

1 **Effects of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal strains on the growth of cowpea [*Vigna***
2 ***unguiculata* (L.) Walp.] in the presence of Tilemsi natural phosphate (TNP).**

3 **Abstract**

4 The growth of cowpea [*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.] was evaluated in response to the
5 inoculation of seeds at sowing with an arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus strain (*Glomus*
6 *aggregatum*) in the presence of Tilemsi natural phosphate (TNP). The soil collected from the
7 large cultivation plot of IPR/IFRA in Katibougou served as the substrate after sterilization.
8 Sowing was done with 3 cowpea seeds per pot, and after one week, two plantlets were kept in
9 each pot. The pots were placed on metallic tables in the greenhouse of the Soil Microbiology
10 Unit (LMS) of LaboREM-Biotech for the two months of the experiment.

11 The results showed that, despite a low rate of root colonization by the mycorrhizal fungi (F:
12 80.75%; I: 7.31), the average growth of inoculated plants was more significant compared to
13 non-inoculated plants. The results also indicate that the fungus + natural phosphate treatment
14 significantly increased the average number of inflorescences, aerial, and root biomasses. The
15 treatment with the fungus alone was more significant in terms of the frequency and intensity
16 of mycorrhization. However, as biomass predicts yield, this study suggests that the
17 mycorrhizal biofertilizer provides important benefits to the plant by solubilizing the TNP.
18 Mycorrhizal fungi can thus be used to improve the growth and yield of cowpea in several
19 agricultural perimeters after TNP application.

20 **Keywords** : Mycorrhization, Fertilization, Cowpea.

21
22 **I. INTRODUCTION**

23 The constantly increasing African population forces farmers to make lands more and more
24 productive. Sub-Saharan Africa alone accounts for nearly 200 million people (FAO, 2010).
25 This results in undernourishment combined with limited and degraded land resources (Le
26 Cacheux, 2011; Fitter, 2012). In reality, agricultural production on soils poor in nutrients and
27 deficient in water yields very low returns.

28 Currently, the high productivity of intensive agriculture is greatly dependent on chemical
29 inputs, particularly mineral phosphate fertilizers, which enrich the soils with the necessary
30 nutrients for plant growth (Childers et al, 2011; Cordell et al, 2009; Gilbert, 2009; Roy-

31 Bolduc and Hijri, 2010). Agriculture's dependence on these chemical inputs leads to negative
32 environmental impacts. To avoid a food crisis and achieve sustainable growth, more
33 appropriate and environmentally friendly high-yield technologies have been recommended
34 (Bationo et al., 1998; Scherr and McNeely, 2008; Brussaard et al., 2010). These fall within
35 the framework of efforts undertaken by researchers and extension workers to improve global
36 food security.

37 Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L) Walp) is one of the main legumes cultivated worldwide. Its
38 cultivation area is located between latitude 35°N et 30°S of the equator (Singh et al, 1997). It
39 is an annual plant with an upright or creeping habit. The leaves, as well as the green pods and
40 seeds of cowpea, are a good source of protein, vitamins, and minerals for human and animal
41 consumption (Cissé and Hall, 2003). Furthermore, during the dry season, in some regions of
42 West and Central Africa, the monetary value of stored cowpea haulms becomes very high
43 (Cissé and Hall, 2003). Its cultivation, like that of other legumes, can help restore soil fertility
44 thanks to its high potential for biological nitrogen fixation (Bado, 2002; Graham and Vance,
45 2003).

46 Despite the numerous studies conducted on this species, the average yield per hectare of
47 cowpea cultivation remains relatively unstable. It varies between 50 to 550 kg/ha in Africa
48 and depends on climatic conditions, varieties, cropping systems, and the level of use of inputs
49 and pesticides (Cissé and Hall, 2003). The low yields observed are due, among other things,
50 to low rainfall, soil deficiency in nitrogen and phosphorus, which are essential for the plant's
51 nutrition and production, as well as low soil fertility and extensive agriculture without soil
52 fertility restoration (FAO, 2003 ; Bationo et al., 1998).

53 Mineral phosphate fertilizers are very expensive and inaccessible to farmers because of their
54 low purchasing power. However, several African countries have significant deposits of natural
55 phosphates (NP), a potential, cheaper source of phosphorus for farmers, which could reduce
56 dependence on chemical fertilizers, reduce pollution risks, and thus enhance local fertilizing
57 resources such as Tilemsi natural phosphates in Mali, Matam in Senegal, and Kodjari in
58 Burkina Faso (Koné et al. 2021, 2019, 2018 ; Babana and Antoun, 2006, 2005 ; Dianou and
59 Bâ, 1999 ; Asimi and Kambou, 2000).

60 Nevertheless, the utilization of natural phosphates (NP) by plants is not always easy because
61 of their low solubility (Bagayoko and Coulibaly, 1995). To improve NP solubility, several
62 strategies are used, including inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) (Strullu,

1991 ; Babana and Antoun, 2003). These microorganisms, naturally present in soils, form symbioses with the majority of terrestrial plants, including cultivated ones (Smith and Read, 2008). They play an important role in water and mineral nutrition (Smith and Read, 2008), protecting host plants against pathogens (Sikes et al., 2009) and against drought (Augé et al., 2001). In addition, they improve ecosystem sustainability by enhancing soil structure (Wilson et al., 2009) and reducing nutrient losses that can be caused by runoff (Van der Heijden, 2010).

This study is part of the effort to improve cowpea growth. For this reason, the use of a selected arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus strain, *Glomus aggregatum*, as a biological fertilizer, coupled with mineral fertilization based on Tilemsi natural phosphate, could ensure sustainable management of this soil's fertility and increase the growth of cowpea, an important plant in human diet.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Study Site and Soil Sampling

The study was conducted at the Soil Microbiology Unit (LMS) of LaboREM-Biotech at the Faculty of Sciences and Techniques (FST) of the University of Sciences, Techniques and Technologies of Bamako (USTT-B). The soil was sampled from the 0-30 cm horizon in Katibougou (Koulikoro/Mali), 60 km from Bamako. After sterilization in an autoclave for 20 minutes at 120° C (2 times), it was distributed into 5 kg plastic pots with holes in the bottom, at a rate of 3.75 kg per pot. The characteristics of this soil are mentioned in Table 1.

Table 1: Some physicochemical characteristics of the soil used.

	Clay (%)	Sand (%)	C (%)	N (%)	C/N	pH	Ca (mg)	Mg (mg)	P (ppm)	K (mg)
Value	10.4	57.6	0.2	0.03	3.9	5.8	10	1.8	2.48	9.3

Source: SACKO/AUF 2014 project data

2. Plant Material

The cowpea variety used belongs to the collection of the Rural Economy Institute (IER) of Mali. It is KOROBALLEN, a short-cycle variety (65 to 70 days) cultivated in the 300 to 800mm isohyet.

3. Fungal and Fertilization Materials

90 The inoculum used is the *Glomus aggregatum* (AMF) strain. This inoculum comes from the
91 collection of the Soil Microbiology Unit of the Laboratory of Research in Microbiology and
92 Microbial Biotechnology/LaboREM-Biotech. This mycorrhizal fungus strain was isolated
93 from an *Acacia mangium* plantation and has proven effective in plants and crops (Sacko et al.,
94 2012, 2014). It was multiplied on millet in a culture chamber according to the method
95 described by Bâ et al. (1996).

96 The inoculum consists of a mixture of spores, hyphae, millet root fragments colonized by
97 *Glomus aggregatum* (Ga), and sand. At the time of sowing, 20g of this mixture was added per
98 pot, as well as 20g of TNP 30% (P₂O₅). The TNP used comes from Bourem in the Tilemsi
99 valley in Northern Mali. It is used in its powder form at 30% (P₂O₅), 10% of elements smaller
100 than 40µm and 60% of elements smaller than 60µm. It exhibits a solubility of 0.007% in
101 water.

102 **4. Culture Conditions**

103 In this study, two factors were examined :

- 104 • **Inoculation with 2 modalities :**

- 105 ○ Control (without inoculant).
- 106 ○ Inoculation with *Glomus aggregatum* (Ga) at a rate of 20g of inoculum per pot.

- 107 • **Fertilization with TNP at 2 variations levels:**

- 108 ○ Control (without fertilizer).
- 109 ○ Fertilization with PNT at 20g per pot.

110 The experimental design was a Fischer block with four treatments of 10 repetitions. Three
111 cowpea seeds were sown directly per pot. Thinning occurred on the 10th day after sowing,
112 leaving 2 plants per pot. Watering was done according to demand, and the experiment lasted 2
113 months.

114 **5. Measured Parameters**

115 To evaluate biomasses and mycorrhization parameters, a sampling of five homogeneous
116 plants per treatment was conducted on the 60th day after sowing. The plants were uprooted,
117 and the aerial and root parts of each plant were separated. They were then placed in labeled
118 envelopes, dried in an oven at 70°C for 72 hours, and then weighed. The roots of the plants

119 from each treatment were stained according to the method described by Phillips and Hayman
120 (1970), and the slides were then read using the scale described by Trouvelot *et al.* (1986).

121 **6. Statistical Analyses**

122 The results were analyzed using ANOVA in R2.101 softwares, and the NEWMAN-KEULS
123 test, at a 5% threshold, was used to compare the means.

124 **III. Results**

125 **1. Influence of Endomycorrhizal Inoculation on Growth Parameters**

126 The effect of inoculation on aerial and root biomasses was determined on the 60th day after
127 sowing (DAS). The results obtained show that all inoculated plants allowed an increase in
128 biomasses on the 60th DAS compared to the controls. The results of the variance analysis
129 show significant effects of the *Glomus aggregatum* x Tilemsi Natural Phosphate interaction
130 on the production of cowpea plant biomasses at 2 months (Table 2).

131 **Table 2: Analysis of variance of dry aerial and root biomasses of cowpea plants after 2**
132 **months of culture.**

Treatments	Dry Aerial Biomass	Dry Root Biomass
Ga + TNP	6.04 a	2.10 a
Ga	2.82 c	1.64 b
TNP	4.00 b	1.90 ab
Control	2.68 c	0.70 c

133 **Legend** : Values followed by the same letter are not statistically different from each other at the 5%
134 threshold according to the Tukey Contrasts Test. Ga = *Glomus aggregatum*; TNP = Tilemsi Natural
135 Phosphate.

136 **2. Mycorrhization Parameters of Cowpea Plants**

137 At 60 days of culture, the intensities and frequencies of mycorrhization were determined. For
138 all treatments, the results showed low mycorrhization intensities (less than 10%) with very
139 high frequencies (>70%). The variance analysis between the inoculation and phosphate
140 fertilization factors showed significant effects of the *Glomus aggregatum* x Tilemsi Natural
141 Phosphate interaction on the mycorrhization parameters of cowpea plants (Table 3).

142 **Table 3: Mean values of Mycorrhization Frequencies and Intensities of cowpea plants**
143 **per pot after 2 months of culture.**

Treatments	Mycorrhization Frequency (%)	Mycorrhization Intensity (%)
Ga + TNP	76.0 a	6.68 a
Ga	85.5 b	7.94 b

144

145 **IV. DISCUSSION**

146 This work evaluated the response of cowpea to endomycorrhizal inoculation with *G.*
147 *aggregatum* in the presence of TNP in the greenhouse. The results show that inoculation with
148 *G. aggregatum* and TNP application significantly improves cowpea biomasses in the
149 greenhouse (+81%). Thus, significant effects of the *Glomus aggregatum* x Tilemsi Natural
150 Phosphate interaction on the biomass production of cowpea plants at 2 months were observed.
151 Similar results have been observed on cowpea under semi-controlled conditions by (Haro et
152 *al.*, 2012) and also on other plant species (Bâ et *al.*, 2001 ; Avio et *al.*, 2006 ; Koné et *al.*
153 2021, 2019, 2018).

154 This positive effect of inoculation in the presence of TNP on the growth of cowpea plants is
155 largely due to a better improvement in phosphate nutrition. Indeed, arbuscular mycorrhizal
156 fungi are likely to increase the growth and production of cultivated plants by improving their
157 water and mineral nutrition and protecting them against pathogens (Dommergues et *al.*, 1999;
158 Smith and Read, 2008; Sikes et *al.*, 2009). These results on cowpea are consistent with those
159 of (Smith et *al.*, 2000) and (Avio et *al.*, 2006) on *Medicago sativa*. They also align with those
160 of (Sampath Kumar et *al.*, 2002; Prakash et *al.*, 2004; Boureima et *al.*, 2007) who observed an
161 improvement in sesame biomass in the greenhouse following mycorrhizal inoculation. They
162 also corroborate those of (Sampath Kumar et *al.*, 2002; Koné et *al.* 2021, 2019, 2018), which
163 showed that the association with different genera of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi
164 (*Acaulospora*, *Gigaspora*, *Glomus*, *Sclerocystis*, and *Scutellospora*) allowed for greater
165 biomass at both the root and aerial parts of local varieties of sesame, *maize*, and *sorghum*. Our
166 results are identical to those of (Prakash et *al.*, 2004; Koné et *al.* 2021, 2019, 2018) who
167 obtained good assimilation of natural phosphate and indirectly an intense absorption of
168 nitrogen nutrients with an improvement in the biomass of mycorrhized sesame, sorghum, and
169 maize plants coupled with natural phosphate application in the greenhouse. Indeed, the results
170 allowed for a total biomass in all mycorrhized plants superior to the controls.

171 Despite the lower mycorrhization parameters in inoculated plants, a significant positive effect
172 on cowpea plant growth was observed. Smith et al. (2004) concluded that mycorrhization
173 intensities are not always correlated with plant growth. Similarly, significant effects of the
174 *Glomus aggregatum* x Tilemsi Natural Phosphate interaction on the mycorrhization
175 parameters of cowpea plants were observed. Indeed, the plant's response to mycorrhization
176 depends on the mycorrhizal fungus species (Plenchette et al., 1982; Krishna and Dart, 1984)
177 but also on the host plant species (Plenchette et al., 1983; Krishna et al., 1985).

178 Our results are consistent with those of (Subba Rao et al., 1985; Plenchette et al., 2000; Koné
179 et al. 2018, 2019, 2021), who observed very significant growth stimulations on millet,
180 sorghum, and maize. Also (Sampath Kumar et al., 2002; Koné et al. 2021, 2019, 2018)
181 obtained an infectivity of (97%) with the *Glomus* genus on local varieties of sesame, maize,
182 and sorghum.

183 Inasmuch as the symbiosis improves water and mineral nutrition, the plant will not find it
184 necessary to form this symbiosis if nutrients are available in the environment. Thus, according
185 to (Gianinazzi-Pearson and Gianinazzi, 1986; Plenchette, 1982; Strullu, 1991), this symbiosis
186 will gradually establish and develop with the depletion of nutrients directly accessible to the
187 plant roots in the soil. Corroborating our experimentation, (Dianou and Bâ, 1999; Asimi and
188 Kambou, 2000) with Burkina phosphate, as well as (Babana and Antoun, 2006, 2005; Koné et
189 al. 2021, 2019, 2018) with Tilemsi natural phosphate, observed a positive influence of these
190 natural phosphates associated with mycorrhizal fungi on the growth of cowpea, wheat, maize,
191 and sorghum.

192 **V. CONCLUSION**

193 This work allowed for the study of the greenhouse effect of inoculating a Malian variety of
194 *Vigna unguiculata* with a fungal strain *G. aggregatum* in the presence of Tilemsi natural
195 phosphate. Inoculation with the endomycorrhizal fungus, *Glomus aggregatum*, improves the
196 growth of cowpea cultivated on Katibougou soil thanks to better phosphate nutrition. This
197 suggests a great ability of the introduced symbiont. Hence, this biofertilizer could be
198 recommended to farmers to improve the phosphate nutrition of phosphorus-deficient soils.

199 Thus, in tropical countries where soil acidity is a limiting factor for plant growth, the
200 inoculation of plants with mycorrhizal fungus strains appears as an alternative to the use of
201 chemical fertilizers for sustainable agriculture and long-term preservation of soil fertility.

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