

# Potato bacterial wilt in Ethiopia: history, current status, and future perspectives

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**Background.** Potato is an essential food staple and a critical tuber crop for rural livelihoods in Ethiopia, where many pathogenic pests threaten production. Bacterial wilt, also known as brown rot of potato, ranks among the diseases that most affect many potato farmers in Ethiopia and the disease losses dramatically threatening the vibrant potato sector even in the highlands of the country, where it was uncommon so far.

**Methodology.** To devise a strategy towards boosting potato productivity in Ethiopia where food insecurity is most prevalent, production constraints should be investigated and properly addressed. Hence, we have used existing reviews and reports on the subjects, such as textbooks, proceeding and conference abstracts in Plant Protection Society of Ethiopia; Web of Science; Google Scholar; Research Gate and CIP`s database to document most relevant information on occurrence, distribution, and disease management of bacterial wilt.

**Results.** Provision of comprehensive information on potato bacterial wilt, occurrence, distribution, and management techniques are crucial for potato growers, researchers and stakeholders engaged on potato industry. In this review, we provided insights to history, status, and future perspectives of potato bacterial wilt in Ethiopia.

**Conclusions.** Awareness creation on potato bacterial wilt and integrated disease management approach could bring fundamental impact to the farming community mostly to smallholder farmers in developing countries. This document compiled such imperative information targeting bacterial wilt management techniques to ensure food security.

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2 **Potato Bacterial Wilt in Ethiopia: History, Current Status, and**  
3 **Future Perspectives**

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7  
8 **Abstract**

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10 crop for rural livelihoods in Ethiopia, where many pathogenic pests  
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32 impact to the farming community mostly to smallholder farmers in  
33 developing countries. This document compiled such imperative  
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35 ensure food security.

36

37 **Key words:** Ethiopia, potato, bacterial wilt, pathogenic pest,  
38 production threat

### 39 **1. Introduction**

40 Understanding and managing bacterial wilt that devastates potato, a  
41 major food staple crops worldwide, is of a great importance. This is  
42 because of the need for food security to the ever-growing world  
43 population especially in low-income countries where climate  
44 change, disease emergence and expansion, the increasing threat of  
45 alliance pests and disease are challenging the food security. Potato  
46 bacterial wilt, the second most important pathogenic plant bacteria  
47 has been a threat for tropical agriculture due to its wide host range,  
48 worldwide distribution, and limited disease control prudence  
49 (Mansfield et al., 2012; Champoiseau et al., 2009; Su et al., 2021).

50

51 Ethiopian agriculture is dedicated to the production of food crops  
52 for local consumption to an ever-expanding Africa's second largest  
53 population, which approximates 119 million (Worldometer, 2022).  
54 Agriculture in Ethiopia is the foundation of the country's economy,  
55 accounting for 46.3% of gross domestic product (GDP), 83.9% of  
56 exports, and 80% of total employment (World Bank, 2016). Since  
57 farming in Ethiopia is often precarious and usually at the mercy of  
58 nature, it is perpetually an arduous struggle for the holders to make  
59 ends meet (CSA, 2020). Among many other crop production  
60 constraints, plant pests and diseases pose a threat to food security  
61 because they can damage crops, thus reducing the availability and  
62 access to food, increasing the cost of production (FAO, 2017). The

63 problem is worsening more than ever before due to increasing global  
64 trade and climate change that resulted these pests moving from their  
65 native environments to the newly climate favored environment  
66 (Caruso et al., 2005). This is because climate circumstances put  
67 forth a significant influence over the spreading, life cycle, duration,  
68 infestation pressure, and the overall occurrence of major agricultural  
69 pests and diseases (Kocmankova et al. 2009). Furthermore, plant  
70 pests and diseases are responsible for losses of 20 to 40% of global  
71 food production (FAO, 2017).

72 Bacterial wilt also known as brown rot of potato, is the most  
73 devastating disease of many economically important crops  
74 worldwide (Elphinstone, 2005; Swanson et al., 2005; Champoiseau  
75 et al., 2010). It is caused by the *Ralstonia solanacearum* (Smith)  
76 species complex, that is a soil-borne pathogen notorious for its  
77 virulence, wide host range, and broader geographical distribution  
78 (Fegan and Prior, 2005; Abdurahman et al., 2019). Moreover, once  
79 the pathogen successfully establish to potato fields, eradication of  
80 the bacterium is very difficult, because of its long persistence nature  
81 in water, deep soil layer rhizosphere and plant roots, plant debris, as  
82 well as volunteer potato and other host plants for long period before  
83 coming in to contact with a new host (Graham et al., 1979; Graham  
84 and Lloyd, 1979; Priou et al., 1999; Mihovilovich et al., 2017). On  
85 the other hand, one strain is aggressive than the other and host  
86 resistance is woefully possible due to its complexity among species  
87 as well as existence of high genetic diversity of the bacterium (Fegan  
88 and Prior, 2005; Swanson et al., 2007). Their success as agricultural  
89 pests can be attributed to their adaptability to variable environments  
90 and their ability to survive adverse environmental conditions for  
91 extended periods of time (Caruso et al., 2005; Milling et al., 2009).

92 Though potato bacterial wilt is a soil-borne disease, the spread and  
93 prevalence as well as disease outbreak could be aggravated by many

94 biotic and abiotic factors such as poor agricultural practices,  
95 unlimited animal and human movement to farming fields, lack of  
96 knowledge on appropriate field sanitation procedures, planting  
97 pathogen infected seed year after year, weak seed quarantine rules,  
98 soil acidity, and environmental variations (Gorfu et al., 2013;  
99 Tafesse et al., 2021; Tessema et al., 2020). It was evidenced that  
100 environmental temperature also has direct effect on the success of  
101 pathogen invasion to varying host species (Wei et al., 2015). In  
102 Ethiopia, the disease threatens the vibrant potato sector even in the  
103 highlands of the country, where the disease was uncommon so far  
104 and seed is being sourced out to different parts of the country  
105 (Abdurahman et al. 2017; Tessema et al. 2022).

106 Among many factors, lack of reliable seed source and the heavy  
107 reliance on not certified tubers as planting material resulted frequent  
108 re-infection of healthy fields. Subsequently, such infected fields re-  
109 infect the crops whether we have planted healthy or infected plants.  
110 This review therefore provides comprehensive coverage of currently  
111 available international research data that illustrates the occurrence,  
112 distribution, and pathogenic effect of bacterial wilt. Disease  
113 management tactics relevant to manage the pathogen are also  
114 emphasized. The review also intended to summarize and document  
115 the history, status, and future perspectives of potato bacterial wilt in  
116 Ethiopia useful to potato growers, researchers and other  
117 stakeholders engaged in potato industry.

## 118 **2. Survey Methodology**

119 To survey potato bacterial wilt occurrence, distribution, importance,  
120 and perspectives for future agriculture, we have searched the  
121 following databases: existing reviews and reports on subject;  
122 textbooks; Proceeding and Conference Abstracts in Plant Protection  
123 Society of Ethiopia; Web of Science; Google Scholar; Research  
124 Gate; CIP's database on potato diseases; Annual and Progress

125 Reports of the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research; and  
126 Holetta Agricultural Research Centre. We have used the following  
127 search terms: Bacterial wilt; *Ralstonia*, brown rot, ELISA, detection  
128 methods; biological control; integrated disease management;  
129 bacterial wilt in Ethiopia; disease prevalence; disease incidence;  
130 seed health; climate change; epidemiology; disease symptom; crop  
131 loss; race; biovar; RSSC; characterization; diagnosis; distribution.  
132 We also used references cited by the articles obtained by these  
133 methods to search for relevant additional material in the subject  
134 matter.

135

### 136 **3. Occurrence and Distribution of *R. solanacearum***

137 Historically, bacterial wilt occurrence was first reported in Ethiopia  
138 in 1956 from Kaffa province (Kaffa administrative zone) (Stewart,  
139 1956). Since then, it was reported from different parts of southern,  
140 west, southwest, northern, and central highlands of the country  
141 (Table 1; Figure 1) with more emphasis in central high lands where  
142 major seed potato is being distributed to the country (Gorfu et al.,  
143 2013; Abdurahman et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2018, Tessema et al.,  
144 2020; Tessema et al., 2022). The disease transmission was slow and  
145 not a plague too many potato farms at a time, so that no one gave  
146 due attention to the pathogen and by now it becomes a serious  
147 production threat for the farming community (Gorfu et al., 2013;  
148 Sharma et al., 2018; Tafesse et al., 2021). The spread of the disease  
149 to different parts of the country was traced from latently infected  
150 seed tubers and currently the pathogen is serious constraint to more  
151 than 5 million potato farmers of Ethiopia (CSA, 2016; Abdurahman  
152 et al., 2017). In addition to the movement of latently infected seed  
153 potato from place to place, there is scarcely well organized and  
154 responsible body that implements the biosecurity check list (people,  
155 vehicles, and agricultural inputs) that carry pathogens, insects and

156 weed seeds on to and around the farm that infect previously clean  
157 fields ((Plant Health Australia ( PHAU), 2018).

158 Afterwards, different scholars made tremendous efforts to study the  
159 spread, prevalence and importance of bacterial wilt to the Ethiopian  
160 farming community (Table 1). This was beginning since the first  
161 report of BW occurrence in Ethiopia to advanced molecular study  
162 from phylotype to strain/sequovar level. However, it is not an easy  
163 task to study every aspect of the disease due to the complex nature  
164 of *R. solanacearum* species complex (Hayward, 1991; Safni et al.,  
165 2018; Fegan and Prior, 2005; EPP, 2018). The study by  
166 Abdurahman et al. (2017) on phylogenetic analysis from potato  
167 isolates in Ethiopia using multiplex PCR and phylogenetic analysis  
168 of partial endoglucanase gene sequences identified all the isolates as  
169 phylotype IIB sequovar 1 strains. Similarly, this strain (PIIB-1)  
170 caused clonal brown rot epidemics via latently infected seed potato  
171 in Peru (Gutarra et al., 2017). On the other hand, strains of *R.*  
172 *solanacearum* highlighted that there was epidemiological links  
173 between southwest Indian Ocean and Africa, Americas or Europe  
174 (Yahiaoui et al., 2017), thus indicating how the strains of *Ralstonia*  
175 are complex and distributed across continents.

176 Based on the phylotyping scheme, which is a new scheme for  
177 classifying *R. solanacearum* as of Fegan and Prior (2005) members  
178 of the *R. solanacearum* species complex was categorized four  
179 subdivisions of phylotypes corresponding to the four genetic groups  
180 identified via sequence analysis. Among these four major  
181 phylotypes, phylotype I, II and III were reported from Ethiopia and  
182 phylotype III contains primarily isolates from Africa and  
183 surrounding islands, strains belong to biovars 1 and 2T  
184 (Abdurahman et al., 2017). On the other study, Lemessa et al. (2010)  
185 reported Ethiopian biovar 2 strains may fall in phylotype II and be  
186 American origin while most of the biovar 1 strains fall in to

187 phylotype III and be African origin (Table 2). Each phylotype is  
188 again composed of sequevars or sequence variant, which is a group  
189 of strains with a highly conserved sequence within the area  
190 sequenced (Yahiaoui et al., 2017).

191 *R. solanacearum* is a widespread pathogen to tropical, subtropical,  
192 and warm temperate areas throughout the world, though its  
193 occurrence has been reported from temperate zones (EPPO, 2020).  
194 *R. solanacearum* race 3 biovar 2 causes tropical losses and  
195 temperate concerns because of its ability to survive various  
196 environmental conditions (Champoiseau et al., 2009). Additional  
197 spread of race 3 that was described first by Moraes in 1947 as cited  
198 by (Janse et al., 2004) first start to spread in the Mediterranean basin  
199 from Portugal. In relation to temperature variation and  
200 *R. solanacearum*, various scholars found that temperature above 30  
201 has influence on the activities of *R. solanacearum* although  
202 variations exist among races and biovars of the pathogen (Singh et  
203 al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020).

204 The distribution continues with various means to different countries  
205 and more than 35 African countries are currently infected with *R.*  
206 *solanacearum* (EPPO, 2020; Abdurahman et al., 2019; PSA, 2015).  
207 In 1999, the bacterium race 3 biovar 2 was imported through  
208 infected *Pelargonium zonale* cuttings to United Kingdom and from  
209 September to December 2000, bacterial wilt was identified in  
210 several *Pelargonium* nurseries in Belgium, Germany, and the  
211 Netherlands. The disease spread was serious due to its limited  
212 symptomatic clues while visualizing infected plants (Champoiseau  
213 et al., 2009). On the other hand, the increased globalization of crops  
214 and processing industries also promotes the side-effects of more  
215 rapid and efficient spread of plant pathogens threatening the worlds`  
216 food security as well (Lenarcic et al., 2014).

217 Furthermore, many developing countries like Ethiopia do not have  
218 well documented seed system policy whereas other have the legal  
219 framework but not implemented yet (Schulz et al., 2013). Studies  
220 signified that despite a regulatory regime that imposes strict rules on  
221 the production and trade of planting materials for vegetatively  
222 propagated crops, the market is largely unregulated because of weak  
223 enforcement capacity. Instead, producers of vegetatively propagated  
224 crops planting materials signal quality to farmers through trust,  
225 reputation, and long-term relationships (Gatto et al. 2021).

226 Lack of such seed legislation rules resulted the fastest spread of the  
227 disease with no territory limits (Lambert, 2002). Potato bacterial  
228 wilt has no territory limits and it could be transmitted from country  
229 to country. Example, phylotype IIB sequevar 1 (PIIB-1), formerly  
230 referred to as R3b2 and known as the causal agent of potato brown  
231 rot was distributed from latently infected seed potato from south  
232 America to other world (EPPO, 2018; Charkowski et al., 2020).  
233 Likewise, *R. solanacearum* R3bv2 was imported in the United  
234 States and Europe unintentionally in geranium cuttings (Janse et al.,  
235 2004; Williamson et al., 2002; Swanson et al., 2005) and the  
236 problem was severed in U.S. after 2003 when geranium plants  
237 imported from Kenya, Costa Rica and Guatemala that developed the  
238 disease in greenhouses and seedling raising nurseries in U.S.

239 The causative agent of the outbreak was R3bv2 which was listed on  
240 the Agricultural Bioterrorism Protection Act of 2002 because of its  
241 potential impact on the U.S. potato industry (Lambert, 2002;  
242 Williamson et al., 2002). The spread of the pathogen in Ethiopia is  
243 highly accelerated by distributing latently infected seed tubers from  
244 region to region (Abdulwahab et al., 2017).

245 There were variations among strains for aggressiveness on some  
246 crops like tobacco, the strains were also quite distinct from  
247 presumably indigenous strains found and can infect diverse hosts in

248 Florida (Ji et al., 2007; Gutarra et al., 2017). Hence, *R.*  
249 *solanacearum* species complex strains have dissimilar existences  
250 and diversified pathogenic behavior like surviving in heterogeneous  
251 niches and asymptomatic plants complicated the disease  
252 management efforts of scientists across the world (Alvarez et al.,  
253 2010; Fegan and Prior, 2005).

254

#### 255 **4. Host range of bacterial wilt**

256 *R. solanacearum* species complex (RSSC) is soil-borne  
257 phytopathogenic bacteria that is known for invade more tha 200 host  
258 species in more than 50 plant families worldwide (Elphinstone,  
259 2005; Coupat et al., 2008; Mansfield et al., 2012). For instance,  
260 tomato, potato, tobacco, and eggplant from solanaceous family,  
261 ground nut and French bean from leguminous plants; banana and  
262 ginger from mono-cotyledons plants; eucalyptus, olive, mulberry,  
263 and cassava from tree and shrub plants are to mention some hosts  
264 (Hayward, 1994; Ji et al., 2007; Champoiseau et al., 2010; Liu et al.,  
265 2017; Guji et al., 2019). Thorn apple and nightshade are also other  
266 common hosts that harbor the disease (PHAU, 2018). Recently, the  
267 recording work for maximum limits of host plants are not stopped  
268 yet and new host plants are being described by different scientists at  
269 every moment from each corner of the world (Chandrashekara and  
270 Prasannakumar, 2010). Besides, several new sequevars have been  
271 identified and recorded in recent studies that cause plant wilts  
272 (Sarkar and Chaudhuri, 2016; Yahiaoui et al., 2017; Gutarra et al.,  
273 2017).

274

#### 275 **5. Importance of bacterial wilt**

276 Gram-negative bacterium, *R.* (Formerly known as *Pseudomonas*)  
277 *solanacearum* (Yabuuchi et al., 1995) is one of the most destructive  
278 plant pathogens (Elphinstone, 2005; Safni et al., 2014; Su et al.,

279 2021). *R. solanacearum* has already been a quarantine pest and  
280 added to the front line of invasive species compendium in the  
281 European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization (EPPO)  
282 due to its threatening power of million's` livelihoods and the  
283 environment worldwide (EPPO, 1992). It also has long been a  
284 scourge of tropical agriculture due to its wide host range, worldwide  
285 distribution, and limited disease control providence (Champoiseau  
286 et al., 2009; Su et al., 2021). It is listed as the second most important  
287 plant pathogenic bacteria in 'top 10' lists of bacterial diseases in  
288 terms of economic and scientific importance ranked by the world  
289 bacteriologists with only preceded by *Pseudomonas syringae*  
290 pathovars even though priorities and importance could vary in the  
291 locality across continents and disciplines (Mansfield et al., 2012).  
292 Among many plants bacterial disease, seven bacterial diseases were  
293 categorized as the most important diseases for potato production  
294 worldwide because of their destruction to the economic part of the  
295 crop (tuber). With these, bacterial wilt and black leg were  
296 considered as the major imperative in most potato production areas  
297 whereas potato ring rot, pink eye, and common scab considered as  
298 minor (Charkowski et al., 2020).

299

300 The disease incidence in some parts of Ethiopia from 1985 to 1987  
301 report was 0.8- to 21% in Tsedey farm, Zewai and 1.5 to 24% in  
302 Bako areas. In recent years, the disease prevalence raised to above  
303 90% in most potato growing areas of Ethiopia (Abdurahman et al.,  
304 2017; Tessema et al., 2020). Furthermore, the disease was important  
305 only in warmer areas of the country, but the occurrence of bacterial  
306 wilt in the highlands like Tsedey farm laid a base to consider and  
307 gained attention as even higher altitude potato domain areas would  
308 have probability to be infected with the pathogen (Kassa and  
309 Hiskias, 1994). Plant bacterial wilt causes a huge amount of annual

310 (32%) crop loss in Ethiopia with its epidemic levels (Kassa and  
311 Chindi, 2013; Sharma et al., 2018). The pathogen, causes dual harm  
312 to the farming community by causing considerable yield loss and it  
313 raises the crop management cost of the farming society worldwide  
314 (Blomme et al., 2014). The significance of the pathogen for potato  
315 crop has many dimensions because it damages the most important  
316 and economic part of the crop and causes severe economic losses  
317 along the whole potato value chain (Charkowski et al., 2020).  
318 Reports signified direct yield loss of 30 to 90% in potato (Karim and  
319 Hossain, 2018). As a result, many countries miss their alternatives  
320 to access quality seed and import or export opportunities due to the  
321 pest quarantine law of the territories. In addition to yield loss affects  
322 post-harvest processing quality of tubers and thereby impeding the  
323 ultimate consumers' preference (Dagne and Tigist 2017).

324 In the current scenario, bacterial wilt has a worldwide distribution,  
325 found almost in all continents and threatening the agricultural  
326 community of the globe (EPPO, 2020; Gorfu et al., 2013). Likewise,  
327 bacterial wilt distributed to many African countries and became one  
328 of serious potato production constraints in Burundi, Cameroon,  
329 Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Nigeria, Rwanda and Uganda,  
330 to mention some (Kabeil et al. 2008; CTA, 2014; Elnaggar et al.,  
331 2018; Abdurahman et al., 2019; Tessema et al., 2020). Major seed  
332 potato exporting countries like Canada, Netherlands, France and  
333 United Kingdom (Kees, 2007) as well as seed potato importing  
334 countries of Africa like Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia are  
335 highly influenced by potato bacterial wilt. The seed trade share of  
336 Africa was only 2% which might be due to seed quality issues  
337 including quarantine diseases like *R.solanacearum* that leads to  
338 decline the global trade share of the continent as well (CTA, 2014).  
339 In Egypt, a latently infected tuber has resulted in a strong decline of  
340 potato export to Europe (Priou et al., 1999) and Egyptian potato

341 export fell from a peak value of US\$ 102.12 million in 1995 to US\$  
342 7.7 million in 2000 due to potato brown rot quarantine restriction,  
343 imposed by the European Union, that was accounted for about 70-  
344 90% of Egypt's potato exports (Kabeil et al. 2008).

345 In the coming near future of 2050, the world's population is  
346 projected to be increased by one-third and leads to additional two  
347 billion people will live in developing countries (FAO, 2017).  
348 Agriculture must therefore transform itself and agricultural  
349 production should be increased by 60% to feed these huge growing  
350 global populations (FAO, 2013). Increasing crop production  
351 through improved plant protection could be one aspect of the  
352 approaches to solve such food security burdens by saving pathogen  
353 induced yield losses that ranges between 20 to 40% (PPSE, 2009;  
354 Savary et al., 2012). The total global potential losses due to pests  
355 may differ among crops and varied from 50% in wheat to more than  
356 80% in cotton (Oerke, 2006). Post-harvest losses account for 30 to  
357 40% yield loss due to diseases and sub-standard quality caused by  
358 scanty post-harvest handling (Savary et al., 2012; Oerke, 2006;  
359 Habtegebriel, 2017). Post-harvest loss of potato along the value  
360 chain in Ethiopia was 20-25% (Tadesse et al., 2018). For instance,  
361 the yield loss on important food crops by Arthropod's pests only  
362 were estimated 18-20% annual production worldwide which was  
363 valued at more than US \$470 billion (Sharma et al., 2017). Despite  
364 the economic importance and crop losses attributed to these  
365 diseases, research and extension efforts have realized limited  
366 achievements to struggle the diseases that threaten the agricultural  
367 sector (Kassa, 2019).

## 368 **6. Disease control**

369 Disease control has different principles and tactics applied before or  
370 after infection. These disease control principles are exclusion,  
371 eradication, protection, immunization, avoidance and therapy

372 among many others that has been illustrated by different scholars  
373 (Maloy, 2005).

#### 374 **6.1 Host resistance or using clean seed.**

375 Studies are indicating that there is no high level of resistance to  
376 bacterial wilt in potato cultivars, though some cultivars are less  
377 susceptible than others and can give high yields in the existence of  
378 the pathogen (Groza et al. 2004; Mihovilovich et al., 2017). In CIP  
379 breeding program for bacterial wilt resistance, moderate to high  
380 levels of resistance were reported in some potato cultivars even  
381 though high frequency of latent infection in tubers was considered  
382 as a problem and latent infection is still responsible for disease  
383 spread and overcoming of cultivar resistance (French et al. 1998;  
384 Priou et al. 2005). According to Boschi et al. (2017) bacterial wilt  
385 resistance enhanced in potato through expression of *Arabidopsis*  
386 *EFR* and introgression of qualitative resistance from *Solanum*  
387 *commersonii* would be promising strategy to bacterial wilt  
388 resistance in potato. The most promising approaches fall under the  
389 headline “New Genomic Technologies” (NGT) where host-induced  
390 gene silencing (HIGS) and genes editing of susceptibility genes by  
391 e.g., CRISP-Cas9 are most promising, though no resistant varieties  
392 have been released based on NGT (Collinge et al. 2021). Groza et  
393 al. (2004) also tested different potato varieties and realized that there  
394 was different susceptibility level among varieties.

395 Seed-borne diseases are controlled principally through one of the  
396 two notions. (i) to ensure that pathogen free seeds are planted to  
397 anticipate the emergence of disease. (ii) to seek ways that would  
398 eliminate disease pathogens from infected or contaminated seeds  
399 before the latter are planted. Pathogen exclusion by detection and  
400 elimination of infested seed lots is required for the management of  
401 serious diseases like bacterial wilt (Etebu and Nwauzoma, 2017).  
402 On the other hand, it was recommended that seed tubers should not

403 be used as a seed more than two cycles (Kassa, 2019). In Ethiopia,  
404 different initiatives were involved to set-up community or farmer  
405 group-based seed production and attempts were made to establish  
406 and capacitate cooperatives to produce and supply quality seed  
407 potato for potato growers in different parts of the country.  
408 Unfortunately, most of the cooperatives assessed in southern  
409 Ethiopia were not functioning for production and marketing quality  
410 seed as expected or some were performing unlikely very weak  
411 (Tadesse et al. 2020; Ayano, 2019). Among many factors that  
412 influence the function of the cooperatives identified were tension  
413 between perspective rules, collective action and individual interest  
414 of the members in that cooperative or farmer groups (Tafesse et al.,  
415 2018; Tadesse et al. 2020).

416

417

## 418 **6.2 Improved agronomic practices.**

419 From the time when agriculture began, various improved agronomic  
420 practices were progressed by generations of farmers and expertise.  
421 Scholars developed new crop management systems, hence the use  
422 of non-chemical methods for preventing plant disease is a priority  
423 (Meynard et al., 2003). To overcome the spread of potato bacterial  
424 wilt, planting clean seed tubers followed by continuous field  
425 inspection has a significant role minimize the spread of *R.*  
426 *solanacearum* (Forbes et al. 2020; Tessema et al. 2020). The field  
427 sanitation and crop management practices have dual benefits; to  
428 avoid the survival of the pathogen on crop fields and thereby  
429 limiting its dissemination to other disease-free areas through  
430 different disease spreading mechanisms (Priou et al., 1999; PHAU,  
431 2018). Developing innovative, eco-system friendly and efficient  
432 agronomic methods are essential to overcome the major production  
433 constraints such as pests and diseases (Karim and Hossain, 2018;

434 Tadele, 2017). Nyawade et al. (2016) pointed out incorporating  
435 suitable indeterminate legume cover crops such as Dolichs lablab in  
436 potato cropping systems enabled to minimize soil and nutrient losses  
437 due to erosion. This in turn has effect on soil acidity, which has  
438 positive association with bacterial wilt prevalence in potato fields  
439 (Tafesse et al. 2021). The study by Mwaniki et al. (2017) indicated  
440 that rotations involving spring onion with the locally grown cereals  
441 such as barley and wheat could be utilized in curbing bacterial wilt  
442 in Kenya.

443 Such innovative agronomic practices can help crops compute  
444 effectively against pests and reduce excessive chemical use while  
445 controlling pests as well as improving yield and quality of the  
446 produce (Stephen and Nora, 2002). Agronomic activities like topsoil  
447 amendment with 5 to 10% farmyard manure suppressed bacterial  
448 wilt severity and pathogen survival in soil as well as improved  
449 tomato yield in Ethiopia (Yadessa et al. 2010). Other agronomic  
450 practices such as crop rotation and mixing crop varieties had also  
451 significant effect on bacterial wilt incidence in potato (Kassa et al.  
452 2019; Wang et al., 2021). In the study conducted by Lu et al. (2016)  
453 with two different biochar made from peanut shell and wheat straw  
454 were added to *R. solanacearum* infested soil and the results showed  
455 that both treatments significantly reduced disease severity by 28.6%  
456 and 65.7% respectively in tomato fields. Soil management activities  
457 like biochar application in potato field also improved tuber yield and  
458 reduced red ant infestation in the soil (Upadhyay et al. 2020).

459

### 460 **6.3 Biological control.**

461 Biological control in the abstemious sense that denotes the use of  
462 antagonistic microbes to combat the pathogen and as such represents  
463 a potentially sustainable approach. Biological control entails the use  
464 of natural enemies such as, predators, parasitoids, and pathogens to

465 manage pest problems. Over recent years, biological control has  
466 progressed to the stage where a number of products are on the  
467 market with four major recognized mode of actions such as;  
468 competition, antibiosis, hyper parasitism, and induced resistance  
469 (Collinge et al. 2021). Nevertheless, a weakness of biological  
470 control lies in its vulnerability to environmental factors. Sometimes,  
471 biological control is a “stand alone” method and does not have to be  
472 used in combination with other methods. This is especially true for  
473 effective natural enemies being used against pest in uncultivated  
474 areas, aquatic weeds, rangeland weeds, or arthropod pests of  
475 ornamental plants or in forests, all of these being ecologically stable  
476 habitats usually requiring lower levels of management.

477 Natural enemies have key roles in pest management programs  
478 worldwide. Using natural enemies in pest management requires an  
479 understanding of their basic biology, how they impact pest  
480 population growth, and how the environment and management  
481 system affect natural enemy dynamics and performance (O’Neil and  
482 Obrycki, 2010). When pesticides must be applied to combat one  
483 pest, they should be applied so that they do not kill natural enemies  
484 controlling other pests in the same system (Hajek, 2012).

485 Biological control has long been considered as a possible alternative  
486 to strategies for pest control, however its effect and level of use  
487 worldwide remain modest and inconsistent (Gurr and You, 2016).  
488 Out of 77 bacterial strains isolated from six soil rhizospheres  
489 samples and six vegetal material samples of healthy potato, four  
490 strains (E7, E13, S25, and P7) shown high antagonistic activity  
491 against *R. solanacearum* with soil zones of inhibition from 23 to  
492 40mm with various degrees of disease incidence and biocontrol  
493 efficacy in Madagascar (Rado et al. 2015). Kurabachew et al. (2007)  
494 characterized and evaluated 50 *Pseudomonas fluorescence* from  
495 Ethiopian isolates as bio-control agent against potato bacterial wilt

496 caused by *R.solanacearum* and only three of the isolates showed  
497 inhibition against the growth of the pathogen. The study confirmed  
498 that bacterization of tubers with the above three isolates  
499 significantly reduced the incidence of *R. solanacearum* by 59.83%  
500 compared to the pathogen-inoculated control and suggests the  
501 importance of the isolates as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria.  
502 On the other study by Aguk et al. (2018) confirmed that BCAs were  
503 effective against bacterial wilt even in the susceptible cultivar  
504 evaluated under controlled condition.

#### 505 **6.4 Chemical control.**

506 Chemical control is the use of pesticides to significantly reduce the  
507 impact of pests on desirable plants by killing, suppressing growth,  
508 inhibiting biological functions, and/or disrupting behavior patterns.  
509 Chemical control of BW is ineffective, the use of healthy seeds and  
510 pathogen-free soil and water, as well as crop rotation, are the  
511 principal means of control (Álvarez et al. 2010). The use of chemical  
512 pesticides in potato is increasing in developing countries due to  
513 farmers intensifying their production beyond the crops traditional  
514 range (FAO, 2008). Despite, a clear increase in pesticide use, crop  
515 losses have not significantly decreased during the last 4 decades  
516 (Oerke, 2006). The increasing dose of pesticide application by  
517 smallholder farmers in Ethiopia had an adverse impact on the  
518 environment and human health

(Ayana and Fufa, 2019). Combating pest with intensive use of  
520 pesticides can harm the environment and pose a serious threat to the  
521 health of producers and consumers as well; hence regular  
522 monitoring of potato farms for pests and the broader agro-ecosystem  
523 is the basis for eco-friendly plant protection and pest management  
524 (FAO, 2009).

525

#### 526 **6.5 Integrated Disease Management (IDM).**

527 The goal of integrated pest management (IPM) is to adapt  
528 sustainable and more resilient crop production systems independent  
529 on pesticide application. IPM requires a good knowledge and skill  
530 of individual potato production systems; identifying pest species,  
531 knowing their biology and symptoms of infestation to decide and  
532 undertake appropriate technique on their integrated management  
533 (Kroschel et al., 2020; FAO, 2017). Although many of proved pest  
534 control technologies provide significant economic benefits when  
535 employed in a suitable manner, IPM is a key component of  
536 sustainable agriculture. Moreover, the advantage of IMP for farmers  
537 in developing countries has been clear for many, though its  
538 implementation is relatively limited (Asfaw, 2019).

539 Complexity of *R. solanacearum* such as variations based on host  
540 plant, cultivar, climate, soil type, cropping practice, pathogen strain  
541 and others hampered the success of searching effective disease  
542 control method and the endorsements made by different scholars  
543 embraces the implementation of integrated disease management  
544 approach for better-off crop production (Mihovilovich et al., 2017;  
545 Karim and Hossain, 2018; Kassa, 2019).

546 The source of inoculum could be infected potatoes (seed tubers,  
547 harvest leftovers and volunteer plants) or infected soils or both  
548 (Abdurahman et al., 2017). Moreover, irrigation water, other plant  
549 debris or other field tools and animal movements could be the  
550 spreading agents of the pathogen as well (FAO 2017; PHAU, 2018;  
551 EPPO, 2018; Williamson et al. 2002). To control and eradicate  
552 bacterial wilt, it is essential to implement all the possible disease  
553 control options simultaneously with intensively integrated approach  
554 (Thomas-sharma et al., 2016). The use of healthy seed potato and  
555 planting in disease-free soil is the main components although other  
556 factors must under consideration while implementing integrated  
557 disease management techniques (Priou et al., 1999). Hence,

558 interdisciplinary seed system development and integrated disease  
559 management approaches could also be possible options to overcome  
560 such complex problems (Sperlling et al. 2013; Thomas-Sharma et  
561 al. 2016). Knowing the disease cycle is one important aspect to  
562 implement appropriate and environmentally friendly disease control  
563 methods. Strong extension system and inclusive community  
564 participation on knowledge sharing among the neighbors and the  
565 whole society could give a chance for farmers to reduce the spread  
566 of bacterial wilt from place to place (Ayano, 2019; Damitew et al.,  
567 2018; Tafesse et al., 2018). Moreover, considering gender on  
568 research on pests and diseases is very crucial as it facilitates  
569 development of more efficient approach thereby increase the  
570 adoption of crop protection technologies and practices by women  
571 and men farmers according to their knowledge, role, and capacities  
572 (Kawarazuka, et al. 2020).

573 As no conventional disease control method has been found effective  
574 alone for the bacterial wilt management, implementing  
575 comprehensive and combined disease control techniques are noble  
576 options for sophisticated pathogens like *R. solanacearum* (Karim  
577 and Hossain, 2018). Rotating individual fields away from crops  
578 within the same family is critical and can help minimizing crop  
579 specific disease and non-mobile insect pests that persist in the soil  
580 or overwinter in the field or field borders (Seaman, 2016; Bekele,  
581 2016). In response to the increasing plant pest problems,  
582 community-based plant clinics were introduced to Ethiopia in 2013  
583 and played significant role in meeting farmer demand for plant  
584 health advice and in bridging the gabs of local diagnostic capacity.  
585 The new approach is guided by IPM practices and recommends safe,  
586 economical and practical pest management options for smallholder  
587 farmers in Ethiopia (Efa and Feleke, 2019).

## 588 **7. Status of BW in Ethiopia**

589 Since the first bacterial wilt occurrence story in the country in 1956  
590 (Stewart 1956), scholars made tremendous efforts for the last 6  
591 decades to know the status of the disease and its prevalence (Table  
592 1). The status of bacterial wilt was studied from simple pathogen  
593 survey and strain identification to molecular characterization to the  
594 sequovar level. Currently, the disease is threatening potato  
595 production in Ethiopia (Gorfu et al. 2013; Abdulwahab et al. 2017).  
596 Different scholars made efforts from awareness creation to  
597 recommendations to the farming community for pathogen  
598 management (Ayano, 2019; Kassa, 2016, 2017; Tafesse et al. 2018).  
599 Moreover, recent studies were focused on understanding and  
600 managing bacterial wilt, analysis of its monitoring systems by seed  
601 cooperatives with combining and innovative systems approach,  
602 collective action and a system thinking perspectives to magnify the  
603 socio-economic implications of *R. solanacearum* for smallholder  
604 farmers in Ethiopia (Damtew et al. 2018; Tafesse et al. 2018, 2020).  
605 In addition to the efforts made by the government of Ethiopia, NGOs  
606 like CIP and Vita (an Irish NGO) contributed a lot to manage potato  
607 bacterial wilt in the country (Sharma et al., 2018; Ayano, 2019;  
608 Tadesse et al., 2020). Nevertheless, research results from 261  
609 randomly surveyed potato farmers in Gumer, Doyogena, and  
610 Wolmera districts revealed that they had very limited knowledge  
611 about potato bacterial wilt and 60% of the farmers did not know  
612 spreading mechanisms of the pathogen (Tafesse et al., 2018).  
613 Similarly, Ayano (2019), who conducted an assessment on farmers'  
614 extension approach for the control of potato bacterial wilt in  
615 Chench district of the southern Ethiopia, reported considerable  
616 knowledge gap existence among farmers. However, almost all  
617 farmers in the study area were willing to engage in collective action  
618 to combat bacterial wilt. The study also suggested that both male  
619 and female headed farmers need access to information, skills, and

620 tools to improve potato yields with more emphasis on extension  
621 service to female and resource poor households (Ayano, 2019).

622 Hence, most potato farmers have limited knowledge of potato  
623 bacterial wilt and a comprehensive and community-based  
624 mobilization on disease control actions could be a better approach  
625 to mitigate the current potato production threat of Ethiopia and other  
626 nations worldwide (Tafesse et al., 2018). On contrary, about 60 %  
627 of potato farmers in the central highlands of Ethiopia were able to  
628 identify symptoms, causative agents and spreading mechanisms, as  
629 well as possible management actions of potato bacterial wilt, late  
630 blight and viruses after subsequent extension support, field  
631 demonstration and experimentation conducted at farmers field  
632 school level (Kassa, 2016).

633

634 In most developing world, inaccessibility of good quality seed and  
635 lack of farmer knowledge on proper agronomic practices, were  
636 among the constraints that endanger the sustainability of the potato  
637 crop (Priou et al., 1999). Furthermore, the status of plant quarantine  
638 and pest management service in Ethiopia is not well organized and  
639 the status of major economic pests have not been routinely surveyed,  
640 monitored, and their seasonal situation have not been properly  
641 documented or communicated due to the loose linkage existence  
642 among the federal and regional bureau of agriculture (Beyene and  
643 Salato, 2019). Seed regulatory institutions in the country also lacks  
644 autonomy and role clarity between the federal and regional seed  
645 health regulatory bodies and currently the federal ministry of  
646 agriculture and regional bureaus of agriculture oversee regulation of  
647 the seed system and other inputs (MoA and ATA, 2013). Owing  
648 such weak government structural organization, regular pest  
649 management task has been left for farmers to handle every aspect by  
650 their own indigenous knowledge (Beyene and Salato, 2019).

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## 8. Perspectives

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Although agriculture is the backbone of Ethiopian economy, agricultural production and productivity remained very low due to several factors contributing to the backwardness of the sector (Damtew et al., 2018). Among these, there is weak phytosanitary service in the country that has several challenges and gaps with limited capacity, insufficient facility and skilled manpower which could not be able to protect crop losses due to aggressive pests (Beyene and Salato, 2019).

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Preliminary evidence has been presented which suggests that the combined implementation of current policy, including systematic plant health testing and continuous survey programs and exploration of research results is having a positive effect on the control of potato bacterial wilt in the country. The goal of eradicating the pathogen from Ethiopia will require a sustained and non-complacent effort in which policy makers; industry, research institutions and other stakeholders must all play an important role. Access to extension to farmers is limited, but it has the power to mitigate disease spread in the farming community and about the fate of the disease to food security (Ayano, 2019). On the other hand, environmentally friendly alternatives for pesticides such as bio-organic fertilizers have been developed or better control of soil-borne diseases and used as a prime example of next-generation sustainable agriculture (Aguk et al., 2018). Hence, designing and practicing integrated disease (IDM) strategies which are knowledge-intensive process of decision making that combines various approaches (biological, physical, cultural, and chemical, regular field monitoring and inspection) should be shared for reducing the level of bacterial wilt disease (Seaman, 2016).

## 682 9. Conclusions

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684 This review addresses the many complicated nature and importance  
685 of the devastating potato bacterial wilt disease likely to influence  
686 food security. An alarming increase in the number of outbreaks of  
687 transboundary pests and diseases of plants and animals are  
688 threatening food security and have broad economic, social, and  
689 environmental impacts in the world. Diseases are complex problems  
690 for crop production with numerous technical and institutional  
691 features, involving multiple actors with diverse perceptions and  
692 understandings. Crop pests continues to incur substantial post-  
693 harvest losses on many important crops and caused 30% yield loss  
694 in horticultural crops alone and the yield loss increased up to 50%  
695 in Ethiopia for some individual crops. Potato bacterial wilt becomes  
696 the most production limiting factor in Ethiopia. Awareness creation  
697 on potato bacterial wilt and integrated disease management  
698 approach could bring fundamental impact to the farming community  
699 mostly to stallholder farmers in developing countries.

700 Additional recommendations for future research that arises from this  
701 review are:

- 702 1. Currently, potato bacterial wilt in Ethiopian highlands and  
703 central highlands is under national pandemic peak that controls  
704 all most all seed potato domain areas of the country with more  
705 than 90% disease prevalence and spreading to previously  
706 uninfected localities. This issue is time sensitive and needs  
707 prompt attention. Hence, the government authorities, research  
708 institutions and all stakeholders should take a comprehensive  
709 disease management action to rescue the vibrant potato sector of  
710 Ethiopia.
- 711 2. Efforts to avoid zero tolerance diseases especially in seed potato  
712 should be maximized.

- 713 3. Disease preventive rules on potential symptomless carriers like  
714 latently infected seed tubers should be well implemented and the  
715 research on BW should not be simple field survey or laboratory  
716 work, rather they should exercise both fundamental and applied  
717 research on the topic.
- 718 4. Implementing appropriate seed legislation and quarantine rules  
719 could also requires due attention in Ethiopia to safeguard the  
720 potato crop for food security.
- 721 5. Community-based interventions and monitoring approaches for  
722 potato bacterial wilt also could be a solution to mitigate the  
723 disease and would enable us to win the disease eradication game.

724

#### 725 **Acknowledgements**

726

727 The authors thank to Holetta Agricultural Research Centre for  
728 providing necessary facilities.

729 **Additional files:** all data are included in the manuscript.

730

#### 731 **Authors` contributions**

732 LT prepared and wrote the draft and EB edited and approved the  
733 manuscript.

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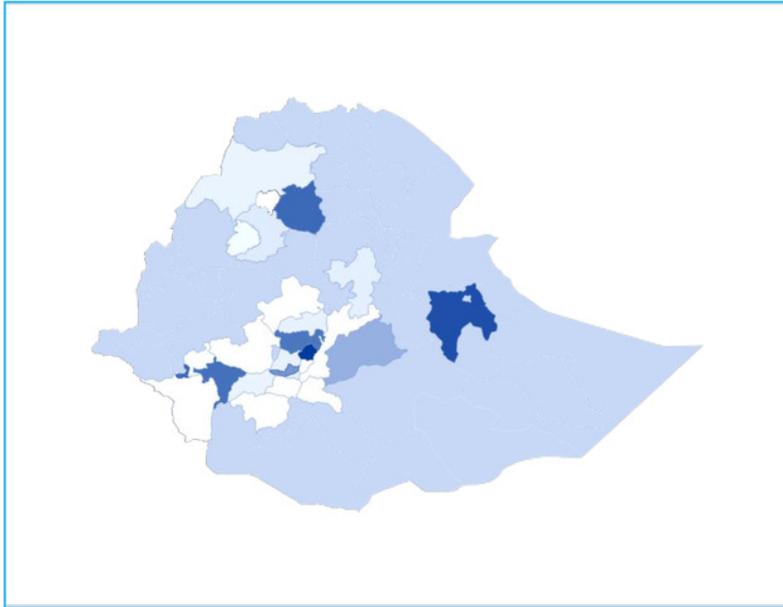
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# Figure 1

World distribution of bacterial wilt disease



**Table 1** (on next page)

Prevalence and distribution of potato bacterial wilt to different parts of Ethiopia

1 Table 1 Prevalence and distribution of potato bacterial wilt to different parts of Ethiopia

Locality (Zone)	Host crop	Disease prevalence (%)	Year reported	Reference
Agew Awi	Potato	25	2008	Bekele et al. 2011
East Arsi	Potato	0.8-91.6	1981; 1985;1993 2020	SPL,1981; Kassa and Hiskias,1994; Abebe,1999; Tessema et al.2020
East Shoa	Potato	0.8-63	1985-87; 1987; 1994	SPL,1987; Kassa and Hiskias, 1994;
Gamo gofa	Potato	97;10-80	2015/16	Abdurahman et al.2017
Guraghe	Potato	0-23.12	2015/16	Tessema et al. 2020
Hadiya	Potato	0-33 11-89	2015/16	Tessema et al.2020
Holetta/ Welmera	Potato	11;63; 10.87-90	1994;1996; 2020	Kassa and Hiskias, 1994; Tessema et al.2020
Jimma	Potato		2007	Kurabachew et al. 2007
Kaffa	Potato	23-50 21-78	1956; 1967; 2012-14	Stewart,1956; Stewart and Yirgou, 1967
Kembata Tembaro	Potato	42.5	2015/16 ,2018	Tessema et al., 2020; Tafesse et al.2018
North Gonder		50-100	2008	Bekele et al. 2011
North Shoa	Potato		1967;	Stewart and Yirgou, 1967; Tessema et al., 2020

Sidama	Potato	62.5	1996/97;2007	Abebe,1999;Kurabachew et al. 2007
Silte	Potato		2015/16	Tessema et al.2020
South Gonder	Potato	20	2008	Bekele et al. 2011
South west Shoa	Potato	60	2015/16	Tessema et al., 2020
West Arsi	Potato	25-75	1996/97; 2011-2014; 2015/16	Abebe, 1999; Kassa, 2016; Kassa and Chindi, 2013; Tessema et al., 2020
West Gojam	Potato	66.7-100	2008	Bekele et al. 2011
West Shoa	Potato	1.5-82.5	1985-1987; 2007; 2015	Kassa and Hiskias, 1994; Kuarabachew et al., 2007; Tessema et al., 2020
Wolayta	Potato	-	2007	Kuarabachew et al., 2007

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**Table 2** (on next page)

Strains of *R. solanacearum* reported from Ethiopia assessed by PCR

1 Table 2 Strains of *R. solanacearum* reported from Ethiopia assessed by PCR

2

Geographical location	Original host	Phylotype/ Biovar	Race	Reference
Chencha, Holetta, Jeldu, Haramaya, Shashemmene	Potato	IIB	1	Abdurahman et al., 2017
Jimma, Holetta, Ginchi, Jeldu, Shashemene, Awassa	Potato	I	1	Lemessa et al., 2010
Bako, Jimma, Qarsa, Kombolcha, Agaro, Ambo, Shashemen, Gedo, Guder, Awassa, Holetta, Ginchi	Potato	II	3	Lemessa et al., 2010

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