

Effect of alcoholic extracts of *Cymbopogon citratus* upon the control of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* *in vitro* and upon the post-harvest quality of guavas

Ana P. F. A. Santos¹, Amanda P. Mattos^{1*}; Adriana T. Itako², João B. Tolentino Júnior², Gabriela S. Moura¹, Kátia R. F. Schwan-Estrada¹

¹Department of Agronomy, State University of Maringa, Av. Colombo, 5790 - Zona 7, Maringá-PR, 87020-900, Brazil.

²Department of Agriculture, Biodiversity and Forests, Federal University of Santa Catarina, Rodovia Ulysses Gaboardi, s/n, km 3, CEP 89520-000, Curitiba, Santa Catarina, Brazil.

ABSTRACT

Aims: This work aimed at evaluating the effects of ethanolic and methanolic extracts of lemongrass upon the control *in vitro* of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and upon the post-harvest quality of guavas "Paluma".

Methodology: We analyzed the inhibition of mycelial growth and sporulation of the pathogen at different concentrations of the extracts (8%; 5%; 3%; 1.5% and 0.5%). In the post-harvest assay, the guavas were treated by immersion in distilled water, ethanolic and methanolic extracts (1%; 0.5% and 0.25%) and stored at 25°C ± 2 °C for eight days. We evaluated mass loss, total soluble solids, total titratable acidity, ratio, reducing and non-reducing sugars, ascorbic acid and pH and the incidence of anthracnose.

Results: In the test *in vitro*, the pathogen growth inhibition was dose-dependent and the sporulation was completely inhibited upon higher concentrations of extract. At post-harvest, the fruits maintained their physicochemical characteristics, and the treatments were not efficient at retarding fruit ripening. Although the tested treatments inhibited the plant pathogen *C. gloeosporioides in vitro*, they were not efficient at controlling the disease *in vivo*.

Conclusion:

Keywords: Anthracnose, *Psidium guajava*, medicinal plants (without italics)

1. INTRODUCTION

Guava (*Psidium guajava*) is appreciated both fresh and industrially processed. The increase in consumption of fruits and natural juices shows a worldwide tendency that can be used as incentive for a quality production [1, 2, 3].

The great perishability of guava and the post-harvest diseases are factors that are strongly responsible for its low commercialization rate. Among diseases, anthracnose is considered one of the most serious ones that attack guava trees. It is caused by the fungus *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* (Penz.). At first, the symptoms are characterized by round-shaped and dark-colored lesions, which grow in size and become depressed. Under conditions of high humidity, there is the formation of a mass of rosaceous spores in the middle of the lesion [4, 5, 6].

The use of agrochemicals in disease control, in some cases, has been exacerbated and indiscriminate, bringing risks to the population's health and irreparable damages to the environment be it either due to the non-observance towards the doses and periods of shortage, or due to the use of non-registered active principles in the crop [7, 8].

Among the alternative strategies that are used, we can find the use of gross extracts or essential oils, obtained from native flora. These treatments have showed potential for the control of plant pathogens, both for their direct fungitoxic action, inhibiting mycelial growth and spore germination, and for inducing phytoalexines, indicating the presence of compound(s) with elicitor characteristics [9]. Extracts and essential oils of medicinal plants have showed positive effects on the control of plant pathogens *in vitro* [10, 11, 12] and *in vivo* [13, 14]. Thus, given the need for alternatives in the control of post-harvest diseases, the aim of this work was to evaluate the effects of ethanolic and methanolic extracts of lemongrass upon the control *in vitro* of *C. gloeosporioides* and inhibitory activity *in vivo* of these extracts upon the post-harvest quality of guava (cv. Paluma).

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This work was carried out at the State University of Maringá, Paraná, in the Laboratory of Plant Pathology, Laboratory of Medicinal Plants and in the Laboratory of Food Biochemistry.

2.1 Obtention of the isolated culture of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*

In order to obtain the pathogen, ripe guavas (*Psidium guajava* L.), cultivar Paluma, purchased in the City Market of Maringá, Paraná, were conditioned individually in humid chambers, kept at an average temperature of 28 °C, until some lesions and fungal structures, characteristic of *C. gloeosporioides*, appeared. In aseptic conditions, by means of direct isolation, fungal structures, characterized by a mass of orange spores and mycelia of bigger lesions, were transferred to Petri dishes (90 mm) containing a culture medium agar-water (AW) at 2%, kept in a BOD hothouse at 28 ± 2 °C, in the dark, for 7 d. After the colonies grew, discs of 5 mm in diameter, were transferred to a medium Potato-Dextrose-Agar (PDA) and incubated in a BOD hothouse at 28 ± 2 °C, in the dark, for 7 d.

2.2 Obtention of plant extracts

In order to obtain alcoholic tincture, fresh leaves of lemongrass (*Cymbopogon citratus*) were collected in the Medicinal Garden of the State University of Maringá, Paraná (UEM), between 2-4 PM. 200 g of fresh leaves were triturated in 1000 mL of ethanol 96 °GL or methanol (P.A) for 3 min and where they were kept under maceration process for 15 d, in a fridge at 4 ± 2 °C. After this period, the liquid (main tincture) was filtered using sterile gauze and stored in amber flasks, kept at 4 ± 2 °C, until the moment of use.

2.3 Effect of the alcoholic extracts upon the development *in vitro* of *C. gloeosporioides*

The ethanolic and methanolic extracts of lemongrass were separately incorporated into the PDA medium at the following concentrations: 8%, 5%, 3%, 1.5% and 0.5% (p/v). They were later sterilized by autoclaving and placed in Petri dishes. Afterwards, the fungus was inoculated from discs of 8 mm in diameter in the center of the Petri dish. These dishes were incubated in a growth chamber at 25 ± 1 °C, in the dark.

We carried out the test for inhibition of mycelial growth, according to Barrera-Necha *et al.* [15], where

76 $IC = \{(\text{diameter of the control} - \text{diameter of the treatment}) / \text{diameter of the control}\} \times 100$.

77 Then, was calculate the area under the mycelial growth curve (AUMGC), equation proposed
78 by Campbell and Madden [16]. Then the number of spores/cm² of colony was determined by
79 counting the spores in Neubauer's chamber, under the optical microscope.

80 A fully randomized design was used, with five treatments, four repetitions and experimental
81 parcel consisting of a Petri dish.

82 **2.4 Effect of the alcoholic extracts upon the development *in vivo* of *C. gloeosporioides*** 83 **and the post-harvest quality of the fruits**

84 For the evaluations *in vivo*, we used guavas cv. Paluma, harvested in a private rural
85 property, which had cases of anthracnose in previous crops. The uninjured fruits, after
86 cleansing and superficial disinfection, were immersed for 1 min, in the following treatments:
87 distilled water (Control); ethanolic extract (ECL) and methanolic extract (MCL) at 1%; 0.5%
88 and 0.25%. The fruits were placed in plastic trays and stored for eight days at room
89 temperature (25°C ± 2 °C), being evaluated after this period. In preliminary experiments, the
90 concentrations above 1% showed phytotoxicity to the fruits. Thus, the concentrations were
91 reduced for the *in vivo* tests.

92 We evaluated the incidence and control of anthracnose (%) in fruits treated and non-
93 inoculated and the percentage of ill fruits was calculated from the number of fruits that
94 developed the disease [17].

95 At the test for fruit quality, we analyzed its physicochemical parameters, after the extraction
96 of fruit pulp, according to IAL [18], such as mass loss (determined by the equation that
97 related the initial mass with the final mass of the fruits and expressed as percentage); total
98 soluble solids (TSS) (determined by means of a refractometer and expressed as °Brix);
99 Ratio TSS/TTA (Ratio) (calculated by the quotient of the relation between TSS and TTA),
100 reducing (RS) and non-reducing sugars (NS) (determined by titration, using Fehling's
101 Solution A and B); Vitamin C (based on the reduction of 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol-
102 sodium by ascorbic acid and expressed as milligrams of ascorbic acid) and pH (by means of
103 a digital pHmeter. The results were expressed as pH units). All the results were expressed
104 as 100 g of pulp⁻¹.

105 The experiments were made in a fully randomized deign. For evaluations *in vitro*, we used
106 five repetitions, being that the experimental unit was on Petri Dish. In the evaluations,
107 incidence and control of anthracnose and in the physicochemical parameters, 7 treatments
108 were used and four repetitions; the experimental unit consisted of 8 guavas.

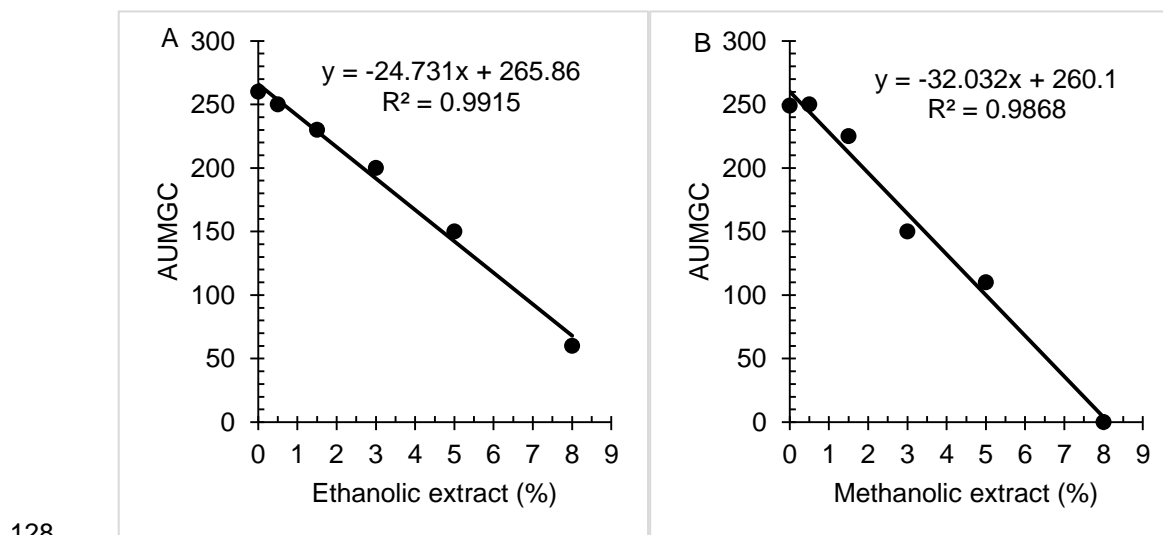
109 The results obtained in all tests were submitted to analysis of variance and the averages
110 were compared by Scott-Knott's test, at the level of 5% of probability, with the aid of the
111 statistical software SASM-Agri [19].

113 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

115 **3.1 Effect *in vitro* of the extracts upon the mycelial growth and sporulation of *C.*** 116 ***gloeosporioides***

118 The results displayed on Fig. 1 show that there was a significant difference among the
119 treatments with ethanolic and methanolic extracts, at the concentrations tested.

120 In the variable, area under the mycelial growth curve (AUMGC), the treatment with ethanolic
 121 and methanolic extracts affected significantly the growth *in vitro* of the pathogen. There was
 122 a dose-dependent effect, i.e., the higher the concentration of the extract, the higher was the
 123 inhibition of mycelial growth of the plant pathogen. The total inhibition of the mycelial growth
 124 occurred at the concentration of 8% of ethanolic extract. In the presence of methanolic
 125 extract, the highest concentrations showed the highest values of growth inhibition. At 8%,
 126 the extract inhibited the mycelial growth by 77%.
 127



128
 129 **Fig. 1: Area under the mycelial growth curve (AUMGC) of *C. gloeosporioides* due to**
 130 **treatment with different concentrations of ethanolic (A) and methanolic (B) extracts**
 131 **the *C. citratus*. Significant at 1% probability.**
 132

133 In general, the extracts with ethanol as solvent proportioned a higher inhibition of mycelial
 134 growth. According to Naruzawa and Papa [20], hydroethanolic extracts were more efficient
 135 at inhibiting both mycelial growth and spore germination. For the authors, ethanol is a better
 136 extractor of substances with antifungal characteristics.
 137 The reduction in mycelial growth of plant pathogens, using extract and oil of different
 138 medicinal plants, was verified by several researchers in different pathosystems. Itako *et al.*
 139 [11] studied gross aqueous extracts of *Achillea millefolium*, *Artemisia camphorata*, *C. citratus*
 140 and *Rosmarinus officinalis* and observed that they inhibited mycelial growth and reduced
 141 sporulation and germination of *Cladosporium fulvum* at concentrations of 20% and 40%.
 142 Silva *et al.* [10] verified the effect *in vitro* of extracts of the medicinal plants *Costus Pisonis*,
 143 *A. millefolium* (yarrow) and *Plectranthus barbatus* (Indian Coleus) upon the mycelial growth
 144 of *C. musae* (isolated from banana), *C. gloeosporioides* (isolated from papaya), *C.*
 145 *gloeosporioides* (isolated from cocoa) and *C. lindemuthianum* (isolated from beans). All
 146 extracts showed some fungitoxic effect upon the mycelia. The leaf extract of *C. barbatus*
 147 reduced the mycelial growth of *C. musae*, *C. gloeosporioides* (papaya), *C. gloeosporioides*
 148 (cocoa) and *C. lindemuthianum* in 82, 49, 47 and 53%, respectively. Silva *et al.* [12], while
 149 studying extracts of different plants, observed that the aqueous extract of clove and garlic
 150 controlled 100% of mycelial growth and promoted high inhibition of mycelial development of
 151 *C. gloeosporioides*, *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *vasinfectum* and *P. oryzae*, respectively. On the

other hand, extracts of pepper and Nin proportioned fungitoxicity upon *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *vasinfectum* and *Pyricularia oryzae*. Sporulation of *C. gloeosporioides* upon the different extracts is displayed on Table 1. There was a significant statistical difference among the treatments with higher concentrations of extract. When compared with the control treatment, the lowest sporulation levels were observed in the highest concentrations of extract. There was 100% of inhibition of sporulation at 8% of ethanolic and methanolic extracts. Comparing mycelial growth and sporulation, the treatments that had ethanol as solvent at their highest concentrations, contributed with a higher inhibition of mycelial growth and lower sporulation. In the treatments with methanol, only the concentration of 8% showed a complete inhibition of sporulation and mycelial growth. In a work with 20 vegetal extracts, Celoto *et al.* [13], verified that 65% of hydroethanolic extracts showed a higher percentage of inhibition of mycelial growth, when compared to aqueous extracts. The same authors explains that is means that ethanol is more efficient at extracting antifungal substances.

Table 1. Effects of ethanolic (ECL) and methanolic extracts (MCL) of lemongrass at different concentrations on sporulation of *C. gloeosporioides* afther 7 days.

Treatments	number of spores .cm ⁻²
Control	144 a
ECL 8,0%	0 e
ECL 5,0%	1 e
ECL 3,0%	5 d
ECL 1,5%	7 d
ECL 0,5%	2 e
MCL 8,0%	0 e
MCL 5,0%	15 c
MCL 3,0%	5 d
MCL 1,5%	4 d
MCL 0,5%	40 b
C.V (%)	18,7

* Means followed by the same letter do not differ at the 5% probability level by the Scott-Knott test. ¹ Number of repetitions = 5.

171

172 3.2 Anthracnose control *in vitro* and post-harvest quality of fruits

173

174 The average percentage of the analyses of anthracnose incidence and control are displayed
175 on Table 2. The treatments were not efficient at controlling the disease, because the treated
176 fruits showed higher anthracnose incidence than the control treatment.

177

178 **Table 2. Incidence (%) and control of anthracnose (%) in guava fruits cv. Paluma**
179 **naturally infected with *C. gloeosporioides* after treatment with ethanolic lemon grass**
180 **extract (ECL) and methanolic lemon grass extract (MCL) after 8 days (25°C ± 2°C).**

Treatments	Incidence (%)	Control of anthracnose (%)
Control	29,2 f	71,5 a

ECL 1%	75,1 c	25,5 d
ECL 0,5%	91,7 a	9,5 f
ECL 0,25%	91,7 a	21,0 e
MCL 1%	54,2 e	46,0 b
MCL 0,5%	54,2 e	46,0 b
MCL 0,25%	75,0 c	24,5 d
CV (%)	0,04	1,47

*Means followed by the same letter do not differ at the 5% probability level by the Scott-Knott test. ¹ Number of repetitions = 5.

Fungus *C. gloeosporioides* is a post-harvest pathogen that infects fruits, especially new fruits, during their growth in orchards [21]. The fungus produces appressoria that penetrate in the fruits cuticle and creates latent subcuticular hyphae that will only grow when the fruit is ripe.

The host's physiological state varies to difference factors, including maturation, storage, mechanical damages and temperature extremes. When physiological alterations happen to the host, it inhibits its own defensive mechanisms, as a response to the pathogen action, which is supported by the host. The resistance of the unripe fruit to the fungal attack may be associated to the production of compounds that are made previously in the peel or pericarp [22]. Once the infected fruit is still unripe, the fungus remains dormant until the moment when the concentration of antifungal substances drops to non-toxic levels, which is when the fruit is ripe [23].

The treatments evaluated in the experiment may somehow have contributed to the acceleration in maturation of guavas, creating the perfect conditions for the development of the plant pathogen. The fruits treated showed an early ripening when compared to the control fruits. These data were observed in the physicochemical analyses. It was observed that the fruits treated with ethanolic extracts at 0.5% showed a higher incidence of the disease.

These results show the need for more studies, in order to understand the action of vegetal extracts and essential oils that can be used in the post-harvest control of climacteric (guava) or non-climacteric fruits.

Regarding mass loss and observing data shown on Table 3, it is verified that the treatments, when compared with the control treatment, did not show any statistical difference, indicating a positive effect. In guavas cv. Kumagai stored for 14 and 21 days, storage at 10 or 12° C resulted in greater mass loss when compared to storage at 2 or 8°C [24].

Table 3: Mass loss (%) in guava fruits cv. Paluma after treatment with ethanolic lemon grass extract (ECL) and methanolic lemon grass extract (MCL) after 8 days (25°C ± 2°C).

Treatments	Mass loss (%)
Control	14,0 a
ECL 1,0%	15,2 a
ECL 0,5%	15,0 a

ECL 0,25%	16,1 a
MCL 1,0%	17,0 a
MCL 0,5%	15,7 a
MCL 0,25%	18,0 a
CV (%)	8,3

* Means followed by the same letter do not differ at the 5% probability level by the Scott-Knott test.

¹ Number of repetitions = 5.

The quality parameters analyzed for guavas are displayed on Table 4. There was no significant reduction in the content of total soluble solids during storage. The treatment with methanolic extract at 0.25% was the one that differed statistically. When comparing both solvents used in the extracts, it can be observed that, regardless of concentration, the extracts with **ethanol** showed an increase in soluble solids and the extracts with **methanol**, showed a decrease; however, they did not differ statistically. For Chitarra and Chitarra [25], after harvest, the content of soluble solids in guava seems to not suffer any significant alteration, and it can be explained by the low content of starch in this fruit.

Table 4. Chemical parameters evaluated in guava (cv. Paluma) after treatments with ethanolic extract (ECL) and methanolic (MCL) of lemongrass and 8 days (25°C ± 2°C).

Treatments	TSS	TTA	RATIO	RS	NS	VIT C	pH
Control	5,60a	0,43d	9,89b	5,58b	2,79b	37,18b	3,86a
ECL 1,00%	5,85a	0,42d	13,29a	8,34a	4,17a	66,56a	3,86a
ECL 0,50%	6,05a	0,77a	14,08a	8,55a	4,27a	34,48b	3,94a
ECL 0,25%	5,83a	0,49c	7,91b	7,08 ^b	3,54b	68,89a	3,90a
MCL 1,00%	5,60a	0,42d	11,98a	6,26b	3,13b	79,19a	3,94a
MCL 0,50%	5,28a	0,64b	13,55a	11,51a	5,75a	34,10b	3,90a
MCL 0,25%	4,10b	0,62b	8,28b	8,47a	4,23a	33,40b	3,94a
C.V (%)	7,35	3,69	9,15	12,04	12,16	16,95	0,20
Day 0	5,65	0,57	10,09	13,05	6,52	43,10	3,90

* Means followed by the same letter do not differ at the 5% probability level by the Scott-Knott test.

¹ Number of repetitions=4. ² TSS: °Brix.100 g de pulp⁻¹; TTA: % of citric acid 100 g de pulp⁻¹; RS: % reducing sugars in glucose; NS: % non-reducing sugars; VIT C: mg of ascorbic acid.100 g de pulp⁻¹.

As for titratable acidity, there was a significant difference among the treatments; the ethanolic extract at 0.5% showed the highest concentration of citric acid. The content of organic acids tends to decrease during maturation, due to the oxidation of acids during respiration, being fundamental for the synthesis of phenolic compounds, lipids and volatile scents (Chitarra and Chitarra 2005). Lima *et al.* [26] found variation in acidity in ripe guavas, from 0.40 to 1.04% of citric acid. The variation in acidity can be indicative of ripening stage, since acidity decreases as a function of ripening and shows a slight increase during senescence [27].

Ratio TSS/TAA was 5.93 in fruits right after harvest. After storage, the fruits treated with the highest concentrations of extract (1% and 0.5%), for both solvents, showed a higher ratio. The increase in concentration of the extracts may have favored the ripening of fruits when

261 compared to the control treatment, once soluble solids increase as the fruit ripens, due to the
262 decrease in acidity [25].

263 The treatment with ethanolic extract at 1% and 0.5% and methanolic extract at 0.5% and
264 0.25% showed the highest concentration of reducing and non-reducing sugars, when
265 compared to the control treatment. The content of soluble sugars usually increases as the
266 fruit ripens, by means of biosynthetic processes or by the degradation of polysaccharides
267 [25].

268 For Chitarra and Chitarra [25] after a long storage, all sugars decrease. Still according to
269 Cavalini *et al.*, [28], reducing sugars decrease while non-reducing sugars increase, as the
270 fruit ripens, both in non-climacteric and climacteric fruits.

271 The variation in contents of ascorbic acid was significant among the treatments and the
272 control after eight days of storage. The highest contents of ascorbic acid were obtained from
273 fruits treated with ethanolic extract at 0.25% and methanolic extract at 1%. Upon fruit
274 ripening, the content of ascorbic acid increases, from the initial stages of development to
275 total maturation. Cerqueira *et al.* [27] observed that the increase in ascorbic acid occurred
276 simultaneously with an increase in acidity of guavas cv. Kumagai. In guavas cv. Paluma,
277 Lima *et al.* [26] found average values of ascorbic acid of 9.78mg. While working with the
278 same cultivar, stored at room conditions, Mattiuz and Durigan [29] found values of ascorbic
279 acid ranging from 64.47 to 79.22 mg.

280 After the eighth day of storage, it was observed that there was no variation in pH, except for
281 those fruits submitted to treatment in methanolic extract at 0.5% and 0.25%. This slight
282 variation in pH concentration can be compared to the variation in titratable acidity, in which
283 case, the fruits of this treatment may have reached senescence faster than the others.

284 4. CONCLUSION

285
286 The extracts showed control in vitro of *C. gloeosporioides* at 8%. However, the extracts were
287 not effective at controlling the disease after harvest. The extracts may have promoted the
288 increase in maturation of the fruits tested, in which the disease could be observed.

289 290 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

291
292 To the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) for
293 granting scholarship to the researcher Amanda P. Mattos. To the Conselho Nacional de
294 Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) for granting scholarship to researcher
295 Katia R. F. Scwhan-Estrada.
296

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

CONSENT

It is not applicable.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

It is not applicable.

REFERENCES

1. Zambão, LC; Neto AMB. Cultura da Goiaba, Boletim Técnico – CATI 236. Campinas, 1998. 23p.
2. Rozane, DE; Oliveira, DA; Lirio, VS. Importância econômica da cultura da goiabeira. In: Rozane, DE; Couto, FAA (ed.). Cultura da Goiabeira: tecnologia e mercado. Universidade Federal de Viçosa. Viçosa, 2003. p.1-20.
3. Azzolini, M; Jacomino, AP; Bron, IU. Índices para avaliar qualidade pós-colheita de goiabas em diferentes estádios de maturação. Pesquisa Agropecuária Brasileira, 2004; 39(2):139-145.
4. Agrios, GN. Plant pathology. Academic Press, 2.ed. San Diego, 2005. 635p.
5. Moraes, SRG; Tanaka, FAO; Massola Júnior, NS. Histopathology of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* on guava fruits (*Psidium guajava* L.). Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura. 2013; 35(2):657-664.
6. Piccinin, E; Pascolati, SF; Di Piero, RM; Cia, P; Silva, BMP. Doenças da goiabeira. In: AMORIM, L. et al. Manual de fitopatologia: doenças das plantas cultivadas. 5 ed. 2016. Ceres, São Paulo, p. 463-468.
7. Bettiol, W; Ghini, R. Proteção de plantas em sistemas agrícolas alternativos. In: Campanhola, C; Bettiol, W.(ed.) Métodos alternativos de controle fitossanitário. Embrapa Meio Ambiente. Jaguariúna. 2003. p.79-96.
8. Rozwalka, LC; Lima, MLRZC; Mio, LLM.; Nakashima, T. Extratos, decoctos e óleos essenciais de plantas medicinais e aromáticas na inibição de *Glomerella cingulata* e *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* de frutos de goiaba. Ciência Rural. 2008; 38(2):301-307.
9. Schwan-Estrada, KRF; Stangarlin, JR. Extratos e óleos essenciais de plantas medicinais na indução de resistência. In: Cavalcanti, LS; DI Piero, RM; Cia, P;

- 349 Paschoati, SF; Resende, MLV; Romeiro, RS (ed.) Indução de resistência em
350 plantas a patógenos e insetos. Fealq. Piracicaba, 2005. p.125-138.
351
- 352 10. Silva, MB; Nicoli, A; Costa, ASV; Brasileiro, BG; Jamal, CM; Silva, CA; Paula Júnior,
353 TJ; Teixeira, H. Ação antimicrobiana de extratos de plantas medicinais sobre
354 espécies fitopatogênicas de fungos do gênero *Colletotrichum*. Revista Brasileira de
355 Plantas Medicinais. 2008; 10(3):57-60.
356
- 357 11. Itako, AT; Schwan-Estrada, KRF; Stangarlin, JR; Tolentino Júnior, JB; Cruz, MES.
358 Controle de *Cladosporium fulvum* em tomateiro por extratos de plantas medicinais.
359 Arquivos do Instituto Biológico. 2009; 76(1):75-83.
360
- 361 12. Silva, JL; Teixeira, RNV; Santos, DIP; Pessoa, JO. Atividade antifúngica de extratos
362 vegetais sobre o crescimento *in vitro* de fitopatógeno. Revista Verde. 2012; 7:80-86.
363
- 364 13. Celoto, MI; Papa, MFS; Sacramento, LVS; Celoto, FJ. Atividade antifúngica de
365 extratos de plantas a *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*. Acta Scientiarum. 2008;
366 30(1):1-5.
367
- 368 14. Perumal, AB; Sellamuthu, PS; Nambiar, RB; Sadiku, ER. Antifungal activity of five
369 different essential oils in vapour phase for the control of *Colletotrichum*
370 *gloeosporioides* and *Lasiodiplodia theobromae in vitro* and on mango. International
371 Journal of Food Science & Technology. 2016; 51(2):411-418.
372
- 373 15. Barrera-Necha, LL; Bautista-Baños, S; Bravo-Luna, L; García-Suaréz, FJL; Alavez-
374 Solano, D; Reyes-Chilpa, R. Antifungal activity of seed powders, extracts, and
375 secondary metabolites of *Pachyrhizus erosus* (L.) urban (Fabaceae) against three
376 postharvest fungi. Revista Mexicana de Fitopatologia. 2004; 22(3):356-361.
377
- 378 16. Campbell, CL; Madden, L. Introduction to Plant Disease Epidemiology. John Wiley &
379 Sons. New York, 1990. 523p.
380
- 381 17. Amorim, L; Bergamin Filho, A. Fenologia, patometria e quantificação de danos. In:
382 Amorim, L; Rezende, JAM; Bergamin Filho, A. Manual de Fitopatologia: princípios e
383 conceitos. 5 ed. Ouro Fino- MG: Agronômica Ceres, 2016. p.500-516.
384
- 385 18. IAL. Instituto Adolfo Lutz. Normas Analíticas do Instituto Adolfo Lutz. Métodos
386 químicos e físicos para análise de alimentos. Instituto Adolfo Lutz, 4 ed. São Paulo,
387 2005. 1020p.
388
- 389 19. Canteri, MG; Althaus, RA; Virgens Filho, JS; Giglioti, EA; Godoy, C.V. SASM - Agri:
390 Sistema para análise e separação de médias em experimentos agrícolas pelos
391 métodos Scott-Knott, Tukey e Duncan. Revista Brasileira de Agrocomputação.
392 2001; 1(2):18-24.
393
- 394 20. Naruzawa, ES; Papa, MFS. Antifungal activity of extracts from Brazilian Cerrado
395 plants on *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and *Corynespora cassicola*. Revista
396 Brasileira de Plantas Medicinais. 2011; 13(4):408-412.
397
- 398 21. Yakoby, N; Zhou, R; Kobiler, I; Dinoor, A; Prusky, D. Development of *Colletotrichum*
399 *gloeosporioides* restriction enzyme-mediated integration mutant as biocontrol agents
400 against anthracnose disease in avocado fruits. Phytopathology.2001; 91(2):143-148.
401

- 402 22. Podila, GK; Rogers, LM; Kolatukudy, PE. Chemical signal from avocado surface wax
403 trigger germination and appressorium formation in *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*.
404 Plant Physiology. 1993; 103(1):267-272.
- 405 23. Rodríguez-López, ES. González-Pietro, JM; Mayek-Pérez, M. La infección de
406 *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* (Penz.) Penz. y Sacc. en aguacatero (*Persea*
407 *americana* Mill.): Aspectos Bioquímicos y Genéticos. Revista Mexicana de
408 Fitopatología. 2009; 27(1):53-63.
- 409
- 410 24. Fakhouri, FM; Grosso, C. Efeito de coberturas comestíveis na vida útil de goiabas *in*
411 *natura* (*Psidium guajava* L.) mantidas sob refrigeração. Brazilian Journal of Food
412 Technology. 2003; 6(2):203-211.
- 413
- 414 25. Chitarra, MIF; Chitarra, AB. Pós-colheita de frutos e hortaliças: fisiologia e
415 manuseio. ESAL/FAEPE, 2.ed. Lavras, 2005. 783p.
- 416
- 417 26. Lima, MAC; Assis, JS; Gonzaga Neto, L. Caracterização dos frutos de goiabeira e
418 seleção de cultivares na Região do Submédio São Francisco. Revista Brasileira de
419 Fruticultura. 2002; 24(1):273-276.
- 420
- 421 27. Cerqueira, TS; Jacomini, AP; Sasaki, FF; Alleoni, ACC. Recobrimento de goiaba
422 com filmes proteicos e de quitosana. Bragantia. 2011; 70(1):216-221.
- 423
- 424 28. Cavalini, FC; Jacomino, AP; Lochoski, MA; Kluge, RA; Ortega, EMM. Maturity
425 indexes for 'kumagai' and 'paluma' guavas'. Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura. 2006;
426 28(2):176-179.
- 427
- 428 29. Mattiuz, B; Durigan, J. Efeito de injúrias mecânicas no processo respiratório e nos
429 parâmetros químicos de goiabas 'Paluma' e 'Pedro-Sato'. Revista Brasileira de
430 Fruticultura. 2001; 23(2):282-287.
- 431