1	Extract of Mimosa tenuiflora and Quercus robur as potential eco-
2	friendly management tool against Sclerotinia sclerotiorum in Lactuca
3	sativa enhancing the natural plant defences
4	
5	Eugenio Llorens* • María Mateu* • Ana I González-Hernández • Carlos Agustí-
6	Brisach • Pilar García-Agustín • Leonor Lapeña • Begonya Vicedo
7	Eugenio Llorens* • María Mateu* • Ana I González-Hernández • Pilar García-Agustín •
8	Leonor Lapeña • Begonya Vicedo
9	*These authors contributed equally to this work and are co-first authors.
10	E. Llorens, ORCID: 0000-0003-1931-1071
11	A.I. González-Hernández, ORCID: 0000-0003-4023-8649
12	
13	Grupo de Bioquímica y Biotecnología, Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y del Medio
14	Natural, Universitat Jaume I de Castellón, Avenida de Vicent Sos Baynat, s/n, 12071
15	Castellón de la Plana, Spain.
16	e-mail: <u>ellorens@uji.es</u>
17	Carlos Agustí-Brisach
18	C. Agustí-Brisach, ORCID: 0000-0003-1709-1140
19	Grupo Patología Agroforestal, Departamento de Agronomía, ETSIAM, Universidad de
20	Córdoba, Campus de Rabanales, Edif. C4, 14071 Córdoba, Spain.

21 Abstract

22 The effectiveness of some plant extracts to protect against pests enhancing the natural defensive responses of the plant has been reported. Plant extract of *Mimosa tenuiflora* 23 and Quercus robur has promising potential to reduce the incidence of a wide range of 24 phytopathogenic fungi due to its antimicrobial compounds. In this study, we aimed to 25 26 elucidate the effectiveness and mode of action of this mix extract in Lactuca sativa against Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. To achieve this objective, 4 weeks old lettuce plants of cv. 27 Romana were treated with 2 cc l⁻¹ of the plant extract either by soil drench or foliar 28 applications 72 hours before the inoculation. The treatments were able to significantly 29 reduce the progression of the pathogen, decreasing the diameter of the infection by 32% 30 31 and 17% in foliar and soil drench application, respectively. Moreover, the results showed 32 significantly higher levels of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) as well as callose deposition in plants treated and inoculated compared with non-treated plants. However, no direct effect 33 34 on the fungus growth was observed *in vitro* suggesting that foliar and root treatments with *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* extract significantly reduce the infection of *S. sclerotiorum* in 35 leaves of lettuce, through the strengthening of the wall mediated by the deposition of 36 37 callose and the release of H_2O_2 . The fact that the treatment enhances different processes involved in plant innate defense indicates that this treatment is acting as a resistant 38 inducer, and could be effective against different microorganisms. 39

40 Keywords Lactuca sativa • Natural extract • Plant immune system • Sclerotinia
41 sclerotiorum

42

43 Introduction

Sclerotinia sclerotiorum ((Lib.) W. Phillips), the causal agent of white mold (Sclerotinia), 44 45 is a necrotrophic fungus considered as one of the most harmful pathogens in plants. This fungus can attack 400 plant species including many economically important crops either 46 47 woody or herbaceous plants (Azevedo et al. 2016). Sclerotinia scleriotorum is present in 48 more than 90 countries all over the world producing damages worth several hundred million dollars (Saharan and Mehta 2008a). This pathogen can be disseminated through 49 50 the adhesion to seeds, agricultural machinery and animals or humans (Saharan 2008). Thanks to its capacity to form aggregations of fungal tissue called sclerotia, which are 51 52 responsible for the long-term survival of the pathogen, are able to produce viable 53 inoculum to infect after years (Azevedo et al. 2016).

Sclerotia are able to germinate in two ways, by producing mycelium or apothecia, a structure formed by spore reproductive cells (Saharan and Mehta 2008b). The ability of *S. sclerotiorum* to penetrate a host depends on factors such as the type of inoculum, the nutritional status of the fungus, the type of host and the environment. The ascospores, released by the apothecium developed from sclerotia of the soil, can be disseminated by the wind and are capable of infecting the crops through the leaves (Purdy 1979).

60 Ascospores of S. sclerotiorum infect upper parts of plants through the cuticle and open stomata, developing a mycelium or penetrating directly into the host causing 61 62 infection. Moreover, the fungus is able to release substances such as oxalic acid, which 63 destabilize the cells and facilitate the infection (Davidson et al. 2016). Lesions appear as 64 water-soaked spots that grow irregularly thought the leaves provoking damages similar 65 to desiccated plant tissues (Heffer 2007). On the other hand, S. sclerotiorum is also able 66 to infect plants through the stem. The sclerotia produce hyphae which grow through the 67 organic matter present in the soil and invading the plants present on it (Purdy 1979). This type of infection can lead diseases such as the 'drop' disease of lettuce caused by S. minor. 68

After the infection of the roots, the fungus attacks the crown and the stem; plants show a
soft watery decay, which produces a collapse of the leaves and finally provokes the plant
death (Heffer 2007). Occasionally, the infection is missed until the stem and roots have
been completely invaded.

Nowadays, there are no widespread resistant lettuce cultivars, for this reason, the 73 74 control of Sclerotinia disease depends mainly on fungicides, which target the airborne ascospores (Clarkson et al. 2014). However, the efficacy of chemical treatments to control 75 76 the fungus has decreased over the years due to the development of fungicide-insensitive 77 strains and the rapid degradation of fungicides in the soil (Klose et al. 2010). Moreover, some authors reported that the degradation of the fungicides increased with time and 78 application frequency, suggesting that the repeated application would benefit the 79 populations of degrading microorganisms in the soils (Klose et al. 2010; McDonald et al. 80 2006). For these reasons, it is necessary the development of new approaches for the 81 82 control of Sclerotinia based on the sustainable management of crops and environmental friendly compounds. 83

In the recent years, the use of alternative control methods such as Bioactive plant 84 85 compounds or resistance inducers, either synthetic chemicals or natural compounds, have been studied with promising results (Llorens et al. 2017). Many plant extracts have the 86 87 potential for use in pest management since they are biodegradable, they possess a broad 88 spectrum of activity and there is no resistance in pathogens (da Cruz Cabral et al. 2013). 89 The main ability of the plant extracts to protect against pathogens due to its antimicrobial capacity provided by the composition of secondary metabolites such as alkaloids, 90 91 flavonoids, glycosides, saponins, and terpenoids (Gahukar 2012; Peter Gillitzer et al. 92 2012; Sales et al. 2016). However, several plant extracts have been reported as inducers of plant defense protecting crops from pests, displaying low or no toxicity against the 93

pathogens (Burketova et al. 2015). These extracts have the ability to induce a response 94 95 on the plants that results in an effective tolerance against the infection. The response can include several physical and biochemical changes such as callose deposition, activation 96 97 of salicylic (SA) and/or jasmonic acid (JA) pathways or synthesis of defence-related enzymes. The ability of the plant to protect itself against the attack relies on the effective 98 99 activation of these defensive mechanisms (Llorens et al. 2017). Previous studies showed 100 that extracts of Azadirachta indica leaves are effective as an antimicrobial compound against bacterial and fungal pathogens such as against Pyricularia oryzae in rice 101 (Amadioha 2000) or against Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria in tomato and 102 103 pepper (Abbasi et al. 2003). Moreover, A. indica possess effectivity as a resistanceinducing compound which provides control in barley against Drechslera graminea 104 105 related to elevated activities of phenylalanine ammonia lyase and accumulation of 106 phenolic compounds (Paul and Sharma 2002).

107 Mimosa tenuiflora and Quercus robur extracts have been previously displayed strong antimicrobial activity in vitro and against human pathogens (Andrenšek et al. 108 2004; de Souza Araújo et al. 2018; Padilha et al. 2010). Due to this fact, the search for 109 new compounds based on M. tenuiflora and Q. robur extracts and its possible effect as 110 plant resistance inductor would provide a useful alternative to control pathogens such as 111 Sclerotinia. However, the possible application against plant pathogens as well as its 112 113 compatibility and lack of phytotoxicity in plants have not been studied yet. For these reasons, the main goal of this study was to elucidate the efficacy of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q*. 114 115 robur extracts in lettuce (Lactuca sativa) against S. sclerotiorum and its possible role as 116 an inducer of plant immune system. In order to ascertain the mechanism of action of the treatment, infection development, physiological parameters, and several parameters 117 118 involved in plant immune system were monitored.

119 Materials and Methods

120 Plant extract and fungal isolate

121 Formulation of plant extract mix of Mimosa tenuiflora and Quercus robur was provided by the company Idai Nature S.L. (La Pobla de Vallbona, Valencia, Spain). Sclerotinia 122 123 sclerotiorum isolate SsUJI-1-2016 obtained from lettuces showing characteristic 124 symptoms of the disease were used in this study. Prior to use., the specie of the isolate was characterized morphologically with a microscope, using the dichotomous keys 125 determined by Kohn (1979) for sclerotia-producing cultures grown in PDA. This fungal 126 127 isolate is maintained in the collection of the Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences of Universitat Jaume I (UJI) of Castellon (Spain). 128

129 Effect of the *Mimosa tenuiflora* and *Quercus robur* extract on mycelial growth and130 sclerotia germination

131 In order to analyse the direct effect of the treatment on the pathogen, in vitro tests were 132 conducted. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum isolate SsUJI-1-2016 was grown in potato dextrose agar (PDA; Scharlau Microbiology, Sentmenat, Spain) for 3 days at 25°C in darkness. 133 134 Four mycelial plugs (4-mm in diameter) obtained from the margin of actively growing colonies were used to inoculate 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask containing 25 ml of sterile 135 Potato Dextrose Broth (PDB, Scharlab S.L, Barcelona, Spain). Inoculated flasks were 136 incubated at 25°C and shaken at 180 rpm (AG-200-A; JP Selecta) for 24 h. Subsequently, 137 the plant extract mix was added at 0.14µl ml⁻¹ (C1) following manufacturer's 138 recommendation for field applications. Additionally, a lesser dose of the plant extract 139 (0.07 µl ml⁻¹; C2) was also evaluated for comparative purposes. Flasks filled only with 140 PDB and inoculated with S. sclerotiorum isolate SsUJI-1-2016 as described above were 141 142 used as control (Ctr). Control flasks were incubated and shaked as described above. After inoculation, flasks were incubated for 96 h at the same temperature and shaking
conditions described above. After then, developed mycelium was filtered through sterile
laboratory filter paper and dried in oven (Digiheat; JP selecta) at 60°C for 24h.
Subsequently, dry mycelial weigh of each treatment was obtained. There were five
replicated PDB flasks per treatment (C1, C2 and control), and the experiment was
conducted three times.

Concerning the study on the effect of the treatments on sclerotia germination, the 149 experiment was conducted following the protocol described by Ortega-Aguilar et al. 150 151 (2011). To this end, 10 sclerotia collected from 1-month-old colonies of S. sclerotiorum isolate SsUJI-1-2016 grown on PDA at 25°C in darkness were treated by dipping for 30 152 min in a plant extract solution at 0.14µl ml⁻¹ of plant extract (C1 treatment) in sterile 153 154 distilled water (SDW). 10 additional sclerotia were treated by dipping them in SDW as control treatment. After dipping, sclerotia were removed from the solution treatment, 155 plated onto PDA and incubated at 25°C in darkness for 72 h. The experiment was repeated 156 three times. 157

The effect of plant extract on sclerotia germination was assesses analysing the growth of 158 159 the mycelium from the sclerotia on PDA. The largest and smallest diameters of the colonies developed from sclerotia were measured using a digital scale ruler and averaged. 160 According to this parameter, the percentage of sclerotia germination for each treatment 161 162 (C1 and control) was estimated according to the following rating scale: 0 = No163 germination; 1 = Germination lower than 0.5 mm; 2 = Germination between 0.5 and 1 mm; 3 = Germination between 1 and 2 mm; 4 = Germination around 2 mm with 164 165 development of mycelia; and 5 = massive germination.

166 Effect of *Mimosa tenuiflora* and *Quercus robur* extract on plant growth and plant immune

167 system

168 *Plant material, treatments, and fungal inoculation*

Four weeks-old lettuce plants of cv. Romana obtained from a commercial nursery were transplanted into polypropylene pots filled with a mix of sterilized peat moss and perlite (4:1, vol:vol). The plants were kept in a greenhouse at an average temperature of 27 and 19°C along day and night periods, respectively, and relative humidity (RH) around 70%. These same conditions were subsequently maintained along the trial.

174 The following six treatments were evaluated: untreated and non-inoculated control (Negative control, Ctr); untreated and inoculated control (Positive control, Ctr 175 176 inoc); soil drench treatment with extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* and non-inoculated (Soil treat); soil drench treatment with extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* and 177 inoculated (Soil treat/inoc); foliar treatment with extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* 178 179 and non-inoculation (Fol. treat); and foliar treatment with extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q*. robur and inoculated (Fol. treat/inoc). Treatments were applied following the 180 manufacturer's recommendations for field applications (0.14µl ml⁻¹ for foliar or soil 181 drench treatments). Foliar application was done by spraying both sides of the leaves until 182 leaves were absolutely soaked. Soil drench application was applied by watering until the 183 field capacity of the substrate was achieved. Once treated, plants were placed in plastic 184 185 boxes in order to maintain 100% RH. There were 24 replicated plants per treatment (6 treatments), 144 plants in total. 186

In order to assess the effect of treatments in the plant growth development, three lots of
24 plants each were treated as described above for Ctr, Soil treat and Foliar treat (72 plants
in total). These three lots were kept in the same conditions described above for a month,

and the treatment was repeated once (15 days after the first application) followingmanufacturer's recommendation. All the experiments were conducted three times.

For fungal inoculation, inoculum of *S. sclerotiorum* isolate SsUJI-1-2016 was prepared on PDA as described above. Mycelial plugs of 4-mm in diameter were obtained from the margin of 3-days old actively growing colonies. Three leaves per plant were inoculated 72 h after treatment with the plant extract mix by deposition of three mycelial plugs in each one, placing them with the mycelium in contact with the leaf surface. Plants belonging Ctr, Soil treat and Foliar treat (non-inoculated treatments) were treated with three 4-mm in diameter PDA sterile plugs.

199 Plant growth and disease severity

The effect of the treatment on plant growth development was assessed measuring the dry weight of the leaves and root one month after the first application in the additional lots of plants of Ctr., Soil treat and Foliar treat (non-inoculated treatments). To this end, leaves and roots of each plant were carefully separated and introduced in oven at 60°C for 72 h. After then, all samples were weighed.

Disease severity (DS) was assessed measuring the two-perpendicular axis of the lesion developed in each inoculation point by a digital scale ruler as described by Pane et al. (2017). Mean data were converted to radial growth rate (millimeters per day). Due to the fast development of the fungus on inoculated fresh leaves of lettuce, DS was evaluated just 72 h after inoculation since DS reached more than 50% severity in the untreated and non-inoculated control plants.

211

212 Determination and quantification of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)

Samples of 6 leaves per treatment were collected 72 hours after inoculation. Collected leaves were immersed immediately in 1 mg ml⁻¹ of 3',3-diaminobenzidine (DAB) at pH <3 for 24 h in darkness. Subsequently, the leaves were discoloured in 96% ethanol and rehydrated in distilled water for 30 min. Formation of brown precipitates were quantified in micrographies and expressed as the number of dark-brown DAB pixels in relation to the total pixels corresponding to plant material using the GIMP program (version 2.6.12) (Llorens et al. 2016)

220 Callose deposition

221 Six leaves per treatment were collected at 72 hours after inoculation and incubated in 95% 222 ethanol at room temperature. Discoloured leaves were rehydrated in 0.07 M phosphate 223 buffer (pH = 7), incubated for 24h in 0.5% aniline blue (0.07 mM phosphate buffer) at 224 room temperature. Observations were performed with an epifluorescence microscope. Fluorescence emitted by stained callose was observed under UV light microscope and 225 226 quantified in micrographies. Results were expressed as the number of pixels in relation 227 to the total pixels corresponding to plant material using the GIMP program (version 228 2.6.12)

229 Evaluation of hormones related to plant defence by chromatographic analysis

Six leaves per treatment were collected at 72 hours after inoculation and this fresh material was immediately frozen in liquid N, ground, and lyophilized. Dry tissue (0.03 g) was immediately homogenized in 2.5 ml of ultrapure water, and 100µL of internal standard composed of deuterated abscisic acid ($[^{2}H_{6}]$ ABA), deuterated SA ($[_{2}H_{4}]$), dihydrojasmonic acid (dhJA) and propylparaben} at 100 ng ml⁻¹ each. After extraction, a 20 µl aliquot was injected directly into the ultrahigh-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) system. Analyses were carried out using a Waters Alliance 2690 HPLC system (Milford, MA, USA) with a nucleosil ODS reversed-phase column (100 mm \times 2mm, i.d. 5 μ m; Scharlab, Barcelona, Spain; http://www.scharlab.com). The chromatographic system was interfaced to a Quatro LC (quadrupole–hexapole– quadrupole) mass spectrometer (Micromass; http://www.micromass.co.uk). The MASSLYNX NT software version 4.1 (Micromass) was used to process the quantitative data from calibration standards and plant samples (Llorens et al. 2016).

243 Data analysis

244 All experiments were conducted at least three times. Data from different repetitions was 245 analysed together due to the fact that analysis of variance (ANOVA) did not show 246 significant differences (P > 0.05) between repetitions in each experiment. Subsequently, 247 for each assessment, ANOVA was performed with leaf and root dry weigh, lesion size, 248 H₂O₂ quantification, callose deposition and hormone levels as dependent variables and treatment (plants treated or non-treated with extracts of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* and/or 249 250 inoculated or non-inoculated with S. sclerotiorum) as the independent variable. All data 251 of this study were tested for normality, homogeneity of variances, and residual patterns. When ANOVA showed significant differences between variables, mean values were 252 253 compared using the Fisher's protected least significant difference (LSD) test at P =254 0.05(Steel and Torrie 1986). Statistical analyses were performed using the software 255 Statgraphics Centurion XVI (Statpoint Technologies, Warrenton, VA, USA).

256 **Results**

257 Effect of the *Mimosa tenuiflora* and *Quercus robur* extract on mycelial growth and258 sclerotia germination

When ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effect of the extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q, robur* on mycelial growth development, the analysis showed no significant differences on mycelial growth development between amended or non-amended PDA with the botanical extract (*data not shown*).

The viability of the sclerotia was scored according to the rating scale described before (Fig. 1). The percentage obtained for both the control and the C1 was 20% of sclerotia rated as 3 or below, and 80% rated as 4 or higher. In both cases, the mycelium had a considerable size and consistency. Thus, the treatment does not seem to have an effect on the induction of sclerotia germination (Fig. 1).

Effect of Mimosa tenuiflora *and* Quercus robur *extract on plant growth and disease severity*

To check if the treatment affects the growth of the plant, the dry weight of the leaves and
root of the lettuce plants was measured. Results showed that the treatment did not affect
plant growth development in comparison with non-treated plants. (Fig. 2).

The analysis of the results showed that the application of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* extract either by soil drench or foliar spray is able to reduce the progress of infection in lettuce by 23.8% and 33.9%, respectively (Fig. 3). Regarding the effectiveness of the method of application, there were no significant differences between the foliar spray and soil drench.

278 Effect of the treatments inducing the formation of H_2O_2

Treatments with *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* extract promoted the synthesis of H_2O_2 in plants subjected to challenge infection. Both foliar and radicular treatments acted in a positive way promoting the activation of oxidative burst, which is responsible for the induction of the natural plant defences system. Both treatments resulted in significant higher accumulation compared with control plants. Plants treated by soil drench and inoculated showed an accumulation of H_2O_2 70% higher than observed in positive controls. On the other hand, in inoculated plants, the foliar application seems to be more effective regarding the induction of oxidative burst, showing levels of H_2O_2 two-fold higher than observed in positive controls (Fig. 4; Fig. 6a-d). No differences were observed in between negative controls and soil or foliar treated plants.

289 Effect of the treatments on callose deposition

290 Botanical extract treatments promoted the deposition of callose in both inoculated and 291 non-inoculated lots of plants, which leads to the idea that it is activating the natural plant 292 defence system. However, results observed are different depending on the type of 293 applications. Regarding radicular treatments, a significant enhancement of callose deposition was observed only in inoculated plants, reaching levels 1.6-fold higher than 294 295 those observed in positive controls (Fig. 5). On the other hand, the induction of callose 296 deposition in plants treated by foliar spray was significantly higher in non-inoculated and inoculated plants in comparison with both positive and negative control treatments, with 297 298 Fol treat/inoc treatment combination showing the highest level of callose deposition (19664.8 pixels per image) (Fig. 5; Fig. 6e-f). In the case of foliar treatments, the level 299 300 callose deposition on non-inoculated plants was 9-fold higher than that observed in 301 negative control, whereas the level of callose deposition observed in inoculated plants 302 was 4.2-fold higher than in positive controls (Fig. 5).

It is interesting to note that during the observation of callose deposition in the microscope, it was seen that the treatment was affecting the development of the mycelium and producing a slight degradation. In Fig. 6g-i we can see the three types of treated and untreated mycelia. In Fig. 6g (Ctr inoc) a homogeneous mycelium is observed following
the normal branching patterns in this pathogen. In Fig. 6h (soil treat/inoc), the spatial
structure of the hyphae is disordered and it seems degraded in various areas. Finally, in
Fig. 6i (foliar treat/inoc), degradation was observed in several parts of the mycelium
expansion.

311 *Effect of the treatment on the enhancement of hormones related to plant defence*

Hormonal analyses of the different treatments conducted in this study on lettuce are shown in Table 1. The accumulation of ABA showed an enhancement in in positive control compared with negative control, as well as in foliar treated plants regardless of the inoculation. No significant differences were observed in soil treated.

Regarding SA levels, our results showed different responses depending on the treatment and the inoculation. Positive control and soil treated plants showed a small reduction of SA levels after the challenge inoculation, but no significant differences were observed. However, plants treated by foliar spray showed a completely different pattern, since the treatment reduces significantly the levels of SA in non-inoculated plants and, the level of SA is significantly higher in inoculated plants.

Concerning JA levels, significant accumulation of this molecule was observed 322 323 only in lettuce leaves from positive control plants. Significant differences were observed 324 between positive control and soil drench treated plants, regardless the inoculation. 325 Moreover, no significant differences were observed between negative controls and plants 326 treated by soil drench or foliar spray. On the other hand, results obtained when analysing 327 the JA-Ile showed a strong increment in infected plants regardless of the treatment. Finally, the OPDA, precursor of the JA, showed inconclusive results without any 328 329 significant differences either between treatments or challenge infections.

330 **Discussion**

331 Previous studies have tested the effectiveness of Mimosa extract as an antifungal compound, obtaining positive results. In fact, Ferreira et al. (2013) used the extract of M. 332 ophthalmocentra and M. tenuiflora in the control of the candida fungus. Despite the 333 334 pharmacological and therapeutically effects of *M. tenuiflora* extracts have been previously reported, few studies have focused on its potential use as phytosanitary in crop 335 336 protection. Therefore, the main objective of the present work was the evaluation as resistance inducer of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* extract in *L. sativa* inoculated with *S.* 337 338 sclerotiorum under greenhouse conditions. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum is a necrotrophic fungus that develops from the surface of the crown towards the roots and the aerial zone. 339 340 Although this fungus can grow through the plant as an endophyte, usually develops its mycelium on the surface (Azevedo et al. 2016). 341

The first step of this study was to check whether the treatment has any fungicide 342 343 effect and interfere with the growth of the fungi. Contrary to observed with Azadirachta 344 indica, Zingiber officinale or Salvia officinalis extracts against Sclerotinia (Ojaghian et al. 2014; Pansera et al. 2008), or other plant pathogens (Dorantes et al. 2000), the mix 345 346 extract of *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* is unable to inhibit the mycelial growth *in vitro* or the germination of sclerotia. These results suggest that this extract is not toxic to the fungi, 347 348 and its possible mode of action is not related to fungicidal or fungistatic effects. This lack of direct toxic effect is not surprising since several compounds have been previously 349 350 reported as able to protect crops from pests, without displaying direct toxicity against the 351 pathogens (Llorens et al. 2017), but inducing the innate plant defence. On the other hand, 352 we also tested if the application of plant extracts could have a detrimental effect on the 353 growth of L. sativa. Other studies conducted with botanical extracts from plants belonging Jatropha genus, demonstrated an allelopathic effect on the growth of the aerial and radicular parts of the lettuce (Sanderson et al. 2013). Our results showed that the treatment does not interfere with the growth of the plant, being safe for its use in the field.

Plants possess a wide variety of innate mechanisms to cope with pathogen attacks 357 (Llorens et al. 2017). These mechanisms include several layers of defence that range from 358 359 the cell wall reinforcement, expression of defensive genes or accumulation of toxic compounds. Moreover, plants are able to detect and distinguish between herbivory, 360 361 biotrophic or necrotrophic pathogens and activate the appropriate defensive mechanism. 362 For this reason, in order to colonize the hosts, pathogens must interfere with the activation of plant defences. During the infection process, S. sclerotiorum releases oxalic acid (OA) 363 364 which has been described as necessary for the establishment of successful infection 365 (Davidson et al. 2016). The release of OA produces a modification of the redox state of the plant, leading in a suppression of the plant innate defences such as callose deposition, 366 367 elicitation of a strong oxidative burst, induction of phenolic compounds (Williams et al. 2011). Within the plant defensive mechanisms, one of the fastest responses against 368 pathogens is the accumulation of reactive oxygen species (Wojtaszek 1997). Upon 369 pathogen infection levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) increase rapidly. This 370 371 oxidative burst has two main roles, a direct toxicity against pathogens and acts as 372 extracellular and intracellular signalling (Mittler et al. 2011). It is well known that upon 373 the colonization of S. slcerotiorum the production of OA inhibits the oxidative burst, 374 whereas it has been observed that the mutants unable to produce OA failed to colonize 375 the host and induced a strong oxidative burst (Williams et al. 2011). In the same way, the 376 induction of a strong oxidative burst can be also promoted by the application of priming agents. In monocots, Paulert et al. (2010) observed that a pre-treatment of plants with 377 378 ulvan, a sulfated heteropolysaccharide, significantly reduced the severity of Blumeria

graminis infection, and induced an oxidative burst up to 150 times higher than other 379 380 elicitors. In tomato, Fernandez-Crespo et al. (Fernández-Crespo et al. 2015) observed that NH4⁺ pre-treated plants showed higher levels of hydrogen peroxide which were related 381 382 with higher resistance against Pseudomonas syringae. Our results showed a high accumulation of H_2O_2 in plants treated by foliar or soil drench application of the *M*. 383 tenuiflora and Q. robur extract compared with untreated controls. These results could 384 385 indicate that the application of the compound induces the oxidative burst reinforcing the first layer of defence, impairing the pathogen mechanisms for a successful infection. 386

Together with the oxidative burst, the accumulation of callose in the site of the 387 infection has been often related to the resistance against S. Sclerotiorum (Liang et al. 388 389 2015; Williams et al. 2011). The presence of fungi and other pathogens, induce localized 390 cell wall modifications, so-called papillae, at sites of attempted penetration. This papillae is mainly composed of (1,3)- β -glucan (Voigt 2016) and its accumulation upon pathogen 391 392 infection has been directly correlated whit the increase of resistance. Ellinger et al. (2013) demonstrated in Arabidopsis that the deposition of elevated amounts of callose at early 393 time points is related to resistance against Golovinomyces cichoracearum penetration. 394 Similar than oxidative burst, callose deposition can be induced by priming agents. The 395 396 application of resistance inducers such as beta-aminobutyric acid (BABA) or hexanoic acid primed deposition of callose, which has been associated with the resistance against 397 398 several pathogens (Ji et al. 2015; Llorens et al. 2017; Vicedo et al. 2009), and thereby, this induction of resistance can be partially suppressed by the callose synthesis inhibitor 399 400 2-deoxy-D-glucose (Hamiduzzaman et al. 2005; Llorens et al. 2013). In our experiment, 401 we observed a clear increase of callose deposition in treated and infected plants, 402 especially after foliar treatment, which could be interfering with the pathogen penetration.

The treatment with *M. tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* extract not only induced changes 403 404 in the plant performance. The observation of the mycelium under the microscope showed 405 abnormal Sclerotinia hyphae in treated plants. In previous works, it has already been 406 observed that plant extracts of Anethum graveolens or Platycladus orientalis are able to produce disorders in the normal morphology of fungal structures as detrimental and direct 407 408 effects of plant extracts (Tian et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2014). On the other hand, Bacillus 409 thuringiensis C25 is able to induced degeneration, distortion, and rupture of hyphae of S. *minor* produced by a variety of cell wall degrading enzymes such as proteases, β -1,3-410 glucanase, and chitinase (Shrestha et al. 2015). Since this result has been observed in 411 412 plants treated either by soil drench or foliar application, it seems indicate that treatment 413 per se does not produce hyphae degradation, but it could induce the expression of cell 414 wall degrading enzymes as part of the defensive response promoted by the treatment.

To define which defence systems were activated in the plant due to the treatment, 415 416 we analysed the hormonal levels in the leaves. The results obtained showed that the 417 treatments or the inoculation are able to modulate pathways of ABA and JA, and the foliar 418 treatment, which has proved to be the most effective, provoke changes both pathways. 419 Our result showed that the soil application of the plant extracts induces an enhancement 420 of ABA accumulation in non-inoculated plants, however, this increase in non-inoculated plants was not observed in the case of foliar application. Between the defensive roles of 421 422 ABA, at the pre-invasive level, it is responsible for the PAMP-triggered defence by promoting the stomatal closure to reduce the pathogen entry (C. Lim et al. 2015). 423 424 Moreover, this hormone has also been positively related to the deposition of callose (Oide 425 et al. 2013). However, previous studies have also suggested a negative relation between ABA and SA induced resistance, which could impair the defence against biotrophic 426 427 pathogens such as Pseudomonas syringae (C. W. Lim et al. 2014). On the other hand, the

JA pathway is related to the plant defence against necrotrophic pathogens such as 428 429 Sclerotinia (Llorens et al. 2017). Accordingly, our results showed a strong up-regulation 430 of JA in positive controls. However, the treatment, despite being effective, did not show 431 an enhancement of the JA pathway or the other metabolites analysed from this pathway. On the other hand, results observed in SA accumulation showed an induction only by soil 432 treatment and inoculation. Despite this hormone is usually related in defence against 433 434 biotrophic pathogens, recently Nováková et al., (2014) observed a possible implication of SA in *Brassica napus* against Sclerotinia indicating that all the main defence signalling 435 pathways may respond to the attack by S. sclerotiorum. All these results indicate that 436 437 there is not a clear relationship between the application of the compound and the 438 activation of hormonal pathways, suggesting that the effectiveness of the plant extract 439 does not require the activation of hormonal pathways but relies on previous defensive 440 mechanisms induced by the treatment which could be sufficient to restrict the pathogen 441 attack.

In conclusion, in this work, it has been demonstrated that the mix extract of M. 442 tenuiflora and Q. robur is able to induce plant innate defences applied either by soil 443 drench or foliar spray. The lack of *in vitro* direct toxicity against Sclerotinia suggests that 444 445 the treatment works by inducing the plant defence systems. The results observed in the 446 induction of peroxide formation and the deposition of callose would be sufficient to 447 counteract the infection process and avoid the Sclerotinia colonization. Moreover, the application of this extract could be impairing the hyphae development, but more studies 448 449 would be necessary in order to clarify this point.

Acknowledgements This research was financially supported by the 'Instituto Valenciano
de Competitividad Empresarial' (IVACE) Ref. IFINOA/2014/46 and the Spanish
Ministry of Science and Innovation (AGL2013-49023-C3-2-R). Ana I. González-

Hernández is the holder of a fellowship by the "Programa de formació del personal
investigador (PREDOC/2016/27)" and C. Agustí-Brisach is the holder of a 'Juan de la
Cierva-Incorporación' postdoctoral fellowship from MINECO. The authors are grateful
to the 'Serveis Centrals d'Instrumentació Científica' (SCIC) from 'Universitat Jaume I'
(UJI, Castellón, Spain).

458 **Compliance with ethical standards** Authors declared that this manuscript has not 459 published elsewhere. All the authors have read very carefully and approved current 460 version of this manuscript. All authors also declared that the data or images have not 461 manipulated.

462 Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest The authors declare that they have no463 conflict of interest.

Research involving human participants and/or animals This research is focused on
the mechanism of action of botanical extracts against a plant pathogenic fungus. This
article does not contain any experiments with human participants or animals.

467 Informed consent Please be informed that authors are satisfied to publish this work in468 European Journal of Plant Pathology.

469

470 **References**

471 Abbasi, P. A., Cuppels, D. A., & Lazarovits, G. (2003). Effect of foliar applications of

472 neem oil and fish emulsion on bacterial spot and yield of tomatoes and peppers.

- 473 *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology*, 25(1), 41–48.
- 474 doi:10.1080/07060660309507048
- 475 Amadioha, A. C. (2000). Controlling rice blast in vitro and in vivo with extracts of
- 476 Azadirachta indica. Crop Protection, 19(5), 287–290. doi:10.1016/S0261-

477 2194(99)00080-0

478	Andrenšek, S., Simonovska, B., Vovk, I., Fyhrquist, P., Vuorela, H., & Vuorela, P.
479	(2004). Antimicrobial and antioxidative enrichment of oak (Quercus robur) bark by
480	rotation planar extraction using ExtraChrom®. International Journal of Food
481	Microbiology, 92(2), 181–187. doi:10.1016/J.IJFOODMICRO.2003.09.009
482	Azevedo, L., Chagas-Paula, D. A., Kim, H., Roque, A. C. M., Dias, K. S. T., Machado,
483	J. C., et al. (2016). White mold (Sclerotinia sclerotiorum), friend or foe: Cytotoxic
484	and mutagenic activities in vitro and in vivo. Food Research International, 80, 27-
485	35. doi:10.1016/J.FOODRES.2015.11.029
486	Burketova, L., Trda, L., Ott, P. G., & Valentova, O. (2015). Bio-based resistance
487	inducers for sustainable plant protection against pathogens. Biotechnology
488	Advances, 33(6), 994–1004. doi:10.1016/J.BIOTECHADV.2015.01.004
489	Clarkson, J. P., Fawcett, L., Anthony, S. G., & Young, C. (2014). A Model for
490	Sclerotinia sclerotiorum Infection and Disease Development in Lettuce, Based on
491	the Effects of Temperature, Relative Humidity and Ascospore Density. PLoS ONE,
492	9(4), e94049. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094049
493	da Cruz Cabral, L., Fernández Pinto, V., & Patriarca, A. (2013). Application of plant
494	derived compounds to control fungal spoilage and mycotoxin production in foods.
	International Journal of Food Microbiolomy 166(1) 1 14
495	International Journal of Pool Microbiology, 100(1), 1–14.
495 496	doi:10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2013.05.026
495 496 497	doi:10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2013.05.026Davidson, A. L., Blahut-Beatty, L., Itaya, A., Zhang, Y., Zheng, S., & Simmonds, D.

function in susceptible and resistant soybean. *Plant Pathology*, 65(6), 878–887.

500 doi:10.1111/ppa.12514

- de Souza Araújo, E., Pimenta, A. S., Feijó, F. M. C., Castro, R. V. O., Fasciotti, M.,
- 502 Monteiro, T. V. C., & de Lima, K. M. G. (2018). Antibacterial and antifungal
- 503 activities of pyroligneous acid from wood of *Eucalyptus urograndis* and *Mimosa*
- 504 *tenuiflora. Journal of Applied Microbiology*, *124*(1), 85–96.
- 505 doi:10.1111/jam.13626
- 506 Dorantes, L., Colmenero, R., Hernandez, H., Mota, L., Jaramillo, M. E., Fernandez, E.,
- 507 & Solano, C. (2000). Inhibition of growth of some foodborne pathogenic bacteria
- 508 by Capsicum annum extracts. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 57(1–
- 509 2), 125–128. doi:10.1016/S0168-1605(00)00216-6
- 510 Ellinger, D., Naumann, M., Falter, C., Zwikowics, C., Jamrow, T., Manisseri, C., et al.
- 511 (2013). Elevated early callose deposition results in complete penetration resistance
- to powdery mildew in Arabidopsis. *Plant physiology*, *161*(3), 1433–44.
- 513 doi:10.1104/pp.112.211011
- 514 Fernández-Crespo, E., Scalschi, L., Llorens, E., García-Agustín, P., Camañes, G.,
- 515 Fern??ndez-Crespo, E., et al. (2015). NH4+ protects tomato plants against

516 Pseudomonas syringae by activation of systemic acquired acclimation. *Journal of*517 *Experimental Botany*, 66(21), 6777–6790. doi:10.1093/jxb/erv382

- 518 Ferreira, M. R. A., Santiago, R. R., Langassner, S. M. Z., Palazzo De Mello, J. C.,
- 519 Svidzinski, T. I. E., & Soares, L. A. L. (2013). Antifungal activity of medicinal
- 520 plants from Northeastern Brazil, 7(40), 3008–3013. doi:10.5897/JMPR2013.5035
- 521 Gahukar, R. T. (2012). Evaluation of plant-derived products against pests and diseases
 522 of medicinal plants: A review. *Crop Protection*, 42, 202–209.

523 doi:10.1016/J.CROPRO.2012.07.026

- 524 Hamiduzzaman, M. M., Jakab, G., Barnavon, L., Neuhaus, J.-M., & Mauch-Mani, B.
- 525 (2005). β-Aminobutyric Acid-Induced Resistance Against Downy Mildew in
- 526 Grapevine Acts Through the Potentiation of Callose Formation and Jasmonic Acid
- 527 Signaling. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions*, *18*(8), 819–829.
- 528 doi:10.1094/MPMI-18-0819
- 529 Heffer. (2007). White Mold. *The Plant Health Instructor*. doi:10.1094/PHI-I-2007530 0809-01
- Ji, H., Kyndt, T., He, W., Vanholme, B., & Gheysen, G. (2015). β-Aminobutyric Acid–
 Induced Resistance Against Root-Knot Nematodes in Rice Is Based on Increased
 Basal Defense. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions*, 28(5), 519–533.
- 534 doi:10.1094/MPMI-09-14-0260-R
- 535 Klose, S., Wu, B. M., Ajwa, H. A., Koike, S. T., & Subbarao, K. V. (2010). Reduced
- efficacy of rovral and botran to control Sclerotinia minor in lettuce production in
- 537 the Salinas Valley may be related to accelerated fungicide degradation in soil.

538 *Crop Protection*, 29(7), 751–756. doi:10.1016/J.CROPRO.2010.02.015

- Kohn, L. M. (1979). Delimitation of the Economically Important Plant Pathogenic
 Sclerotinia Species. *Phytopathology*, *69*(8), 881. doi:10.1094/Phyto-69-881
- Liang, X., Liberti, D., Li, M., Kim, Y.-T., Hutchens, A., Wilson, R., & Rollins, J. A.
- 542 (2015). Oxaloacetate acetylhydrolase gene mutants of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* do
- 543 not accumulate oxalic acid, but do produce limited lesions on host plants.
- 544 *Molecular Plant Pathology*, *16*(6), 559–571. doi:10.1111/mpp.12211
- Lim, C., Baek, W., Jung, J., Kim, J.-H., & Lee, S. (2015). Function of ABA in Stomatal

546	Defense against Biotic and Drought Stresses. International Journal of Molecular
547	Sciences, 16(7), 15251–15270. doi:10.3390/ijms160715251
548	Lim, C. W., Luan, S., & Lee, S. C. (2014). A Prominent Role for RCAR3-Mediated
549	ABA Signaling in Response to Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato DC3000
550	Infection in Arabidopsis. Plant and Cell Physiology, 55(10), 1691–1703.
551	doi:10.1093/pcp/pcu100
552	Llorens, E., Agustí-Brisach, C., González-Hernández, A. I., Troncho, P., Vicedo, B.,
553	Yuste, T., et al. (2016). Bioassimilable sulphur provides effective control of
554	Oidium neolycopersici in tomato, enhancing the plant immune system. Pest
555	Management Science. doi:10.1002/ps.4419
556	Llorens, E., Fernández-Crespo, E., Vicedo, B., Lapeña, L., & García-Agustín, P. (2013).
557	Enhancement of the citrus immune system provides effective resistance against
558	Alternaria brown spot disease. Journal of Plant Physiology, 170(2).
559	doi:10.1016/j.jplph.2012.09.018
560	Llorens, E., García-Agustín, P., & Lapeña, L. (2017). Advances in induced resistance
561	by natural compounds: Towards new options for woody crop protection. Scientia
562	Agricola, 74(1). doi:10.1590/1678-992x-2016-0012
563	McDonald, J. A., Gaston, L. A., Jackson, S. H., Locke, M. A., & Zablotowicz, R. M.
564	(2006). DEGRADATION KINETICS ASSESSMENT FOR THE FUNGICIDE
565	BAS 505 IN INTACT SOIL CORES VERSUS BATCH SOILS. Soil Science,
566	171(3), 239–248. doi:10.1097/01.ss.0000187375.38649.5b
567	Mittler, R., Vanderauwera, S., Suzuki, N., Miller, G., Tognetti, V. B., Vandepoele, K.,
568	et al. (2011). ROS signaling: the new wave? Trends in Plant Science, 16(6), 300-

569

570	Nováková, M., Šašek, V., Dobrev, P. I., Valentová, O., & Burketová, L. (2014). Plant
571	hormones in defense response of Brassica napus to Sclerotinia sclerotiorum –
572	Reassessing the role of salicylic acid in the interaction with a necrotroph. Plant
573	Physiology and Biochemistry, 80, 308-317. doi:10.1016/J.PLAPHY.2014.04.019
574	Oide, S., Bejai, S., Staal, J., Guan, N., Kaliff, M., & Dixelius, C. (2013). A novel role of
575	PR2 in abscisic acid (ABA) mediated, pathogen-induced callose deposition in
576	Arabidopsis thaliana. New Phytologist, 200(4), 1187–1199.
577	doi:10.1111/nph.12436
578	Ojaghian, M. R., Wang, L., Cui, Z. qi, Yang, C., Zhongyun, T., & Xie, GL. (2014).
579	Antifungal and SAR potential of crude extracts derived from neem and ginger
580	against storage carrot rot caused by Sclerotinia sclerotiorum. Industrial Crops and
581	Products, 55, 130-139. doi:10.1016/J.INDCROP.2014.02.012
582	Ortega-Aguilar, B. L., Alarcón, A., & Ferrera-Cerrato, R. (2011). Effect of potassium
583	bicarbonate on fungal growth and sclerotia of Sclerotium cepivorum and its
584	interaction with Trichoderma. Revista mexicana de micologia, (33), 53-61.
585	http://www.scielo.org.mx/pdf/rmm/v33/v33a8.pdf. Accessed 18 January 2018
586	Padilha, I. Q. M., Pereira, A. V., Rodrigues, O. G., Siqueira-Júnior, J. P., & Pereira, M.
587	do S. V. (2010). Antimicrobial activity of Mimosa tenuiflora (Willd.) Poir. from
588	Northeast Brazil against clinical isolates of Staphylococcus aureus. Revista
589	Brasileira de Farmacognosia, 20(1), 45-47. doi:10.1590/S0102-
590	695X2010000100010

⁵⁹¹ Pane, C., Francese, G., Raimo, F., Mennella, G., & Zaccardelli, M. (2017). Activity of

- foliar extracts of cultivated eggplants against sclerotinia lettuce drop disease and
 their phytochemical profiles. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, *148*(3), 687–
 697. doi:10.1007/s10658-016-1126-0
- 595 Pansera, M. R., Pauletti, M., Fedrigo, C. P., Sartori, V. C., & Ribeiro, R. T. da S.
- 596 (2008). Utilization of essential oil and vegetable extracts of Salvia officinalis L. in
- the control of rot sclerotinia in lettuce. *Applied Research & Agrotechnology*, 6(2),

598 83–88. http://revistas.unicentro.br/index.php/repaa/article/view/2248/2176.

- 599 Accessed 7 December 2017
- 600 Paul, P. ., & Sharma, P. . (2002). Azadirachta indica leaf extract induces resistance in
- barley against leaf stripe disease. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology*,
- 602 61(1), 3–13. doi:10.1006/PMPP.2002.0412
- Paulert, R., Ebbinghaus, D., Urlass, C., & Moerschbacher, B. M. (2010). Priming of the
- oxidative burst in rice and wheat cell cultures by ulvan, a polysaccharide from
- green macroalgae, and enhanced resistance against powdery mildew in wheat and
- 606 barley plants. *Plant Pathology*, 59(4), 634–642. doi:10.1111/j.1365-
- 607 3059.2010.02300.x
- 608 Peter Gillitzer, p, Martin, A. C., Kantar, M. B., Kauppi, K., Dahlberg, S., Lis, D., et al.
- 609 (2012). Optimization of screening of native and naturalized plants from Minnesota
- 610 for antimicrobial activity. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, *6*(6), 938–949.
- 611 doi:10.5897/JMPR10.710
- 612 Purdy, L. H. (1979). *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* : History, Diseases and Symptomatology,
- Host Range, Geographic Distribution, and Impact. *Phytopathology*, 69(8), 875.
- 614 doi:10.1094/Phyto-69-875

615	Saharan, G. S., & Mehta, N. (2008a). Economic Importance. In Sclerotinia Diseases of
616	Crop Plants: Biology, Ecology and Disease Management (pp. 41-45). Dordrecht:
617	Springer Netherlands. doi:10.1007/978-1-4020-8408-9_4

- 618 Saharan, G. S., & Mehta, N. (2008b). Sclerotinia diseases of crop plants : biology,
- 619 *ecology and disease management*. Springer.
- 620 https://books.google.es/books?id=uvaQCSybm_gC&pg=PA131&lpg=PA131&dq=
- 621 Dillon-Weston+et+al.,+1946;+Starr+et+al.,+1953&source=bl&ots=Tq-
- 622 KI4d9HE&sig=1odA6uCgQjCC1AjQouSgmkiCdyA&hl=es&sa=X&ved=0ahUK
- 623 EwiG8vKI7tLYAhXJPxQKHfruD4wQ6AEIKjAA#v=onepage&q=Dillon-Weston.
- Accessed 12 January 2018
- 625 Sales, M. D. C., Costa, H. B., Fernandes, P. M. B., Ventura, J. A., & Meira, D. D.
- 626 (2016). Antifungal activity of plant extracts with potential to control plant
- 627 pathogens in pineapple. Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine, 6(1), 26–
- 628 31. doi:10.1016/J.APJTB.2015.09.026
- 629 Sanderson, K., Bariccatti, R. A., Primieri, C., Viana, H., Viecelli, C. A., Guilherme, H.,
- 630 & Junior, B. (2013). Allelopathic influence of the aqueous extract of jatropha on
- 631 lettuce (Lactuca sativa var. Grand Rapids) germination and development. *Journal*
- 632 of Food, Agriculture & Environment Journal of Food Agriculture & Environment,
- 633 *1111*(11), 641–643.
- http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.659.1607&rep=rep1&ty
- 635 pe=pdf. Accessed 12 January 2018
- 636 Shrestha, A., Sultana, R., Chae, J.-C., Kim, K., & Lee, K.-J. (2015). Bacillus
- 637 thuringiensis C25 which is rich in cell wall degrading enzymes efficiently controls
- 638 lettuce drop caused by Sclerotinia minor. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*,

- 639 *142*(3), 577–589. doi:10.1007/s10658-015-0636-5
- 640 Steel, R. G. D., & Torrie, J. H. (1986). *Bioestadistica: principios y procedimientos* (2nd
 641 ed.). Mexico: McGraw-Hill.
- 642 http://www.urbe.edu/UDWLibrary/InfoBook.do?id=5221
- Tian, J., Ban, X., Zeng, H., Huang, B., He, J., & Wang, Y. (2011). In vitro and in vivo
- activity of essential oil from dill (Anethum graveolens L.) against fungal spoilage
 of cherry tomatoes. *Food Control*, 22(12), 1992–1999.
- 646 doi:10.1016/J.FOODCONT.2011.05.018
- 647 Vicedo, B., Flors, V., Leyva, M. D., Finiti, I., Kravchuk, Z., Real, M. D., et al. (2009).

648 Hexanoic Acid-Induced Resistance Against Botrytis cinerea in Tomato Plants.

- 649 *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions*, 22(11), 1455–1465. doi:10.1094/mpmi-22650 11-1455
- Voigt, C. A. (2016). Cellulose/callose glucan networks: the key to powdery mildew
- 652 resistance in plants? *New Phytologist*, *212*(2), 303–305. doi:10.1111/nph.14198
- 653 Wang, H., Wang, J., Peng, X., Zhou, P., Bai, N., Meng, J., & Deng, X. (2014). Control
- efficacy against rice sheath blight of Platycladus orientalis extract and its
- antifungal active compounds. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 140(3), 515–
- 656 525. doi:10.1007/s10658-014-0485-7
- 657 Williams, B., Kabbage, M., Kim, H.-J., Britt, R., & Dickman, M. B. (2011). Tipping the
- Balance: Sclerotinia sclerotiorum Secreted Oxalic Acid Suppresses Host Defenses
- by Manipulating the Host Redox Environment. *PLoS Pathogens*, 7(6), e1002107.

660 doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002107

661 Wojtaszek, P. (1997). Oxidative burst: an early plant response to pathogen infection.

662 *The Biochemical journal*, *322* (*Pt 3*)(Pt 3), 681–92.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9148737. Accessed 7 December 2017

664 Fig. 1 Germination of sclerotia. Percentage of germination of sclerotia for the treatments Ctr: mycelium growth in PDB; C1: mycelium growth in PDB + 0.14 665 μ L/ml of plant extract. Results are represented according to a rating from 1 to 5 666 667 where 0 = No germination; 1 = Germination lower than 0.5 mm; 2 = Germinationbetween 0.5 and 1 mm; 3 = Germination between 1 and 2 mm; 4 = Germination 668 around 2 mm with development of mycelia; and 5 = massive germination. For each 669 treatment, data represent the means of three independent experiments of 10 670 671 sclerotia per repetition.

672 Fig. 2 Effect of Mimosa tenuiflora and Quercus robur extract on plant growth 673 development. Dry weight (g) of the leaves and roots of treated plants of lettuce for: 674 Positive control (non-treated and inoculated plants); Fol treat/inoc (foliar treated and 675 inoculated plants), and Soil treat/inoc(soil drench treated and inoculated plants-). 676 Columns represent the means of three independent experiments of 24 replicated plants per treatment, and repetition. Vertical bars are the standard error of the means. Columns 677 678 with the same letter do not differ significantly according to Fisher's protected LSD test (*P* < 0.05). 679

680

Fig. 3 Effect of *Mimosa tenuiflora* and *Quercus robur* extract on the resistance of lettuce plants against *S. sclerotiorum* 72 hours after inoculation. Diameter of lesion (mm) for the treatments Positive control (non-treated and inoculated plants); Fol treat/inoc (foliar treated and inoculated plants); and Soil treat/inoc (Soil drench treated and inoculated plants). Columns represent the means of three independent experiments of 24 replicated plants per treatment, and repetition. Vertical bars are the standard error of the means. Columns with the same letter do not differ significantly according to Fisher's protected LSD test (P < 0.05).

Fig. 4 Quantification of the accumulation of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂; ROS) represented 689 as brown pixels per image in samples of lettuce leaves taken 72 hours after inoculation 690 691 for the six treatments evaluated: untreated and non-inoculation control (negative control, Ctr); untreated and inoculated control (Positive control, Ctr inoc); soil drench treatment 692 without inoculation (Soil treat); soil drench treatment and inoculated (Soil treat/inoc); 693 694 foliar treatment without inoculation (Fol treat); and foliar treatment and inoculated (Fol treat/inoc). Columns represent the means of three independent experiments of 24 695 696 replicated plants per treatment, and repetition. Vertical bars are the standard error of the 697 means. Columns with the same letter do not differ significantly according to Fisher's protected LSD test (P < 0.05). 698

699 Fig. 5 Quantification of callose deposition represented as number of pixels in samples of 700 lettuce leaves taken 72 hours after inoculation for the six treatments evaluated: : untreated and non-inoculation control (negative control, Ctr); untreated and inoculated control 701 702 (Positive control, Ctr inoc); soil drench treatment without inoculation (Soil treat); soil 703 drench treatment and inoculated (Soil treat/inoc); foliar treatment without inoculation 704 (Fol treat); and foliar treatment and inoculated (Fol treat/inoc). Columns represent the 705 means of three independent experiments of 24 replicated plants per treatment, and 706 repetition. Vertical bars are the standard error of the means. Columns with the same letter do not differ significantly according to Fisher's protected LSD test (P < 0.05). 707

Fig. 6 Micrographies of the different analysis performed: (a-d) accumulation of hydrogen
 peroxide (H₂O₂; ROS) observed as brown precipitate for (a) Sample from negative control

710 leaf (b) Sample from Fol treat leaf (c) Sample from Positive control leaf (d) Sample from 711 Fol treat/inoc leaf (e-f) Visualization of callose deposition for (e) Sample from positive 712 control leaf (f) Sample from Fol treat/inoc leaf (g-i) Effect of treatment with extract of M. 713 *tenuiflora* and *Q. robur* in the mycelial development of *S. sclerotiorum* in lettuce plants (g) 714 Mycelium in leaf samples from negative control plants in which a homogeneous growth is observed and the structures of the hyphae are equivalent to each other (**h**) mycelium in leaves 715 716 of plants treated via foliar (i) mycelium in leaves of plants treated via radicular. Arrows point 717 segments where mycelium is abnormal.