Control of anthracnose disease via increased activity of defence related enzymes

in 'Hass' avocado fruit treated with methyl jasmonate and methyl salicylate

Marcin Glowacz,^{a,b*} Nico Roets,^c Dharini Sivakumar^b

^aNatural Resources Institute, University of Greenwich, Chatham, ME4 4TB, UK

^bPostharvest Technology Group, Department of Crop Sciences, Tshwane University of Technology, Private Bag X680, Pretoria West 0001, South Africa

^cAgricultural Research Council: Institute for Tropical and Subtropical Crops, Private Bag X11208,, Nelspruit, 1200, South Africa

*Corresponding author.

Tel.: +44 (0) 1634 883564, e-mail address: M.M.Glowacz@greenwich.ac.uk; SivakumarD@tut.ac.za

ABSTRACT

Development of anthracnose disease caused by *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* Penz. is one of the major issues within the avocado supply chain. Exposure to methyl jasmonate (MeJA) and methyl salicylate (MeSA) vapours 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ was investigated as an alternative solution to commercial fungicide - prochloraz[®] that is currently being used by the industry. The incidence of anthracnose disease was found to be significantly reduced in 'Hass' avocado fruit treated with MeJA or MeSA vapours, especially at 100 μ mol l⁻¹. The mechanism involved enhanced activity of defence related enzymes, i.e. chitinase, β -1,3-glucanase and PAL, and higher content of epicatechin.

Keywords: Persea americana Mill., anthracnose, epicatechin, chitinase, β -1,3-glucanase, supply chain

1. Introduction

Avocado (*Persea americana* Mill.) is becoming a popular fruit mainly due to its nutritional content (Dreher & Davenport, 2013), in particular being rich in monounsaturated fatty acids (Ozdemir & Topuz, 2004; Lu et al., 2009). The production of avocados in South Africa is mainly export driven, and according to the latest (2015) food trade and supply chain directory (www.foodtradesa.co.za), the European Union, and United Kingdom in particular, is the biggest export market.

Development of postharvest disease, such as anthracnose (caused by *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* Penz.), is one of the major issues within the avocado supply chain, affecting marketability of the produce. At the moment prochloraz[®], a synthetic fungicide, is being used in the packhouses to control anthracnose disease. However, since there is an increasing demand to reduce the use of fungicides (Bill, Sivakumar, Thompson, & Korsten, 2014), there is clearly a need for new techniques that could reduce undesired fungal decay.

One of the possible options to reduce the disease development is via inducing the defence mechanisms in the fruit (Romanazzi et al., 2016). There are numerous methods used to reduce microbial contamination of fresh produce and to extend its storage life (Ramos, Miller, Brandao, Teixeira, & Silva, 2013), however the postharvest use of jasmonates and salicylates seems to be overlooked. These are natural plant signalling compounds that play a role in stimulating natural defence mechanisms against both biotic and abiotic stress, and the information on their use to reduce losses within the fruit supply chain has recently been reviewed (Glowacz & Rees, 2016).

It has been reported that dipping 'Hass' avocado fruit in 2.5 μ mol l⁻¹ methyl jasmonate solution for 30 s reduced the development of chilling injury in fruit subsequently stored for 2 weeks at 1 °C (Sivankalyani et al., 2015) and 4 weeks at 2 °C (Meir et al., 1996), respectively. It was further confirmed in our trials with methyl jasmonate and methyl salicylate that these compounds have the ability to maintain the postharvest quality of cold stored 'Hass' avocado fruit by altering their fatty acids content and composition (Glowacz, Bill, Tinyane, & Sivakumar, 2017). However, to the best of our knowledge there is no information in the literature on the effects of methyl jasmonate and methyl salicylate on the anthracnose disease susceptibility in 'Hass' avocado fruit, while the ability of these compounds to reduce fungal decay has already been reported for numerous products, e.g. loquat (Cao, Zheng, Yang, Tang, & Jin, 2008; Cao et al., 2008) and mango (Zeng, Cao, & Jiang, 2006).

It is well known that the activity of defence related enzymes, i.e. chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase is enhanced when the produce is challenged by the fungal pathogen (Mauch, Mauch-Mani, & Boller, 1988). These enzymes, acting synergistically, are capable of hydrolysing polymers of fungal cell walls - chitin and β -1,3-glucan respectively, leading to weakened cell wall and cell lysis (Stintzi et al, 1993). Chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase are thus involved in the plant defence mechanisms preventing/delaying the fungal growth and in this way reducing the decay (Theis & Stahl, 2004).

The activity of PAL is often induced by both abiotic and biotic stress (Dixon & Paiva, 1995), e.g. in response to wounding or pathogen attack, where synthesised phenolics could either act directly as defence compounds or indirectly, due to being precursors of lignin and suberin, producing a barrier and strengthening cell walls (Passardi, Penel, & Dunand, 2004), which would prevent the infection and limit pathogen expansion in infected fruit.

Finally, epicatechin, an antioxidant present in the peel, is also involved in delaying/preventing the fungal decay via lowering the activity of lipoxygenase during the activation of quiescent infection (Karni, Prusky, Kobiler, & Kobiler, 1989) and slowing the rate of decline of antifungal 1-acetoxy-2-hydroxy-4-oxo-heneicosa-12,15 diene compound (Ardi, Kobiler, Keen, & Prusky, 1998).

The concentrations of 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ of MeJA and MeSA were used in majority of the studies reviewed by Glowacz and Rees (2016), e.g. loquat treated with MeJA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ (Cao et al., 2008; Cao, Zheng, Wang, Jin, & Rui, 2009), mangos treated with MeJA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Gonzalez-Aguilar, Buta, & Wang, 2001) or MeSA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Han, Tian, Meng, & Ding, 2006), papaya treated with MeJA at 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Gonzalez-Aguilar, Buta, & Wang, 2003), peaches treated with MeJA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Meng, Han, Wang, & Tian, 2009), pears treated with MeJA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Zhang et al., 2009), pomegranates treated with MeJA or MeSA at 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Sayyari et al., 2011), and tomatoes treated with MeJA or MeSA at 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Ding, Wang, Gross, & Smith, 2002).

Thus, the objective of this study was to investigate the effect of methyl jasmonate (MeJA) and methyl salicylate (MeSA) vapours exposure at two concentrations of 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ on i) disease incidence ii) epicatechin content, and iii) activity of defence related enzymes (chitinase, β -1,3-glucanase, PAL) in naturally and artificially infected 'Hass' avocado fruit kept at 2 °C for 14 d, followed by 6-7 d shelf-life at 20 °C.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant material and handling

Freshly harvested, unblemished late season 'Hass' avocado fruit were obtained from Koeltehof Packers (Nelspruit, Mpumalanga province, South Africa) at commercial maturity (28-30% DM). Fruit were organised into the following treatment: i) untreated control – fruit that were transported to the laboratory and then left untreated; ii) dipped for 5 min in 0.05 % prochloraz[®] – fruit were treated at the pack house, i.e. the commercial treatment, prior to being transported to the lab; iii) fruit that were transported to the laboratory and then exposed to methyl jasmonate (MeJA) or methyl salicylate (MeSA) vapours at two concentrations of 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ for 24 h at 20.0±0.5 °C.

After placing the fruit in a 10 l air-tight container, the appropriate volume of MeJA or MeSA to reach the desired concentration of 10 and 100 μ mol l⁻¹, respectively was deposited on the Petri dish at the bottom of the container (Gimenez et al., 2016), using the system set up previously designed for the thyme oil fumigation (Bill, Sivakumar, Beukes, & Korsten, 2016). The container was immediately hermetically-sealed and solutions were left to evaporate over the 24 h period. Control and prochloraz[®] treated fruit were also kept in similar sealed containers. Thereafter half of the fruit were wounded and inoculated at the equatorial region with 20 μ l of *C*. *gloeosporioides* spore suspension (10⁵ spores ml⁻¹) as previously described (Bill et al., 2016). Both naturally and artificially infected 'Hass' avocado fruit were subsequently kept at 2.0±0.2 °C for 14 d followed by 6-7 d shelflife at 20.0±0.5 °C, RH 70 %.

2.2. Pathogen

Colletotrichum gloeosporioides was obtained from the Fruit and Vegetables Technology Laboratories, Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa. The *C. gloeosporioides* isolate was cultured and maintained on potato dextrose agar (PDA) (Merck, Johannesburg, South Africa) and incubated at 25 °C for 12–13 d. Spore suspension was prepared following a method of Bill et al. (2016). The mycelia fragments were removed from the suspension by filtering through three layers of muslin cloth. Spores count was determined using a haemocytometer and adjusted to 10^5 spores ml⁻¹. Fruit were prepared for artificial infection by disinfecting the place of inoculation with 70% ethanol (left to dry for ~30 min). The inoculation was then performed by uniformly wounding the fruit with a sterile needle (1 mm x 1 mm) and transferring 20 µl of spore suspension (10^5 spores ml⁻¹).

2.3. Disease incidence

At the 'ripe and ready to eat' stage (firmness near to 6.7 N, which has been defined by Arpaia, Collin, Sievert, and Obenland (2015) as the optimal eating firmness) fruit were assessed for signs of rotting (anthracnose), by giving them a score of 0 or 1 - no/ signs of rotting, respectively. In case of stem-end rot being noticed in naturally infected fruit, the note of it was taken. Disease incidence was expressed as the proportion (%) of fruit showing signs of rotting out of the total number of fruit in each treatment.

2.4. Physical properties of the fruit

Firmness was determined along the equator of the fruit using a Chatillon Penetrometer, Model DFM50 (Ametek, Largo, Florida, USA) with an 8 mm diameter flat-head stainless steel cylindrical probe (Mpho, Sivakumar, Sellamuthu, & Bautista-Banos, 2013) to ensure that only ripe fruit are being assessed.

2.4. Biochemical analysis

2.4.1. Epicatechin content

Epicatechin was determined following the method used by Guetsky et al. (2005), with some modifications. Freeze-dried samples (20 mg) were homogenised in methanol: water (1:1; v/v) solution. Thereafter, the Eppendorf tubes were centrifuged for 10 min at 14 000 x g. The supernatant was transferred to the new tubes, and subsequently filtered through a 0.45 μ m membrane (Nylon syringe filter, PerkinElmerTM, China) prior to injection. The analyses were carried out using a FlexarTM HPLC system (PerkinElmer, USA) consisting of a Flexar Isocratic LC Pump Platform and a variable wavelength Flexar UV/ ViS LC detector. Separation was done on an Analytical C18 column (100 x 4.6 mm; 5 μ m) at 25 °C, using water/methanol (25:75 v/v) as a mobile phase, with a flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹. Chromatographic peak of the epicatechin was identified by comparing the retention time with that of the pure epicatechin (HPLC grade) standard at 320 nm.

2.4.2. Activity of defence related enzymes

Enzyme activity assays for chitinase, β -1,3-glucanase and PAL were performed as previously described (Sellamuthu, Sivakumar, Soundy, & Korsten, 2013). Protein concentration was determined by the method of Bradford (1976).

2.5. Statistical analyses

Avocado fruit were organised into six treatments, each treatment had six replicate boxes containing eighteen fruit, i.e. 108 fruit per treatment, equalling to a total of 648 fruit per trial. The experiment was conducted twice with similar results. Data are presented as mean values from a fully randomised design. The significance of main effect was established using ANOVA. Duncan's multiple range test was used to compare individual treatment mean values. All statistical analyses were performed using GenStat 18th Edition software (VSN International Ltd, UK).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Disease incidence

Anthracnose disease was observed in more than 50 % of the naturally infected untreated fruit (Fig. 1A), whereas its occurrence was significantly (P<0.05) reduced in fruit treated with prochloraz[®] (16.9 %), MeJA at 10 µmol l⁻¹ (25.7 %) and 100 µmol l⁻¹ (12.4 %), or MeSA at 10 µmol l⁻¹ (7.9 %) and 100 µmol l⁻¹ (8.9 %). The stemend rot incidence was noted to be within the range of 2.5-10 %, with no significant difference between the treatments.

In the case of artificially infected fruit, development of anthracnose disease was observed in nearly all untreated fruit (Fig. 1B); disease incidence was significantly (P<0.05) reduced in all treated fruit, being the lowest in those treated MeJA at 100 µmol l⁻¹ (41.0 %), or MeSA at 10 µmol l⁻¹ (35.9 %) and 100 µmol l⁻¹ (43.6 %).

Reduced disease incidence in fruit exposed to MeJA and MeSA is in agreement with previous reports, where disease incidence was reduced, due to delayed infection, in loquat fruit exposed to MeJA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ for 24 h prior to being stored at 20 °C (Cao et al., 2008a,b) and mango fruit treated with SA solution at 1000 μ mol l⁻¹ for 2 min prior to being stored at 13 °C (Zeng et al., 2006), confirming the ability of jasmonates and salicylates to enhance disease resistance in the fruit.

3.2. Physical properties of the fruit

All the fruit used in our trials were in the firmness range from 6.4 to 8.5 N - previously defined as ripe fruit by Gamble et al. (2010), i.e. near to 6.7 N, which according to Arpaia et al. (2015) is the optimal eating firmness.

3.3. Fruit biochemistry

3.3.1. Epicatechin content

Epicatechin content in the skin of naturally infected untreated 'Hass' avocado fruit was significantly lower than in their counterparts treated with prochloraz[®], MeJA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹, or MeSA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (Fig. 2A). In the case of artificially infected fruit, the lowest epicatechin content was also observed in untreated samples, being significantly lower than in all the other treatments (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, the highest epicatechin content was observed in fruit exposed to MeSA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹, regardless whether fruit were naturally or artificially infected.

One of the findings of this research is the fact that exposure of 'Hass' avocado fruit to MeJA and MeSA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ and 100 μ mol l⁻¹ prior to cold storage led to higher content of epicatechin. Ardi, Kobiler, Keen, and Prusky (1998) have previously suggested that epicatechin is involved in the resistance of avocado fruit to *C. gloeosporioides*, i.e. the cultivars of avocado that are more resistant to fungal decay, were reported to have high epicatechin content, which declines with a slower rate (Prusky, Kobiler, & Jacoby, 1988). Epicatechin is also involved in slowing the rate of decline of antifungal diene compound via lowering/delaying the expression of the LOX genes (Prusky, Alkan, Mengiste, & Fluhr, 2013), which in fact has been observed in our research (Glowacz, Bill, Tinyane, & Sivakumar, 2017). These results are also in agreement with previously reported findings (Sivankalyani et al., 2015) where avocado fruit were dipped for 30 s in MeJA solution at 2.5 μ mol l⁻¹, and subsequently stored at 1 °C, and those of Cao, Zheng, Wang, Jin, and Rui (2009) where loquat fruit were exposed to MeJA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ for 24 h prior to storage at 1 °C, and thus highlighting the ability of these treatments to alter membrane stability, making the fruit less susceptible to fungal attack and subsequent disease development (Guestsky et al., 2005).

3.3.2. Activity of defence related enzymes

The activity of PAL was only increased in fruit treated with MeJA or MeSA at 100 μ mol l⁻¹ (data not presented) regardless whether fruit were naturally or artificially infected, but not in those treated at 10 μ mol l⁻¹, which suggests that phenolics content could be higher in these samples. A substantial increase in the activity of PAL has in fact been previously reported in several fruit exposed to jasmonates or salicylates e.g. in mangos treated with SA at 1000 μ mol l⁻¹ and inoculated with *C. gloeosporioides* (Zeng et al., 2006), in loquat treated with MeJA at 10 μ mol l⁻¹ and inoculated with *C. acutatum* (Cao et al., 2008b). Phenolic compounds improve the antioxidant capacity and reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging capacity, thus they could contribute to reduced susceptibility to diseases. Phenolics could either act directly as defence compounds or indirectly, due to

being precursors of lignin, by producing a barrier and strengthening cell walls (Passardi, Penel, & Dunand, 2004), which would prevent the infection of wounds by fungal pathogens and limit their expansion in infected fruit.

The mechanism of improved host resistance against pathogens in fruit treated with jasmonates and salicylates also involves increased activity of defence-related enzymes, i.e. chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase (Yao & Tian, 2005; Cao et al., 2008a; Xu & Tian, 2008; Yu, Shen, Zhang, & Sheng, 2011). The activity of chitinase was indeed found to be significantly increased in MeJA and MeSA exposed fruit, regardless whether the fruit were naturally (Fig. 3A) or artificially (Fig. 3B) infected, especially at 100 µmol l⁻¹. Similarly, the activity of β -1,3-glucanase was significantly increased in naturally infected fruit exposed to MeJA and MeSA at 10 µmol l⁻¹ and 100 µmol l⁻¹ (Fig. 4A), but not in their artificially infected counterparts, where only exposure to MeJA or MeSA at 100 µmol l⁻¹ led to a significant increase in the activity of β -1,3-glucanase (Fig. 4B).

4. Conclusion

The incidence of anthracnose disease was found to be significantly reduced in fruit treated with MeJA or MeSA vapours, especially at 100 μ mol l⁻¹. The results obtained in this research highlight the fact that increased activity of chitinase, β -1,3-glucanase and PAL, and higher content of epicatechin, are all involved in enhancing resistance of 'Hass' avocado fruit to *C. gloeosporioides* via exposure to MeJA or MeSA vapours. Therefore, exposure to MeJA or MeSA vapours prior to cold storage is a promising alternative to commercial fungicide - prochloraz[®] that is currently being used by the industry.

Conflict of interest

None.

Acknowledgements

The financial assistance for the first authors visit to South Africa to conduct the trials was funded by the DST-NRF (National Research Foundation) Fellowship for early career researchers from the UK (UK-South Africa Newton Fund) jointly with the SARChi research chair grant for Phytochemical Food Network to Improve Nutritional Quality for Consumers, Grant number 98352. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the authors and are not necessarily to be attributed to the NRF. We acknowledge the technical assistance provided by Dr Malick Bill.

References

Ardi, R., Kobiler, I., Keen, N. T., & Prusky, D. (1998). Involvement of epicatechin biosynthesis in the resistance of avocado fruits to postharvest decay. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology*, *53*, 269–285.

Arpaia, M. L., Collin, S., Sievert, J., & Obenland, D. (2015). Influence of cold storage prior to and after ripening on quality factors and sensory attributes of 'Hass' avocados. *Postharvest Biology and Technology, 110*, 149–157.
Bill, M., Sivakumar, D., Beukes, M., & Korsten, L. (2016). Expression of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes in avocados fumigated with thyme oil vapours and control of anthracnose. *Food Chemistry, 194*, 938-943.

Bill, M., Sivakumar, D., Thompson, A. K., & Korsten, L. (2014). Avocado fruit quality management during the postharvest supply chain. *Food Reviews International*, *30*, *3*, 169-202.

Bradford, M. M., 1976 A new method of protein determination. Analytical Biochemistry, 72, 248-251.

Cao, S., Zheng, Y., Wang, K., Jin, P., & Rui, H. (2009). Methyl jasmonate reduces chilling injury and enhances antioxidant enzyme activity in postharvest loquat fruit. *Food Chemistry*, *115*, 1458–1463.

Cao, S., Zheng, Y., Yang, Z., Tang, S., & Jin, P. (2008a). Control of anthracnose rot and quality deterioration in loquat fruit with methyl jasmonate. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, *88*, 1598–1602.

Cao, S., Zheng, Y., Yang, Z., Tang, S., Jin, P., Wang, K., & Wang, X. (2008b). Effect of methyl jasmonate on inhibition of *Colletotrichum acutatum* infection in loquat fruit and the possible mechanisms. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *49*, 301–307.

Ding, C. K., Wang, C. Y., Gross, K. C., & Smith, D. L. (2002). Jasmonate and salicylate induce the expression of pathogenesis-related-protein genes and increase resistance to chilling injury in tomato fruit. *Planta, 214,* 895–901.

Dixon, R. A., & Paiva, N. L. (1995). Stress-induced phenylpropanoid metabolism. Plant Cell, 7, 1085–1097.

Dreher, M., & Davenport, A. (2013). Hass avocado composition and potential health effects. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, *53*, 738–750.

Gamble, J., Harker, F. R., Jaeger, S. R., White, A., Bava, C., Beresford, M., Stubbings, B., Wohlers, M., Hofman, P. J., Marques, R., & Woolf, A. (2010). The impact of dry matter, ripeness and internal defects on consumer perceptions of avocado quality and intentions to purchase. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *57*, 35–43.

Gimenez, M. J., Valverde, J. M., Valero, D., Zapata, P. J., Castillo, S., & Serrano, M. (2016). Postharvest methyl salicylate treatments delay ripening and maintain quality attributes and antioxidant compounds of 'Early Lory' sweet cherry. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *117*, 102–109.

Glowacz M., Bill M., Tinyane P., and Sivakumar D., Maintaining postharvest quality of cold stored 'Hass' avocados by altering the fatty acids content and composition with the use of natural volatile compounds – methyl jasmonate and methyl salicylate, Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, in press, 2017, doi: 10.1002/jsfa.8400.

Glowacz, M., & Rees, D. (2016). Using jasmonates and salicylates to reduce losses within the fruit supply chain. *European Food Research and Technology*, *242*, 143-156.

Gonzalez-Aguilar, G. A., Buta, J. G., & Wang, C. Y. (2001). Methyl jasmonate reduces chilling injury symptoms and enhances colour development of 'Kent' mangoes. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, *81*, 1244–1249.

Gonzalez-Aguilar, G. A., Buta, J. G., & Wang, C. Y. (2003). Methyl jasmonate and modified atmosphere packaging (MAP) reduce decay and maintain postharvest quality of papaya 'Sunrise' Postharvest Biology and Technology, 28, 361–370.

Guetsky, R., Kobiler, I., Wang, X., Perlman, N., Gollop, N., Avila-Quezada, G., Hadar, I., & Prusky, D. (2005). Metabolism of the flavonoid epicatechin by laccase of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and its effect on pathogenicity on avocado fruits. *Phytopathology*, *95*, 1341-1348.

Han, J., Tian, S. P., Meng, X. H., & Ding, Z. S. (2006). Response of physiologic metabolism and cell structures in mango fruit to exogenous methyl salicylate under low-temperature stress. *Physiologia Plantarum, 128,* 125–133.

Karni, L., Prusky, D., Kobiler, I., & Kobiler, D. (1989). Involvement of epicatechin in the regulation of the antifungal diene during the reactivation of quiescent *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* infections of avocado fruits. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology*, *35*, 367-374.

Lu, Q. Y., Zhang, Y., Wang, Y., Lee, R. P., Gao, K., Byrns, R., & Heber, D. (2009). California Hass avocado. Profiling of carotenoids, tocopherols, fatty acids, and fat content during maturation and from different growing areas. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *57*, 10408-10413.

Mauch, F., Mauch-Mani, B., & Boller, T. (1988). Antifungal hydrolases in pea tissue. *Plant Physiology*, 88, 936–942.

Meir, S., Philosoph-Hadas, S., Lurie, S., Droby, S., Akerman, M., Zauberman, G., Shapiro, B., Cohen, E., & Fuchs, Y. (1996). Reduction of chilling injury in stored avocado, grapefruit, and methyl jasmonate. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, *74*, 870-874.

Meng, X., Han, J., Wang, Q., & Tian, S. (2009). Changes in physiology and quality of peach fruits treated by methyl jasmonate under low temperature stress. *Food Chemistry*, *114*, 1028–1035.

Mpho, M., Sivakumar, D., Sellamuthu, P. S., & Bautista-Banos, S. (2013). Use of lemongrass oil and modified atmosphere packaging on control of anthracnose and quality maintenance in avocado cultivars. *Journal of Food Quality*, *36*, 198–208.

Ozdemir, F., & Topuz, A. (2004). Changes in dry matter, oil content and fatty acids composition of avocado during harvesting time and post-harvesting ripening period. *Food Chemistry*, *86*, 79–83.

Passardi, F., Penel, C., & Dunand, C. (2004). Performing the paradoxical: how plant peroxidases modify the cell wall. *Trends in Plant Science*, *9*, 534–540.

Prusky, D., Alkan, N., Mengiste, T., & Fluhr, R. (2013). Quiescent and necrotrophic lifestyle choices during postharvest disease development. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, *51*, 155–176.

Prusky, D., Kobiler, I., & Jacoby, B. (1988). Involvement of epicatechin in cultivar susceptibility of avocado fruits to *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* after harvest. *Journal of Phytopathology*, *123*, 140-146.

Ramos, B., Miller, F. A., Brandao, T. R. S., & Silva, C. L. M. (2013). Fresh fruits and vegetables – An overview on applied methodologies to improve its quality and safety. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies*, 20, 409–419.

Romanazzi, G., Sanzani, S. M., Bi, Y., Tian, S., Gutierrez Martinez, P., & Alkan, N. (2016). Induced resistance to control postharvest decay of fruit and vegetables. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *122*, 82-94.

Sayyari, M., Babalar, M., Kalantari, S., Martinez-Romero, D., Guillen, F., Serrano, M., & Valero, D. (2011). Vapour treatments with methyl salicylate or methyl jasmonate alleviated chilling injury and enhanced antioxidant potential during postharvest storage of pomegranates. *Food Chemistry*, *124*, 964–970.

Sellamuthu, P. S., Sivakumar, D., Soundy, P., & Korsten, L. (2013). Enhancing the defence related and antioxidant enzymes activities in avocado cultivars with essential oil vapours. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *81*, 66-72.

Sivankalyani, V., Feygenberg, O., Maorer, D., Zaaroor, M., Fallik, E., & Alkan, N. (2015). Combined treatments reduce chilling injury and maintain fruit quality in avocado fruit during cold quarantine. *PLoS ONE, 10*, 1-16.
Stintzi, A., Heitz, T., Prasad, V., Wiedemann-Merdinoglu, S., Kauffmann, S., Goeffroy, P., Legrand, M., & Fritig, B. (1993). Plant 'pathogenesis-related' proteins and their role in defense against pathogens. *Biochimie*, *75*, 687–706.

Theis, T. & Stahl, U (2004). Antifungal proteins: targets, mechanisms and prospective applications. *Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences*, *61*, 437–455.

Xu, X., & Tian, S. (2008). Salicylic acid alleviated pathogen-induced oxidative stress in harvested sweet cherry fruit. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, *49*, 379-385.

Yao, H. J., & Tian, S. P. (2005). Effects of a biocontrol agent and methyl jasmonate on postharvest disease of peach fruit and the possible mechanism involved. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, *98*, 941–950.

Yu, M., Shen, L., Zhang, A., & Sheng, J. (2011). Methyl jasmonate-induced defense responses are associated with elevation of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase in *Lycopersicon esculentum* fruit. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, *168*, 1820–1827.

Zeng, K. F., Cao, J. K., & Jiang, W. B. (2006). Enhancing disease resistance in harvested mango (*Mangifera indica* L. cv. 'Matisu') fruit by salicylic acid. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 86, 694–698.

Zhang, H., Ma, L., Turner, M., Xu, H., Dong, Y., & Jiang, S. (2009). Methyl jasmonate enhances biocontrol efficacy of *Rhodotorula glutinis* to postharvest blue mold decay of pears. *Food Chemistry*, *117*, 621–626.