Vol. 19(5), pp. 466-481, May, 2023 DOI: 10.5897/AJAR2022.16240 Article Number: EFC41DC70663

ISSN: 1991-637X Copyright ©2023 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/AJAR



Full Length Research Paper

Ethnobotany and perceptions on the value of taro (Colocasia esculenta) among farmers in Benin Republic

Z. Natacha Julienne Quenum^{1,2,3}*, P. Lava Kumar², Malachy O. Akoroda³, Alexandre Dansi⁴, Ramesh Raju Vetukuri⁵ and Ranjana Bhattacharjee²

¹Department of Plant Breeding, Pan African University, Life and Earth Sciences Institute (Including Health and Agriculture), Ibadan 200284, Nigeria.

²International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, Ibadan PMB 5320, Nigeria.

Department of Agronomy, University of Ibadan, Appleton Road, Ibadan 200132, Nigeria.
 Genetic Resources Unit, Laboratory of Genetic and Biotechnology, Faculty of Sciences and Technology, University of Abomey-Calavi, BP 526, Cotonou, Benin.

⁵Department of Plant Breeding, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Alnarp, SE-234 22 Lomma, Sweden.

Received 6 October, 2022; Accepted 22 November, 2022

Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) is a widely grown vegetatively propagated food crop in the Benin Republic. The taro leaf blight (TLB) epidemic in 2009, caused by *Phytophthora colocasiae*, has destroyed taro production and wiped out many taro landraces in West Africa. A survey was conducted in the southern region of Benin to assess the status of taro and TLB, ethnobotany, farmers' perceptions of taro, and identify production constraints. A structured questionnaire was used to collect information from 24 farmers in 17 villages across six departments, and the TLB incidence was assessed in the same fields. The results revealed the prevalence of TLB across all the villages and a sharp reduction in production since the TLB epidemic. The TLB incidence ranged from 25 to 100%, however, the mean symptom severity score per field assessed on a 1 to 5 rating scale varied between 0.25 and 2.8. Awareness about the TLB or good crop management practices was low. Integrated methods for TLB control and improved agronomic management are crucial to enhance taro yields. In the long term, introducing resistant varieties is critical for the sustainable management of TLB and taro production in Benin.

Key words: Taro, taro leaf blight, Phytophthora colocasiae, ethnobotany, Benin, Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) is a tropical root crop propagated vegetatively and is native to Southeast Asia (Dastidar, 2009; Matthews and Nguyen, 2014). It is the 9th most widely grown food crop in the world, with cultivation throughout Africa (Oladimeji et al., 2022; Rashmi et al., 2018). The corms and flowers are utilized in dishes in

West Africa (Grimaldi, 2016), and their sociocultural, historical, and spiritual significance is highly valued in Oceania and the Pacific (Grimaldi, 2016). In several parts of Africa, including Cameroon and Kenya, the corms of various taro cultivars are used medicinally to treat digestive and respiratory problems in both people and

*Corresponding author. E-mail: nachou31j@gmail.com.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> License 4.0 International License

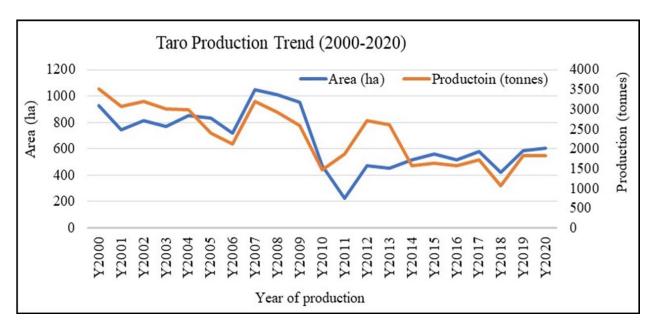


Figure 1. Taro production trend in Republic of Benin between 2000 to 2020. Source: This study

animals, as well as diabetes in Nigeria and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Despite the economic importance of taro, ethno-botanical data on this crop in certain geographical areas of West Africa is still scant (Grimaldi et al., 2018). Several vernacular names exist due to differences in ethnicity (Grimaldi et al., 2018).

Taro is the second most important root and tuber crop in the Benin Republic, after yam, followed by sweet potato and cassava in consumer preference (Houngbo et al., 2015). However, its production has been declining for some time (Figure 1). For instance, from 2000 to 2020, the production area dropped from 925 to 608 ha and from 3,518 to 1,837 tonnes, with the lowest output of 1,069 tonnes in 2018 (FAOSTAT, 2022). The average yield of the crop during this period was 3.7 t/ha, which is about 50% lower compared to a world average of 7.3 t/ha or the African continent average of 6.4 t/ha for the same period (FAOSTAT, 2022).

Taro is adopted as an accessory crop in the southern part of Benin, ahead of crops such as maize and cassava (Houngbo et al., 2015). Two taro varieties are being used in Benin. Tôglin in Fon, grown in swampy areas, is more prevalent in the southern and central departments of Ouémé, Zou, Plateau, and collines (the Nago cultural area) and Boukoumbé and Malanville in the northern region. It produces large tubers and tiny, light-green leaves. Another cultivar lacks a specific common name and is widely grown in firm soils in the southern regions, especially in the Ouémé valley (Dansi, 2006). It has small tubers with the relatively high dry matter, large dark green leaves, and good-quality paste when the tubers are mashed (foutou).

Although taro is highly valued, its production is affected

by several biotic and abiotic constraints. Taro Leaf Blight (TLB), caused by Phytophthora colocasiae Raciborski, is a major taro disease, responsible for about 50 to 95% of the loss of taro production (Otieno, 2020; Wondimu et al., 2021). The disease was first observed in West Africa in 2008 to 2009 and led to a 60% decline in the production in several countries (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2011; Omane et al., 2012; Tsopmbeng et al., 2012; Mbong et al., 2013). The TLB pathogen has spread widely in sub-Saharan Africa (Ugwuja et al., 2020). Despite the widespread destruction of TLB in the Benin Republic, information on TLB and its impact on production are lacking. Therefore, this study was conducted to assess the incidence and severity of TLB in major taro production agro-ecologies in the southern Benin Republic. The survey also focused on identifying the main constraints to taro production, farmers' perception of crop value, and the ethno-botany and uses of taro to develop suggestions for the revival of the crop.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Description of the survey area

The survey was carried out between July 2021 and January 2022 in the southern region of the Benin Republic (Table 1 and Figure 2). The surveyed region is situated between the latitudes of 6° 15' and 7° 30' north and the longitudes of 1° 52' and 2° 36' east. It has a subequatorial climate with two rainy seasons interspersed by two dry seasons, covering an area of 17,019 km², predominantly covered by vertisols (Akplogan et al., 2018). Rainfall and temperature in this area range between 1100 and 1400 mm and 26 to 28°C, respectively. Seventeen villages were covered in six departments among six ethnic groups. Eighteen farms were surveyed to evaluate TLB disease incidence and severity. The

Table 1. Departments, communes, and villages surveyed in Benin in 2021-2022

Department	Commune	Village*	Longitude	l atitude		Number of farmers interviewed
Plateau	Ketou	Sodji	7.4071536°	2.3657571°	158	2
Plateau	Pobe	Issaba	7.0900733°	2.4944655°	57.1	1
Plateau	Sakete	Illako	6.7949883°	2.6603717°	31	2
Zou	Zangnanado	Dovi-Zounnou	7.1198252°	2.3657571°	15.2	5
Oueme	Adjohoun	Sissekpa	6.6868552°	2.4983372°	13.8	1
Oueme	Adjohoun	Kpodedji	6.6763642°	2.4983372°	11.2	1
Oueme	Bonou	Hounvigue	6.8013336°	2.4769372°	10.3	1
Couffo	Dogbo	Ahomey	6.7974773°	1.7469948°	39.6	1
Couffo	Dogbo	Ahomey	6.8063417°	1.7474917°	39.4	1
Atlantique	Toffo	Sehoue	6.928847°	2.263769°	52	1
Atlantique	Ze	Hekanme	6.752103°	2.331558°	30	1
Atlantique	Ze	Awokpa	6.789025°	2.301791°	30	1
Atlantique	Ze	Sedje Houegoudo	6.732794°	2.370885°	7	1
Atlantique	Abomey-calavi	Kpanroun	6.683783°	2.363411°	18	1
Mono	Athieme	Kpinnou-zongo	6.584630°	1.767386°	13	1
Mono	Lokossa	Zongo 2	6.631564°	1.717831°	40	1
Mono	Lokossa	Hoin	6.630164°	1.752997°	15	1
Mono	Lokossa	Lokossa-centre	6.644244°	1.712069°	33	1
Total						24

Source: This study

study was conducted through interviews with taro producers using a questionnaire (Supplementary file 1).

Survey questionnaire and protocol of data collection

A questionnaire was formulated as per the Nkengla-Asi et al. (2021) to collect information on socio-economic status, ethno-botany, and uses of taro, and constraints to taro production, and the IPGRI's Taro descriptors (1991) was adopted to identify taro varieties in the field. Four markets were visited as part of the survey to collect information on quantities of taro sold, taro demand, amount of corms per kilogram, quantity sold, time of sale, and source of the taro sold ((Supplementary file 2).

Assessment of TLB

TLB in the farmers' fields was assessed based on the symptoms. TLB incidence in a field was estimated by assessing symptoms on 20 random plants, and percent disease incidence was calculated as per the formula given (Adinde et al., 2016).

A visual scale of 0 to 5 was used to assess the severity of the disease, with 0 = no symptom; 1 = low infection (1 to 25% infection on leaf); 2 = moderate infection (26 to 50% infection on leaf); 3 = high infection (51 to 75% infection on leaf); 4 = very high infection (>75% infection on leaf).

Data analysis

A descriptive statistic was done using MS Excel, and frequency distribution and percentages for each parameter were evaluated. Before analysis, the respondent's answers were scored in a binary and multi-scaling fashion depending on the variable.

RESULTS

Socioeconomic status of taro farmers, land area and cropping system

Most surveyed farmers were men, representing 95.9%, and only 4.1% were women (Table 2). The respondents' ages varied between 23 and 81 years. The most encountered age category is 20 to 40, which accounts for 45.8% (Table 2). The largest household size means (8) was within the age category of 41-60 (Table 2). The source of income was based on the crops produced, which varied from one farmer to another and comprised tomato, maize, tannia, rice, taro, cassava, sugar cane, pineapple, fishery, and non-agricultural activities. Most taro farmers are producing rice (25%), followed by maize and tomato (16.6%), respectively (Table 3).

Ethnobotany and uses of taro

Two varieties of taro were found in the surveyed fields, the dasheen type and the eddoe type (Figure 3). Six sociolinguistics groups were encountered, including Fon, Goun, Yoruba/Nago, Kotafon, Adja, and Aizo. The dasheen type, which is known under four different names, was the most found. Tôglin, which means "tuber that grows in the water" from the ethnic group Fon, was the most popular common name for taro. Other local names were Bangali from the ethnic group Adja, "Ikoko"

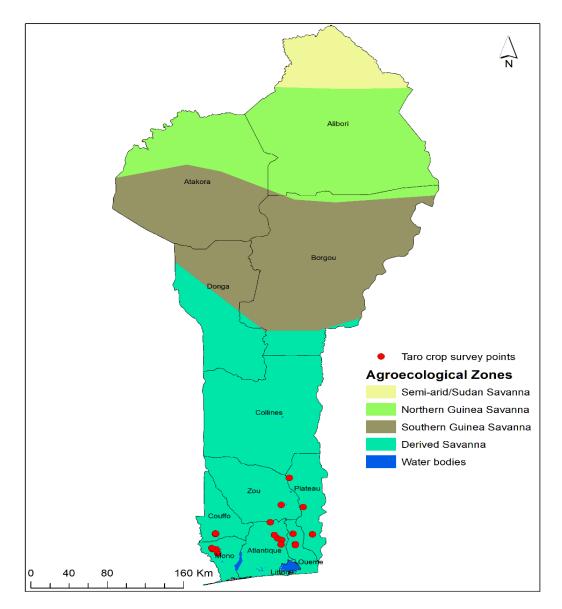


Figure 2. A map of taro farms surveyed in southern region of Benin Republic. Source: Map developed by the Biometric Unit of the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

for the Yoruba, and Ahoviglin from the Aizo, which means "reserved for prestigious people". Respondents were uncertain about the year of introduction, but many in the commune of Zangnanado were growing the crop for over 40 years. Similarly, some farmers encountered in the districts of Bonou related the provenance of the crop to Agonlin-Zangnanado in the department of Zou, one of the regions where the dasheen type is often found (Dansi, 2006).

Taro is used for nutrition, medicine, and for ceremonies. The corms, young leaves, and petiole are all consumed. The corms are boiled, fried, pounded, and processed into chips and the flour is incorporated into children' food. Taro is used for rituals at Savalou, one of the communes

in the department is called "Les Collines". Taro is available throughout the year depending on the locality and the planting time. It is planted in February and harvested in October in the department of Mono; in the department of Atlantic, it is planted in December-February and harvested in October; in the department of Zou, taro is planted in January-April and is harvested in November and December. In the plateau, the crop is planted in January and harvested in December while in Oueme department; it is planted in March and harvested either November or December. This shows that taro is harvested almost at the same time (dry season) in all growing regions but the differences in planting time may be related to the variation in the maturity of the varieties

Table 2. Gender, household size and age category of the respondents.

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	23	95.8
Female	1	4.2
Total	24	100
Household size		
1*5	10	41.7
6*10	12	50
11*15	2	8.3
Total	24	100
Age category		
20-40	11	45.8
41-60	10	41.7
61-80	3	12.5
Total	24	100
Age group	Mean hou	sehold size
20-40	5.9	
41-60	8	
61-80	6.7	

Source: This study

Table 3. Source of income of respondents.

Source of income	Frequency	Percentage
Maize	4	12.5
Tomato	4	16.6
Rice	6	25
Pineapple	1	4.1
sugar cane	1	4.1
Non –agriculture	3	12.5
Cassava	2	8.3
Tannia	1	4.1
Taro	1	4.1
Fishery	1	4.1

Source: This study

and environmental conditions peculiar to each location. However, some farmers claimed that there is no precise planting time; taro is planted depending on the availability of the planting materials. Twenty nine percent of the producers cultivate taro for its high market value compared to other tuber crops such as tannia (*Xanthosoma sagittifolium*). Certain respondents valued the crop because of its good taste. This parameter accounts for 20.8% (Figure 4).

Farmers interviewed have 3 to 29 years of experience in taro production and it was observed that the same land

had been used for years. Rotation is less practiced due to the growing conditions required by the crop. Most producers (63.6%) use saved corms for replanting (Figure 5). The source of the planting materials can play a significant role in the spread of the disease and the survival of the pathogen. Taro was cultivated as monoculture by 30.4% farmers, and intercropping accounts for 69.6% (Figure 6). Taro is associated with other crops such as rice, maize, vegetables, etc. The amount of land devoted to taro cultivation was small and varied from 0.01 to 0.4 ha (Figure 7).

Constraints to taro production

Farmers enlisted many constraints to taro production. The scarcity of taro producers was attributed to decreased land use for taro production (Figure 7). Other constraints were a lack of financial support, low productivity, diseases and pests, climate change, and agronomic issues (Figure 8). However, farmers faced no major difficulties in marketing corms except for the reduction of the corm size observed after the outbreak of TLB. The production trend of taro observed in the study area from 2017 to 2021 (Figure 9) shows that the production volume has decreased due to the decrease in the taro production area and the farm size (Figures 1 and 7). Twenty-seven percentage of the farmers mentioned that their production had been approximately the same between 2009 and 2020, while 18% stopped producing taro, and only 4.5% claimed an increase in production. Among the constraints listed by farmers, TLB constituted the major threat, and most of the farmers interviewed did not know about measures to combat the TLB disease. A few (4.5%) mentioned using fungicides without getting satisfactory results. Farmers expressed interest in adopting new strategies to combat the disease and are willing to destroy the existing infected plant materials.

Farm stresses and risk likelihood

The results of the disease incidence and severity of TLB in the seventeen villages are presented in Table 4, and TLB symptoms observed in farmers' fields are as shown in Figure 3E to H. The result showed that the highest disease incidence (100%) was observed in nine locations, while the least was observed in four villages (25%). The disease incidence in other villages ranges from 35 to 85%. The disease severity score in the field ranged from 0.25 to 2.85. The highest mean severity score of the field was 2.85 and was observed in Hoin, which also showed the highest disease incidence (100%). Similarly, in Zounnou, the severity score of the field is 2.8, and a disease incidence of 100% was also recorded. A higher incidence of TLB is observed in areas where taro was grown in marshy and waterlogged soils. This includes the villages of Ioannou, Sissekpa, and

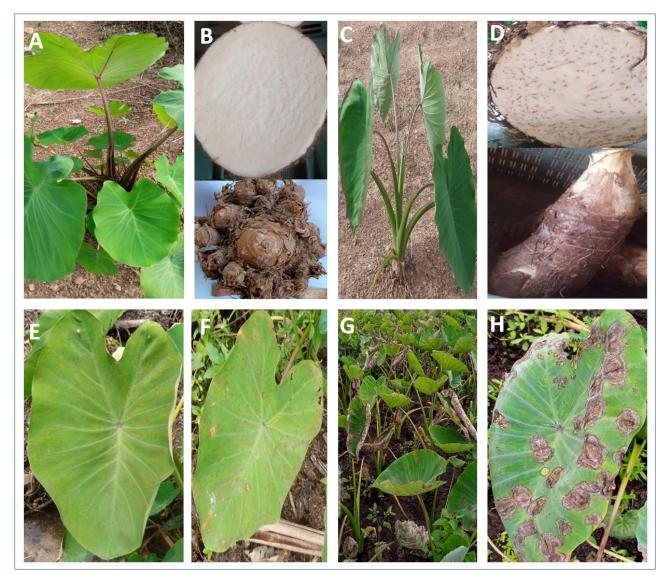


Figure 3. Variation in petioles and corms flesh color of taro varieties found in Issaba village and Sissekpa in Benin Republic. (A): *Colocasia esculenta* var. *antiquorum* (eddoe type), (B): corm flesh color and whole corm of the eddoe type, (C): *Colocasia esculenta* var. *esculenta* (dasheen type), (D): corm flesh color and whole corm of the dasheen type; and (E-H): taro leaf blight (TLB) symptoms, (E): mild infection, (F): moderate infection, and (G & H): severe infection. Source: This study

Hounvigue. TLB incidence was low in the villages of 'Ketou-sodji' and 'Ketou-Issaba,' where the areas were dry and not flooded (Table 4). TLB severity was low in 29.41% of the fields, moderate in 17.6% of the fields, and high in 52.9% of the fields.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this survey suggested that taro is cultivated as an intercrop between (with rice, banana, maize, tannia, and vegetables) 7 to 158.4 masl in the southern region of the Benin Republic. Akplogan et

al. (2018) reported that farmers use many criteria to distinguish between the varieties, which are leaf color, petiole color, skin color, and bud color of the corm. According to Dansi (2006), the eddoe type has large dark green leaves and relatively smaller corms with high dry matter content, while the dasheen type is characterized by small light green leaves with large corms. The two most commonly grown taxonomic variants of *C. esculenta* known as *C. esculenta* var. esculenta and *C. esculenta* var. antiquorum (Ubalua et al., 2016) have been found in the study area. The dasheen type, *C. esculenta* var. esculenta is characterized by a large central corm with suckers and stolons and few cormels, whereas the

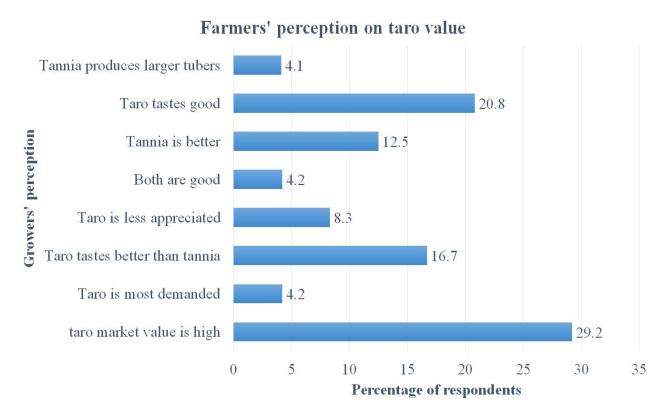


Figure 4. Perception on the value of taro compared to tannia (*Xanthosoma sagittifolium*) among farmers in the southern Benin Republic. Source: This study

Source of taro planting materials

Purchased corms

Own corms/cormels

4.5

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

Percentage of respondents

Figure 5. Sources of taro planting materials in southern Benin Republic. Source: This study

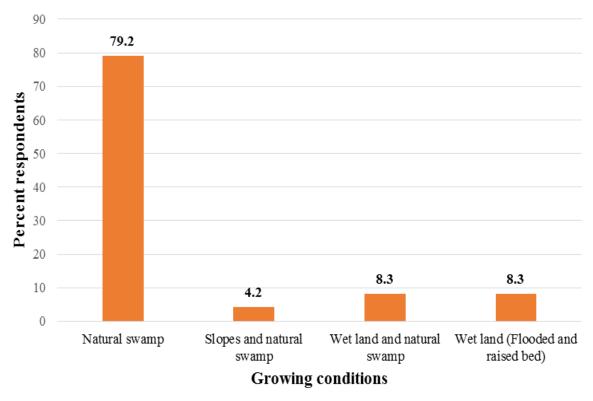
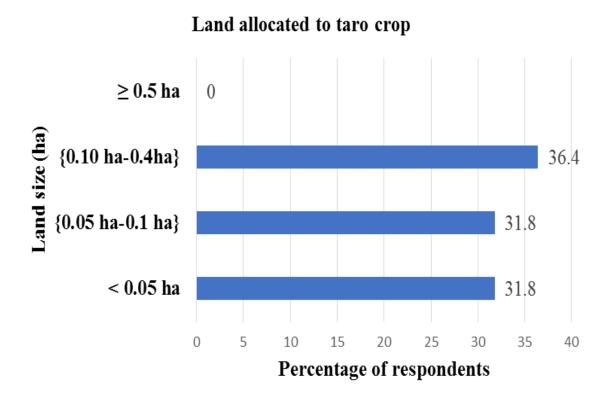


Figure 6. Taro growing environments in southern Benin. Source: This study



 $\label{eq:Figure 7.} \textbf{Figure 7.} \ \textbf{Typical s} \textbf{ize of the taro farm in the study area.} \\ \textbf{Source: This study}$

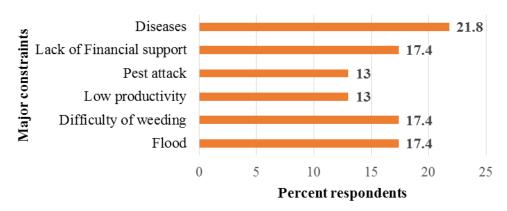


Figure 8. Major constraints in taro production among farmers in Benin. Source: This study

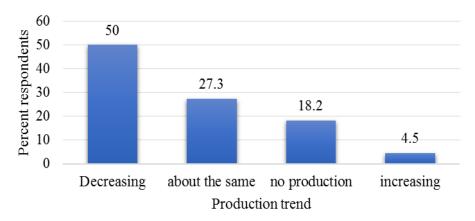


Figure 9. Trend of taro production from 2017-2022 among the farmers assessed in Benin. Source: This study

eddoe type, *C. esculenta* var. *antiquorum* has a small central corm and many smaller cormels (Dai et al., 2016; Mace and Godwin, 2002). The difference between these cultivars is found in the color of the leaves and the color and shape of the corm, the petiole color, and the bud color (Achigan et al., 2010; Houngbo et al., 2015; Akplogan et al., 2018). Since they correspond to two different commercial types, the distinction between dasheen varieties and eddoe types is useful (Quero-Garcia et al., 2004). The dasheen variety appears to be the most preferred taro due to its flavor, taste, high market value, and short cooking time (5-25 min).

The petioles and young leaves are consumed as vegetables, and the corms are boiled, fried, roasted, or pounded in the study area, generally in West Africa (Mwenye, 2009). In the study area, taro corms are also processed into chips, and the flour is incorporated into food for the children. The two main characteristics the farmers indicate for the value of taro corms are the high market value of the corms and the organoleptic

properties, especially the taste. Farmers' perceptions revealed in this study showed that taro is a highly valued product, as confirmed by Houngbo et al. (2015). In Hawaii and other Pacific islands, taro is used to make baby food due to its small and easily digestible starch (Palanisamy et al., 2018). The crop is involved in rituals in Savalou (one of the well-known districts of yam production in the center of the country). Taro is not popular in all the areas visited, especially in the department of Mono, where among nine farmers questioned in 9 villages, 50% of the interviewees revealed they do not know about its value. Further, 22% did not eat it and said that taro is found naturally in nature. The low popularity of taro could be related to the acridity in certain varieties and lack of unawareness of its food use and nutritional value.

In the Benin Republic, many names have been given to refer to taro. Farmers provided four vernacular names, varying from one ethnic group to another for the same variety. The Yoruba and the Nagos name it Ikoko, the

Table 4. Incidence and severity estimation of TLB in 17 villages in Benin Republic.

Department	Commune	Village	Incidence (%)*	Severity score of the plants	Severity score of the field
Plateau	Ketou	Sodji	75	1.7	1.3
Plateau	Ketou	Issaba	25	1.0	0.3
Plateau	Sakete	Illako	35	1.0	0.4
Zou	Zangnanado	Dovi-Zounnou	100	2.8	2.8
Oueme	Adjohoun	Sissekpa	75	3.7	2.8
Oueme	Adjohoun	Kpodedji	50	1.0	0.5
Oueme	Bonou	Hounvigue	85	2.7	2.7
Couffo	Dogbo	Ahomey	25	1.0	0.3
Couffo	Dogbo	Ahomey	25	1.0	1.0
Atlantique	Toffo	Sehoue	100	1.7	1.7
Atlantique	Ze	Hekanme	100	2.6	2.6
Atlantique	Ze	Awokpa	100	2.4	2.4
Atlantique	Ze	Sedje Houegoudo	100	2.3	2.3
Atlantique	Zinvie	Kpanroun	100	1.9	1.9
Mono	Athieme	Kpinnou-zongo	25	2.6	2.6
Mono	Lokossa	Zongo 2	100	2.7	2.7
Mono	Lokossa	Hoin	100	2.9	2.9
Mono	Lokossa	Lokossa-centre	100	2.6	2.6
Plateau	Ketou	Sodji	0	0.0	0.0
Plateau	Ketou	Issaba	0	0.0	0.0
Zou	Zangnanado	Dovi-Zounnou	100	1.8	1.8
Oueme	Adjohoun	Sissekpa	55	1.5	0.9
Oueme	Bonou	Hounvigue	60	1.6	1.0
Mean			66.7	1.8	1.6

^{*}Based on 20 plant assessment per field.

Source: This study

Gouns and the Fons call it Toglin, the Aizos name it Ahoviglin, and the Adjas call it Bangali. The Fons and the Adjas are the largest ethnic groups in the south of the country (Sanni, 2017). Together, the Fons, Adjas, Gouns, and Nagos/Yoruba represent about 35% of the total population. It has been noticed that the taro producers surveyed are among the most widespread ethnic groups in the south of the country.

Out of the 24 farmers questioned, only one (4.1%) was found to have taro as the main source of income. This funding suggested that despite its economic value, taro is grown as a minor crop in the Benin Republic and is not a priority crop for the farmers (Houngbo et al., 2015; Akplogan et al., 2018). Factors such as gender, age. land size, and access to credit have significant influence, although their degree of influence varies from study to study (Okoye et al., 2009; Tumuhimbise et al., 2016). Furthermore, it was hypothesized that the production of taro has a monetary value and that men typically predominate in the cultivation of such crops. This may be explained by their easier access to land and the high value of taro in the market (Tumuhimbise et al., 2016). Women are not much involved in taro production in the Southern part of Benin republic. This situation was also observed in Togo (Bammite et al., 2018) and was reported in Nigeria (Amusa et al., 2011) and Uganda (Tumuhimbise et al., 2016). The most encountered age category was 20 to 40. People in this age range are more productive and can acquire new agricultural extension principles and use them to increase crop yield. Compared to older farmers who may be more experienced, young farmers are most willing to welcome new changes in the agricultural system, such as introducing new varieties.

Akplogan et al. (2018) indicated that the cultivation area varied between <10,000 and 30,000 m². Compared to the results of this investigation, where the taro farmland ranges from 150 to 4230 m², which implies a reduction in the area of production of taro in Benin. About 80% of the farmers interviewed in the commune of Zangnanado, district of Dovi, especially in the village Zounnou (a well-known area of taro production in the southern region), revealed that they do not produce because of TLB. This disease has led to a drastic decrease in taro production, abandonment of lands allocated to its production, and replacement of the crop with rice was observed in another village called Bame in the same department (Otekunrin et al., 2021). Similar constraints were reported by Houngbo et al. (2015), who

mentioned that the low productivity was due to many factors. The most significant is the lack of healthy planting materials. As observed in this study, taro is a marginal and little-documented crop in the Benin Republic. The same situation was observed in Côte d'Ivoire (Koffi et al., 2021). Certain farmers claimed that their total production, which could be estimated at tons before the outbreak of TLB, is now reduced to some kilograms. This highlighted the scarcity of the crop in the study area and may explain its absence in the respective visited markets. It has been reported that TLB can cause yields to drop by 25 to 95% in taro-growing nations (Sharma et al., 2008), which explains why many growers ignore the crop, leading to significant changes in diets and cropping methods in impacted areas (Okereke, 2020; Njideka et al., 2021).

TLB outbreak resulted in a drastic reduction in production level and farmland size in the southern part of Benin. It has been reported that taro is affected by many diseases and pests in many places of the world (Ayogu et al., 2015), especially P. colocasiae (Sarkar et al., 2017; Wondimu et al., 2021). This disease, which is the most devastating, caused economic losses of more than US\$1.4 billion during the TLB pandemic and significantly impacted the genetic diversity of the local gene pool of the plant (Onyeka, 2014). Furthermore, the taro farmers in certain regions in the study area have abandoned taro production, and replacement by rice was made as farmers found no effective means to control the disease. In Cameroon, the same situation has been reported in certain regions, indicating that farmers abandoned taro production due to TLB (Mbong et al., 2013). In the Pacific, it has been shown that chemicals and cultural practices against TLB are largely ineffective (Sarkar et al., 2017).

All farms surveyed in this study recorded above 20% disease incidence, and the highest disease incidence of 100% was recorded in 9 locations (50%) among 18 surveyed farms. The widespread disease may be explained by the high humidity and hot weather temperatures, which create the perfect conditions for the spreading and multiplication of the pathogen (Sarkar et al., 2017; Dossou et al., 2021). The incidence and severity of TLB observed in farms in Zounnou, Sissekpa, Hoin, and Hounvigue seem to be positively correlated, as the highest disease incidence and severity were recorded in each of these locations. This finding is corroborated by Sarkar et al. (2017), who demonstrated that the highest mean Percent Disease Index (PDI) of 20.74 observed in the susceptible cultivar Telia showed a significantly increased blight incidence compared to other cultivars. The market survey conducted in four major taro markets in the study area revealed the absence of taro corms and the scarcity of taro sellers. In the majority of taroproducing nations, it has been reported that TLB has led to a persistently low yield, poor quality corms, and decreased commercialization (Mbong et al., 2013;

Onyeka, 2014).

Cooler temperatures, unrestricted moisture from rain or dew, and a constant daytime wet season are also favorable for the sporangia to produce zoospores (Mbong et al., 2013) while rain splash and wind blow favored its distribution within and between plants (Mbong et al., 2013; Abdulai et al., 2020). It was observed in the study area that farmers can use the same taro farmland for years, and rotation is less practiced as most of the farmers grow taro mainly in marshy lands. This agronomic practice implies that the pathogen can be conserved in the soil from season to season. Previous research revealed that a small percentage of the discharged zoospores in the soil develops a thick wall to become chlamydospores, which can live in the soil for up to three months and may allow the pathogen to survive between harvests (Quitugua and Trujillo, 1998). The pathogen can also survive through vegetative mycelium in infected corms (Gollifer et al., 1980; Mbong et al., 2013).

Conclusions

This survey revealed a need for urgent action to preserve taro genetic resources in Benin. The TLB epidemic in 2009 led to a decline in taro production. Farmers' perception of the value of the taro corms revealed demand for varieties with good organoleptic qualities, high yield, and short maturity. In addition, there is no need to enhance awareness about TLB and control methods and a need for the introduction of TLB-resistant varieties to sustain production. New culinary practices and processing methods may also be needed to produce new taro products by reducing the anti-nutritional properties responsible for the high acridity of the corms in certain varieties and enhancing the value of taro corms. A diversity study of taro cultivars in the Southern part, Central and Northern parts of the country will be of great relevance.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work has been supported by The Swedish Research Council (Grant No. 2019-04270); the Pan African University, Institute of Life and Earth Sciences (PAULESI), Ibadan, Nigeria; the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Ibadan, Nigeria; and the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences (SLU), Sweden. IITA acknowledges funding for the Plant Health Research from the CGIAR Plant Health Initiative

supported by the donors of the CGIAR Trust Fund.

REFERENCES

- Abdulai M, Norshie PM, Santo KG (2020). Incidence and severity of taro (*Colocasia esculenta* L.) blight disease caused by Phytophthora colocasiae in the Bono Region of Ghana. International Journal of Agriculture and Environmental Science 7(2):52-63.
- Achigan-Dako EG, Pasquini MW, Assogba-Komlan F, N'danikou S, Yédomonhan H, Dansi A, Ambrose-Oji B (2010). Traditional vegetables in Benin. Institut National des Recherches Agricoles du Bénin. Imprimeries du CENAP, Cotonou.
- Adinde JO, Anieke UJ, Nwankwo OG, Agu CJ, Aniakor AC, Nwagboso AA, Eze CO (2016). Incidence and severity of Taro-Leaf blight in Iwollo, South-Eastern Nigeria. International Journal of Current Research in Biosciences and Plant Biology 3(10):163-168. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.20546/ijcrbp.2016.310.020
- Akplogan RM, Habib G, Cacaï T, Ahanhanzo C, Houédjissin SS, Traoré ER (2018). Endogenous Perception of the Diversity of Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) Cultivars Produced in Benin. Journal of Plant Sciences 6(4):144-148. doi: 10.11648/j.jps.20180604.14
- Amusa TA, Enete AA, Okon UE (2011). Socioeconomic determinants of cocoyam production among small holder farmers in Ekiti state, Nigeria. International Journal of Agricultural Economics and Rural Development 4(2):97-109.
- Ayogu CJ, Ike CU, Ogbonna OI, Nnaemeka GK (2015). Agricultural extension roles towards adapting to the effects of Taro Leaf Blight (TLB) disease in Nsukka agricultural zone, Enugu state. Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare 5(12):59-72.
- Bammite D, Matthews PJ, Dagnon DY, Agbogan A, Odah K, Dansi A, Tozo K (2018). Constraints to production and preferred traits for taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) and new cocoyam (*Xanthosoma mafaffa*) in Togo, West Africa. African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development 18(2):13388-13405. DOI: 10.18697/ajfand.82.17360
- Bandyopadhyay R, Sharma K, Onyeka TJ, Aregbesola A, Kumar PL (2011). First Report of Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) Leaf Blight Caused by *Phytophthora colocasiae* in Nigeria. Plant Disease 95(5):618. DOI: 10.1094/PDIS-12-10-0890
- Dai HJ, Zhang YM, Sun XQ, Xue JY, Li MM, Cao MX, Shen XL, Hang YY (2016). Two-step identification of taro (*Colocasia esculenta* cv. Xinmaoyu) using specific psbE-petL and simple sequence repeat-sequence characterized amplified regions (SSR-SCAR) markers. Genetics and Molecular Research 15:1-10.
- Dansi A (2006). Culture des racines et tubercules. In. Etat actuel de la diversite vegetale au Benin pp. 228-233.
- Dastidar SG (2009). Colocasia esculenta: An account of its ethnobotany and potentials. M.Sc. Thesis presented to University of Texas, Austin.
- Dossou JF, Li XX, Kang H, Boré A (2021). Impact of climate change on the Oueme basin in Benin. Global Ecology and Conservation 28(2021):e01692. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2021.e01692
- FAOSTAT (2022). FAO Statistical Database.https://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QCL (accessed on 30 July 2022)
- Gollifer DE, Jackson GVH, Newhook FJ (1980). Survival of inoculum of the leaf blight fungus *Phytophthora colocasiae* infecting taro, *Colocasia esculenta* in the Solomon Islands. Annals of Applied Biology 94:379-390.
- Grimaldi IM (2016). Taro across the Oceans, journeys of one of our oldest crops. In. Ursula Thanheiser (ed.) News from the past, Progress in African archaeobotany, 67-81. Proceedings of the 7th International Workshop on African Archaeobotany in Vienna, 2-5 July 2012. Advances in Archaeobotany 3. Barkhuis: Groningen
- Grimaldi IM, Leke WN, Borokini I, Wanjama D, Van Andel T (2018). From landraces to modern cultivars: field observations on taro, *Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott in sub-Saharan Africa. Genetic Resources and Crop Evolution 65(7):1809-1828. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10722-018-0651-4
- Houngbo NE, Abiola A, Dandonon A (2015). Contraintes liées au développement de la culture du taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) au sud-Bénin. International Journal of Neglected and Underutilized Species

- pp. 1:1-9.
- International Plant Genetic Resources Institute (IPGRI) (1999). Descriptors for Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*). IPGRI, Rome, Italy.
- Koffi JMN, Koffi KK, Bonny SB, Bi AIZ (2021). Genetic Diversity of Taro Landraces from Cote d'Ivoire Based on Qualitative Traits of Leaves. Agricultural Sciences 12:1433-1446. https://doi.org/10.4236/as.2021.1212091
- Mace ES, Godwin ID (2002). Development and characterization of polymorphic microsatellite markers in taro (*Colocasia esculenta*). Genome 45:823-832.
- Matthews PJ, Nguyen DV (2014). Taro: Origins and Development. In. Encyclopedia of Global Archaeology, pp. 7238-7240.
- Mbong G, Fokunang C, Fontem LA, Bambot M, Tembe E (2013). An overview of *Phytophthora colocasiae* of cocoyams: A potential economic disease of food security in Cameroon. Discourse Journal of Agriculture and Food Sciences 1(9):140-145.
- Mwenye O (2009). Genetic diversity analysis and nutritional assessment of cocoyam genotypes in Malawi. M.Sc. Thesis presented to University of Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa.
- Njideka F, Nwakaego OC, Virginia CN, Ikechukwu UK (2021). Severity of Phytophthora leaf blight disease and susceptibility of two local varieties of Colocasia to Phytophthora colocasiae Raciborski in Nsukka zone of South Eastern Nigeria. Journal of Biological Research and Biotechnology 19(2):1286-1296.
- Nkengla-Asi L, Eforuoku F, Olaosebikan O, Ladigbolu TA, Amah D, Hanna R, Kumar PL (2021). Gender roles in sourcing and sharing of banana planting material in communities with and without banana bunchy top disease in Nigeria. Sustainability 13(6):3310. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13063310
- Okereke NR (2020). Taro Leaf Blight: Threat to taro (*Colocasia esculenta* L. Schott) production. Nigerian Agricultural Journal 51(2):281-286. Available at: http://www.ajol.info/index.php/naj
- Okoye B, Onyenweaku C, Agwu A (2009). Technical Efficiency of Small-Holder Cocoyam Farmers in Anambra State Nigeria: Implications for Agricultural Extension Policy. Journal of Agricultural Extension 12(1):107-116. DOI: 10.4314/jae.v12i1.47032
- Oladimeji JJ, Kumar PL, Abe A, Vetukuri RR, Bhattacharjee R (2022). Taro in West Africa: status, challenges, and opportunities. Agronomy 12:2094. https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy12092094
- Omane E, Oduro KA, Cornelius EW, Opoku IY, Akrofi AY, Sharma K, Kumar PL, Bandyopadhyay R (2012). First Report of Leaf Blight of Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) Caused by Phytophthora colocasiae in Ghana. Plant Disease 96(2):292. DOI: 10.1094/PDIS-09-11-0789
- Onyeka J (2014). Status of Cocoyam (*Colocasia esculenta* and *Xanthosoma* spp) in West and Central Africa: Production, Household Importance and the Threat from Leaf Blight. CGIAR Research Program on Roots, Tubers and Bananas (RTB). Available online at www.rtb.cgiar.org.
- Otekunrin OA, Sawicka B, Adeyonu AG, Rachoń L (2021). Cocoyam [Colocasia esculenta (L.) Schott]: Exploring the Production, Health and Trade Potentials in Sub-Saharan Africa. Sustainability 13(4483):1-21. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13084483
- Otieno CA (2020). Taro Leaf Blight (Phytophthora colocasiae) Disease Pathogenicity on Selected Taro (*Colocasiae esculenta*) Accessions in Maseno, Kenya. Open Access Library Journal 7:e6393.
- Palanisamy P, Bakthavatchalam P, Karthikeyan M, Gnanasekaran A, Basalingappa KM (2018). Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*): An overview. Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies 6(4):156-161.
- Quero-Garcia J, Noyer JL, Perrier X, Marchand JL, Lebot V (2004). A germplasm stratification of taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) based on agromorphological descriptors, validation by AFLP markers. Euphytica 137(3):387-395.
- Quitugua RJ, Trujillo EE (1998). Survival of *Phytophthora colocasiae* in field soil at various temperatures and water matric potentials. Plant Disease 82(2):203-207.
- Rashmi DR, Anitha B, Anjum S (2018). An overview of taro (*Colocasia esculenta*): A review. Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies 6(10):346-353. D OI: 10.15413/ajar.2018.0144
- Sanni MA (2017). Langues parlées au sein du ménage et assimilation linguistique au Bénin Languages Spoken in the Household and Linguistic Assimilation in Benin Langues parlées au sein du ménage et assimilation linguistique au Bénin mouftaou amadou sanni.

- Cahiers Québécois De Démographie 46(2):219-239.
- Sarkar D, Adhikary NK, Tarafdar J (2017). Field Management of Taro Leaf Blight using Promising Germplasm of Taro. International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences 6(12):1399-1407. https://doi.org/10.7202/1054053ar
- Sharma K, Mishra AK, Misra RS (2008). Analysis of AFLP Variation of Taro Population and Markers Associated with Leaf Blight Resistance Gene. Academic Journal of Plant Sciences 1(3):42-48.
- Tsopmbeng G, Fontem D, Yamde K (2012). Evaluation of culture media for growth and sporulation of Phytophthora colocasiae Racib., causal agent of taro leaf blight. International Journal of Biological and Chemical Sciences 6(4):1566-1573. http://ajol.info/index.php/ijbcs
- Tumuhimbise R, Gwokyalya R, Kazigaba D, Basoga M, Namuyanja V, Kamusiime E (2016). Assessment of Production Systems, Constraints and Farmers 'Preferences for Taro (*Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott) in Uganda. American-Eurasian Journal of Agriculture and Environemental Sciences 16(1):126-132. DOI: 10.5829/idosi.aejaes.2016.16.1.12775

- Ubalua AO, Ewa F, Okeagu OD (2016). Potentials and challenges of sustainable taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) production in Nigeria. Journal of Applied Biology and Biotechnology 4(1):53-59.
- Ugwuja FN, Onyeka TJ, Chiejina NV, Ugwuoke KI (2020). Effect of phytophthora leaf blight disease of taro [colocasia esculenta(l.) Schott] on proximate and phytochemical constituents of infected corms. Nigeria Agricultural Journal 51(1):142-150. Available at: http://www.ajol.info/index.php/naj
- Wondimu Fufa T, Ogba Oselebe H, Veronica Nnamani C, Azubuike Afiukwa C, Aniedi Uyoh E (2021). Systematic Review on Farmers' Perceptions, Preferences and Utilization Patterns of Taro [Colocasia esculenta (L.) Scott] for Food and Nutrition Security in Nigeria. Journal of Plant Sciences 9(4):224-233.

Supplementary

Supplementary file 1. Markets surveyed in taro growing regions of southern Benin Republic.

Department/Region	Commune	Market name	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude (masl)
Couffo	Aplahoue	Azove	6.9446858	1.6973573	188.7
Couffo	Djakotomey	Djakotomey	6.9080996	1.7138861	141.9
Oueme	Dangbo	Dangbo	6.5859295	2.5506279	47.4
Oueme	Dangbo	Malome	6.5868234	2.5387617	11.6

Source: Field survey conducted in southern region of Benin Republic in July-November 2021 and January 2022.

Supplementary file 2. Questionnaire used for the survey "ethnobotany and perceptions on the value of taro	(Colocasia
esculenta) among farmers in Benin Republic"	

Questionnaire Identification Number:

PART A: INTERVIEW BACKGROUND (Adapted from Baseline Survey on Banana Bunchy Top Disease (BBTD) Situation, Kumar, 2014)

1. Date of interview: Day: Month: Year: 20......

Country	State/	LGA/	Village/	Rainfall	Humidity	GPS readings of homestead			
	Region	District	Community			Waypoint ID	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude

- 2. Locational Details
- 6. Any telephone for contact:
- 7. Number of persons living in the household.....
- 8. Major source of income.....
- 9. Who makes decisions regarding the following?

Reason for making decision

Who makes decision? (Code A)

Crops grown

Type of taro variety to plant

Farm operation

Amount of produce to be consumed

Amount of produce to be sold

Food security coping mechanism to use in case of food shortage

Code A: 1=Head of household; 2=Spouse; 3=Both head of household and spouse; 4=Son/daughter; 5=Others (Specify:)

PART B: ETHNOBOTANY AND USES OF TARO (Adapted from IPGRI, 1999)

- Historical and cultural background
- 1. What is the local name for this variety?
- 2. What is the meaning of the name?
- 3. What language and ethnic group is the name from?
- 4. Is there any folklore associated with this taro variety? If so, describe it briefly......
- - 6. What are the special uses of this plant? (1=Children; 2=Older people; 3=Feasts; 4=Religious

purpose; 5=Chiefs; 99= other (specify)) 7. What parts of the plant are used? (1= Petiole; 2= Leaf; 3= Corm; 4= Cormel; 5= Stolon; 6 Flower/inflorescence; 7= Root; 8= Tuber; 9= Sap/resin; 99=Other (specify))
9. How frequent is this variety used for cooking? (1=daily; 2=weekly; 3=occasionally; 99=other	S
(specify)) 10. How many methods of processing is/are available (1=fermentation; 2=puddings; 3=chips; 99=other	'S
(specify)) 11. What is the main cooking method? (1=Boiling; 2=Baking; 3=Roasting; 4=Local specialties; 99=other	'S
(specify)) 12. How long does it take to cook?	∍r
15. Does the cooked corm have an aroma?(0=Absent (Non-aromatic); 1=Preser (Aromatic))	١t
16. How palatable is the cooked leaf? (1=Poor; 2=Acceptable; 3=Good) 17. How palatable is the cooked petiole? (1=Poor; 2=Acceptable; 3=Good) 18. How does the cooked inflorescence taste? (1=Poor; 2=Acceptable; 3=Good)	
III. Taro value 19. Is the plant popular among farmers and the people?	
 IV. Taro ecology 22. What is the suitable growing condition?	
PART C: TARO PRODUCTION AND CONSTRAINTS (Adapted from Baseline Survey on Banana Bunchy Top Diseas (BBTD) Situation, Kumar, 2014) 1. How long have you been growing taro?	
Major constraints Rank	
4. What pests and diseases are present and when do you encounter them? (Use codes below)	
Pests and diseases encountered When? (code A) Pests and diseases control strategies if any	
Code A: 1. Before corm development; 2: After corm development 5. Will you be interested to destroy all the diseased taros and replant with new plants? 1=Yes; 2=No and Reason 6. What is the main source of your planting materials? (1=Own corms/cormels; 2=Purchased corms/cormels; 3 other, specify:) 7. If purchased, from where? (1=Inside this village; 2=Outside the village)	

O. If a now are in 'year' for	•		•	•			-INO	
9. If answer is 'yes' for					etnous to contro	ı ıt?		
10. Were you satisfied								
11. If answer is 'no' for					••			
12. Are your fields off					from whon (on	provimata da	tal and he	w much area
13. Are your fields afferwas lost?		1 E 3	9-1 NO	–z, ii yes	irom when (ap	proximate da	te) and no	w much area
14. Are you aware of a		tochnolo	aios2 How di	d vou got	this information	2		
15. If you are aware of							nortant ro	acon for non
use? (Circle one only)	any ILB Contic	JI LECITIC	logy but have	inot adop	neu arry, wriat i	s the most im	ιρυπαπι το	ason for hon-
1. Gathering mo	ro information a	hout tho	tochnology					
2. Technology no		bout the	technology					
3. Too risky to a								
4. Traditional cor	•	hetter						
5. Lack of cash	iti oi piaotioo io i	octtor.						
6. Lack of sufficient	ent labor							
7. Others (e.g. ci								
20. In case of non-ado					t to adopt it late	r? YES=	=1	NO=2
21. If NO from 20 above								
22. If YES from 21 abo								
* Where only tannia (X				•				
1. How long have you	been growing ta	annia (Xa	anthosoma sp	o.)?	(In years)			
2. Do you prefer tannia				,	,			
3. If #2 is yes/No, Why								
4. Why do you have or	nly tannia on yo	ur field?		(Dise	ease incidence	of taro or wha	it)	
5. If #4 above is due to	disease, then	what dis	ease wiped o	ff the tarc	plants?			
PART D: FARM STRE (BBTD) Situation, Kum 1. What are the major (Starting by 1=the me	nar, 2014) production cons			·		,	,	.,
Major	constraints			Rank				
<u></u>								
2. Which pests and dis	seases are pres	ent and	when do you	encounte	r those (Use co	des below)		
						,		
Pests and diseases	encountered		When?	Pe	ests and diseas	ses control s	trategies	if any
3. Which of the following	ng methods do	you use	to control pes	sts and dis	seases in your t	aro farm whe	n you noti	ce them?
	Methods	Yes N	o Frequenc			T		
			Not at all	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly		
	Cultural			1				
	Biological			1				
	Chemical			1				
	Indigenous							

4. What is the roughly estimated quantity of the taro corms you got from your farms in the past 4 years?

Farm size (ha) | Year 2017 | Year 2018 | Year 2019 | Year 2020