

REVIEW ARTICLE

Nematode disease in ashwagandha (Withania somnifera) and its management: A review

Harshita Gaurav, Divyanshu Yadav and Amritesh C. Shukla

© The Indian Botanical Society 2022.

Abstract Ashwagandha also known as *Withania somnifera* (L.) Dunal, is an annual evergreen shrub belongs to the family Solanaceae. It is an important medicinal plant having great global demand because of its therapeutic and medicinal uses. However, it is widely susceptible to root knot nematode named as *Meloidogyne incognita* (Kofoid & White), which causes heavy loss to the plants and affects 100 billion dollars (approx.) annual economics, worldwide. Further, there are various methods for the nematode management viz., physical, chemical, biological including nematode trapping fungi but each of them is having certain merits and demerits. Therefore, the current review focused on different stages in the life cycle of nematode causing root knot disease of *W. somnifera*, and their common management practices as well as their 'pros and cons'

Introduction

In India, Ashwagandha which is also known as Asgandh in Hindi which has important place in medicinal branches such as Ayurveda and Unani due to this it has great demand. Its scientific name is *W. somnifera* which comes under Solanaceae family. This is an important medicinal as well as cash crops also. Its smell of roots is similar to horse's smell that's why it is known as ashwagandha. If any field of tropical region is not used or it loses its fertility then this crop may help to regain the fertility of field also. It grows well in tropical and sub-tropical areas.

In India, production of roots occurs approx. 2000 tonnes per year while its demand is approx. 7000 tonnes per year (Patra *et al.* 2004). Cultivation of ashwagandha by Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh on Approx. 37000 acres of land. Its production occurs highly in west areas such as Mandsour, Neemuch, Manasa, Javad, Bhanpura of Madhya Pradesh state while little amount of production also occurs in areas such as Nangour of Rajasthan state, west areas of Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana mainly

Amritesh C. Shukla amriteshcshukla@gmail.com

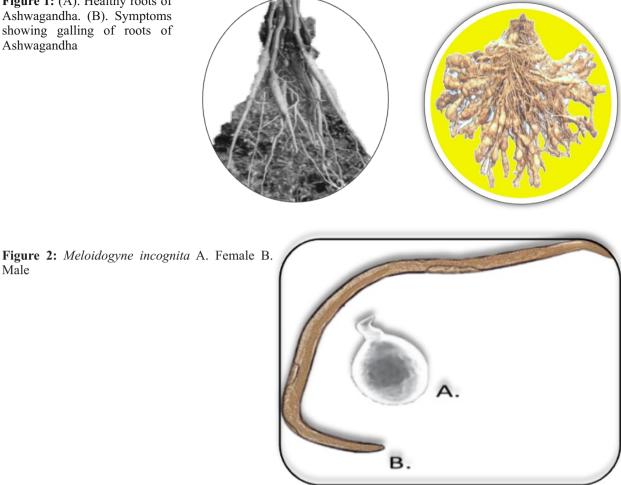
Biocontrol Laboratory, Department of Botany, University of Lucknow, Lucknow- 226007, India.

(Kothari et al. 2003).

Ashwagandha is approx. 120 cm to 150 cm. in height, shrub and annual plant. Its fruit (berry) is similar to pea which is green in colour but turns to red when ripen. Its roots are tap root in nature which is 30cm to 45cm in length and 2-3 cm in width. Its roots are of brown in colour from externally while white colour from internally. Its roots having 0.13-0.31% alkaloids in it (Rao *et al.* 2012, Moharana *et al.* 2020). Its roots and leaves possess large medicinal properties. Its helps in boosting energy, increases fertility, nutritious, treats joint pain, cough and cold, asthma, inflammation.

For cultivating *W. somnifera*, first prepare the field by its ploughing two times with the help of cultivator or plough. It should be grown in starting of August to last of September month. Sowing should be done with mixing of seeds with sand, with the help of broadcasting method. Seedlings may starts sprouting after 10-12 days of sowing. After sowing light rain or little irrigation may need for better growth of plant. Weeding also require for better growth in interval of 30-35 days or whenever it required weeding should be done. Harvesting of plants occurs after 170-190 days or in Februarymarch. Figure 1: (A). Healthy roots of Ashwagandha. (B). Symptoms showing galling of roots of Ashwagandha

Male



As Ashwagandha is a widely preferred medicinal plants and because of this uses of chemicals is not preferred for its better growth. But due to occurrence of some diseases it is our responsibility to protect the quality and quantity of plants. Major losses are caused by root knot nematodes. W. somnifera is highly susceptible to nematode disease that is root knot of W. somnifera which is caused by *M. incognita*. For minimising these losses many managements are also occur.

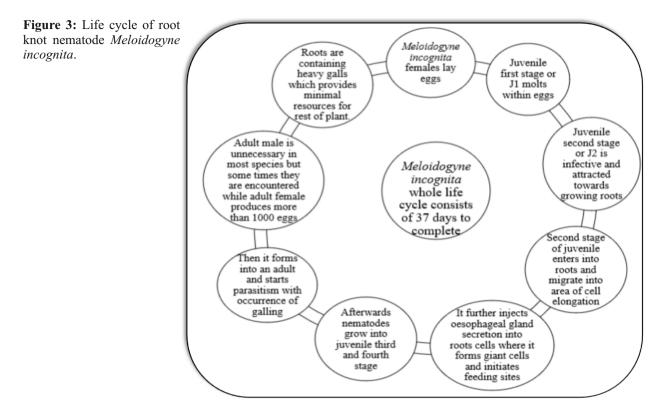
Symptoms of root knot disease

Root are the primary centre for infection. Infestations results in root galling, stunted growth which ultimately leads to decrease in production of Ashwagandha crop (Pandey and Kalra 2003). Infected plant shows symptoms of yellowing, stunting growth, wilting, tubers, bulbs and galling of roots (Bakr et al. 2014).

About causing agent

Meloidogyne incognita also known as southern root knot nematodes are obligate parasites, completely dependent on living plant cells for its nourishment and reproduction (Bakr et al. 2014). These plant parasitic nematodes are polyphagous in nature and widely distributed in tropical and subtropical regions. M. incognita affects around 3000 plants species (Perry and Starr 2009).Infected plants show irregular galls on its roots. It is an example of thermotaxis organism (Pline et al. 1998).

Males and females are morphologically different. Females are pear shaped having no posterior protuberance, round and offset knobs, wavy striae and 15-16 µm long stylet. Males are devoid of offset heads and lateral lips, labial disc is elevated stylet, 23-26 µm long and knobs are rounded to



oval.

Mechanism of infection

Meloidogyne incognita are very minute size multicellular organism. They obtained their nutrition from the roots of various plants (Gheysen and Mitchum, 2011). Their infection cycle consists of three different phases - (1) invasion of host roots, (2) establishment in root tissues and (3) reproduction (Mbaluto *et al.* 2020).

Newly hatch juveniles are infective, they puncture and penetrate the roots at the elongation zone. They start intercellularly downwards journey towards the root tip where they find way into the vascular tissue, then start intercellularly upward movement until they find the zone of differentiation. Juveniles settle in differentiation zone and initiates the formation of feeding sites (Escobar et al. 2015). Juveniles with the help of stylet injects pharyngeal gland secretions into the group of six to eight vascular cells. Infected cells under goes redifferentiation and become multinucleate and hypertrophied. These cells are commonly called as giant cells (Bozbuga et al. 2018). This entire process results in the formation of visible root knot or gall like structures (Mbaluto

et al. 2021).

Losses caused by Meloidogyne incognita

It has been reported that *Meloidogyne* spp. causes annual losses of approx. USD\$ 100 billion worldwide (Brand *et al.* 2010). Losses caused by root knot nematodes depends on several factors *viz*. population density and pathogenicity of nematodes, resistance ability of plants against nematode attacks, climate, water content, fertility of soil and presence of other pests (Coyne *et al.* 2007).

M. incognita are responsible for the qualitative and quantitative losses of ashwagandha crop, which ultimately resulted in stagnant and sometime downfall in its production (Pandey 1998). Qualitative losses include reduction in amino acids concentration (Sikora and Schuster 2000, Sumer Jan and Khan 2002), chlorophyll content (Ferraz *et al.* 1989) organic acids (Freire and Bridge 1985, Pandey *et al.* 2011, Kayani *et al.* 2013, Mukhtar *et al.* 2013, Gupta and Pandey 2015). At severe stages infected plant shows yellowing of leaves, premature drying of leaves, stunted growth, reduction in leaf size, delays flowering, and reduces yield of shoots, leaves and

roots (Kingland 2001, Pandey et al. 2003).

Management

Literature revels that management practices viz. Physical, chemical, and biological are available to control root knot nematodes.

Physical control

Disease cannot be treated fully but it can be minimised with some physical practices. It can be controlled by crop rotation technique with non-host or resistant varieties. Antagonistic crops such as *Crotalaria spectabilis* (Leguminosae) and *Tagetes* species (Asteraceae) also effective against root knot nematodes (Perry and Starr 2009). These methods are less costly. Lack of awareness are there. This process is not much effective and need much more attention.

Chemical methods

Classical methods like pesticides and fungicides are generally recommended for the control of rootknot nematodes. Halogenated aliphatic hydrocarbons (e.g., 1,3-dichloropropene), Oxamyl, Thionazin, mixtures of Methyl Isothiocyanate and Carbofuran or chemical pesticides are widely used to minimise the effects of nematodes and to control their populations (Adegbite and Agbaje 2007). Self-life of these chemical pesticides is much longer.

However, on other hand chemical pesticides are not eco-friendly and their ample uses leads to ecological imbalance and imposes various health hazards (Li *et al.* 2008). These chemicals are highly toxic and causes cancer in humans and animals (Abawi and Widmer 2000). Regular uses of pesticides increase the frequency of mutation above the natural background level in living organisms. Moreover, these chemicals are cost expensive also. These effects have been observed by Pesticide Safety Directorate (Kings Pool, York Y01 7PX) under 'Food and Environment Protection Act, 1985, Part III. Control of Pesticide regulations 1986' in 1992 (Sharma and Pandey 2009).

Biological methods

Excessive uses of chemicals not only affect the

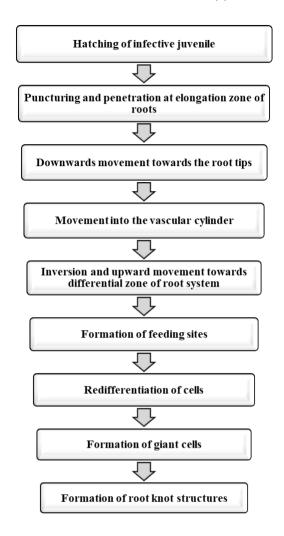


Figure 4: Flowchart showing mechanism of infection of *Meloidogyne incognita*

quality of crop but also leads to serious environmental problems. Therefore, biomanagments methods/bioagents are gaining importance as a part of integrated approach to manage root-knot disease. Biocontrol agents work as plant growth promoting microorganism(Sharon *et al.* 2001) and can be fungi or bacteria. These are self-propagating in nature can remain in soil for long time (Sharma and Pandey 2009).

Neem compounds

Neem is well known for its enormous medicinal properties. Phyto constituent of neem such as nimbidin, azadirachtin, salannin, meliantriol and thionimone works as natural antagonist of rootknot nematodes (Fatema and Ahmad 2005, Pandey and Kalra 2003). These constituents work against nematodes by blocking moulting of larvae, reducing the motility of gut, disrupting mating and reproduction of nematodes (Ramasamy 2008).

Rhizosphere bacteria

Rhizosphere bacteria play crucial role in plant growth and maintains soil fertility(Siddiqui *et al.* 2005, Lee *et al.* 2011). Some of them show antagonistic behaviour towards nematodes(Akhtar *et al.* 2012). Microbes such as *Rhizobium leguminosorum, Mesorhizobium sp., Azorhizobium sp., Bacillus megaterium, Bacillus subtilis, Bradyrhizobium japonicum, Pseudomonas fluorescens and Pseudomonas aeruginosa* work secretes toxins which are nematocidal in nature and leads to mortality of nematodes eggs (Oostendorp and Sikora 1990, Spiegel *et al.* 1991,Aalten *et al.* 1998, Saikia *et al.* 2013). Density of these microbes are quite high in rhizosphere.

These biocontrol agents are eco-friendly and. help in increasing overall productivity and maintains quality of plants. (Ramakrishnan *et al.* 2010). Under favourable conditions these bioagents propagates and remain in soil for a longer time.

Nematode trapping fungi

Nematode trapping fungi are divided into four broad categories based on their attacking strategies against nematodes (Siddiqui and Mahmood 1996, Liu et al., 2009). These includes (1) some uses hyphal traps, (2) Endo parasitic fungi uses their spores, (3) ruptures nematodes eggs and (4) some of them produces toxin which immobilizing nematodes. There are more than 50 species of fungi which are predacious and nemato-phagous in nature. For eg. Glomus intraradices, Paecilomyces lilacinus, Trichoderma spp., Fusarium oxysporum, Arthrobotrys oligospora. These fungi secrete enzyme chitinase which acts against nematode by rupturing nematode egg shells (Gortari and Hours 2008). These fungi associate with each other around rhizosphere and works as excellent source of biological nematicides which helps in reducing severe damages caused by nematodes.

Paecilomyces lilacinus

Paecilomyces lilacinus is an important nematophagous fungus, as it plays significant role in controlling various nematodes species affecting different crop. It can act at different developmental stages of nematodes. Nematode's eggshell provides primary barrier against chemicals and biological compounds. *Paecilomyces* secretes various enzyme such as serine, protease which degrades this barrier (Zareen *et al.* 2001). while others start hyphal branching across the whole nematode egg shell (Khan *et al.* 2006. It also forms rhizosphere and can colonize organic matter in soil also (Ebhad and Patel 2012). It also helps in increasing fresh and dry weight of shoot and root of plant.

Trichoderma spp.

Trichoderma spp. occurs in close association with roots and acts as a plant growth stimulator (Ousley *et al.* 1994). This is mutualistic endophytic fungi which works against plant parasitic nematodes such as root knot nematodes. *Trichoderma* secretes enzymes such as chitinases, proteases and glucanases which plays important role in parasitism and helps in penetrating the eggs and larval cuticle of *M. incognita* (Haran *et al.* 1996). *Trichoderma* produces toxin after proliferating inside organism. (Dos Santos *et al.* 1992). and inactivates the enzymes secreted by pathogens (Ebhad and Patel 2012).

It helps in enhancing root growth and development. It helps to tolerate stress conditions. It helps in solubilizing inorganic nutrients. It also colonizes roots. With the help of this fungus requirement of man-made nitrogen fertilizers decreases (Harman 2000). Similar to *Paecilomyces lilacinus*. It also helps in increasing fresh and dry weight of shoot and root of plant.

Fusarium oxysporum and Ralstonia spp.

It has been reported that non-pathogenic strains of *Fusarium* spp. provide better resistance against nematodes (Sikora *et al.* 2008). These strains are mutualistic endophytic fungi and helps in reducing root galls by decreasing the population of soil nematode. They inhibit the reproduction of nematodes and disrupts there feeding (Mallesh *et al.* 2009).

Arthrobotrys oligospora

It is an example of nematode trapping fungus which is saprophytic in nature. This fungus has erected, hyaline, simple or sometimes branched

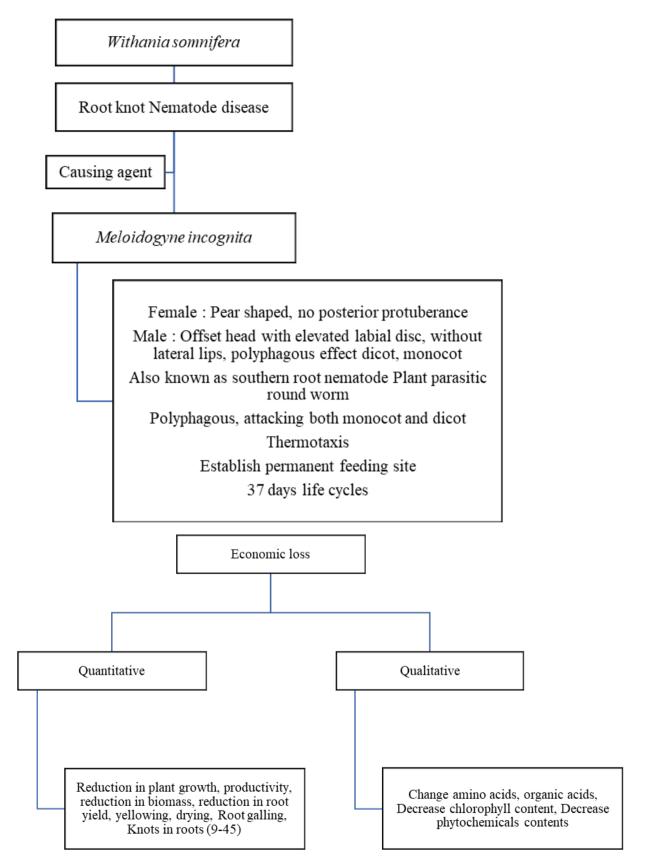


Figure 5: Root knot nematode disease of Withania somnifera: An overview

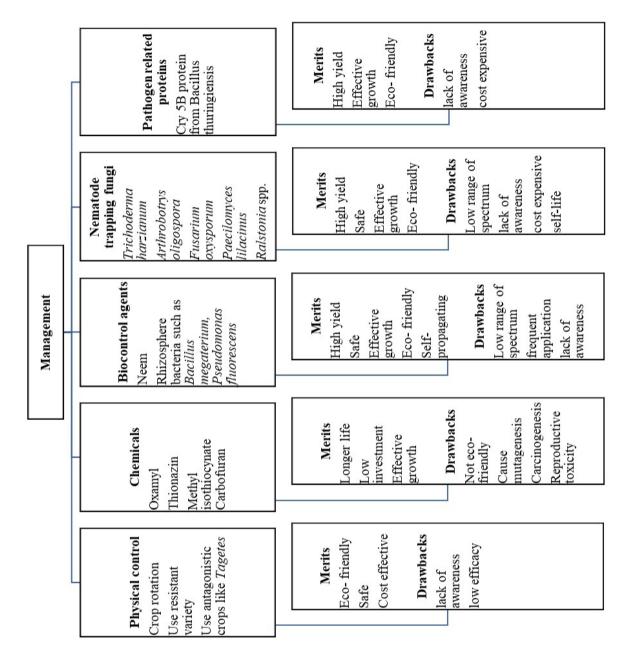


Figure 6: Merit and demerits of different management practices of root knot nematode disease of Withania somnifera

conidiophores. It bears 2-6 conidia sympodial attached on sterigmata mainly in the apical portions. It has hyaline, ovate, sympodial sporous and two celled conidia, apiculate and truncate at base as well as it is composed of large apical and small basal cells (Bakr *et al.* 2014).

When nematodes are present this fungus enters in parasitic stage by forming adhesive 3-D complex networks or single rings and producing chemo attractants which traps nematodes (Yang *et al.* 2011). This process starts in series which includes formation of trap, attraction, adhesion, capturing, penetration, immobilization, digestion and assimilation of nematodes (Barron 1977, Nordbring Hertz 2004). This ability of trapping nematodes makes it as a biocontrol agent. The fungus organs start capturing nematodes starting from its juvenile state and it traps and digest whole nematode within 48-72 hours (Duponnois *et al.*

1995, 1996, Alkader 2008).

Higher the nutrient supply will increase the fungus density which further helps in decreasing the number of nematodes (Jaffee 2002, 2004). Factors like temperature, pH, nematode species and population, nutritional level etc. plays important role in process of trap formation.

Two pathogenic factors are observed in this fungus that is lectin which acts as a carbohydrate binding protein and an extracellular serine protease which acts as degrading component of nematodes and helps in immobilization of nematodes (Tunlid and Jansson 1991,Tunlid *et al.* 1994. Ahman *et al.* 2002, Yang *et al.* 2007). Higher the production of these pathogenic factors will decrease the growth of nematodes (Bedelu *et al.* 1998).

In study it was observed that this fungus traps approx. 74% root knot nematode *M. incognita* (Bakr *et al.* 2014). This fungus helps in increasing root weight, fresh and dry shoot weight (Balogh *et al.* 2003, Singh *et al.* 2011, Xu *et al.* 2011). It works as an environment eco-friendly bio-control agent against nematodes.

This fungus is not produced sufficiently at the commercial level for field purposes. It alone does not prove effective for long term protection. It needs some other combined applied management to show better result against nematodes (Bakr *et al.* 2014). Their effects may decrease at field level due to biotic and abiotic conditions of the surroundings and due to dilution with water also.

Pathogen related proteins

These proteins are produced in plants against pathogens attack. Expression of Cry5B protein in transgenic roots provides excellent resistance against root-knot nematodes (Li *et al.* 2008).

Others

It has been reported that farm yard manure, panch kavya, humic acids are effective against root knot nematodes. With these management, sometimes mixtures of different nematode trapping fungi and mixtures of biocontrol agents are also much effective against this root knot disease of *Withania* (Ramakrishnan *et al.* 2010).

Chitinolytic microbes have the ability to provide resistance against root knot nematode diseases (Ashoub and Amara 2010, El-Sayed *et al.* 2014). These microbes secrete chitin as a main constituent which are effective for managing the diseases and effects nematode density (Tian *et al.* 2000, Hoster *et al.* 2005, Brzezinska *et al.*2014 and Gupta *et al.* 2016).

Enzymes such as polyphenol oxidase (PPO), superoxide dismutase (SOD), peroxidase (PO), phenylalanine ammonia lyase (PAL) confers resistance against nematodes (Singh *et al*.2014).

Plant metabolites of *Azadirachta indica, Ocimum* gratissimum Aegle marmelos, Calotropis procera, Nerium oleander, Clerodendron aculeatum, Bougainvillea spectabilis, Lantana camara, Thevetia peruviana, Cassia fistula, Nicotiana tabacum, Carica papaya, Prosopis cineraria, Cannabis sativa, Jatropha have excellent potential as biocontrol agents of root-knot nematodes (Adegbite 2011). Metabolites of these plants inhibits hatching of nematodes eggs. It has been reported that Aegle marmelos shows maximum nematocidal activity while other plants also control nematode population and helps in treatment of root knot nematodes and they also help in increasing plant growth and development (Trivedi et al. 2015).

Conclusion

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that production of Withania spp are much lower than the need of demand, and the nematode diseases, alone can affects huge economic loss, globally. Further, out of different management practices, physical methods are not much effective as diseases could not be diagnosed fully hence couldn't controlled properly; while chemical methods are more effective and having high self-life but they have several side effects and health hazards issues. However, biological methods are eco-friendly, selfpropagating and also shows better growth in plants but at the commercial level, it is costlier. Hence, in nut cell, it was concluded that biological management is better as it does not cause harms towards environment and provides better results against nematodes but low-cost formulation technology-based researches are required that can be explored as an alternative to the synthetics.

The authors are thankful to the Head,

Department of Botany, University of Lucknow for providing the research facilities as well as to the Council of Science and Technology, Uttar Pradesh project No. CST/AAS/D- 2198; for providing the financial support.

References

Aalten P M, Vitour D, Blanvillain D, Gowen S R and Sutra L 1998 Effect of rhizosphere fluorescent pseudomonads strains on plant parasitic nematodes, Radopholus similis and Meloidogyne spp. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* **27** 357-361.

Abawi G S and Widmer T L 2000 Impact of soil health management practices on soil-borne pathogens, nematodes and root diseases of vegetable crops. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* **15** 37-47.

Adegbite A A 2011 Effects of Some Indigenous plant extracts as inhibitors of egg hatch in root-knot nematode Meloidogyne incognita race 2. *American J. Exp Agri.* **1** 96-100.

Adegbite A A and Agbaje G O 2007 Efficacy of Furadan (Carbofuran) in control of root-knot nematode (Meloidogyne incognita Race 2) in hybrid yam varieties in south–west Nigeria. *World J. Agric. Sci.* **3** 256-262.

Ahman J, Johansson T, Olsson M, Punt P J, Hondel C and Tunlid A 2002 Improving the pathogenicity of a nematode trapping fungus by genetic engineering of a subtilisin with nemato-toxic activity. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **68** 3408-3415.

Akhtar A, Hisamuddin Robab M I 2012 Plant growth promoting Rhizobacteria: an overview. J. Nat. Prod. Plant Resour. 219–31.

Alkader M A 2008 In vitro Studies on Nematode Interactions with their Antagonistic Fungi in the Rhizosphere of Various Plants. PhD thesis, Faculty of Forest and Environmental Sciences, Germany 214.

Ashoub A H and Amara M T 2010 Biocontrol activity of some bacterial genera against rootknot nematode, Meloidogyne incognita. *Journal of American Science* **6** 321–328.

Bakr R A, Mahdy M E and Mousa E M 2014 Biological control of Root-knot nematode Meloidogyne incognita by Arthrobotrys oligospora. *Egyptian Journal of Crop Protection* **9** 1-11.

Balogh O, Tunlid A and Rosén S 2003 Deletion of a lectin gene does not affect the phenotype of the nematode-

trapping fungus Arthrobotrys oligospora. Fungal Genetics and Biology **39** 128-135.

Barron G L 1977 The Nematode Destroying Fungi. Canadian Biological Publications Ltd 140.

Bedelu T, Gessesse A and Abate D 1998 Relation of protease production to nematode degrading ability of two Arthrobotrys spp. *World Journal of Microbiology & Biotechnology* **14**731-734.

Bozbuga R, Lilley C J, Knox J P and Urwin P E 2018 Host-specific signatures of the cell wall changes induced by the plant parasitic nematode, Meloidogyne incognita. *Scientific Reports* **8**.

Brand D, C R Soccol, Sabu A and S Roussos 2010 Production of fungal biological control agent through solid state fermentation: A case study on Paecilomyceslilacinus against rootknot nematodes. Applied Mycology. Int. **22** 31-48.

Brzezinska M S, Jankiewicz U, Burkowska A and Walczak M 2014 Chitinolytic microorganisms and their possible application in environmental protection. Current Microbiology **68** 71–81.

Dos Santos M A, Ferraz S and Muchovej J J 1992 Evaluation of 20 species of fungi from Brazil for biocontrol of Meloidogyne incognita race-3.Nematropica **22** 183-192.

Duponnois R, Mateille T and Gueye M 1995 Biological Characteristics and Effects of Two Strains of Arthrobotrys oligospora from Senegal on Meloidogyne Species Parasitizing Tomato Plants. Biocontrol Science and Technology **5** 517-525.

Duponnom R, Mateille T, Sene V, Sawadogo A and Fargette M 1996 Effect of different west African species and strains of Arthrobotrys nemato-phagous fungi on Meloidogyne species. Entomophaga **41** 475-483.

Ebhad P I and Patel A D 2012 Management of root-knot nematodes (Meloidogyne spp.) in Ashwagandha Using Bio-agents in Pots. *Indian journal of nematology* **42** 132-136.

El-Sayed W S, Akhkha A, El-Naggar M Y and Elbadry M 2014 In vitro antagonistic activity, plant growth promoting traits and phylogenetic affiliation of rhizobacteria associated with wild plants grown in arid soil. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 5.

Escobar C, Barcala M, Cabrera J and Fenoll C 2015 Overview of root-knot nematodes and giant cells. Advances in Botanical Research. **73** 1–32. Fatema S and Ahmad M U 2005 Comparative efficacy of some organic amendments and a nematicide (Furadan-3G) against root-knot on two local varieties of groundnut. *Plt Pathol. J.* **4** 54-57.

Ferraz E C A, Lordello L G E and Gonzaga E 1989 Influence of Meloidogyne incognita (Kofoid & White 1919) Chitwood 1949 on chlorophyll content of black pepper (Piper nigrum L.). Agrotro **1** 57–62.

Freire C O F and Bridge T 1985 Parasitism of eggs, females and juveniles of Meloidogyne incognita by Paecilomyces lilacinus and Verticillium chlamydosporium. Fitopatol. Brasil **10** 577–596.

Gheysen G and Mitchum M G 2011 How nematodes manipulate plant development pathways for infection. Current Opinion in Plant Biology **14**415–421.

Gortari M C and Hours R A 2008 Fungal chitinases and their biological role in the antagonism onto nematode eggs. *A review. Mycol. Progress* **7** 221-238.

Gupta R and Pandey R 2015 Microbial interference ameliorates essential oil yield and diminishes root-knot infestation in sweet basil under field conditions. *Biocontrol Science and Technology* **25** 1165–1179.

Gupta R, Singh A, Srivastava M, Gupta M M and Pandey R 2016 Augmentation of systemic resistance and secondary metabolites by chitinolytic microbes in W. somnifera against Meloidogyne incognita. Biocontrol Science and Technology **26** 1626-1642.

Haran S, Schickler H and Chet I 1996 Molecular mechanisms of lytic enzymes involved in the biocontrol activity of Trichoderma harzianum. Microbiol. **142** 2321-2331.

Harman G E 2000 The myths and dogmas of biocontrol: changes in perceptions derived from research on Trichoderma harzianum strains T-22. Plt Disease **84** 377-393.

Hoster F, Schmitz J E and Dpiel R 2005 Enrichment of chitinolytic microorganisms: Isolation and characterization of a chitinase exhibiting antifungal activity against phytopathogenic fungi from a novel Streptomyces strain. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology **66** 434–442.

Jaffee B A 2002 Soil cages for studying how organic amendments affect nematode-trapping fungi. Applied Soil Ecology **21** 1–9.

Jaffee B A 2004 Do organic amendments enhance the nematode-trapping fungi Dactylellina haptotyla and

Arthrobotrys oligospora? Journal of Nematology 36 267–275.

Kayani M Z, Mukhtar T, Hussain M A and Ul-Haque M I 2013 Infestation assessment of root-knot nematodes (Meloidogyne spp.) associated with cucumber in the Pathovar region of Pakistan. Crop Protection **47** 49–54.

Khan A, Williams K L and Nevalainen H K M 2006 Infection of plant parasitic nematodes by Paecilomyces lilacinus and Monacrosporium. *Biol. Control* **51** 659-678.

Kingland G C 2001 Diseases and insects of fruit and vegetable crops. Clemson Press, Victoria, Seychelles

Kothari S K, Singh C P, Kumar Y V and Singh K 2003 Morphology, yield and quality of Ashwagandha (Withania somnifera L. Dunal) roots and its cultivation economics as influenced by tillage depth and plant population density. *J. Hortic. Sci. Biotech.* **78** 422–425.

Lee J H, Kyung C M, Sug J K, Kang B R, Seon K I and Kim Y C 2011 Nematocidal activity of a non-pathogenic biocontrol bacterium, Pseudomonas chlororaphis strain O6. *Curr: Microbiol.* **62** 746–751.

Li X Q, Tan A, Voegtline M, Bekele S, Chen C S and Aroian R V 2008 Expression of Cry5B protein from Bacillus thuringiensis in plant roots confers resistance to root-knot nematode. *Biol. Control* **47** 97-102.

Lily T, Soumana D and Trivedi P C 2015 Sustainable Use of Medicinal Plants to Control Meloidogyne incognita-A Strategy to Fight Root Knot Disease of Crops in Rajasthan, India. *World Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences* **4** 818-829.

Mallesh S B, Lingaraju S, Byadgi A S, Hegde Y R, Mokashi A N and Krishnaraj P U 2009 Bio efficacy of rhizobacteria on root knot/wilt complex in coleus and ashwagandha. *Karnataka Journal of Agricultural Sciences* **22** 1116-1120.

Mbaluto C M, Ahmad E M, Fu M, Martínez-Medina A and Van Dam N M 2020 The impact of Spodoptera exigua herbivory on Meloidogyne incognita induced root responses depends on the nematodes' life cycle stages. AoB Plants. 12.

Mbaluto C M, Vergara F, Van Dam N M and Martínez-Medina A 2021 Root infection by the nematode Meloidogyne incognita modulates leaf antiherbivore defences and plant resistance to Spodoptera exigua. *Journal of Experimental Botany.* **72** 7909–7926.

Mukhtar T, Kayani M Z and Hussain M A 2013

Nordbring-Hertz B 2004 Morphogenesis in the nematode-trapping fungus Arthrobotrys oligospora-an extensive plasticity of infection structures. *Mycologist* **18** 125–133.

Oostendorp M and Sikora R A 1990 In vitro interrelationships between rhizosphere bacteria and Heterodera schachtii. *Revue de Nematologie* **13** 269 - 274.

Ousley M A, Lynch J M and Whipps J M 1994 Potential of Trichoderma spp. as consistent plant growth stimulators. *Biol. and Fert. of Soils* **17** 85-90.

Pandey R 1998. Nematode pests of medicinal and aromatic plants and their management. In: Nematode Diseases in Plants. CBS Publishers and Distributors 177-216.

Pandey R and Kalra A 2003 Root knot disease of ashwagandha Withania somnifera and its eco-friendly cost-effective management. *J. Mycol. Pl. Pathol.* **33** 240-245.

Pandey R, Kalra A, Gupta M L and Sharma P 2003. *Phyto-nematodes: Major pest of MAPs*. In Proceedings of first National Interactive meet on medicinal and Aromatic Plants (Edited by Mathur *et al.* CIMAP, Lucknow, India 188–197.

Pandey R, Mishra A K, Tiwari S and Kalra A 2011 Nematode inhibiting organic materials and a strain of Trichoderma harzianum effectively manages Meloidogyne incognita in Withania somnifera fields. *Biocontrol Science and Technology* **21** 1495–1499.

Patra D D, Singh K and Misra H O 2004. Agrotechnologies of Ashwagandha (Withania somnifera). *J. Med. Arom. Plant Sci.* **26** 332–335.

Perry R N, Moens and Maurice 2013 Plant Nematology. CABI International.

Perry R N, Starr J L 2009 Root-Knot Nematodes. London: CABI International.

Pline, Diez and Dusenbery 1988 Extremely sensitive thermotaxis of the nematode Meloidogyne incognita. *J. Nematology* **20** 605-608.

Ramakrishnan S, Umamaheswari R, Senthilkumar T and Samuthiravalli M 2010 Management of root-knot nematode (Meloidogyne incognita (Kofoid and White) Chitwood) in Ashwagandha (Withania somnifera J. Indian bot. Soc. Vol. 102 (1) 2022: 51

Dunal.) and senna (Cassia angustifolia Vahl.) using nonchemicals. *Journal of Applied Horticulture* **12** 62-64.

Saikia S K, Tiwari S and Pandey R 2013 Rhizospheric biological weapons for growth enhancement and Meloidogyne incognita management in Withania somnifera cv. Poshita Biological Control **65** 225–234.

Sharma P and Pandey R 2009 Biological control of rootknot nematode; Meloidogyne incognita in the medicinal plant; Withania somnifera and the effect of biocontrol agents on plant growth. *African Journal of Agricultural Research.* **4** 564-567.

Sharon E, Bar-Eyal M, Chet I, Herrera-Estrella A, Kleifeld O and Spiegel Y 2001 Biological control of root knot nematode Meloidogyne javanica by Trichoderma harzianum. *Phyto pathol.* **91** 687-693.

Siddiqui I A., Haas D and Heeb S 2005 Extracellular protease of Pseudomonas fluorescens CHA0, a biocontrol factor with activity against the root-knot nematode Meloidogyne incognita. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 71, 5646–5649.

Siddiqui Z A and Mahmood I 1996 Biological control of plant parasitic nematodes by fungi: a review. Bioresource Technolog. 58 229-239.

Sikora R A 2008 Mutualistic endophytic fungi and in planta suppressiveness to plant parasitic nematodes. *Biol. Control* **46** 15-23.

Singh A, Jain A, Sarma B K, Upadhyay R S and Singh H B 2014 Rhizosphere competent microbial consortium mediates rapid changes in phenolic profiles in chickpea during Sclerotium rolfsii infection. *Microbiological Research* **169** 353–360.

Singh R S, Bhari R and Kaur H P 2011 Current trends of lectins from Micro fungi. Critical Reviews in Biotechnology **31** 193-210.

Spiegel A, Chon E, Galper S, Sharon E and Chet I 1991 Evaluation of a newly isolated bacterium. Pseudomonas chitinolytica for controlling the root- knot nematode, Meloidogyne javanica. *Bio. Sci. Tech.* **2** 115-125.

Sumer Jan and Khan T A 2002 Interaction effect of Fusarium solani, Rotylenchulus reniformis and Meloidogyne incognita on tomato. *Indian J. Nematol.* **32** 135-138.

Tian H, Riggs R D and Crippen D L 2000 Control of soybean cyst nematode by chitinolytic bacteria with chitin substrate. *Journal of Nematology* 32 370.

Tunlid A and Jansson S 1991 Proteases and their involvement in the infection and immobilization of nematodes by the Nemato-phagous fungus Arthrobotrys oligospora. *Applied and Environ. Microbiol.* **57** 2868-2872.

Tunlid A, Rosen S, Ek B and Rask L 1994 Purification and characterization of an extracellular serine protease from the nematode trapping fungus Arthrobotrys oligospora. *Microbiology* **140** 1687-695.

Xu LL, Lai YL and Liu X Z 2011 Effects of abscisic acid and nitric oxide on trap formation and trapping of nematodes by the fungus Drechslerella stenobrocha AS6.1. *Fungal Biology* **115** 97-101.

Yang J, Tian B, Liang L and Zhang K Q 2007 Extracellular enzymes and the pathogenesis of nemato-phagous fungi. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol* **75** 21–31.

Yang J, Wang L, Ji X, Feng Y, Li X, Zou C, Xu J, Ren Y, Mi Q, Wu J, Liu S, Liu Y, Huang X, Wang H, Niu X, Li J, Liang L, Luo Y, Ji K, Zhou W, Yu Z, Li G, Liu Y, Li L, Qiao M, Lu Feng L and Zhang K Q 2011 Genomic and Proteomic Analyses of the Fungus Arthrobotrys oligospora Provide Insights into Nematode-Trap Formation. PLoS Pathogens 7.

Zareen A, Khan N J and Zaki M J 2001 Biological control of Meloidogyne javanica (Treub) Chitwood, root knot nematode of okra (Abelmoschus esculentus L.) Moench. *Pak. J Biol. Sci.* **4** 990-994.