ORIGINAL ARTICLE



Field evaluation of the impact of Sahlbergella singularis Haglund infestations on the productivity of different Theobroma cacao L. genotypes in the Southern Cameroon

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⁷ Received: 11 January 2019 / Accepted: 22 March 2019
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⁹ Abstract

Mirids (Sahbergella singularis and/or Distantiella theobroma) are the major pests of cacao farms in Africa. Cocoa production losses due to these species have been widely documented in West Africa. However, their impact on cocoa production is unknown in Central Africa, especially in Cameroon. Moreover, no data are available on the threshold level of fruits tolerance to mirid attacks. For these reasons, we assessed the effect of S. singularis on the productivity of ten cacao genotypes as well as the threshold number of the lethal feeding punctures to fruits under a randomized experimental design. Observations were made on three categories of fruits (cherelle, immature and mature/ripe). A control trial was also set up per batch. 16 The overall results showed that 68.0% and 0.4% of fruits aborted, respectively, in mirid and control trials. The percentages 17 of aborted fruits were significantly (p < 5%) different between cacao genotypes and ranged from 20 to 100%. BonferroniAq 18 test revealed six homogenous groups for cacao genotypes susceptibility to mirid attacks; SNK52 proved to be most toler-19 ant/resistant, whereas two genotypes (UPA138 and SNK67) revealed more sensitive. In contrast, six genotypes (SNK07, 20 IMC60×SNK417, T60/887×PA7, T79/501×SNK479, UPA143×ICS84, UPA143×NA33) displayed similar sensitivity to mirid attacks. ANOVA showed that the threshold tolerance of tested fruits, expressed by the mean numbers of lethal feed-AQ2 22 ing punctures, to S. singularis attacks was comparable between cacao genotypes. This new quantitative database improves 23 our knowledge on the (i) threshold tolerance of fruits to S. singularis attacks and (ii) economic impact of this pest on cocoa AQ3 production in Cameroon.

²⁵ Keywords Cacao genotypes · Threshold tolerance · Productivity · Effect · Infestations · S. singularis

²⁶ Introduction

Mirids, especially Sahlbergella singularis Haglund, 1895
 and Distantiella theobroma (Distant, 1909), are known as
 the major pests of cacao trees in cocoa growing areas in West

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Africa (Entwistle 1972; Lavabre 1970, 1977; Babin 2018). These piercing-sucking species feed on all aerial parts of the cacao tree and cause cankers on the trunk and branches, and black spots on the fruits. During feeding, these insects inject their saliva into the wound and generally enhance histolytic effects (Williams 1953); this leads to necrosis of affected tissues where opportunistic fungi such as *Lasiodiplodia* spp., *Albonectria* spp. and *Fusarium* spp. are currently found (Adu-Acheampong et al. 2012, 2014; Anikwe and Otuonye 2015; Voula et al. 2018). Crowdy (1947), Adu-Acheampong et al. (2014), Anikwe and Otuonye (2015) and Voula et al. (2018) reported that the synergic actions of mirids and opportunistic fungi end up in some cases to the death of trees, commonly known as cacao dieback.

In nature, about 1500 different species of insect pests infect cacao trees, but less than 2% are of real economic importance (Entwistle 1972; Wood and Lass 1989). Species

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and particularly those of the Miridae family were reported 48 to be more economically prejudicial to cacao farming com-49 pared to other species including those of other families of 50 Hemiptera order, such as Pentatomidae, Coreoidae and Psyllidae commonly encountered in cacao farms (Entwistle 1972; Lavabre 1970, 1977; Anikwe et al. 2009; Yede 2016; Babin 2018). Damages due to mirids on cacao trees are clearly known (Entwistle 1972; Adu-Acheampong et al. 2014; Anikwe et al. 2009; Yede et al. 2012; Babin 2018). For example, S. singularis and/or D. theobroma cause damages on pods characterized by aggregated black spots on the surface around the peduncle basis, part in contact with the bark of the trunk or branches (Entwistle 1972; Anikwe et al. 2009; Yede et al. 2012; Mahob et al. 2015; Yede 2016). In contrast, *Helopeltis* (Afropeltis) spp. and other true bugs (e.g., Pentatomidae and/or Coreoidae) usually engendered black spots almost uniformly distributed over the entire surface of the pod (Yede et al. 2012) without any idea on the number of lethal feeding punctures for aborted/death fruits. In West Africa, the impact of mirids, especially S. singularis and D. theobroma, on cocoa production without any control measures has been ranged from 30 to 70% losses (Entwistle 1972; Idowu 1989; Ojelade et al. 2005; Anikwe 2009). To develop sound integrated pest management (IPM) programs against mirids, such as the recommendations on the timing of insecticide application (or other fight methods) on cacao farming, several studies on the biology and ecology of these two species have been conducted in vivo and in vitro in both West and Central Africa (Williams 1954; Lotodé 1969; Bruneau De Miré 1977; Lavabre et al. 1963; Lavabre 1970, 1977; Nwana and Youdeowei 1978; Babin et al. 2008, 2010, 2011; Anikwe et al. 2010; Bisseleua et al. 2011; Mahob et al. 2015). According to these authors investigations, the economic threshold level for control measures is based on mirid densities per cacao tree, 0.7 individual Cameroon/Central Africa (Decazy and Essono 1979) versus 0.6 individual Ghana/West Africa (Padi and Owusu 1998). However, no 84 quantitative data are available on cacao genotypes threshold 85 tolerance to mirid attacks, assessed in terms of the number 86 of lethal feeding punctures on fruits. Yet, these data could 87 complement those based on mirid densities per cacao and 88 then optimize the IPM against mirids, especially S. singu-89 *laris*, as reported in the literature for other insect pests of 90 plants such as the Tobacco budworm, Heliothis virescens 91 (Fabricius, 1777), and the Corn earworm, Helicoverpa zea 92 (Boddie, 1850), both insect pests of cotton (Greene, 2017). 93 Therefore, a thorough evaluation of the effect of mirids on 94 the productivity of different cacao genotypes remains neces-95 sary with the ultimate goal to improve the varietal breeding 96 program against these pests, on the one hand, and to rec-97 ommend the timing period for phytosanitary interventions, 98 99 based on the phenology of fruits, on the second hand. We

belonging to Hemiptera order, commonly called true bugs,

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hypothesized that fruits threshold tolerance to mirid attacks 100 varied between cacao genotypes. The objective of this work 101 was to provide quantitative database on the threshold toler-102 ance of cacao genotypes to S. singularis attacks as well as to 103 determine the responsibility of this pest on cocoa production 104 losses. AO4 5

Material and methods

Study site and plot description

This work was carried out from April 2017 to January 2018, 108 within four cacao blocks (54 m \times 24 m each) located at the 109 Research Station of Nkoemvone (2°40'N and 11°20'E; 110 630 m above sea level) (Fig. 1) in the semideciduous rain 111 forest of Southern Cameroon. Cultural practices, vegeta-112 tional composition, climatic and soil data of this site are 113 already described by Mahob et al. (2011). 114

Plots for experiments were the Fisher's completely ran-115 domized blocks and contained fourteen different cacao 116 varieties: (i) six clones (SNK7, SNK52, SNK67, SNK181, 117 T79/501, UPA138) and eight hybrids (IMC60×SNK417, 118 T79/501 × SNK479, T79/501 × SNK41, UPA143 × SNK64, 119 IMC60 × SNK417, T60/887 × PA7, UPA143 × ICS84, 120 UPA143 \times NA3), (ii) herbaceous species were *Chromo*-121 laena odorata King & Robinson, 1970, Crotalaria sp. 122 (Gramineae), Pennisetum purpureum Schumach, 1827 123 (Poaceae), Mimosa invisa Martius ex Colla, 1834 and 124 Mimosa pudica Linné, 1753 (Mimosaceae). Shading was 125 mainly provided by Cassia spectabilis DC. (Fabaceae), 126 Inga edulis (Vellozo) Martius (Fabaceae) and Maesopsis 127 sp. (Rhamnaceae). From one to another tree in the row and/ 128 or between adjacent rows, cacao was spaced by 3 m. Experi-129 mental plots were selected on the basis of their well-known 130 cacao varieties, carrying all fruits stages and without chemi-131 cal treatments for at least 4 years before the beginning of this 132 work to avoid any bias in the data collection. 133

Experimental design

The experimental design was completely randomized 135 with five replications for each trial. Fruits or pods of ten 136 cacao clones and/or hybrids (SNK7, SNK52, SNK67, 137 T79/501, UPA138, IMC60×SNK417, T60/887×PA7, 138 T79/501 × SNK479, UPA143 × ICS84, UPA143 × NA33) 139 have been infested by mirids (one individual per pod) on 140 the basis of their high productivity during the data collection 141 period. The infested fruits previously showed good physio-142 logical growth and were free from pest attacks. Three differ-143 ent categories or growth stages of fruits (cherelle, immature 144 and mature/ripe) were considered in this study according to 145 Niemenak et al. (2010) and Mahob et al. (2018). According 146

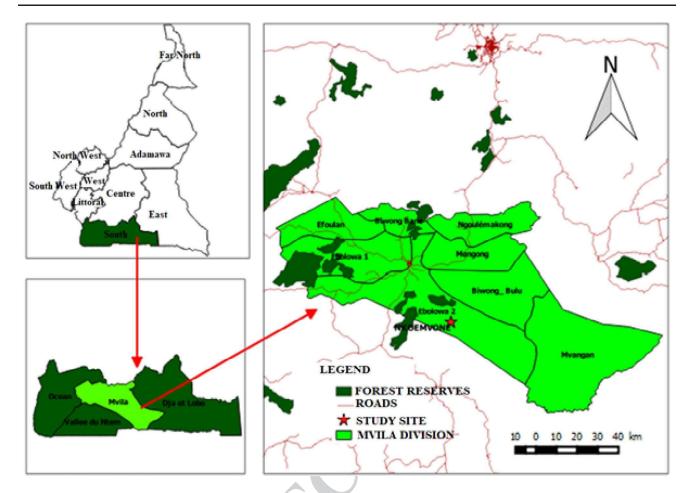


Fig. 1 Geographic localization of the study site

to Niemenak et al. (2010) and our observations, the internal 147 cavity of the cherelles (category 1) does not have beans; 148 in addition, the thickness of its husk measures 7 to 10 mm 149 whereas immature (category 2) and mature/ripe fruits (cat-150 egory 3) have, respectively, the beans being or fully physi-151 ologically and/or phenologically formed; the thickness of 152 their husk measures 9-15 mm for category 2 and 12-23 mm 153 for category 3. A total of 500 specimens for each category of 154 fruits were used for experiments: 50 specimens per selected 155 cacao genotype and 10 specimens per replication. A control 156 containing fruits under sleeve without mirids was also set 157 up on the same selected tree per batch. Larvae (stages 4, 5) 158 and imagos of mirids obtained from field collection and/ 159 or rearing house of IRAD were used for fruits infestation, 160 after having spent one fasting day in the laboratory (Anikwe 161 and Otuonye 2015). Young larvae (stages 1, 2 and 3) were 162 disqualified from this study due to their defenselessness 163 for field experiments. Fruits selected for trials were previ-164 ously confined in cloth sleeves $(20 \times 10 \text{ cm for cherelles})$, 165 30×20 cm for immature and 40×30 cm for mature/ripe 166 fruits) to avoid any exogenous bias; then, each selected fruit 167

in muslin cloth and sleeve was monitored during 15 days 168 post-infestation (Fig. 2).

Evaluation of aborted fruits

The evaluation of aborted fruits was carried out during 171 15 days for cherelles and immature fruits and 30 days for 172 mature/ripe ones because of their differential susceptibil-173 ity to mirid attacks (Yede et al. 2012) and the phenologic 174 cycle of fruits (Niemenak et al. 2010). The daily number of 175 aborted fruits per category, genotype and trial was counted. 176 A final score recorded was the cumulative number of aborted 177 fruits for each category and genotype. 178

Evaluation of the threshold number of lethal feeding punctures of mirids to fruits

The threshold number of lethal feeding punctures of mirids181toward infested fruits has been assessed by counting the182number of black spots on the surface of the husk of each183aborted fruits per genotype and category. Mirid damages184

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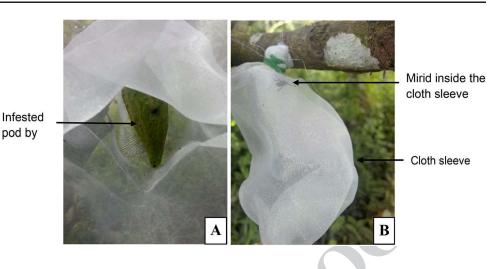
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Fig. 2 Protocol of fruits infestation by mirid: a partial opening of the cloth sleeve protecting the infested fruit, b complete closure of the cloth sleeve with infested fruit



were characterized by the existence of the circular black 185 186 spots on the fruits/pods (Yede et al. 2012).

Data analysis 187

Cumulative percentages of aborted fruits per category and 188 cocoa variety as well as numbers for lethal feeding punc-189 tures of fruits due to mirids attacks were computed for each 190 trial; ten box plots were made for the both studied param-191 eters using STATISTICA software (Statistica 2011, Ver-192 sion 10). After ranking relative frequencies (percentages), 193 median values of aborted specimens were separated by 194 the Kruskal-Wallis test, whereas means of lethal feeding 195 punctures, after Poisson's correction of counting data, by 196 ANOVA through the general linear model (GLM) procedure 197 using once again STATISTICA software. When the statisti-198 199 cal significant differences were found between the multiple comparisons of percentages and/or means, Bonferroni's and 200 Tukey's post hoc tests were used for pairwise comparisons 201 to determine which were significantly different. Data of 202 immature and mature/ripe fruits for both treatments (mirid 203 infestations and control) as well as those of cherelles for the 204 control trial were excluded from the statistical analysis due 205 to the fact that no or few aborted fruits were collected. The 206 differences were appreciated at the 5% confidence level. 207

Results 208

Overall 209

From our investigations, 342 aborted cherelles were 210 recorded: 340 (68.0% out of the 500 infested by mirids) and 211 2 (0.4% out of the 500 used as control). No aborted pod has 212 been found in both categories 2 and 3 of infested fruits and 213 214 control. Mirid damages in categories 2 and 3 of fruits were

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black spots on the surface of the fruits	' husk.	216

superficial and characterized by the presence of the circular

Assessment of the percentages of aborted cherelles 217 per cacao genotype 218

Significant difference (H=38.16; p < 0.0001) was obtained 219 between the tested cacao genotypes with regard to the per-220 centages of aborted cherelles (Table 1), and values ranged 221 from 10% for SNK52 to 100% for SNK67 and UPA138, 222 respectively (Fig. 3). The sensitivity/tolerance/resistance of 223 the cacao genotypes tested can be classified into four groups, 224 with a significant higher sensitivity of clones SNK67 and 225 UPA138 and resistance/tolerance of clone SNK52 (Table 1). 226 The other cacao genotypes showed an intermediary sensitiv-227 ity/tolerance/resistance to mirid attacks (Table 1). 228

Assessment of the threshold number of lethal feeding punctures of cherelles due to mirid infestations

The threshold number (mean \pm SE) of the lethal feeding 232 punctures of cherelles to mirid attacks did not significantly 233 $(F_{(9324)} = 1.11; p = 0.36)$ vary between the cacao genotypes 234 tested (Table 2); box plots values ranged from 30 punctures 235 for clone T79/501 to 72 for hybrid UPA143×SNK64 (Fig. 4). 236

Discussion

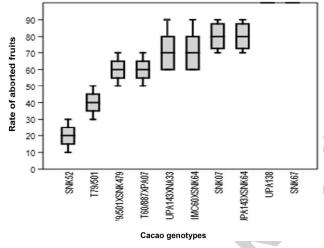
From our investigations, the sensitivity/tolerance of cherelles 238 of different cacao genotypes to mirid infestations with regard to 239 the threshold number of feeding lethal punctures, ranging from 240 30 to 72 according to cacao varieties, did not show any signifi-241 cant difference between the tested specimens. This result rises, 242 on the one hand, the fact that all cacao varieties tested in this 243 study are susceptible to mirid attacks; it also supports assertion 244

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Table 1 Comparison of the percentages of aborting cherelles in function of cacao genotype, after mirid infestations

Cocoa genotype	Number of		(%) of aborting ch	Average values grouping		
	infested cherelles (n _i)	Min	Average \pm SE	Max	according to Bonferroni test	
SNK52	50	10	20 ± 3.2	30	А	
T 79/501	50	30	40 ± 3.2	50	В	
T79/501×SNK 479	50	50	60 ± 3.2	70	С	
T 60/887×PA 7	50	50	60 ± 3.2	70	С	
UPA 143/NA 33	50	60	70 ± 4.5	80	CD	
IMC 60/SNK 64	50	60	70 ± 5.5	80	CD	
UPA 143×SNK 64	50	70	80 ± 3.5	90	D	
SNK07	50	70	80 ± 3.5	90	D	
UPA138	50	100	100 ± 0.0	100	E	
SNK 67	50	100	100 ± 0.0	100	Е	

Average values with the same letters in the most right column are not significantly different at p < 5%, according to Bonferroni test. SE: Standard error. Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum



that no cacao genotype up to date substantially resists to insect 245 246 pests in the nature contrary to some cacao diseases such as the witches' broom disease caused by Moniliophthora perniciosa 247 in Brazil, for which varietal solutions have been found (Babin 248 2018). On the other hand, it recommends the integrated pest 249 management (IPM) programs through the researches focused 250 on the timing period for cacao protection against mirids, to 251 establish the phytosanitory treatments (by chemicals, for exam-252 ple) of cacao trees carrying cherelles with less than 30 black 253 spots to avoid serious cacao production losses, therefore opti-254 mizing yields in cacao farms and/or incomes of farmers. 255

Our results obtained in Southern Cameroon, averagely 68% AQ5of losses of cherelles, first clearly show that mirids, especially 257 S. singularis, are economically prejudicial to cacaoculture and 258 secondly agree with the finding in West Africa by Entwistle 259 (1972), Idowu (1989), Ojelade et al. (2005) and Anikwe 260 et al. (2009), who showed that in case of the massive fruit 261

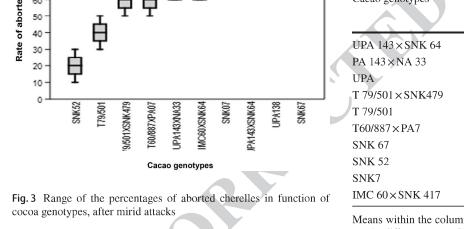
Table 2 Comparison of the numbers (mean \pm SE) of the lethal feeding punctures of fruits due to mirid attacks, in function of cacao genotypes; the minimum and maximum values of studied parameter are also given

Cacao genotypes	Numbers of lethal feeding punctures				
	Min	Max	Mean ± SE		
UPA 143×SNK 64	31	72	51.5 ± 2.5^{a}		
PA 143×NA 33	39	58	48.5 ± 1.4^{a}		
UPA	45	62	$53.5 \pm 1.7^{\mathrm{a}}$		
T 79/501×SNK479	39	65	52.0 ± 2.2^{a}		
T 79/501	30	57	43.5 ± 3.2^{a}		
T60/887×PA7	34	65	49.5 ± 2.2^{a}		
SNK 67	38	63	50.5 ± 2.7^{a}		
SNK 52	39	57	48.0 ± 3.2^{a}		
SNK7	37	63	50.0 ± 2.0^{a}		
IMC 60×SNK 417	32	63	47.5 ± 2.4^{a}		

Means within the column followed by the same letters are not significantly different at p < 5%, according to Tukey test. Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum

infestations and the absence of chemical treatments, mirids 262 cause production losses from 30 to 70% in cacao farming. 263 However, in terms of the percentages of fruits lost, our results 264 numerically diverge from those obtained by the above authors. 265 Indeed, it is known that cacao genotypes through antixeno-266 sis mechanisms (N'Guessan et al. 2010) and others intrinsic 267 parameters or characteristics poorly understood such as those 268 which involve primary/secondary metabolites and/or genetics, 269 differently tolerate/resist to toxic saliva (with their histolytic 270 effects) of mirids injected through their rostrum (stylet) during 271 their feeding activity on the host plant. This also justifies the 272 different percentages of production losses observed and high-273 lights the divergence in the susceptibility/tolerance/resistance 274 of cacao genotypes to brown cocoa mirid infestations (Sounigo 275 et al. 2003; Anikwe et al. 2009; N'Guessan et al. 2008, 2010). 276

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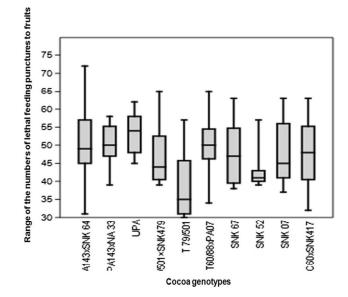


Fig. 4 Range of the numbers of lethal feeding punctures of fruits (cherelles) in function of the cocoa genotypes, after mirid infestations

Data for fruits mortality due to black pods disease (12 to 277 100% in case of the absence of chemical treatments) obtained 278 by Ndoumbe-Nkeng et al. (2004) and Yede et al. (2012) in 279 280 cacao farming in Centre Regions of Cameroon are similar to ours (20 to 100% of cherelles' mortality); this result confirms 281 that cacaoculture in Cameroon is confronted at two major 282 pests: mirids and black pod disease (Varlet and Berry 1997; 283 Mahob et al. 2014). However, pending to elucidate that black 284 pods disease mostly induces the mortality of immature and/ 285 or mature/ripe pods, it is suggested that this disease does not 286 have the same economic inconveniences as mirid infestations 287 in cacao farming. Thus, the comparative economic effects 288 289 of these two major constraints in cacaoculture remain to be clarified. 290

From this work, it appears that mirids only cause losses 291 of young fruits (cherelles) as asserted by Padi's (1997) who 292 argued that fruits less than 3 months old (i.e., cherelles mainly 293 according to Toxopeus (1985) and Niemenak et al. (2010)) AQ6have a very little chance to survive of mirid attacks. The pin-295 point for the explanation of this result undoubtedly focuses 296 on the phenology of cocoa fruits as documented by Mahob 297 et al. (2018), although the mechanisms involved are still poorly 298 elucidated. 299

300 Conclusion

In our experimental conditions, *S. singularis* is a major
insect pest for cocoa farming in Cameroon; it causes important production losses, especially on young fruits up to 100%
depending on the cacao genotype infested. Mirid attacks

induce no economic effect on immature and mature/ripe 305 fruits, but just cause superficial damage characterized by 306 the presence of black spots on the surface of fruits/pods. The AQ7 cacao genotypes tested differ in sensitivity/tolerance to mirid 308 attacks because of the significant discrepancy of mortality/ 309 abortion rate of cherelles. One genotype (SNK52) among 310 the ten tested was most resistant/tolerant, whereas two oth-311 ers (UPA and SNK67) were most sensitive to S. singularis 312 infestations with regard to the numbers of aborted fruits. 313 This result can therefore be taken into consideration in vari-314 etal breeding programs against mirids in general, especially 315 S. singularis. Whatever the cacao genotype, the threshold 316 level of tolerance of tested fruits, expressed by the number 317 of lethal feeding punctures, to S. singularis infestations was 318 comparable. These new data could undoubtedly improve our 319 knowledge on the acceptable economic threshold level for 320 mirid damages on fruits, especially cherelles; it also sug-321 gests that cacao tree carrying cherelles must be protected 322 with the conventional prevention (chemical treatments for 323 example) against mirids when an averagely less than thirty 324 mirids punctures (black spots) are observed on cherelles; 325 and this should be incorporated into IPM programs against 326 S. singularis under field conditions. AO8 7

AcknowledgementsWe thank the Institute of Agricultural Research328for Development (IRAD)—Program of stimulating plants for providing329financial via the investment public funds and logistic supports. Support330from Audrey Valteri VOULA was especially valuable. We also thank331the staff of IRAD, Nkoemvone, especially Damien EYENET and Irène332NKOTTO for logistic and help for field data collections.333

Funding The manuscript has never been submitted to another journal334for publication (partially or fully) in any other form or language. Our335work was funded by the Agricultural Research Institute for Develop-336ment (IRAD)—Through Stimulating Plants/Plant Protection using the337National Public Investment Funds of Cameroon. In addition, our work338presents no conflict of interests, both financially and scientifically.339

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interestAll authors agree that paper be published for the
benefit of the scientific community and farmers and other stakeholders
in the cocoa sector.341
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