meloidogyne incognita*, *M. javanica*, *M. hapla*, *Pratylenchus penetrans*, *Globodera rostochiensis*, *Ditylenchus dipsaci*, *Narcissus tazetta* nematode individuals [12].

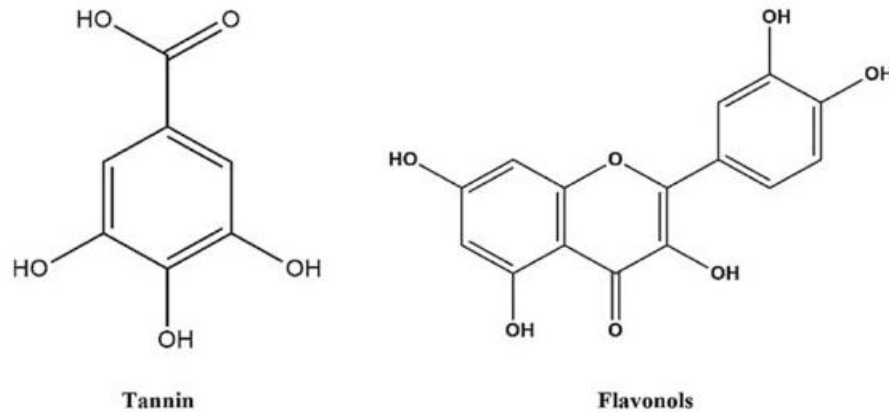
**- Alkaloids**

Alkaloids are secondary metabolites containing nitrogen (Figure 5). The alkaloid group constitutes approximately 15,000 secondary metabolites [36]. Plants from families like Solanaceae, Liliaceae, Fabaceae, Apocynaceae and Papaveraceae have alkaloids. The nematicidal potential of pyrrolizidine alkaloids and steroidal alkaloids [12].

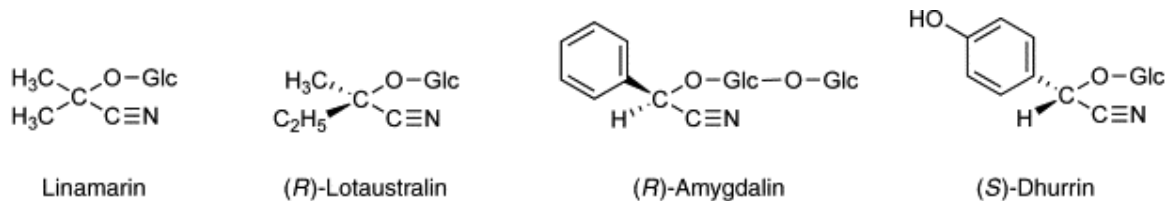


**Figure 5.** Structure of alkaloids [36].- **Phenolics, flavonoids, tannins, cyanogenic glycosides**

Phenolics are compounds that are present in several plant species (Figure 6). Especially phenolics from this group have nematicidal potential on several nematode species [45]. Compounds like tannic acid derived from plants like Chesnut showed nematicidal activity on *Meloidogyne* species [12].

**Figure 6.** Structure of tannins and flavonoids [26].

Cyanogenic glucosides are aminoacids that release cyanids (Figure 7). Plants like *Sorghum sudanense* contain cyanogenic glucosides and suppress many nematode species [12].

**Figure 7.** Structure of cyanogenic glucosides [74].

All secondary metabolite groups described in the previous part of this manuscript are present in several weed species and these weeds were found to have nematode inhibitory potential. The list of weeds with nematicidal potential were given in Table 1.

## Conclusion

Plant derivatives secondary metabolites provides ecofriendly and low cost nematode suppression. In addition the use of plant secretions have potential to improve soil structure and

plant growth. In this review major groups of secondary metabolites are discussed and nematode suppressive potentials are explained with samples.

**Table 1.** Some weeds with nematidical potential

Weed latin name	Common name	Target nematode species	Literature
<i>Acalypha indica</i> L.	Indian copperleaf	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[27]
<i>Acanthospermum hispidum</i> DC	Bristly starbur	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Achyranthes aspera</i> L.	Chaff flower	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[27]
<i>Aerva persica</i> (Burm.fil.) Merr	-	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Argemone mexicana</i> L.	Mexican poppy	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[27]
<i>Armoracia rusticana</i> P.Gaertn.,Mey and Sherb.	Horse radish	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[4]
<i>Artemisia judaica</i> L.	Judean wormwood	<i>Meloidogyne javanica</i>	[46]
<i>Artemisia dracuncululus</i> L.	Tarragon	<i>Meloidogyne javanica</i>	[28]
<i>Asparagus</i> spp.	Sparagus fern	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[12]
<i>Barbarea verna</i> (Mill)Asch	Early yellow-rocket	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[15]
<i>Bidens pillosa</i> L.	blackjack	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Brassica juncea</i> L.	Wild mustard	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i> , <i>Meloidogyne javanica</i> <i>Globodera pallida</i> , <i>Pratylenchus neglectus</i> ,	[53]; [47]; [44]
<i>Brassica tournefortii</i> Gouan	African mustard	<i>Pratylenchus penetrans</i> , <i>Meloidogyne chitwoodi</i>	[51]; [13]
<i>Brassica oxyrrhina</i> Cos (Wilk)	Smooth-stemmed turnip	<i>Pratylenchus penetrans</i> , <i>Meloidogyne chitwoodi</i> , <i>Pratylenchus neglectus</i>	[51]; [13]
<i>Calotropis procera</i> (Aiton) W. T. Aiton	Calotrope	<i>Tylenchulus semipenetrans</i>	[3]
<i>Capparis spinosa</i> L.	Caper bush	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[75]
<i>Chenopodium ambrosioides</i> L.	Mexican tea	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[76]
<i>Cleome viscosa</i> L.	Asian spiderflower	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[77]
<i>Cymbopogon martinii</i> (Roxb.) J.F.Watson	Palmarosa	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[77]
<i>Chrysanthemum coronarium</i> L.	Crown daisy	<i>Meloidogyne artiellia</i>	[50]
<i>Datura alba</i>	Angel's trumpet	<i>Tylenchulus semipenetrans</i>	[3]
<i>Datura stramonium</i> W.	Jimson weed	<i>Globodera rostochiensis</i> <i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Descurainia sophia</i> (L.) Webb ex Prantl	Flixweed	<i>Meloidogyne javanica</i>	[78]

<i>Flaveria trinervia</i> (Spreng.) Mohr.	Gaika weed	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i>	Licorice	<i>Meloidogyne</i> spp.	[19]
<i>Heliotropium indicum</i> L.	Indian heliotrope	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Lepidium draba</i> L.	Hoary cress	<i>Tylenchulus semipenetrans</i>	[38]
<i>Lippia juneliana</i> L.	-	<i>Meloidogyne</i> spp	[79]
<i>Lippia turbinata</i> Griseb.	-	<i>Meloidogyne</i> spp	[79]
<i>Mentha pulegium</i>	Penroyal	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[45]
<i>Melissa officinalis</i> L.	Common balm	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[45]
<i>Nasturtium officinale</i> R. Br.	Watercress	<i>Meloidogyne hapla</i>	[60]
<i>Ononis natrix</i> L.	Yellow Restharrow	<i>Meloidogyne</i> spp.	[16]
<i>Peganum harmala</i> L.	Syrian rue	<i>Meloidogyne</i> spp.	[16]
<i>Raphanus raphanistrum</i> L.	Wild radish	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[80]
<i>Ricinis communis</i>	Castor bean	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[51]; [13]
<i>Ruta chalepensis</i> L.	-	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i> , <i>Meloidogyne javanica</i>	[45]
<i>Senna tora</i>	Sickle senna	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]
<i>Sinapis arvensis</i> subsp. <i>arvensis</i>	Wild mustard	<i>Xiphinema index</i> , <i>Pratylenchus penetrans</i> , <i>Meloidogyne chitwoodi</i> <i>Rotylenchulus reniformis</i> <i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[1]; [80]
<i>Sinapis alba</i>	White mustard	<i>Pratylenchus penetrans</i> , <i>Meloidogyne chitwoodi</i>	[13]
<i>Sisymbrium irio</i>	London rocket	<i>Rotylenchulus reniformis</i> , <i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[52]
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i> L.	Cocklebur	<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	[10]

## DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflict of interest.

## CREDIT AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

**Lerzan Öztürk:** carried out reviewing and final edition of the manuscript

**Bahadır ŞİN:** carried out literature review writing and editing of manuscript.

## References

- [1] Aballay E., Parraguez A. and Insunza V. (2005). Nematicidal evaluation of five plant species incorporated into the soil as organic matter on the population of *Xiphinema index* in *Vitis vinifera* L. cv. *Thompson Seedless*. *634 Phytopathology Fitopatología* 40:35-42.
- [2] Agerbirk N. and Olsen C.E. (2012). Glucosinolate structures in evolution. *Phytochemistry*. 77, 16-45.

- [3] Ahmad M.S., Tariq M. and Riaz A., (2004). Some studies on the control of citrus nematode (*Tylenchulus semipenetrans*) by leaf extracts of three plants and their effects on plant growth variables. *Asian Journal of Plant Sciences*, 3: 544-548.
- [4] Aissani N., Tedeschi P., Maietti A., Brandolini V., Garau V.L. and Caboni P. (2013). nematicidal activity of allylisothiocyanate from horseradish (*Armoracia rusticana*) Roots against *Meloidogyne incognita*. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 61(20), 4723-4727. doi:10.1021/jf4008949
- [5] Andres M.F., González-Coloma A., Sanz J., Burillo J. and Sainz Sotomayor P. (2012). Nematicidal activity of essential oils: A review. *Phytochemistry Reviews*. 11. 10.1007/s11101-012-9263-3.
- [6] Argentieri M.P., D'Addabbo T., Tava A., Agostinelli A., Jurzysta M. and Avato P. (2008). Evaluation of nematicidal properties of saponins from *Medicago* spp. *Eur. J. Plant Pathol.* 120, 189-197.
- [7] Avato P., D'Addabbo T., Leonetti P. and Argentieri M., (2013). Nematicidal potential of Brassicaceae. *Phytochemistry Reviews* 12(4): 791-802. doi: 10.1007/s11101-013-9303-7.
- [8] Bittencourt H.V.H., Bonome L.T.D.S., Pagnoncelli Jr. F.D.B., Lana M.A. and Trezzi M.M., (2016). Seed germination and emergence of *Eragrostis tenuifolia* (A. Rich.) Hochst. ex Steud. in response to environmental factors. *J. Plant Protect. Res.*, 56(1), 32-38. doi: 10.1080/17429145.2016.1159342.
- [9] Castro-Torres, Ibrahim & de la O Arciniega, Minarda & Martinez-Vazquez, Mariano. (2014). Two glucosinolates and their effects related to the prevention of cholesterol gallstones: A review. *Boletín Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromaticas*. 13. 1-9.
- [10] Chaudhary K.K., Haile A., Ayresea Z. G., Semereab G., and Weldegergish T. (2013). Nematicidal activity of Eritrean weed plants against the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* (Kofoid and White) Chitwood. *Nematropica* 43:207-.215
- [11] Cheng, F. and Cheng, Z. (2015) Research progress on the use of plant allelopathy in agriculture and the physiological and ecological mechanisms of allelopathy. *Front. Plant Sci.* 6:1020. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2015.01020
- [12] Chitwood D.J. (2002). Phytochemical based strategies for nematode control. *Ann. Rev. Phytopathol.* 40:221-49.
- [13] Golec C. and Franco A. (2019). In vitro study on the nematicidal effect of different plant extracts on *Pratylenchus penetrans* and *Meloidogyne chitwoodi*. *Revista Facultad Nacional de Agronomía Medellín*, 72(3), 8945-8952. <https://doi.org/10.15446/rfnam.v72n3.76070>
- [14] Drijfhout F.P., and Morgan E. (2010). Terrestrial natural products as antifeedants. *Comprehensive Natural Products II*, 457–501. doi:10.1016/b978-008045382-8.00103-9.

- [15] Dutta T.K., Khan M.R., and Phani V. (2019). Plant-parasitic nematode management via biofumigation using Brassica and non-brassica plants: Current status and future prospects. *Current Plant Biology*, 17, 17–32. doi:10.1016/j.cpb.2019.02.001
- [16] El Allagui N, Tahrouch S, Bourijate M, Hatimi A (2007) Action of plant extracts on root-knot nematods (*Meloidogyne* spp.) mortality 503. *Acta Bot Gallica* 154:503–509
- [17] Faizal A. and Geelen D. (2013). Saponins and their role in biological processes in plants. *Phytochemistry Reviews*. 12. 10.1007/s11101-013-9322-4.
- [18] Faisal, M., Saeed, A., & Shahzad, D. (2019). Portrait of the synthesis of some potent anti-inflammatory natural products. *Discovery and Development of Anti-Inflammatory Agents from Natural Products*, 141–183. doi:10.1016/b978-0-12-816992-6.00005-x
- [19] Haroon S.A., Hassan B.A.A., Hamad F.M.I. (2018). The efficiency of some natural alternatives in root-knot nematode control. *Adv Plants Agric Res.* 8(4):355-362. DOI: [10.15406/apar.2018.08.00337](https://doi.org/10.15406/apar.2018.08.00337)
- [20] Holm L.G., Donald P., Pancho J.V. and Herberger J.P, (1977). The World's worst weeds: Distribution and biology. *The University Press of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii.* 609 pp.
- [21] Holm L. (1978) Some characteristics of weed problems in two worlds, *Proc. Western Soc. Weed Sci.* 31, 3–12.
- [22] Holst, B., & Fenwick, G. R. (2003). Glucosinolates. *Encyclopedia of Food Sciences and Nutrition*, 2922–2930. doi:10.1016/b0-12-227055-x/00561-7
- [23] Ibrahim M.A. and Srour H.A (2013). Saponins suppress nematode cholesterol biosynthesis and inhibit root knot nematode development in tomato seedlings. *Nat. Prod. Chem. Res.* 2013, 2, 1–4.
- [24] Jing, G. N., & Halbrecht, J. M. (1994). Nematicidal compounds from rapeseed (*Brassica napus* and *B. campestris*). *Journal of the Pennsylvania Academy of Science*, 68(1), 29–33. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/44148985>
- [25] Karavina C., Kamota A., Mandumbu R., Parwada C., Mugwati I. and Masamha B. (2015). Nematicidal effects of Brassica formulations against root knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne javanica*) In Tomatoes (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.). 27. 2015-109.
- [26] Kassie F. and Knasmüller S. (2004) Glucosinolates and the prevention of cancer. In: Remacle C, Reusens B (eds) Functional foods, ageing and degenerative diseases. *Woodhead Publishing Limited CRC, Boca Raton*, pp. 615-7
- [27] Kavitha V., Kandasubramanian B. (2020). Tannins for wastewater treatment. *SN Applied Sciences*. 2. 10.1007/s42452-020-2879-9.
- [28] Khan A., Mohd A., Moh T., Bushra R., Kavita P. and Mansoor A.S. (2017). Phytochemical investigation, nematostatic and nematicidal potential of weeds extract against the root-knot nematode, *Meloidogyne incognita* In Vitro. *Asian Journal of Biological Sciences*, 10: 38-46.

- [29] Klein E., Katan J., Gamliel A. (2011) Combining residues of herb crops with soil heating for control of soilborne pathogens in a controlled laboratory system. *Crop Prot* 30:368–374.
- [30] Koul O. (2008). Essential oils as green pesticides: Potential and Constraints. *Biopesticides International*. 4. 63-84.
- [31] Kruse, M., Strandberg, M. and Strandberg, B. (2000). Ecological effects of allelopathic plants – A Review. National Environmental Research Institute, Silkeborg, Denmark. 66 pp. – NERI Technical Report No. 315.
- [32] Kumar R., Mehta S. and Pathak S.R. (2018). Bioactive constituents of neem. Synthesis of Medicinal Agents from Plants, 75–103. doi:10.1016/b978-0-08-102071-5.00004-0
- [33] Liliane T.N. and Charles M.S. (2020). Factors Affecting Yield of Crops. Factors Affecting Yield of Crops. *Agron. Clim. Chang. Food Secur.* 1–16. doi:10.5772/intechopen.90672
- [34] Lord J., Lazzeri L., Atkinson H. and Urwin P. (2011). Biofumigation for control of pale potato cyst nematodes: Activity of brassica leaf extracts and green manures on *Globodera pallida* in vitro and in soil. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 59(14): 7882-7890. doi: 10.1021/jf200925k
- [35] Lynn, Ohn Mar & Song, Woo-Geun & Shim, Jae-Kyoung & Kim, Jang-Eok & Lee, Kyeong-Yeoll. (2010). Effects of azadirachtin and neem-based formulations for the control of sweetpotato whitefly and root-knot nematode. *Journal of the Korean Society for Applied Biological Chemistry*. 53. 10.3839/jksabc.2010.092.
- [36] Man S, Gao W, Zhang Y, Huang L, Liu C. (2010). Chemical study and medical application of saponins as anti-cancer agents. *Fitoterapia*. 81(7):703-14. doi: 10.1016/j.fitote.2010.06.004. Epub 2010 Jun 13. PMID: 20550961.
- [37] Mendoza N. and Escamilla-Silva E. (2018). Introduction to phytochemicals: secondary metabolites from plants with active principles for pharmacological importance. 10.5772/intechopen.78226.
- [38] Merillon J.M., Ramawat K.G. (2017). Advances in botanical research: Glucosinolates. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland, pp. 473
- [39] Mohammad H.Y., Husain S.I. and Al-Zarari A.J. (1981). Effect of plant extracts of some poisonous plants of Iraq on mortality of the citrus nematode *Tylenchulus semipenetrans*.
- [40] Mojtahedi H., Santo G.S., Hang A.N., Wilson J.H. (1991) Suppression of root-knot nematodes with selected rapeseed cultivars as green manures. *J Nematol* 23:170–174 *Acta Bot. Indica* 9: 198-200.
- [41] Mojtahedi H., Santo G.S., Wilson J.H. and Hang A.N. (1993). Managing *Meloidogyne chitwoodi* on potato with rapeseed as green manure. *Plant Disease* 77(1): 42-46. doi: 10.1094/PD-77-0042

- [42] Mojumder V, Raman R. (1999). Nematicidal efficacy of Neema-SI, an experimental formulation for neem seed treatment against *Heterodera cajani* and *Meloidogyne incognita* in cowpea and chick-pea, respectively. In: Singh R.P and Saxena R.C. (Eds.), Azadiractaindica A. Juss. Science Publ. Inc., Enfield, NH, USA, pp 217-222
- [43] Mpumi N., Mtei K., Machunda R. and Ndakidemi P. (2016). The Toxicity, Persistence and Mode of Actions of Selected Botanical Pesticides in Africa against Insect Pests in Common Beans, *P. vulgaris* : A Review. *American Journal of Plant Sciences*. 07. 138-151. 10.4236/ajps.2016.71015.
- [44] Nasr N., Hajar B. and Miyandeh B.H. (2013). Weeds identification in west of Mazandaran Province Citrus Orchards (Iran). *American Journal of Research Communication*, 1(6):27-38.
- [45] Ngala B.M., Haydock P.P., Woods S. and Back M.A. (2015). Biofumigation with *Brassica juncea*, *Raphanus sativus* and *Eruca sativa* for the management of field populations of the potato cyst nematode *Globodera pallida*. *Pest Management Science* 71:759-769.
- [46] Ntalli N.G., Manconi F., Leonti M., Maxia A., Caboni P. (2011) Aliphatic ketones from *Ruta chalepensis* (Rutaceae) induce paralysis on root knot nematodes. *J Agric Food Chem* 59:7098–7103.
- [47] Oka Y, Nacar S, Putievsky E, Ravid U, Yaniv Z, Spiegel Y (2000) Nematicidal activity of essential oils and their components against the root-knot nematode. *Phytopathology* 90:710–715
- [48] Oliveira R.D., Dhingra O.D., Lima A.O., Jham G.N., Berhow M.A., Holloway R.K. and Vaughn S.F. (2010). Glucosinolate content and nematicidal activity of Brazilian wild mustard tissues against *Meloidogyne incognita* in tomato. *Plant and Soil*, 341, 155-164.
- [49] Oplos C., Eloh K., Spiroudi U.M., Pierluigi C. and Ntalli N. (2018). Nematicidal Weeds, *Solanum nigrum* and *Datura stramonium*. *Journal of nematology*, 50(3), 317–328. <https://doi.org/10.21307/jofnem-2018-017>
- [50] Passos, M., Nogueira, T.S.R., Azevedo, O. et al. Limonoids from the genus *Trichilia* and biological activities: review. *Phytochem Rev* 20, 1055–1086 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11101-020-09737-x>
- [51] Pe´rez M.P., Navas-Corte´s J.A., Pascual-Villalobos M.J., Castillo P. (2003) Nematicidal activity of essential oils and organic amendments from Asteraceae against root-knot nematodes. *Plant Pathol* 52:395–40
- [52] Potter M., Davies K. and Rathjen A. (1998). Suppressive impact of glucosinolates in *Brassica* vegetative tissues on root lesion nematode *Pratylenchus neglectus*. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* 24(1): 67-80. doi: 10.1023/A:1022336812240
- [53] Radwan M.A., Abu-Elamayem M.M., Kassem S.M., El-Maadawy E.K. (2006) Soil amendment with dried weed leaves as non-chemical approach for the management of *Meloidogyne incognita* infecting tomato. *Commun Agric Appl Biol Sci*. 2006;71(4):25-32. PMID: 17612348.



- [54] Rahman L., and Somers, T. (2005). Suppression of root knot nematode (*Meloidogyne javanica*) after incorporation of Indian mustard cv. Nemfix as green manure and seed meal in vineyards. *Australasian Plant Pathology* 34:77-83.
- [55] Rice E.L. (1974). Allelopathy. New York: Academic Press
- [56] Rodrigues A.C., Jham G.N., Oliveira R.D., (2001). Mortality of the soybean cyst nematode in aqueous extracts of neem plant parts. *Nematol.Medit.* 29:173-5.
- [57] Serra B., Rosa E., Iori R., Barillari J., Cardoso A., Abreu C. and Rollin P. (2002). In vitro activity of 2-phenylethyl glucosinolate, and its hydrolysis derivatives on the root-knot nematode *Globodera rostochiensis* (Woll.). *Scientia Horticulturae* 92(1): 75-81. doi: 10.1016/S0304-4238(01)00277-1.
- [58] Wang G., Wang J., Liu W., Nisar F. M., El-Esawi M. A., Wan C. (2021), "Biological activities and chemistry of triterpene saponins from *Medicago* Species: An Update Review", Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine, vol. 2021, 11 pages, . <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/6617916>
- [59] Wato T. (2020). The role of allelopathy in pest management and crop production. *Food Science and Quality Management*, 13–21. doi: 10.7176/FSQM/93-02
- [60] Zasada I and Ferris H. 2003. Sensitivity of *Meloidogyne javanica* and *Tylenchulus semipenetrans* to isothiocyanates in laboratory assays. *Nematology* 93(6): 747-750. doi: 10.1094/PHYTO.2003.93.6.747
- [61] Zahradníková, Helena & Petříková, Kristína. (2013). Nematocid effects of watercress (*Nasturtium officinale* R. Br.). *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis*. 61. 233-236. 10.11118/actaun201361010233
- [62] Luc M., Bridge J. and Sikora RA. (2005). Plant parasitic nematodes in subtropical and tropical agriculture, 2nd eds. CAB International, Wallingford, UK.
- [63] Singh K.S., Paini R.D., Ash. J.G. and Hodda M. (2013). Prioritising plant-parasitic nematode species biosecurity risks using self-organising maps. *Biological Invasions*.
- [64] Decraemer W. and Hunt D.J. (2006). "Structure and classification". In: Perry, R.N. and Moens, M. (eds) *Plant Nematology*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK, pp. 3–32.
- [65] Lambert, K. & Bekal S. (2002). Introduction to plant-parasitic nematodes. *The Plant Health Instructor*. DOI: 10.1094/PHI-I-2002-1218-01
- [66] Melakeberhan H., Jones A.L. and Bird G.W. (2000). Effects of soil pH and *Pratylenchus penetrans* on the pathogenesis of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *syringae* and Mazzard seedling mortality. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology*, 22: 131-137.
- [67] Brown P. and Matthew M. (1997). Control of Soil-Borne Plant Pests Using Glucosinolate-Containing Plants. *Advances in Agronomy - ADVAN AGRON.* 61. 167-231. 10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60664-1.

- [68] Halbrecht J.M. (1996). Allelopathy in the management of plant parasitic nematodes. *J. Nematol.*, 28(1): 8–14.
- [69] Edwards R. and Hannah M. (2014). Focus on weed control. *Plant Physiology*, 166(3), 1087–1089. <http://doi.org/10.1104/pp.114.900496>
- [70] Özer Z., Önen H. Tursun, N. and Uygur F.N. (1999). Türkiye'nin bazı önemli yabancı otları (Tanımları ve kimyasal savaşmaları)/ Some important weeds of Turkey (Definition and Chemical Management).
- [71] Malka S.K. and Cheng Y. (2017). Possible interactions between the biosynthetic pathways of indole glucosinolate and auxin. *Front. Plant Sci.* 8:2131. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2017.02131
- [72] Haramoto E. and Gallandt E. (2004). Brassica cover cropping for weed management: A review. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*. 19. 187 - 198. 10.1079/RAFS200490.
- [73] Ludwig-Müller J., Krishna P. and Forreiter C. (2000). A glucosinolate mutant of *Arabidopsis* is thermosensitive and defective in cytosolic Hsp90 expression after heat stress. *Plant physiology*, 123(3), 949–958. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.123.3.949>
- [74] Akhtar M. and Malik A. (2000). Roles of organic soil amendments and soil organisms in biological control of plant parasitic nematodes: A review. *Bioresource Technology*, 74: 35-47.
- [75] Yamane H., Konno K., Sabelis M., Takabayashi J., Sassa T. and Oikawa H. (2010). Chemical defence and toxins of plants. *Journal of Hospital Infection*. 4. 339-385. 10.1016/B978-008045382-8.00099-X.
- [76] Caboni P., Giorgia S., Nadhem A., Graziella T., Nicola S., Barbara L., Annarosa C. and Alberto A. (2012). *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 60 (30), 7345-7351 DOI: 10.1021/jf302075w
- [77] Chuan B., Liu Z. and Qi-zhi L. (2011). Nematicidal constituents from the essential oil of *Chenopodium ambrosioides* aerial parts. *Journal of Chemistry*. 8. 10.1155/2011/470862.
- [78] Williams L.A., Vasques E., Reid W., Porter R., Kraus W. (2003). Biological activities of an extract from *Cleome viscosa* L. (Capparaceae). *Naturwissenschaften* ;90(10):468-72. doi: 10.1007/s00114-003-0460-1. Epub PMID: 14564407.
- [79] Soheili A. and Saeezadeh A. (2017). Suppression of Brassicaceous tissue on *Meloidogyne javanica* in a rhizosphere. *International Journal of Agriculture and Biology*. 19. 1012-1018. 10.17957/IJAB/15.0400.
- [80] Duschatzky C., Martinez A., Almeida N., Bonivardo S. (2004). Nematicidal activity of the essential oils of several argentina plants against the root-knot nematode. *Journal of Essential Oil Research* 16. 626-628. 10.1080/10412905.2004.9698812.
- [81] Zaidat S.A.E., Mouhouche F., Djaafar B., Nesma A., de Cara M. and Hammache M. (2020). Nematicidal activity of aqueous and organic extracts of local plants against *Meloidogyne incognita* (Kofoid and White) Chitwood in Algeria under laboratory and greenhouse conditions. *Egyptian Journal of Biological Pest Control*. 30. 10.1186/s41938-020-00242-z



© 2020 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).