

International Journal of Biosciences | IJB | ISSN: 2220-6655 (Print), 2222-5234 (Online) http://www.innspub.net Vol. 14, No. 4, p. 264-274, 2019

OPEN ACCESS

Antifungal activity by resistance inducing salicylic acid and plant extracts against postharvest rots of tomato

Muhammad Usman Ghazanfar¹, Waqas Raza^{*1}, Zafar Iqbal¹, Salman Ahmad¹, Misbah Iqbal Qamar¹, Muzammil Hussain^{1,2}

¹Department of Plant Pathology, College of Agriculture, University of Sargodha Sargodha, Pakistan ¹²State Key Laboratory of Mycology, Institute of Microbiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 8 Beijing 100101, China

Key words: Antifungal, salicylic acid, resistance, alternative, fungicides.

http://dx.doi.org/10.12692/ijb/14.4.264-274

Article published on April15, 2019

Abstract

The utilization of resistance inducing salicylic acid (SA) and botanicals could be valuable alternatives for the management of postharvest diseases of tomato. The aim of this study was to assess the antifungal activity of salicylic acid and plant extracts against sour rot, pink mold rot and *Rhizopus* soft rot of tomato. Antifungal activity of all botanicals was tested by media amendments and detached fruit assays. The harvested tomato fruits were sprayed with 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10mm salicylic acid and dipped in 25%, 50% and 75% (w/v) extracts of the three plant species. The tomato fruits were inoculated with 10⁵/ml conidia of each tested fungi. The results revealed that SA concentration of 6mM completely retarded the radial growth of all plant pathogens and extract of kinnow fruit peel showed significantly (P<0.05) high antifungal activity and also completely inhibited mycelium growth of tested pathogens. Garlic extract was effective in reducing mycelium growth of *G. candidum* and *T. roseum*, while mentha leaves extract proved effective against the mycelial growth of *R. oryzae*. Postharvest application of SA significantly reduced at 50% concentration when harvested tomatoes were dipped in kinnow peel extract. In conclusion, resistance inducing SA and natural botanicals have potential to manage of postharvest fungal diseases of tomato and can be the alternatives of health hazardous chemical pesticides.

* Corresponding Author: Waqas Raza 🖂 waqasraza61@yahoo.com

Introduction

Sour rot, pink mold rot and Rhizopus soft rot in tomato are caused by Geotrichum candidum, Trichothecium roseum and Rhizopus oryzae, respectively (Fajola, 2006; Bartz et al., 2010; Hamid et al., 2014). These fungal pathogens cause severe economic losses in field and after harvest during transportation and storage. Severity of fruit losses due to these pathogens greatly varied and depends upon environmental conditions, production area and postharvest handling practices. These pathogens are opportunistic pathogens and enter into tomato fruits through wounds during preharvest and postharvest stage. As a result of G. candidum infection, the tomato fruits turn soft with light to yellow-brown coloration as the decay enlarges it moves downward may indulge whole fruit and results in vinegar like sour smelling (Thornton et al., 2010; Yaghmour et al., 2012). T. roseum results in rotting of fruits with circular and water soaked lesion. The fungus produced mycelium and spores on the surface of host and result in severe rotting within tomato fruits (Hamid *et al.*, 2014). Whereas, fruits infected with *R*. oryzae showed water soaked lesion increasing with time in diameter and fruit become fully rotted after 36-48 hour of infection. Grey hyphae in the form of web originate from water soaked lesion comprised of sporangia, sporangiophores, stolons and rhizoids (Kwon et al., 2011).

Postharvest pathogens are main menace to tomato fruits; especially *Rhizopus* spp. caused significant damage after harvest in stored conditions. Currently, postharvest diseases are controlled with the use of synthetic fungicides, for instance, imazalil, sodium ortho-phenylphenate and thiabendazole (Ismail and Zhang, 2004; Kinay *et al.*, 2007). These synthetic chemicals are efficient for management of latent pathogens, or prevent from infection although development of resistance by pathogen has been reported in packing houses (Eckert, 1990). In addition, environmental pollution, health hazards, pathogens resistance and high cost, diverted researches to find potential alternatives of these synthetic chemical fungicides (Li and Xiao, 2007; Mari *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to develop such management strategies which are safe for consumer health and environment friendly.

Among an alternative that is more eco-friendly is the appliance of such chemicals that provoke resistance in host against the plant pathogens. Basically, induce resistance produce in plants is the result of harmless compounds that trigger plant defense systems (Olivieri et al., 2009). Salicylic acid is a plant resistance hormone present in plant cells (Hayat and Ahmad, 2007). It is primarily involved in defense mechanism of plant and induces resistance in fruits against post-harvest plant pathogens (Hussain et al., 2014). Moreover, SA has also been reported to have antifungal action against important pathogens (Zainuri et al., 2001; Cao et al., 2006). SA has also effectively prevented the rotting of fruits, for instance, SA considerably reduced diameter of lesion on muskmelon inoculated by T. roseum at room temperature (Cun-fei et al., 2012). In another study, SA completely inhibited R. stolonifer mycelium growth at 5mM concentration and also significantly reduced rotting lesion diameter on peach fruits (Panahirad et al., 2012).

Plant extracts have been gained scientific interest as a substitute of synthetic fungicides to manage postharvest plant diseases due to their antimicrobial action (Verástegui et al., 2008; Santas et al., 2010). Plants synthesize secondary metabolites such as phenol, quinines, flavonoids, tanninsand these compound produced by plants with phenolic structures like eugenol, carvacrol and thymol have the ability to inhibit pathogens (Cowan, 1999; Arif et al., 2009). These groups of compounds showed antifungal activity and involved in defense mechanisms of plants (Das et al., 2010). Garlic (A. sativum) extract have shown significant inhibitory effect against Penicillium digitatum (Obagwu et al., 1997). The antifungal property of garlic is the presence of compound allicin, which is the main ingredient in A. sativum. Mentha (M. spicata) is also reported to have antifungal action in respect to citrus postharvest diseases (du Plooy et al., 2009).

Inhibitory property has been accredited to constitutive components of citrus peel. Thus, we carried out research on the development of plant extracts from garlic, mentha and kinnow peel as a potential alternative of synthetic fungicides to manage postharvest diseases of tomato.

The key objectives of this study plan were to investigate the alternatives ways of synthetic chemical fungicides to manage postharvest fungal rots for tomato fruits. Resistance inducing salicylic acid and some botanicals were evaluated to inhibit the common postharvest rots by using different concentrations which proved to be an alternative strategy by lowering the human health risks and environmental friendly.

Materials and methods

Fungal cultures

The isolates of *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* were obtained from infected fruits of tomato and used in present study. Each fungus was cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) (LAB M Limited, United Kingdom) medium at $24\pm1^{\circ}$ C. Fungal pure colonies were maintained on Potato dextrose agar medium and stored at 4° C for further study.

Preparation of spore suspension

The suspension of spore of pathogens prepared by addition of 10ml distilled water into pure colony of 10 days old culture and glass rod was used to remove conidia from mycelium. The spore concentration was adjusted to 1×10^5 spores/ml through hemocytometer and Tween 20 (0.05% (v/v)) was used to prepare spore suspension.

In-vitro assessment of SA on the growth of pathogens

The efficacy of SA on the mycelial growth of *G*. *candidum, T. roseum and R. oryzae* were assessed according to methodology adopted (Yao and Tian, 2005). SA was primarily dissolved in 1% ethanol and then subsequent required concentrations were prepared in distilled water. Five concentrations of SA (0 to 10mm) were prepared and amended into PDA medium. When PDA medium solidified, 5mm discs

of*G.* candidum, *T.* roseum and *R.* oryzae inoculated into the middle of each Petri dish and after that plates incubated at $24\pm1^{\circ}$ C. The data of mycelium growth was recorded at 48, 72 and 96, 120h for *R.* oryzae, 48, 96, 144 and 192h for *G.* candidum and additionally 240h for *T.* roseum. The treatment without amendment was allocated as control. The present trial was conducted with three replications and each replication was consisting of three Petri dishes.

The mycelium growth of pathogens was calculated by using formula: {(colony width of treatment – colony width of control) \div (colony width of control)} × 100 (Juliano *et al.*, 2000). Fresh and healthy tomato fruits of same size and maturity without any fungicide treatment for present study were collected from greenhouses. All the fruits were of same size and maturity. Selected fruits were sanitized with sodium hypochlorite (1%) solution for 5 mins subsequently three to four washing with distilled water and subject to natural air drying at room temperature for further studies. Surface sterilized fruits were dipped into SA solution (2, 4, 6, 8 and 10mm) for 30 minutes and control fruits were in sterilized water.

The inoculation was done by inserting 30µl spore suspension of each pathogen into injured fruits (0.5mm diameter, 5mm depth). The data was recorded at 24, 48 and 72h. The experimental composed of three replications and each replicate consist of three fruit.

Plant material and preparation of extract

Garlic, mentha and kinnow were harvested from plants within the territory of Sargodha region and dipped in sodium hypochlorite (1%), followed by washing with the help of distilled water and subjected to natural drying. Leaves of mentha were homogenized in distilled water and crude plant extract (100%) obtained through a muslin cloth. Similarly, Garlic bulb and kinnow peel was crushed in blender with water 1:1 (w/v) and then squeezed through muslin cloth. All plant extracts were heated at 40°C for 15 minutes to keep away from contamination and further diluted to requisite concentrations. In vitro evaluation of plant extracts against pathogens

The efficacy of plant extracts against *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* were evaluated using food poison technique. Plant extracts of all concentrations (25%, 50%, and 75%) were amended into molten potato dextrose agar media at the rate of 1:4 (v/v) and poured into Petri plates. An agar disc (5mm) from pure cultures of *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* was placed in the centre of each Petri plate containing PDA media and incubated at 24°C. PDA plates without plant extract served like control.

The experimental plan was included three replications with three Petri plates of PDA medium in each replication. The tomato fruits were disinfected with 70% ethanol for 2 minutes and followed by drying under sterile condition at room temperature.

After that fruits were dipped in different concentration (25%, 50%, and 75%) of plant extracts for 30 minutes and allowed to dry all dipped fruits at room temperature. The twenty five microliters of 10⁵ conidia/mL of each pathogen were inoculated into injured fruits then placed in plastic bags and stored at 24°C for 3 days. Each treatment having three fruits and replicated for three times.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis performed using R.3.0.3-Statistical program. Two factor factorial analysis was used for the assessment of results. Duncan's Multiple Range (DMR) test was used to compared treatment means (P = 0.05). Each fungus was evaluated individually.

Results

Effect of SA on mycelium growth of pathogens

The mycelium growth of G. candidum, T. roseum and *R. oryzae* was entirely retarded by ≥ 6 mm of SA. The concentration of 2 and 4mm SA considerably reduced mycelial growth, when compared with control of all pathogens. The fungal mycelium growth was initiated on second day and clear difference in growth diameter of all pathogens was easily observable on the third day. The delay in growth perhaps due to the injury of hyphae while transferring to the newly prepared PDA media. The 2 and 4mm concentration of SA proved to be significantly effective and provided 51.5% and 75% growth inhibition of G. candidum, respectively after 8 days per inoculation. The growth of T. roseum was inhibited more than 64% as compared to control at 2mm concentration of SA after 10 days per inoculation followed by 74.3% at 4mm concentration. The level of R. oryzae growth inhibition after 5 days per inoculation at 2 and 4mm concentration was 26.8% and 53.1%, respectively (Table 1, 2, 3). The result obtained from 2 and 4mm conc. showed significant difference ($P \le 0.05$) in mycelium inhibition of pathogen, while SA concentrations (6, 8 and 10mm) were significantly same in inhibiting mycelium growth.

The high inhibition concentration ≥ 6 mm of SA was equally effective *in vitro* as the fungicides to inhibit *G*. *candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae*. In the control treatments, *R. oryzae* showed faster mycelium growth and covered whole Petri plates after 120h while *G. candidum* and *T. roseum* reached to the same level after 192 and 240h, respectively

Table 1. Mycelium growth and percentage inhibition rates of *T. roseum* under different concentrations of salicylic acid in plate assay.

	48h ^A			96h ^B			144h ^c			192h ^D		
Treatments	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)
2Mm ^B	$5.66 {\pm} 0.29^{\mathrm{b}}$		54.4	$10.8{\pm}0.32^{b}$		61	15.1 ± 0.26^{b}		64	$22.0{\pm}0.37^{\rm b}$		67.7
4Mm ^c	$2.88 \pm 0.26^{\circ}$		76.8	$5.11 {\pm} 0.20^{c}$		81.6	8.55 ± 0.17^{c}		79.8	14.4±0.29 ^c	(0)	78.9
6Mm ^D	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\rm d}$	1.24±0.3"	100	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\rm d}$	27.7±0.3ª	100	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\text{d}}$	42.4±0.4ª	100	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\text{d}}$	68.1±0.3"	100
8Mm ^D	$\textbf{0.00}{\pm}\textbf{0.00}^{d}$		100	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\text{d}}$		100	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\text{d}}$		100	$0.00{\pm}0.00^{\text{d}}$		100
10Mm ^D	$\textbf{0.00}{\pm}\textbf{0.00}^{d}$		100	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\text{d}}$		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\text{d}}$		100

The treatments mean were compared using Duncan multiple range test (p≤0.05), TG= Total Growth; CG= Control Growth; IP= Inhibition Percentage.

Table 2. Mycelial growth rate and percentage inhibition of *G. candidum* at different concentrations of salicylic acid in plate assay

	48h ^A			96h ^B			144h ^C			192h ^D		
Treatments	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)
2Mm ^B	6.00 ± 0.37^{b}	_	59.5	15.1 ± 0.26^{b}	_	52.8	26.0 ± 0.37^{b}		50.9	40.8±0.46 ^b		51.5
4Mm ^c	2.88±0.26 ^c	_	80.5	6.77±0.54 ^c	_	78.8	13.4±0.38°		74.7	21.0±0.66 ^c		75.0
6Mm ^D	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	14.8 ± 0.2^{a}	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	32.0 ± 0.2^a	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	52.9 ± 0.5^{a}	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	84.2 ± 0.6^{a}	100
8Mm ^D	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	_	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	_	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100
10Mm ^D	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	-	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	-	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100

The treatments mean were compared using Duncan multiple range test (p≤0.05),TG= Total Growth; CG= Control Growth; IP= Inhibition Percentage.

Table 3. Mycelial growth rate and percentage inhibition of *R*. *oryzae* at different concentrations of salicylic acid in plate assay

_	48h ^A			72h ^B			96h ^c			120h ^D		
Treatments	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)
2Mm ^B	10.6 ± 0.50^{b}		60.9	24.3 ± 0.52^{b}		44.0	40.8±0.66 ^b		37.2	65.3±1.00 ^b		26.8
4Mm ^c	4.00±0.29 ^c		85.2	11.8±0.36 ^c		72.8	24.0 ± 0.55^{c}		63.1	41.8±0.64 ^c		53.1
6Mm ^D	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\text{d}}$	27.1 ± 1.3^{a}	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	43.4 ± 0.7^{a}	100	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\mathrm{d}}$	65.0±0.8 ^a	100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}	89.2±0.4 ^a	100
8Mm ^D	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100
10Mm ^D	$0.00 \pm 0.00^{\text{d}}$		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{d}		100	$0.00 {\pm} 0.00^{d}$		100

The treatments mean were compared using Duncan multiple range test ($p \le 0.05$), TG= Total Growth; CG=

Control Growth; IP= Inhibition Percentage.



Fig. 1. Detached fruit assay to access the different concentrations of salicylic acid on tomato fruits to suppress the postharvest pathogens.

Effect of postharvest application of SA

All the concentration of SA on harvested tomato by dipping method reduced lesion diameter considerably (P < 0.05) as compared to control. Application of SA on harvested fruits at 8mm concentration provided effective control of sour rot, pink mold rot and *Rhizopus* soft rot up to 48h after inoculation at ambient temperature. SA at 10mm concentration showed least lesion diameter of *Rhizopus* rot and pink mold rot on tomato fruits while completely control sour rot on day 3. The mean lesion diameter inhibition of *G. candidum* after 72h of inoculation

was 70.9, 94.5 and 100% on the tomato fruits treated with 6, 8 and 10mm, respectively and was significantly greater than the control. For *T. roseum* the mean lesion diameter inhibition percentage was 44.1, 65.1 and 81.2% at 6, 8 and 10mm concentration, while at the same SA concentrations the inhibition rate of *R. oryzae* was 69.2, 86 and 95% after 72h of inoculation. Experiment showed that SA significantly.

Reduces the lesion diameter on fruits but its efficacy greatly varies for each pathogen and it decreases with passage of time.

Evaluation of plant extract on mycelium growth of postharvest pathogens

The extracts of garlic bulb, mentha leaves and kinnow peel were effective in reducing mycelium development of *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* at all tested concentrations. Results showed that, extracts of *A. sativum*, *C. reticulata* and *M. spicata* completely inhibited pathogens growth at 100% concentration except in case of *T. roseum* by *M. spicata*. The percentage growth inhibition of *G. candidum* by *A. sativum*, *C. reticulata* and *M.* *spicata*at concentration of 50% was 78.9, 94.72 and 68.08%, whereas for *T. roseum* the inhibition percentage was 70.73, 86.68 and 59.03% while in case of *R. oryzae* it was 69.61, 88.17 and 82.69%. *A. sativum* and *C. reticulata* were effective to reduce *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* hyphal growth by 90% at 75% concentration, more than the extract of *M. spicata* leaves at the same concentration (Fig 2). In general all three extract were established as the most effective plant extracts to control *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* in *vitro*.

Table 4. Lesion diameter and inhibition percentage of *T. roseum* after different time interval on tomato fruit.

		24h ^A			48h ^B		72h ^C			
Treatments	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	TG(mm)	CG(mm)	IP(%)	
2Mm ^B	4.88 ± 0.22^{b}		29.1	11.7±0.29 ^b		24.2	16.9 ± 0.35^{b}		24.2	
4Mm ^c	3.33 ± 0.17^{c}		51.6	8.22±0.22 ^c		46.8	$15.2 \pm 0.32^{\circ}$		46.8	
6Mm ^D	1.44 ± 0.18^{d}	6.88 ± 0.4^{a}	79.1	5.88 ± 0.31^{d}	15.44 ± 0.3^{a}	61.9	11.9 ± 0.31^{d}	15.44±0.3	61.9	
8Mm ^E	0.00 ± 0.00^{e}		100	3.33 ± 0.24^{e}		78.4	7.44±0.38 ^e		78.4	
10Mm ^F	0.00 ± 0.00^{e}		100	0.00 ± 0.00^{f}		99.3	4.00 ± 0.40^{f}		99.3	
				_						

The treatments mean were compared using Duncan multiple range test ($p \le 0.05$), TG= Total Growth; CG= Control Growth; IP= Inhibition Percentage.



Fig. 2.Effect of different concentrations of plant extracts on the mycelial growth of postharvest pathogens of tomato on potato dextrose agar at $24\pm1^{\circ}$ C. Significant differences (P< 0.05) between means were indicated by different letters above histogram bars.

Effect of plant extracts on artificially inoculated fruits

Plant extracts proved significant in reducing growth of disease on artificially inoculated tomato fruits. Sour rot caused by *G. candidum* was completely inhibited by *C. reticulata* at 75 and 100% concentration after 3 days at $24\pm1^{\circ}C$. Moreover, plant extracts of *A. sativum* and *M. spicata* in tomato fruits inhibited *G. candidum* lesions diameter up to or more than 90% at 75 and 100% concentration. Extract of *C. reticulata* completely inhibited *T. roseum* at 75 and 100% concentration of *T. roseum* by *A. sativum* was 78.15 and 97.93%,

respectively. The efficacy of *M. spicata* against *T. roseum* was moderate with percentage inhibition of 64.08 and 87.52% at 75 and 100% concentration, respectively (Table 5). For the control of *R. oryzae*, extracts of *M. spicata* and *C. reticulata* showed very promising result at 100% concentration and completely inhibit lesion diameter on inoculated tomato fruits. All extracts showed more than 50 percent inhibition of lesion diameter at 50% concentration. In general peel extract of *C. reticulata* proved to be more valuable in controlling lesion diameter of *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae*, followed by extract of *A. sativum* and *M. spicata*.

Table 5. Effects of different concentrations of plant extracts on lesion diameter of tomato fruit caused by *T*. *roseum*, *G. candidum* and *R. oryzae* applied as dip application method and incubated at $24\pm1^{\circ}$ C.

Treatments	Doses	Α	llium sativu	т	С	itrus reticula	ta	Ν	Menthaspicata			
			Time intervals									
		24	48	72	24	48	72	24	48	72		
T. roseum	25%	5.11 ± 0.20^{b} (25.5)	11.3±0.29 ^b (26.6)	16.6±0.33 ^b (22.1)	1.11 ± 0.31^{b} (83.9)	4.78±0.22 ^b (68.9)	9.67±0.47 ^b (54.6)	5.78±0.15 ^b (16.1)	14.3±0.24 ^b (7.14)	18.8±0.46 ^b (11.6)		
	50%	1.33 ± 0.17^{c} (50.7)	5.67±0.17 ^c (63.2)	11.4±0.24 ^c (46.5)	0.00±0.00 ^c (100)	1.22±0.43 ^c (92.1)	$3.56 \pm 0.47^{\circ}$ (83.3)	$3.22\pm0.15^{\circ}$ (53.3)	7.78±0.15 ^c (49.5)	12.7±0.17 ^c (40.4)		
	75%	0.00±0.00 ^d (100)	1.67±0.24 ^d (89.2)	4.87±0.28 ^d (78.1)	0.00±0.00 ^c (100)	0.00±0.00 ^d (100)	0.00±0.00 ^d (100)	0.00±0.00 ^d (100)	3.56±0.10 ^d (100)	7.67±0.17 ^d (64.0)		
	Control	6.89 ± 0.33^{a}	15.4±0.29 ^a	21.3 ± 0.53^{a}	6.89 ± 0.33^{a}	15.4 ± 0.29^{a}	21.3 ± 0.53^{a}	6.89 ± 0.33^{a}	15.4 ± 0.29^{a}	21.3 ± 0.53^{a}		
G. candidum	25%	2.00±0.24 ^b (61.7)	5.22±0.46 ^b (77.1)	21.8±0.49 ^b (51.3)	0.00±0.00 ^b (100)	2.22 ± 0.22^{b} (90.3)	8.11±0.31 ^b (81.9)	4.56±0.18 ^b (12.6)	11.9±0.26 ^b (47.8)	25.4 ± 0.41^{b} (43.3)		
	50%	0.44±0.18° (91.6)	2.67±0.20 ^c (88.3)	10.1±0.48 ^c (77.5)	0.00±0.00 ^b (100)	0.00±0.00 ^c (100)	1.56±0.18 ^c (96.5)	2.56±0.18 ^c (50.9)	5.56±0.18 ^c (75.6)	14.1±0.20 ^c (68.5)		
	75%	$0.00\pm 0.00^{\circ}$ (100)	0.44±0.18 ^d (98.1)	3.33±0.29 ^d (78.1)	0.00±0.00 ^b (100)	0.00±0.00 ^c (100)	0.00±0.00 ^d (100)	$0.33 \pm 0.17^{\rm d}$ (93.7)	$1.67 \pm 0.17^{\rm d}$ (92.7)	4.67±0.17d (89.6)		
	Control	5.22 ± 0.22^{a}	22.5±0.46 ^a	44.8±0.62 ^a	5.22 ± 0.22^{a}	22.5±0.46 ^a	44.8 ± 0.62^{a}	5.22 ± 0.22^{a}	22.5±0.46 ^a	44.8±0.62 ^a		
	25%	11.7 ± 0.24^{b} (24.0)	22.3 ± 0.47^{b} (22.0)	34.0±0.67 ^b (30.8)	7.56 ± 0.18^{b} (50.9)	13.3 ± 0.33^{b} (53.5)	17.6±0.24 ^b (64.2)	7.56±0.18 ^b (50.9)	14.8 ± 0.22^{b} (48.3)	23.4 ± 0.18^{b} (52.3)		
R. oryzae	50%	5.22±0.15 ^c (66.1)	11.7±0.41 ^c (59.1)	17.6±0.24 ^c (64.2)	3.56±0.24 ^c (76.9)	6.67±0.24 ^c (76.6)	11.4±0.24 ^c (76.9)	$3.22 \pm 0.32^{\circ}$ (79.1)	$7.11\pm0.35^{\circ}$ (75.1)	13.8±0.28 ^c (71.9)		
	75%	0.78±0.28 ^d (94.9)	2.56±0.34 ^d (91.0)	7.44±0.29 ^d (78.1)	1.33 ± 0.17^{d} (91.4)	2.22 ± 0.15^{d} (92.2)	4.11±0.39 ^d (91.6)	1.22 ± 0.15^{d} (92.1)	$3.67 \pm 0.17^{\rm d}$ (87.2)	6.44±0.18 ^d (86.9)		
	Control	15.4 ± 0.33^{a}	28.6 ± 0.44^{a}	49.1±0.68 ^a	15.4 ± 0.33^{a}	28.6 ± 0.44^{a}	49.1±0.68 ^a	15.4 ± 0.33^{a}	28.6 ± 0.44^{a}	49.1±0.68 ^a		

Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by DMRT (Values in the parenthesis are inhibition percentage (%).

Discussion

The results showed that SA was very effective in reducing mycelium development of *G. candidum, T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* significantly. The treatment ≥ 6 mm of SA completely inhibited the mycelium growth of tested pathogens. The decrease in mycelial growth may be due to antifungal activity of SA. In recent studies, antifungal effect of SA has been published against different postharvest pathogens like *A. alternata, M. fructicola, P. digitatum, P. expansum,* and *P. italicum* in citrus (Qin *et al.,* 2003; Yao and Tian, 2005; Wang and Li, 2008; Iqbal *et al.,* 2012). It was studied that SA between 2 to 5mm concentrations inhibited 50% of *in vitro* fungal mycelium growth of pathogens while concentration

(0.5mm) had no effect on the development of pathogens (Strobel and Porter, 2005). The overall findings of the present study also demonstrated that SA at 2mm, 4mm concentration caused more than 50% inhibition of G. candidum and T. roseum, while in case of R. oryzae 2mm concentration was least effective but 4mm inhibited 50% of mycelium growth. It is apparent from present study that SA has potential to control G. candidum, T. roseum and R. oryzae by reducing mycelium growth and conidial germination thus inhibiting ability of pathogens to cause primary infection. The trials on harvested fruits against G. candidum, T. roseum and R. oryzaeare according to hypothesis that exogenous appliance of SA significantly reduces disease. In general

application of SA after harvesting of tomato fruits at 8 and 10mm concentration inhibited the growth of pathogens on wounded sites. It was published that SA treatment at 2 to 10mm was moderately effective against pathogens and also recommended the inclusion of synergistic antifungal agents (Strobel and Porter, 2005). It was discussed before, SA directly control postharvest pathogens due to its fungitoxic activity. Therefore inoculation of pathogen in tomato fruits after treatment with SA induce resistance in fruits (Verberne *et al.*, 2000) but in addition the contact between pathogens and SA solution results in direct fungicidal influence and induce inhibitory effect (Panahirad *et al.*, 2012).

In conclusion, the dipping of fruits in SA solution instantly after harvest provided effective control of sour rot, pink mold rot and *Rhizopus* soft rot of tomato. This study provides an effectiveness of SA for the control of tomato postharvest diseases. Exercise of natural compounds that enhance resistance in harvested fruits against fungal infection has become more widely accepted and an efficient control strategy for disease management (Caccioni *et al.*, 1998; Cerioni *et al.*, 2009). The efficacy of SA in reducing or minimizing the incidence of *G. candidum*, *T. roseum* and *R. oryzae* under different physiological conditions needs research prior to their exploitation on a large and commercial scale.

The result of the botanical extracts of *A. sativum, C. reticulata* and *M. spicata* significantly inhibited mycelium development of *G. candidum, T. roseum* and *R. oryzae in-vitro* at all concentration as compared to control. The mycelium inhibition percentage was increased with the increase in level of plant extract concentration. Timothy *et al.*, (2012) also reported a dose dependent antimicrobial action of *Cassia alata* against some pathogenic fungi. Plant extract of garlic has been reported to entirely inhibited *Botrytis cineria* spore germination (Wilson *et al.*, 1997). The active compound in garlic extract that is involved in the antimicrobial activity is allicin (Curtis *et al.*, 2004). The fungitoxic effect of *M. spicata* has been already studied against *Fusarium*

oxysporum f. sp. radicis-cucumerinum in cucumber (Nosrati *et al.*, 2011). In this study,kinnow peel significantly inhibited mycelium growth of tomato postharvest pathogens. Rodov *et al.*, (1995) reported that lemon peel contain an active compound citral that play significant role in growth retardation of fungal postharvest pathogens.

In present study, we observed that pathogens growth at 75% concentration were not initiated in early days of incubation but as the time progressed mycelium growth was also observed on same concentration. The response of extract to pathogen growth is directly related to its potential use to reduce pathogen inoculums. Hence, it was recommended that every pathosystem should search out separately to evaluate the viability of utilizing plant extracts to manage plant diseases (Curtis *et al.*, 2004).

We also observed that plant extracts of A. sativum, C. reticulata and M. spicata significantly reduced lesion diameter of G. candidum, T. roseum and R. oryzae on tomato. As mentioned above, allicin is the active compound of garlic and this compound approximately constituent 70 to 90% of the overall sample (Combrink et al., 2011). Mechanism of allyl chain is still under debate but it is possible that the antifungal action of garlic extract may be due to allyl chain. In our study, leaves extract of mentha was limited to completely inhibit the development of G. candidum and T. roseum on tomato fruits, beside to perform efficiently in vitro. Carvalho et al., (2011) reported that plant extracts except Anadenantheracolubrina proved less effective against Alternaria alternata during in vivo trial on fruits of Murcotttangor, although all plant extracts performed very effective in vitro. Plaza et al., (2004) reported that essential oils were unable to control Penicillium spp. when oil directly applied to artificially inoculated fruits. Results of our study clearly demonstrated the fungitoxic effect of Allium sativum (garlic), Citrus reticulata (Kinnow) and Menthaspicata (mentha) against sour rot, pink mold rot and Rhizopus rot of tomato respectively. In future, our main focus will be on the extraction of the main active compounds from these extracts with high antifungal potential.

References

Arif T, Mandal TK, Dabur R. 2009. Natural products-antifungal agents derived from plants. Journal of Asian Natural Products Research 11, 621-638.

Bartz JA, Sargent SA, Mahovic M. 2009. Guide to Identifying and Controlling Postharvest Tomato Diseases in Florida. Publication HS866/HS131 Horticultural Sciences Department,Florida Cooperative Extension Service. University of Florida/IFAS, Gainesville 866.

Caccioni DR, Guizzardi M, Biondi DM, Renda A, Ruberto G. 1998. Relationship between volatile components of citrus fruit essential oils and antimicrobial action on *Penicillium digitatum* and *Penicillium italicum*. International Journal of Food Microbiology**43**, 73-79.

Cao J, Zeng K, Jiang W. 2006. Enhancement of postharvest disease resistance in Ya Li pear (*Pyrus bretschneideri*) fruit by salicylic acid sprays on the trees during fruit growth. European Journal of plant pathology114, 363-370.

Carvalho DDC, Alves E, Camargos RB, Oliveira DF, Scolforo JRS, de Carvalho DA, Batista TRS. 2011. Plant extracts to control *Alternaria alternata* in Murcott tangor fruits. Revista Iberoamericana de Micología**28**, 173-178.

Cerioni L, Rapisarda VA, Hilal M, Prado FE. 2009. Rodriguez-Montelongo, L. Synergistic antifungal activity of sodium hypochlorite, hydrogen peroxide, and cupric sulfate against *Penicillium digitatum*. Journal of food protection**72**, 1660-1665.

Combrinck S, Regnier T, Kamatou GPP. 2011. *In vitro* activity of eighteen essential oils and some major components against common postharvest fungal pathogens of fruit. Industrial Crops and Products**33**, 344-349.

Cowan MM. 1999. Plant products as antimicrobial agents. Clinical microbiology reviews**12**, 564-582.

Cun-fei FAN, Yang BI, Yun-fei WANG, Ya-lin REN, Zhi-min YiYA. 2012. Effect of salicylic acid dipping on postharvest diseases and phenyl propanoid pathway in muskmelon fruits. Scientia Agricultura Sinica**3**, 021.

Curtis H, Noll U, Störmann J, Slusarenko AJ. 2004. Broad-spectrum activity of the volatile phytoanticipin allicin in extracts of garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) against plant pathogenic bacteria, fungi and Oomycetes. Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology**65**, 79-89.

Das K, Tiwari RKS, Shrivastava DK. 2010. Techniques for evaluation of medicinal plant products as antimicrobial agents: current methods and future trends. Journal of medicinal plants research**4**, 104-111.

Du Plooy W, Regnier T, Combrinck S. 2009. Essential oil amended coatings as alternatives to synthetic fungicides in citrus postharvest management. Postharvest Biology and Technology**53**, 117-122.

Eckert JW. 1990. Impact of fungicide resistance on citrus fruit decay control.

Fajola AO. 1979. The Post-Harvest Fruit Rots of Tomato (*Lycopersicum esculentum*) in Nigeria.Molecular Nutrition and Food Research23, 105-109.

Green MB, LeBaron HM, Moberg WK. (Eds.). 1990. Managing resistance to agrochemicals: From fundamental research to practical strategies, American Chemical Society.

Hamid MI, Hussain M, Ghazanfar MU, Raza M, Liu XZ. 2014. *Trichothecium roseum* causes fruit rot of tomato, orange, and apple in Pakistan. Plant Disease **98**, 1271-1271.

Hayat S, Ali B, Ahmad A. 2007. Salicylic acid: biosynthesis, metabolism and physiological role in plants. Salicylic acid: A plant hormone 1-14.

Hussain M, Hamid MI, Ghazanfar MU. 2015. Salicylic acid induced resistance in fruits to combat against postharvest pathogens: a review. Archives of Phytopathology and Plant Protection**48**, 34-42.

Iqbal Z, Singh Z, Khangura R, Ahmad S. 2012. Management of citrus blue and green moulds through application of organic elicitors. Australasian Plant Pathology**41**, 69-77.

Ismail M, Zhang J. 2004. Post-harvest citrus diseases and their control. Outlooks on Pest Management15, 29.

Joyce DC, Wearing H, Coates L, Terry L. 2001. Effects of phosphonate and salicylic acid treatments on anthracnose disease development and ripening of Kensington Pride'mango fruit. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture**41**, 805-813.

Joyce DC, Wearing H, Coates L, Terry L. 2001. Effects of phosphonate and salicylic acid treatments on anthracnose disease development and ripening of Kensington Pride'mango fruit. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture **41**, 805-813.

Juliano C, Mattana A, Usai M. 2000. Composition and *in vitro* antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of Thymus herba-barona Loisel growing wild in Sardinia. Journal of Essential Oil Research**12**, 516-522.

Kinay P, Mansour MF, Gabler FM, Margosan DA, Smilanick JL. 2007. Characterization of fungicide-resistant isolates of *Penicillium digitatum* collected in California. Crop Protection**26**, 647-656.

Kwon JH, Kim J, Kim WI. 2011. First report of Rhizopus oryzae as a postharvest pathogen of apple in Korea. Mycobiology**39**, 140-142.

Li HX, Xiao CL. 2008. Characterization of fludioxonil-resistant and pyrimethanil-resistant phenotypes of *Penicillium expansum* from apple. Phytopathology**98**, 427-435.

Mari M, Neri F, Bertolini P. 2007. Novel approaches to prevent and control postharvest diseases of fruits. Stewart Postharvest Rev3, 1-7.

Nosrati S, Esmailzadeh-Hosseini SA, Sarpeleh A, Soflaei Shahrbabak M, Soflaei Shahrbabak Y. 2011. Antifungal Activity of Spearmint (*Mentha Spicata* L.) Essential Oil on *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. radiciscucumerinum the Causal Agent of Stem and Crown Rot of Greenhouse Cucumber in Yazd, Iran. In International Conference on Environmental and Agricultural Engineering, Chengdu, China**15**, 52-56.

Obagwu J, Emechebe AM, Adeoti AA. 1997. Effect of extracts of garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) bulb and neem (*Azadirachta indica* Juss) seed on the mycelium growth and sporulation of Colletotrichum capsici. Journal of Agricultural Technology**5**, 51-55.

Olivieri FP, Lobato MC, Altamiranda EG, Daleo GR, Huarte M, Guevara MG, Andreu AB. 2009. BABA effects on the behaviour of potato cultivars infected by *Phytophthora infestans* and *Fusarium solani*. European Journal of Plant Pathology23, 47-56.

Panahirad S, Zaare-Nahandi F, Safaralizadeh R, Alizadeh-Salteh S. 2012. Postharvest control of *Rhizopus stolonifer* in peach (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch) fruits using salicylic acid. Journal of Food Safety**32**, 502-507.

Plaza P, Torres R, Usall J, Lamarca N, Vinas I. 2004. Evaluation of the potential of commercial postharvest application of essential oils to control citrus decay. The journal of Horticultural Science and Biotechnology**79**, 935-940.

Qin GZ, Tian SP, Xu Y, Wan YK. 2003. Enhancement of biocontrol efficacy of antagonistic yeasts by salicylic acid in sweet cherry fruit. Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology**62**, 147-154.

Rodov V, Ben-Yehoshua S, Fang DQ, Kim JJ, Ashkenazi R. 1995. Preformed antifungal compounds of lemon fruit: citral and its relation to disease resistance. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**43**, 1057-1061.

Santas J, Almajano MP, Carbó R. 2010. Antimicrobial and antioxidant activity of crude onion (*Allium cepa*, L.) extracts. International journal of food science and technology**45**, 403-409.

Strobel NE, Porter LA. 2005. Salicylate inhibits growth of plant-pathogenic fungi and synergistically enhances the activity of other antifungal materials *in vitro*. Journal of the Kentucky Academy of Science**66**, 118-128.

Thornton CR, Slaughter DC, Davis RM. 2010. Detection of the sour-rot pathogen *Geotrichum candidum* in tomato fruit and juice by using a highly specific monoclonal antibody-based ELISA.Internationaljournal of food microbiology**143**, 166-172.

Timothy SY, Wazis CH, Adati RG, Maspalma ID. 2012. Antifungal activity of aqueous and ethanolic leaf extracts of *Cassia alata* Linn. Journal of Appl. Pharm. Science **2**, 182-185.

Verástegui Á, Verde J, García S, Heredia N, Oranday A, Rivas C. 2008. Species of Agave with antimicrobial activity against selected pathogenic bacteria and fungi. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology24, 1249-1252. **Verberne MC, Verpoorte R, Bol JF, Mercado-Blanco J, Linthorst HJ.** 2000. Overproduction of salicylic acid in plants by bacterial transgenes enhances pathogen resistance. Nature biotechnology**18**, 779.

Wang L, Li S. 2008. Role of salicylic acid in postharvest physiology In: Fresh produce. Global Science Books, Ltd., UK, 2(1-2).

Wilson CL, Solar JM, El Ghaouth A, Wisniewski ME. 1997. Rapid evaluation of plant extracts and essential oils for antifungal activity against *Botrytis cinerea*. Plant disease**81**, 204-210.

Yaghmour MA, Bostock RM, Morgan DP, Michailides TJ. 2012. Biology and sources of inoculum of *Geotrichum candidum* causing sour rot of peach and nectarine fruit in California. Plant disease96, 204-210.

Yao H, Tian S. 2005. Effects of pre-and postharvest application of salicylic acid or methyl jasmonate on inducing disease resistance of sweet cherry fruit in storage. Postharvest Biology and Technology**35**, 253-262.

Zainuri JDC, Wearing AH, Coates L, Terry L. 2001. Effects of phosphonate and salicylic acid treatments on anthracnose disease development and ripening of 'Kensington Pride' mango fruit. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture **41**, 805-813.