

1 **Endophytic microorganisms for biocontrol of the phytopathogenic**
2 **fungus *Botrytis cinerea***

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11 [†] Dedicated to the Dr. James R. Hanson in Memoriam

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1 Abstract:

2 *Botrytis cinerea* is the most widely studied necrotrophic phytopathogenic fungus. It causes
3 economic losses that are difficult to calculate due to the large number of hosts. While there are a
4 wide array of fungicides on the market to control this phytopathogen, they are not considered
5 sustainable in terms of the environment and human health. The search for new alternatives to
6 control this phytopathogen has led to the use of endophytic microorganisms as biological control
7 agents. Endophytic bacteria and endophytic fungi have been isolated from different plant species
8 and some have proven effective in inhibiting *B. cinerea*. Furthermore, a significant number of
9 fungistatic or fungicidal metabolites which could be used as alternative complementary chemical
10 controls have been isolated from these fungi and bacteria. In this review, in addition to the
11 metabolites which have shown fungicide activity against this phytopathogen, the different genera
12 and species of endophytic bacteria and fungi are also considered. These have been isolated from
13 various plant species and have displayed antagonistic activity against *B. cinerea*.

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15 **Keywords:** antifungal, biological control agents, endophytic fungus and bacteria, grey mould
16 disease.

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1 Abbreviations

BCAs	biological control agents
CFU	colony forming unit
EC50	half maximal effective concentration
IC50	half maximal inhibitory concentration
ISR	inducing systemic resistance
MIC	minimal inhibitory concentration
SAR	systemic acquired resistance
VOCs	volatile organic compounds

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1 **Introduction**

2 Plant diseases and pests are the main factors responsible for food loss around the
3 world (Parnell et al. 2016). At least 20-40% of these losses are caused by pathogenic
4 infections and they account for losses of \$40 billion a year worldwide (Syed Ab Rahman
5 et al. 2018). *Botrytis cinerea* (figure 1) is the second most important plant pathogen in the
6 world and it is therefore one of the most extensively studied necrotrophic fungal
7 phytopathogen (Dean et al. 2012; Williamson et al. 2007). It causes diseases known as
8 “grey mould” which are responsible for economic losses that are difficult to calculate due
9 to its wide range of hosts (Dean et al. 2012). While there are fungicides to combat *B.*
10 *cinerea*, their use is not considered sustainable due to their adverse effects on human
11 health and the environment. Moreover, frequent applications increase the risk of the
12 fungus developing resistance, *B. cinerea* is considered a high-risk pathogen in terms of
13 resistance to fungicides and this is a limiting factor in terms of its chemical control
14 (Williamson et al. 2007; Rodríguez et al. 2014; Haidar et al. 2016; Lu et al. 2016). Despite
15 this fact, fungicides are still the most common method used to control gray mold and
16 account for 10% of the cost of the world fungicide market. It is estimated that over €1
17 billion is spent annually worldwide to control this phytopathogen (Dean et al. 2012).
18 Therefore, the development of methods that are complementary to chemical control, such
19 as the use of non-pathogenic microorganisms as biological control agents (BCAs), are
20 increasingly considered to be promising alternatives (Haidar et al. 2016). Although in the
21 last decade the search for new BCAs to combat *B. cinerea* has increased, the
22 corresponding efficiency studies are conducted under controlled laboratory or greenhouse
23 conditions and eventually most fail in the field (Haidar et al. 2016; Nicot et al. 2016).
24 Hence, the number of BCAs marketed as fungicides to combat *B. cinerea* is still very
25 small (Haidar et al. 2016). There is therefore a need to search for new microorganisms or

1 their metabolites that are able to control *B. cinerea*. This search offers a promising
2 opportunity to prevent food loss caused by this fungus and to improve agricultural
3 productivity. This review summarizes the different genera and species of endophytic
4 microorganisms which have been isolated from various plant species and show to have
5 biocontrol capacity against *B. cinerea*, as well as the secondary metabolites that have been
6 isolated from endophytic microorganisms and characterized as having antifungal activity
7 against this phytopathogen.



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10 **Fig 1** Infection by *Botrytis cinerea*

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12 **1. Biological control by microorganisms**

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14 The United States and European Union are the main consumers of chemical
15 fungicides worldwide. However, since 2011 the use of these chemical agents has
16 declined, mainly in the USA, perhaps due to environmental protection and consumer
17 health regulations (Carbú et al. 2016). The major crop protection companies have been
18 investing in the field of biocontrol in response to legal restrictions and consumer demand
19 for pesticide-free foods (Romanazzi et al. 2016). In 2011 the global biocontrol market
20 was worth a reported US\$2.1 billion and it was influenced by the growing demand for
21 organic products (Velivelli et al. 2014).

1 The use of microorganisms or their metabolites to control plant disease has
2 received greater attention, with some exceptions and when they have no negative effects
3 on human or animal health, and are environmentally friendly. Unlike their chemical
4 counterparts, in general, they do not affect other beneficial organisms (Ritika and Utpal
5 2014; Parnell et al. 2016; Syed Ab Rahman et al. 2018). Although biological methods to
6 control plant pathogens have been under study for more than 70 years, biocontrol products
7 account for a mere 3.5% of the global pesticide market which is still dominated by
8 synthetic pesticides (Carbú et al. 2016; Parnell et al. 2016).

9 The fungi biocontrol market is dominated by bacteria-based and fungi-based
10 products accounting for approximately 85% of the available products. The remaining
11 15% is made up of products based on viruses, predators and other organisms (e.g.
12 protozoa, nematodes) (Glare et al. 2012).

13 During biological control, BCAs can inhibit pathogens directly either by
14 mediating physical contact or by means of very specific mechanisms for combating the
15 pathogen (hyperparasitism, predation, etc.). They may act indirectly by means that do not
16 target a specific type of pathogen (stimulation of plant defenses, competition by
17 substrates, etc.) or they may act by mixed-path antagonism (antibiotics, lytic enzymes,
18 etc.) which are mutually compatible and can act simultaneously or synergistically (Bardin
19 et al. 2015). However, BCAs effectiveness depends on factors such as climate variation,
20 ecological competition, the intrinsic traits of the BCAs, the exertion of selection pressure
21 and the quality of the product as it is formulated. Moreover, the traits of the pathogen
22 such as its genetic diversity and ability to evolve in response to selection pressures must
23 also be taken into account (Bardin et al. 2015).

24 The bacteria which are used as BCAs have been isolated mainly from the root
25 zone, although some have also been isolated from other plant-related environments such

1 as the endosphere, the phyllosphere and the espermosphere (Lazarovits et al. 2014).
2 Bacteria exert their control mechanism mainly through competition for the niche, the
3 production of allelochemicals and the induction of resistance pathways in plants,
4 (Compant et al. 2005; Lazarovits et al. 2014). Fungi, like bacteria, act as biocontrols
5 through various mechanisms such as antibiosis, competition, parasitism, predation and
6 stimulation of plant defense mechanisms (Lazarovits et al. 2014).

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8 **1.1 Endophytic microorganisms as biological control agents**

9 Of the nearly 300,000 species of higher plants that exist today, each can host
10 several species of endophytic microorganisms (Ryan et al. 2008; Aly et al. 2010;
11 Senthilkumar et al. 2011). However, only a few of these plants have been thoroughly
12 studied in terms of their endophytic microbiota despite the fact that endophytic
13 microorganisms are a potential source of new natural products for use in medicine,
14 biotechnology, industry and agriculture (Ryan et al. 2008; Senthilkumar et al. 2011).

15 Endophytes are microorganisms that are found within plant tissues during at least
16 part of their life cycle. They do not cause disease under any known circumstances and are
17 generally considered as organisms that have beneficial effects on their host (Ludwig-
18 Müller 2015; Cocq et al. 2017). The fact that endophytic microorganisms are able to
19 colonize an ecological niche similar to that of some phytopathogens means that they have
20 potential as biocontrol agents. However, their effectiveness depends on many factors
21 including host specificity and colonization patterns, population dynamics, the ability to
22 move within host tissue, the ability to induce systemic resistance, the physical structure
23 of the soil, environmental conditions and the growth phase and physiological state of the
24 plant (Ryan et al. 2008; Senthilkumar et al. 2011; Eljounaidi et al. 2016; Eun and Mee

1 2016). The success of endophytic microorganisms as BCAs is linked to all of these
2 factors.

3 Because of the administration and establishment of microorganisms in plants is
4 difficult, the use of endophytes generates a greater expectation since, due to their life
5 cycle, this could help to overcome the difficulties of delivery and survival in the plant
6 (Lazarovits et al. 2014; Busby et al. 2016; O'Brien 2017). The benefits of endophytic
7 microbiota for host plants include their ability to act as biocontrol agents through
8 mechanisms such as competition for a niche or substrate, hyperparasitism, predation,
9 allelochemical production (antibiotics, lytic enzymes, siderophores) and by inducing
10 systemic resistance in plants (ISR) (Compant et al. 2005). Mechanisms such as parasitism
11 and competition for substrates are likely to be less effective than antibiosis and ISR as
12 biological control strategies in endophytes (Card et al. 2016). In addition to acting directly
13 on the pathogen, endophytic microorganisms can stimulate the growth of the host plant
14 through various mechanisms such as biological nitrogen fixation, solubilization of
15 minerals, production of phytohormones and others (Van et al. 2014).

16 Inoculation of plants with endophytic microorganisms can inhibit disease
17 symptoms caused by insects, viruses, bacteria, nematodes and fungi (Eun and Mee 2016).
18 In the initial stages, the interaction between endophytic microorganisms and their host
19 plant promotes an immune response by the plant. However, these endophytic
20 microorganisms are able to overcome this response and successfully colonize the plant,
21 acting as an immune stimulant or a natural vaccination (Hardoim et al. 2015). Endophytic
22 microorganisms also have the capacity to synthesize a wide range of bioactive chemical
23 compounds that plants use as to defend themselves against pathogens (Nair and
24 Padmavathy 2014). Pathogens can induce endophytic microorganisms to synthesize these
25 antimicrobial compounds. Moreover, endophytes have an influence on the secondary

1 metabolism of their host plant (Combés et al. 2012; Hardoim et al. 2015). Products
2 obtained from endophytic microorganisms include antibiotics, immunosuppressants,
3 anticancer agents, antioxidants and other biologically active substances (Zhang et al.
4 2006; Dutta et al. 2014). These compounds belong to various structural groups such as
5 terpenoids, steroids, phenols, coumarins and others (Ludwig-Müller 2015).

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7 **2. Endophytic microorganisms for the biological control of *B. cinerea***

8 *B. cinerea* is a phytopathogenic fungus that affects the flowers, leaves, buds,
9 seeds and fruits of numerous crops around the world. Infection occurs either through
10 direct penetration or through wounds following pruning or harvesting. Although the most
11 noticeable effects of the infection are observed in mature or senescent tissue, the fungus
12 can invade the plant at early stages of cultivation and remains dormant until the conditions
13 are propitious. Consequently, the serious damage may be caused after the harvest of
14 apparently healthy crops (Williamson et al. 2007; Özer and Bayraktar 2014). *B. cinerea*
15 is difficult to control because it has several modes of attack, multiple hosts, high genetic
16 variability, and it can survive for long periods of time either as mycelia or conidia. Its
17 management depends mainly on synthetic fungicides whose frequent application
18 increases the risk of resistance (Williamson et al. 2007; Rodríguez et al. 2014; Haidar et
19 al. 2016; Lu et al. 2016). Despite this fact, fungicides are still the most common method
20 used to control this phytopathogen. The global market for these products is estimated at
21 US\$15-25 million (Elad and Stewart 2007). In addition to *B. cinerea* resistance to
22 synthetic fungicides, the negative effects that these products have on health and the
23 environment has stimulated the search for new strategies to control this phytopathogen
24 (Rodríguez et al. 2014). Biocontrol offers an alternative or an attractive complement since
25 biological control agents are considered to be less harmful to the environment. Their

1 multiple and complex modes of action reduce the risk of resistance (Elad and Stewart
2 2007). Rhizosphere microorganisms have played a key role in biological control insofar
3 as the rhizosphere is the first line of defense protecting root systems from pathogen
4 attacks (Suprapta 2012). A growing number of endophytic microorganisms are being
5 considered in the search for new biological control agents since they colonize the same
6 ecological niche in plants as pathogens and can be found in roots, stems, leaves, fruits
7 and seeds (Ryan et al. 2008; Bulgarelli et al. 2013; Chebotar et al. 2015; Santoyo et al.
8 2016).

9 The main modes of action of bacterial antagonists and other microorganisms
10 against *B. cinerea* involve competition for space and nutrients, antibiosis, production of
11 lytic enzymes, interference with pathogen growth and activity, the induction of host plant
12 resistance and the production of volatile organic compounds (Haidar et al. 2016).
13 Knowledge of endophytic microorganisms and their metabolites that are active against *B.*
14 *cinerea* has become a fundamental tool in the search for new alternatives for the control
15 of this phytopathogen that is the cause of great food losses. Since some studies suggest
16 that *B. cinerea* has the potential to change its life cycle under appropriate conditions and
17 shift from classic necrotrophic behavior to facultative endophytic behavior (Van et al.
18 2014), the use of antagonists with this same lifestyle is seen as an effective tool for the
19 control of this phytopathogen.

20 Today there are commercial biopesticides on the market to combat *B. cinerea*
21 that contain microorganisms as their active ingredient. These microorganisms have
22 various modes of action that are summarized in Table 1. Since it has recently been found
23 that *B. cinerea* is an endophyte at a certain stage of its life cycle, research on
24 microorganisms that share this same niche is considered a new option in the search for
25 new biological control agents against grey mould (Dean et al. 2012; Haidar et al. 2016).

1 The following microorganisms are among those that are the active ingredient of products
 2 that are currently marketed as fungicides against *B. cinerea*: *Aureobasidium pullulans*,
 3 *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, *B. subtilis*, *B. megaterium*, *Pantoea agglomerans*,
 4 *Pseudomonas syringae*, *Streptomyces griseoviridis*, *Streptomyces lydicus*, *Chlonostachys*
 5 *rosea*, *Gliocladium catenulatum*, *Trichoderma atroviride*, *T. harzianum*, *T. polysporum*
 6 and *Ulocladium oudemansii* (Haidar et al. 2016; Nicot et al. 2016).

7 A wide variety of endophytic microorganisms have been isolated from different plant
 8 species with potential for the biological control of *B. cinerea*, although more detailed
 9 studies of the interactions between these microorganisms, *B. cinerea*, their host plant and
 10 the remaining microbiota are needed before they can be successfully used in agriculture.

11

12 **Table1.** Commercial pesticides with microorganisms as an active ingredient.

Commercial name	Microorganism composition	Mode of action
Botector	<i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i> strains 14940/14941	Competitive exclusion
Double Nickel 55WDG/LC™	<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i>	Antimicrobial
Serenade ® Max	<i>B. subtilis</i> QST 713	Antimicrobial, Sparking of plant defenses
Companion	<i>B. subtilis</i> GB03	Antibiosis (iturins), Induced Systemic Resistance (ISR)
Bio Arc	<i>B. megaterium</i>	Enzymatic action
Endofine	<i>Chlonostachys rosea</i>	Competition
Prestop	<i>Gliocladium catenulatum</i> J1446	Competition, hyperparasitism
Bio-save	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> ESC- 10	Competition
Mycostop	<i>Streptomyces griseoviridis</i> K61	Competition
Actinovate	<i>S. lydicus</i> WYCD108	Competition, antibiosis
Sentinel	<i>Trichoderma atroviride</i> LC52	Competitive exclusion
BinabTF	<i>T. harzianum</i> + <i>T. polysporum</i>	Antibiosis, Systemic acquired resistance (SAR)
Supresivit	<i>T. harzianum</i>	Competition
Botryzen	<i>Ulocladium novo-zealandiae</i>	Competitive exclusion

13 Adapted from Nicot et al. (2016)

14

1 In addition, taking into account the general rule that a single strain of endophyte can
2 produce multiple bioactive compounds (Zhang et al. 2006), the isolation of new strains
3 of endophytes from different plant species may lead to the discovery of new bioactive
4 molecules to combat gray mold.

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6 **3. Biocontrol of *B. cinerea* by endophytic bacteria**

7 Various studies have been conducted to assess the potential of endophytic bacteria
8 for the biocontrol of *B. cinerea*. These bacteria have been isolated from different plant
9 species leading to the identification of new microorganisms that can inhibit the growth of
10 this fungus (Table 2).

11 Trotel-Aziz et al. (2008) isolated two bacterial strains identified as *Pantoea*
12 *agglomerans* PTA-AF1 and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* PTA-CT2 from the leaves and
13 stems of *Vitis vinifera* L.cv. Chardonnay. Leaves immersed in a solution of bacteria were
14 inoculated with a conidial suspension of *B. cinerea* after a needle-prick wound. Disease
15 development was measured as the average diameter of lesions formed 7 days after
16 inoculation and the protection percentage was defined as reduction in lesion diameter
17 relative to the control. The strain *P. agglomerans* PTA-AF1 and *P. fluorescens* PTA-CT2
18 showed protection percentages in leaf assays of 61% and 87% respectively, exhibiting an
19 apparent antagonistic effect against *B. cinerea*. The bacterial strains identified as
20 *Lysisnibacillus* sp. 3Y22, *Nocardioides* sp. 3Y27, *Brevibacills* sp. 3Y41,
21 *Stenotrophomonas* sp. 3T7, *Bacillus* sp. 3R1, *Bacillus* sp. 3R4 and *Lysisnibacillus* sp.
22 3Y25 isolated from three-year-old *Vitis vinifera* plants cv. Corvina also inhibited *B.*
23 *cinerea*. Four-day-old plugs of *B. cinerea* were placed in the centre of a Petri dish and
24 bacterial inocula were streaked at a distance of 3 cm from the fungal plugs. Bacterial

1 antifungal activity was assessed by comparing the areas of mycelial growth inhibition
 2 with those on control plates where fungal pathogens alone had been inoculated.

3 **Table 2.** Endophytic bacteria able to biologically control *B. cinerea*.

Microorganism*	Plant Species	Reference
<i>Actinobacteria</i>		
<i>Bacilli</i>		
<i>Alfaproteobacteria</i>	<i>Rubus fruticosus</i>	Contreras et al. 2016
<i>Betaproteobacteria</i>		
<i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>		
<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i> ssp. <i>plantarum</i>	<i>Hedera hélix</i>	Soares et al. 2015
<i>B. amyloliquefaciens</i>	<i>Capsicum annuum</i>	Mari et al. 1996
<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Hong et al. 2015
<i>B. mojavensis</i>		
<i>B. halotolerans</i>	<i>Lycopersicon</i>	
<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>esculentum</i>	Kefi et al. 2015
<i>B. amyloliquefaciens</i>		
<i>Bacillus</i> sp. CHM1	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Wang et al. 2009a
<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>Opuntia ficus-indica</i>	Boubakri and Schmitt 2015
<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>Triticum</i> sp.	Liu et al. 2010
<i>B. subtilis</i>		
<i>B. pumilus</i>	<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	Zhang et al. 2017
<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>Lycopersicon</i>	
	<i>esculentum</i> Mill.	Wang et al. 2009b
<i>B. velezensis</i> ZSY-1	<i>Catalpa ovata</i>	Gao et al. 2017
<i>Brevibacillus brevis</i>	<i>Lycopersicon</i>	
	<i>esculentum</i>	Yang et al. 2011
<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> Cs5	<i>Prunus dulcis</i>	Kilani-feki and Jaoua 2011
<i>B. phytofirmans</i> PsJN	-	Miotto-Vilanova et al. 2016
<i>Lysisnibacillus</i> sp. 3Y25	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> cv.	Andreolli et al. 2015
<i>Pantoea</i> sp. 15T13	Corvina	
<i>Micromonospora</i>	<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Martinez-Hidalgo et al. 2015
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> PTA-AF1	<i>V. vinífera</i> L., cv	Trotel-Aziz et al. 2008
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> PTA-CT2	Chardonnay	
<i>Phyllobacterium</i> sp.	<i>Epimedium</i>	
	<i>brevicornu</i> Maxim	He et al. 2009
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. strain PsJN	<i>Allium cepa</i>	Barka et al. 2002
<i>P. stutzeri</i> (E25)	<i>Physalis ixocarpa</i>	Rojas-Solís et al. 2018
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i> (CR71)		

4 * Microorganisms listed in alphabetical order

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1 The strain *Lysisnibacillus* sp. 3Y25 was the one exhibiting the largest inhibition zone
2 (approximately 17 mm). The strains identified as *Microbacterium* sp. 15Y9, *Pantoea* sp.
3 15T13, *Pseudoxanthomonas* sp. 15R38 and *Rhizobium* sp. 15R41 which were isolated
4 from 15-year-old plants, also exhibited an inhibitory effect on *B. cinerea*. *Pantoea* sp.
5 15T13 showed the largest inhibition area (approximately 7 mm) (Andreolli et al. 2015).
6 The studies conducted by Kilani-feki and Jaoua (2011) showed that the sterile cell-free
7 culture supernatant of the endophytic strain *Burkholderia cepacia* Cs5 was active against
8 *B. cinerea* at concentrations 0.9 % and 1.25 % in bioassays on solid and liquid media
9 respectively. Microscopy revealed morphological changes to the hyphae of *B. cinerea*
10 grown on the sterile cell-free culture supernatant, which were completely empty with a
11 larger diameter and rather more branched. Grape vines inoculated with *B. cepacia* Cs5
12 and exposed to *B. cinerea* spores remained viable, vigorous and had enhanced root
13 development.

14 Barka et al. (2002) assessed the ability of the *Pseudomonas* sp. PsJN strain which
15 had been isolated from the surface of sterilized *Allium cepa* roots, to promote growth in
16 *Vitis vinifera* L.cv. Chardonnay and act as a biocontrol agent against *B. cinerea*. Grape
17 vines that were treated with bacteria and subsequently inoculated with *B. cinerea*
18 remained healthy after 7 days, with only small areas of necrosis on some leaf surfaces.
19 Simultaneous inoculation with bacteria and fungus did not stop fungal growth. However,
20 inhibition was observed when *B. cinerea* was inoculated two days after the *Pseudomonas*
21 sp. This could be because the bacteria need a sufficient population density to control the
22 fungus or because the bacteria did not have enough time to biosynthesize the compounds
23 with anti-fungal activity. Microscopic analysis of the mycelium of the fungus co-
24 cultivated with *Pseudomonas* sp. showed changes in the structures of the hyphae with
25 coagulation of the cytoplasm, vesicles in the cell walls and lack of organelles.

1 Miotto-Vilanova et al. (2016) evaluated the capacity of the bacteria *Burkholderia*
2 *phytofirmans* PsJN to confer resistance to *Vitis vinifera* L.cv. Chardonnay against *B.*
3 *cinerea*. The leaves of plants which had been inoculated with *B. phytofirmans* PsJN and
4 were then infected with drops of the 630 strain of *B. cinerea*, exhibited a significant
5 reduction in necrosis (approximately 50%) after 72 hours of inoculation. Plants infected
6 with bacteria and subsequently infected with a *B. cinerea* spore suspension, exhibited
7 significantly reduced symptoms of the disease. *B. phytofirmans* PsJN was observed on
8 the surface of the leaves surrounding the fungal mycelium, showing that this bacterium
9 is able to colonize the plant through the stomata of the leaves and form a biofilm around
10 *B. cinerea*. A spore germination bioassay in the presence of *B. phytofirmans* PsJN showed
11 a 32%, 62% and 88% inhibition of the germ tube growth after the addition of 10^2 , 10^4 ,
12 and 10^6 CFU/mL of bacteria, respectively.

13 In the studies conducted by Zhang et al. (2017) two bacterial strains were
14 isolated from grapevine leaves and identified as *Bacillus subtilis* and *B. pumilus*. These
15 bacteria had an inhibitory effect against *B. cinerea* of between 71% and 80% in *in vitro*
16 bioassays. Bacterial biocontrol capacity against *B. cinerea* in tomato during the
17 postharvest stage was also evaluated using 175 endophytic bacteria isolated from the
18 subepidermis of various horticultural sources (cucumber, eggplant, pepper, tomato,
19 zucchini, apricot, peach and plum) (Mari et al. 1996). Of the 175 strains tested, 7%
20 (thirteen) were active against the phytopathogen and reduced the percentage of infected
21 fruit by more than 50% after 7 days of storage at 20°C. In order to evaluate antagonistic
22 activity against *B. cinerea*, bacterial suspensions were introduced into wounded tomato
23 fruits at a depth of 3 mm. A conidial suspension of gray mold was then introduced into
24 the wound of these same fruits and rot incidence (%) was recorded. The strain which was
25 identified as *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, and had been isolated from internal pepper

1 tissue, was able to reduce the incidence of the disease by 90%. The bacterial extract was
2 completely ineffective thus indicating a direct competition of the bacteria with *B. cinerea*.

3 In studies on *Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill., *Speranskiae tuberculatae* and
4 *Dictamnus dasycarpus* Turcz, Wang et al. (2009b) isolated three bacterial strains which
5 were identified as EB-15, EB-28 and EB-122, and exhibited 70%, 71% and 69%
6 inhibition against *B. cinerea in vitro* respectively. In the *in vivo* bioassay, strain EB-28
7 which was identified as *B. subtilis* and isolated from *L. esculentum* Mill., reduced
8 infection by *B. cinerea* by 45% in *Cucumber* cotyledons and by 52% in tomato leaves.
9 The endophytic bacteria of *L. esculentum* identified as *Brevibacillus brevis* and isolated
10 by Yang et al. (2011), exhibited a 78% inhibition index against *B. cinerea* and the
11 fermentation filtrate achieved 100% inhibition. Endophytic bacteria isolated from the
12 stems of *Oryza sativa* were identified as *Bacillus* sp. CHM1. The culture filtrate, the
13 sterile filtrate and the supernatant of the culture medium of CHM1 showed an antifungal
14 index against *B. cinerea* of approximately 61%, 31% and 73% respectively (Wang et al.
15 2009a). In the *in vitro* bioassay, the strain identified as *Phyllobacterium* sp. presented
16 inhibition of 22 mm and 12 mm respectively when bacterial inoculum and the cell-
17 free culture supernatant were used. This bacteria was isolated by He et al. (2009) from
18 root tissue of *Epimedium brevicornu* Maxim.

19 Boubakri and Schmitt (2015) isolated two strains of *B. subtilis* identified as
20 EBS1 and EBS2 from *Opuntia ficus-indica* roots. In the antagonism bioassay against *B.*
21 *cinerea*, the control showed growth of 40 mm after 5 days of incubation whereas those
22 faced with strains EBS1 and EBS2 showed growth of 9 mm and 10 mm, respectively.
23 The application of cell-free filtrates of both *B. subtilis* strains presented growth of 9 mm
24 and 16 mm, for EBS1 and EBS2, respectively. This indicates that extracellular
25 metabolites secreted by the bacteria are involved in the inhibition of *B. cinerea*. By

1 removing apoplastic fluid from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, Hong et al. (2015) isolated a leaf-
2 inhabiting endophytic bacteria identified as *Bacillus cereus*. Tomato plants were sprayed
3 with a suspension of *B. cereus* and at 27 days after inoculation, the tomato leaves were
4 infected with a conidial suspension of *B. cinerea*. The tomato leaves inoculated with *B.*
5 *cereus* had smaller lesion areas compared to the control, indicating that this strain could
6 be effective in biocontrol applications in agricultural biotechnology.

7 Martinez-Hidalgo et al. (2015) evaluated the biocontrol capacity of
8 *Micromonospora* isolated from *Medicago sativa* nodules. Ten of the 13 strains which
9 were evaluated, were able to inhibit *B. cinerea*. Two *Micromonospora* strains were tested
10 for their efficiency in increasing the resistance of tomato to grey mould. Plants treated
11 with the bacterial strains presented lesions of approximately 13 to 14 mm, while control
12 lesions were over 16 mm. 102 endophytic bacteria belonging to the *Actinobacteria*,
13 *Bacilli*, *Alfaproteobacteria*, *Betaproteobacteria* and *Gammaproteobacteria* classes were
14 isolated from the roots of *Rubus fruticosus*, and 3.9% of the isolates were successful at
15 inhibiting over 50% of *B. cinerea* (Contreras et al. 2016).

16

17 **4. Biocontrol of *B. cinerea* by endophytic fungi**

18

19 Although there are few reports of endophytic fungi capable of protecting their
20 host by inducing a systemic response, they are a rich source of bioactive metabolites and
21 extracellular enzymes that play a fundamental role in the biocontrol of pathogens
22 (Suryanarayanan et al. 2009; Fouda et al. 2015; Hardoim et al. 2015). Table 3 summarizes
23 the species of endophytic fungi with biocontrol capacity against *B. cinerea* and the plant
24 species from which they were isolated, revealing the wide diversity of endophytic fungi
25 that can be used for the biocontrol of grey mould.

1 **Table 3.** Endophytic fungi with biocontrol capacity against *B. cinerea*.

Microorganism*	Plant species	Reference
<i>Aspergillus clavatonanicus</i>	<i>Taxus mairei</i>	Zhang et al. 2008
<i>A. fumigatus</i> LN-4	<i>Melia azeda</i>	Li et al. 2012
<i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i>	<i>Prunus avium</i>	Schena et al. 2003
<i>Alternaria</i> sp. <i>Botryosphaeria ribis</i> <i>Phoma medicaginis</i> <i>Bionectria ochroleuca</i> <i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i> <i>Chaetomium spirochaete</i>	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	Cosoveanu et al. 2014
<i>Chaetomium globosum</i>	<i>Houttuynia cordata</i> Thunb	Pan et al. 2016
<i>Cryptosporiopsis</i> sp. <i>Phialocephala sphaeroides</i> B.J. Wilson	<i>Picea abies</i>	Terhonen et al. 2016
<i>Daldinia cf. concentrica</i>	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	Liarzi et al. 2016
<i>Drechslera biseptata</i> <i>Tricladium splendens</i> <i>Leptosphaeria</i> sp. <i>Entrophospora</i> sp. <i>Pyrenochaeta lycopersici</i>	<i>Aralia elata</i> <i>Aralia continentalis</i>	Narayan et al. 2007
<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> CanR-46	<i>Brassica napus</i>	Zhang et al. 2014
<i>Hypoxylon</i> sp.	<i>Persea indica</i>	Tomsheck et al. 2010
<i>Microsphaeropsis solivácea</i> <i>Penicillium janczewskii</i>	<i>Araucaria araucana</i> <i>Austrocedrus chilensis</i> <i>Fitzroya cupressoides</i> <i>Pilgerodendron saligna</i> <i>P. nubigena</i> <i>P. uviferum</i> <i>Prumnopitys andina</i> <i>Saxegothaea conspicua</i>	Hormazabal and Piontelli 2014
<i>Nigrospora oryzae</i> 2693 <i>N. oryzae</i> 2778 <i>Trichoderma asperellum</i> 2739 <i>Penicillium commune</i> 2748 <i>Fusarium proliferatum</i> 2751 <i>Chaetomium globosum</i> 2773	<i>Espeletia grandiflora</i> <i>E. corymbosa</i>	Miles et al. 2012
<i>Nigrospora</i> sp.	<i>Moringa oleífera</i>	Zhao et al. 2012
<i>Paecilomyces lilacinus</i>	<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L.	Kusari et al. 2013
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	<i>Artemisia absinthium</i>	Noumeur et al. 2016
<i>Phoma terrestris</i>	<i>Panax ginseng</i>	Park et al. 2015
<i>Phomopsis</i> sp. By254	<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	Fu et al. 2011
<i>Ramularia pratensis</i> <i>Phoma aliena</i> <i>Fusarium acuminatum</i>	<i>Vitis riparia</i>	Kernaghan et al. 2017

<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	<i>Radula marginata</i>	Kusari et al. 2014
<i>Saccharomycopsis fibuligera</i>	<i>Psidium guajava</i> L.	Abdel-rahim and Abo-elyousr 2017
<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	<i>Abies holophylla</i>	Park et al. 2005

*Microorganisms listed in alphabetical order

Miles et al. (2012) studied the diversity and biocontrol potential of endophytic fungi isolated from the leaves of *Espeletia grandiflora* and *E. corymbosa*. In examining the production of secondary metabolites on a solid medium, the fungi identified as *Nigrospora oryzae* 2693, *Trichoderma asperellum* 2739, *Penicillium commune* 2748, *Fusarium proliferatum* 2751, *Chaetomium globosum* 2773 and *N. oryzae* 2778, showed an inhibition index against *B. cinerea* of 17%, 58%, 27%, 69%, 56% and 57% respectively. In the antagonistic activity tests with crude extracts, the fungi *Aureobasidium pullulans* 2679, *Beauveria bassiana* 2749, *Scopulariopsis brevicaulis* 2758, *Epicoccum nigrum* 2759 and *E. nigrum* 2764 showed an inhibition index against *B. cinerea* of 65%, 68%, 65%, 66% and 68% respectively.

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are low molecular weight compounds that can vaporize at normal atmospheric temperatures and pressure (Hung et al. 2015; Toffano et al. 2017). Over 300 distinct VOCs have been identified from fungi. Chemically they occur as mixtures of simple hydrocarbons, heterocycles, aldehydes, ketones, alcohols, phenols, thioalcohols, thioesters and their derivatives (Morath et al. 2012; Hung et al. 2015). VOCs generally have a low water solubility and often have a distinctive odor (Hung et al. 2015). Fungal VOCs are interesting for agricultural research because of their potential as biological control agents (Morath et al. 2012; Schalchli et al. 2016). In the study carried out by Zhang et al. (2014), the endophytic fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* CanR-46 isolated from *Brassica napus*, produced VOCs with a strong inhibitory effect against *B. cinerea*. In the “double-dishes” test consisting of two potato dextrose agar

1 dish containing an agar plug with mycelia of *B. cinerea* and agar plug with mycelia of *F.*
2 *oxysporum* to , which were immediately sealed with a piece of parafilm, the VOCs of *F.*
3 *oxysporum* CanR-46 had an inhibition index against *B. cinerea* of 91%. Tomatoes treated
4 with *F. oxysporum* CanR-46 and *F. oxysporum* CanR-46 plus *B. cinerea* remained healthy
5 or showed very few signs of soft rot after 8 days of incubation at 20°C, while tomatoes
6 inoculated with only *B. cinerea* showed both soft rot and mold symptoms. In the studies
7 carried out by Narayan et al. (2007), the endophytic fungi identified as *Drechslerabi*
8 *septata*, *Tricladium splendens*, *Leptosphaeria* sp., *Entrophospora* sp. and *Pyrenochaeta*
9 *lycopersici* were isolated from roots of *Aralia elata* and *A. continentalis*. These fungi
10 showed antifungal activity against *B. cinerea*. The fungi *Entrophospora* sp. and
11 *Pyrenochaeta lycopersici* were the most active, with inhibition zones of >10 mm between
12 *B. cinerea* and the endophytes.

13 The post-harvest rot of sweet cherries and table grapes was examined by Schena
14 et al. (2003) who studied the biocontrol capacity of different strains of *Aureobasidium*
15 *pullulans* which had been isolated from *Prunus avium* tissue. In sweet cherries, the isolate
16 identified as 547 was the most effective against *B. cinerea* reducing the damage of gray
17 mold by 90% on single-wounded berries. In post-harvest tests with cherries, this same
18 isolate reduced the number of rotten berries by between 58% -80%. Rot reduction in
19 grapes was between 59% -64%.

20 Hormazabal and Piontelli (2009) conducted studies on endophytic communities
21 of eight gymnosperm species: *Araucaria araucana*, *Austrocedrus chilensis*, *Fitzroya*
22 *cupressoides*, *Pilgerodendro nuviferum*, *P. nubigena*, *P. saligna*, *Prumnopitys andina*
23 and *Saxegothaea conspicua*. The fungi which were identified as *Microsphaeropsis*
24 *olivácea* and *Penicillium janczewskii*, were isolated from these plants and their ethyl
25 acetate extracts exhibited antifungal activity against *B. cinerea* with minimal inhibitory

1 concentration (MIC) values ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) of 250 and 500, respectively. The ethyl acetate
2 extract from the endophytic fungus *Chaetomium globosum* isolated by Pan et al. (2016)
3 from *Houttuynia cordata* Thunb, exhibited a 100% inhibition index against *B. cinerea*.
4 Kusari et al. (2013) isolated an endophytic fungus which was identified as *Paecilomyces*
5 *lilacinus* from apical buds of *Cannabis sativa* L. This had a 100% inhibition index against
6 *B. cinerea* in antagonism assays. Kusari et al. (2014) also isolated the fungus *Rhizopus*
7 *oryzae* from *Radula marginata* which again showed a 100% inhibition index against *B.*
8 *cinerea*.

9 Noumeur et al. (2016) isolated 12 endophytic fungi from the roots of *Artemisia*
10 *absinthium* which in the *in vitro* bioassay, had an inhibition index of between 33% and
11 50% against *B. cinerea*. Two of the isolates, identified as *Penicillium* sp., significantly
12 reduced the incidence and diameter of lesions on white grape berries. Kernaghan et al.
13 (2017) isolated the endophytic fungi *Ramularia pratensis*, *Phoma aliena* and *Fusarium*
14 *acuminatum* from *Vitis riparia* which showed an inhibition index >100 against *B. cinerea*.
15 Other fungi from the genus *Hypoxylon*, *Biscogniauxia*, *Peyronellaea* and *Lecythophora*
16 which were also reported in this study showed some inhibitory activity against grey
17 mould.

18 The studies conducted by Abdel-rahim and Abo-elyousr (2017) evaluated the
19 biocontrol capacity of the yeast *Saccharomycopsis fibuligera* isolated from fruits of
20 *Psidium guajava* L. on *B. cinerea*. These studies showed that *S. fibuligera* was able to
21 inhibit the growth of *B. cinerea* by 48% in the *in vitro* bioassay, with inhibition areas of
22 27 mm. Moreover, *S. fibuligera* inhibited gray mold rot in guava fruit by 68%. Cosoveanu
23 et al. (2014) isolated the endophytic fungi identified as *Botryosphaeria ribis*, *Phoma*
24 *medicaginis*, *Bionectria ochroleuca*, *Aureobasidium pullulans*, *Chaetomium spirochaete*
25 and *Alternaria* sp. from *Vitis vinifera* L. These fungi exhibited antagonistic activity

1 against *B. cinerea* and the extracts of *C. spirochaete* and *B. ochroleuca* were those with
2 the lowest effective concentration EC50 (the concentration which reduced mycelia
3 growth by 50%), of 0.008 mg/mL and 0.09 mg/mL, respectively.

4

5 **5. Compounds isolated from endophytic microorganisms with bioactivity** 6 **against *B. cinerea***

7 Although biocontrol resulting from the synthesis of bioactive molecules has
8 focused more on rhizospheric bacteria, this same mechanism applies to other endophytic
9 microorganisms (Saraf et al. 2014). Many endophytes have the ability to biosynthesize a
10 wide range of bioactive molecules with insecticidal, antibacterial, and antifungal
11 properties (Dutta et al. 2014; Hardoim et al. 2015). The biosynthesis of these compounds
12 can be induced by the presence of a pathogen in the host plant (Combés et al. 2012).
13 Moreover, a single endophytic strain can produce multiple variants of each type of
14 antimicrobial compound that confer a competitive advantage by eliminating other
15 microorganisms (O'Brien 2017).

16 Lipopeptides are amphiphilic molecules that are synthesized non-ribosomally
17 through multienzyme complexes and consist of a short peptide chain linked to a lipid tail,
18 whose variations in the length and branching of fatty acid chains and the amino acid
19 composition lead to remarkable heterogeneity (Stein 2005; Ongena and Jacques 2008;
20 Farace et al. 2015). Lipopeptides are involved in processes such as plant tissue
21 colonization, activation of the immune system in plants, induction of plant resistance to
22 phytopathogens and direct antagonism against phytopathogens (Ongena and Jacques
23 2008; Farace et al. 2015). In the study conducted by Kefi et al. (2015) four strains
24 identified as *Bacillus mojavensis*, *B. halotolerans*, *B. subtilis* and *B. amyloliquefaciens*
25 that inhibited the growth of *B. cinerea* by 46%, 42%, 27% and 53% respectively, were

1 isolated from the roots, leaves and stems of *Lycopersicon esculentum*. The capacity of
2 these strains to produce the lipopeptides, surfactin (1), fengycin (2) and iturin (3) was
3 established using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. The strain *B. mojavensis*
4 and *B. halotolerans* produced fengycin (2) and surfactin (1), while *B. subtilis* produced
5 iturin (3) and surfactin (1). *B. amyloliquefaciens* secreted bacillomycin D (4), fengycin
6 (2) and surfactin (1) (Figure 2). All four strains inhibited the lesions induced by *B. cinerea*
7 in tomato leaves, *B. amyloliquefaciens* being the one which most reduced their severity
8 (to 11%). The highly efficient antagonistic activity of *B. amyloliquefaciens* probably
9 resulted from the synergy between bacillomycin D (4), surfactin (1) and fengycin (2).
10 Soares et al. (2015) isolated the endophytic bacteria identified as *B. amyloliquefacien* sp.
11 *plantarum* from *Hedera hélix*. This bacteria had an inhibition index of $50.0 \pm 1.9\%$ against
12 *B. cinerea*. The genes responsible for the biosynthesis of surfactin (1), inturin (3),
13 bacillomycin D (4), and fengycin (2) were detected in this strain and are related to the
14 antifungal activity.

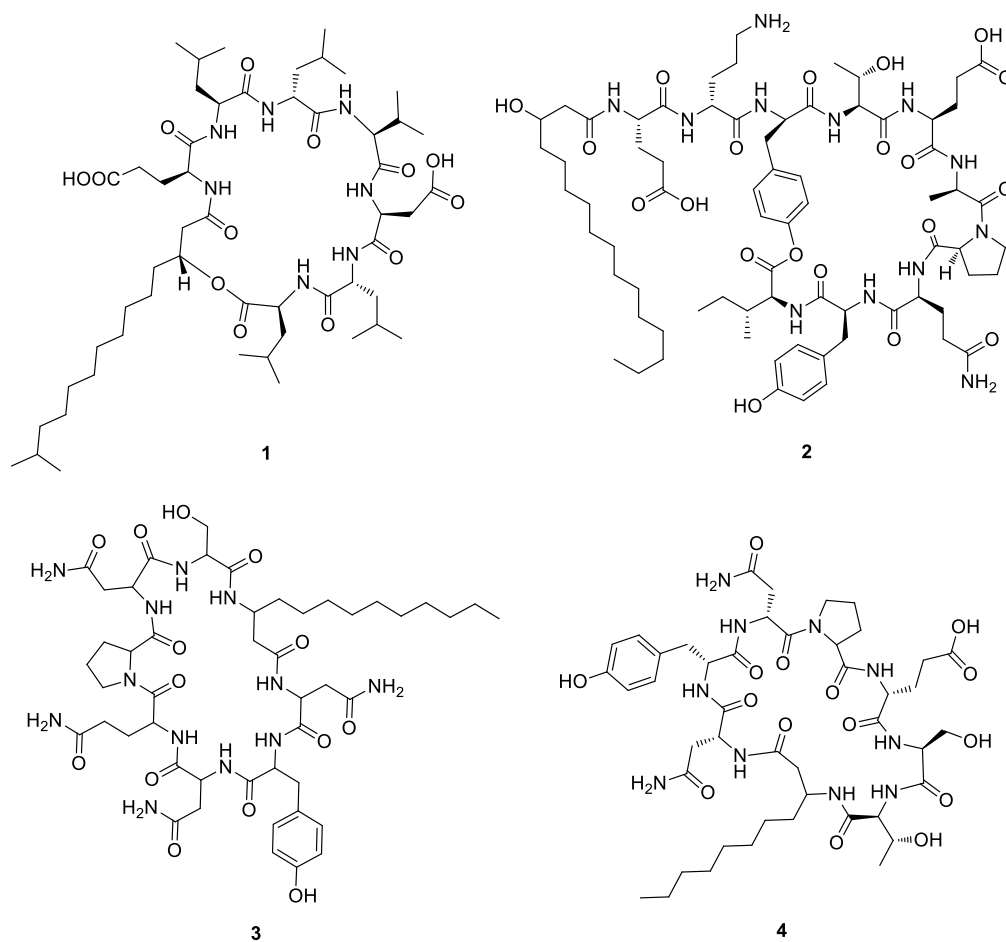


Fig 2 Chemical structure of compound 1-4.

1

2

3

4

5 Liu et al. (2010) isolated and partially characterized the antifungal protein E2

6 synthesized by *B. subtilis* which had been obtained from the roots of *Triticum* sp. The

7 Oxford cup assay established that the antifungal protein E2 at a concentration of 1.04

8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, produced an inhibition area of 155 mm against *B. cinerea* after 3 days of

9 incubation. Gao et al. (2017) characterized and evaluated the antifungal capacity of the

10 VOCs produced by the endophytic bacteria *Bacillus velezensis* ZSY-1 isolated from

11 leaves of *Catalpa ovata*. The VOCs produced by *B. velezensis* ZSY-1 exhibited

12 significant antifungal activity against *B. cinerea* with an inhibition index of 92%. Twenty

13 nine VOCs were detected in *B. velezensis* ZSY-1, 28 of which were evaluated against *B.*

cinerea. Four of these compounds were identified as 2,5-dimethylpyrazine (5),

1 benzothiazole (**6**), 4-chloro-3-methylphenol (**7**), and 2,4-bis (1,1- dimethylethyl) phenol
2 (**8**). Compounds **5-7** had an inhibition index of 100% against *B. cinerea*, whilst compound
3 **8** had an index of 91%. However the provenance of some of these compound as natural
4 products is uncertain.

5 Liarzi et al. (2016) isolated and characterized the endophytic fungus *Daldinia*
6 *cf. concentrica* from a branch of *Olea europaea* L. and evaluated its ability to produce
7 VOCs. They identified 27 different compounds including alcohols, dienes, ketones,
8 aldehydes, and sesquiterpenes. The VOCs of *D. cf. concentrica* had an inhibition index
9 of 100% against *B. cinerea*, *transoct-2-enal* (**9**) being the most active compound against
10 this phytopathogen with 100% inhibition of its growth and viability

11 In the study carried out by Park et al. (2015), an endophytic fungus from *Panax*
12 *ginseng* was isolated and identified as *Phoma terrestris*. It was found to inhibit the growth
13 of *B. cinerea* by 59% and 31% using disk diffusion and fermentation broth tests
14 respectively. The ethyl acetate extracts of *P. terrestris* had an inhibition index of 89%
15 against *B. cinerea* at a MIC of 100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\mu\text{L}^{-1}$, and an inhibition of more than 90% in spore
16 germination at a concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\mu\text{L}^{-1}$. The major metabolites in the *P. terrestris*
17 extract were identified as *N*-amino-3-hydroxy-6-methoxyphthalimide (**10**) (32% of the
18 total metabolites), 5H-dibenz[B, F]azepine (**11**) (7%), 3-methylthiobenzothiophene (**12**)
19 (4%), 2-phenylindole (**13**) (4%), 5-(methoxycarbonyloxy) pent-3-yn-2-ol (**14**) (4%), and
20 5-hydroxydodecanoic acid lactone (pentylpyrone) (**15**) (4%).

21 Fu et al. (2011) studied the antifungal capacity of the endophytic fungus
22 *Phomopsis* sp. By254 which had been isolated from the roots of *Gossypium hirsutum*.
23 Three compounds identified as epoxycytochalasin H (**16**), cytochalasin N (**17**) and
24 cytochalasin H (**18**) were isolated from the organic extract of *Phomopsis* sp. By254
25 cultured on a solid medium. These compounds were evaluated *in vitro* against *B. cinerea*

1 and showed an inhibition radius of between 1.0-5.0 mm for each of the compounds and
2 an IC₅₀ (μg/mL) of approximately 6 for epoxychochalsin H (**16**), cytochalasin N (**17**)
3 and cytochalasin H (**18**). The chemical structure of the compounds of **5-18** are shown in
4 Figure 3.

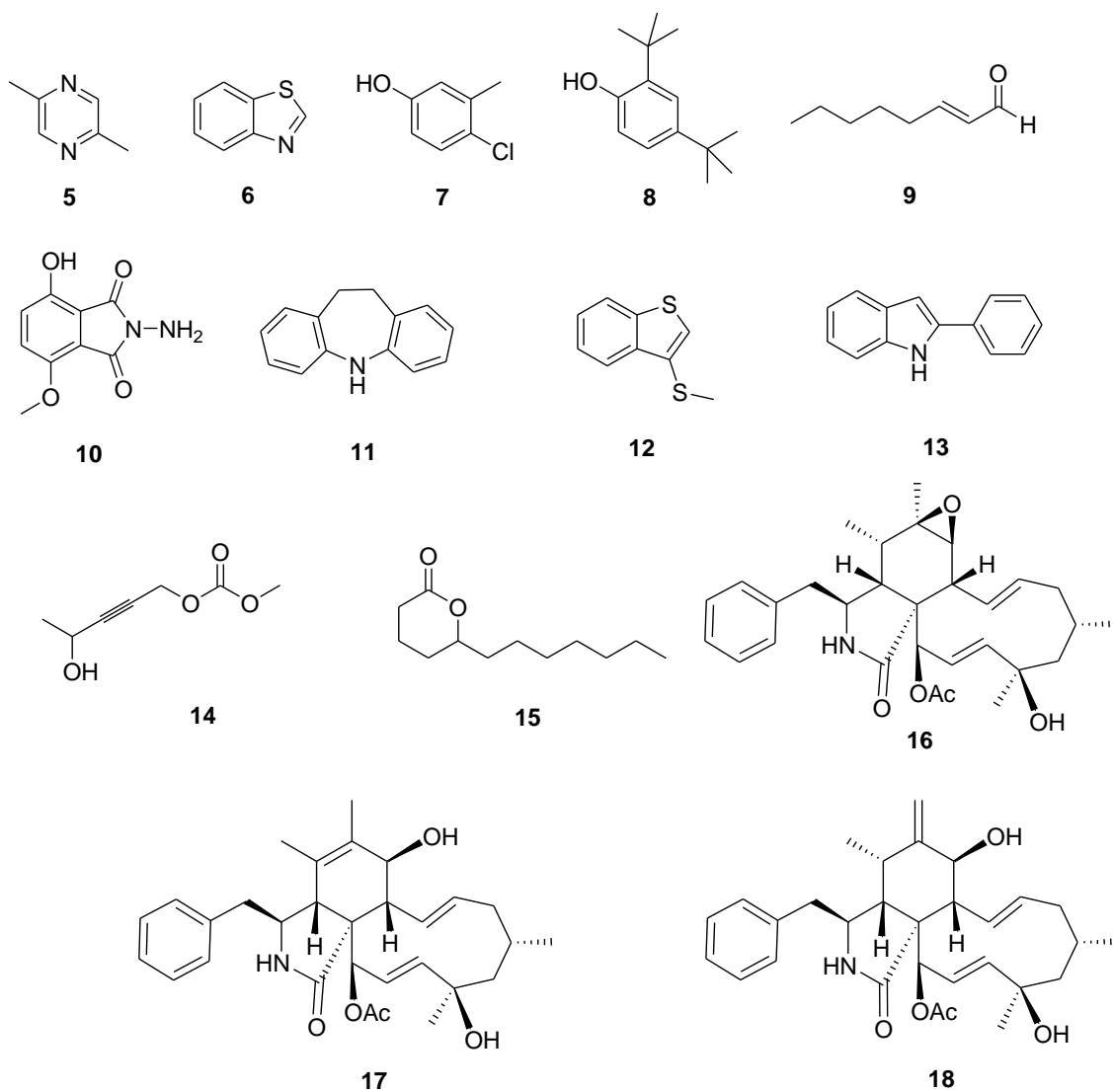


Fig 3 Chemical structure of compounds **5-18**.

1

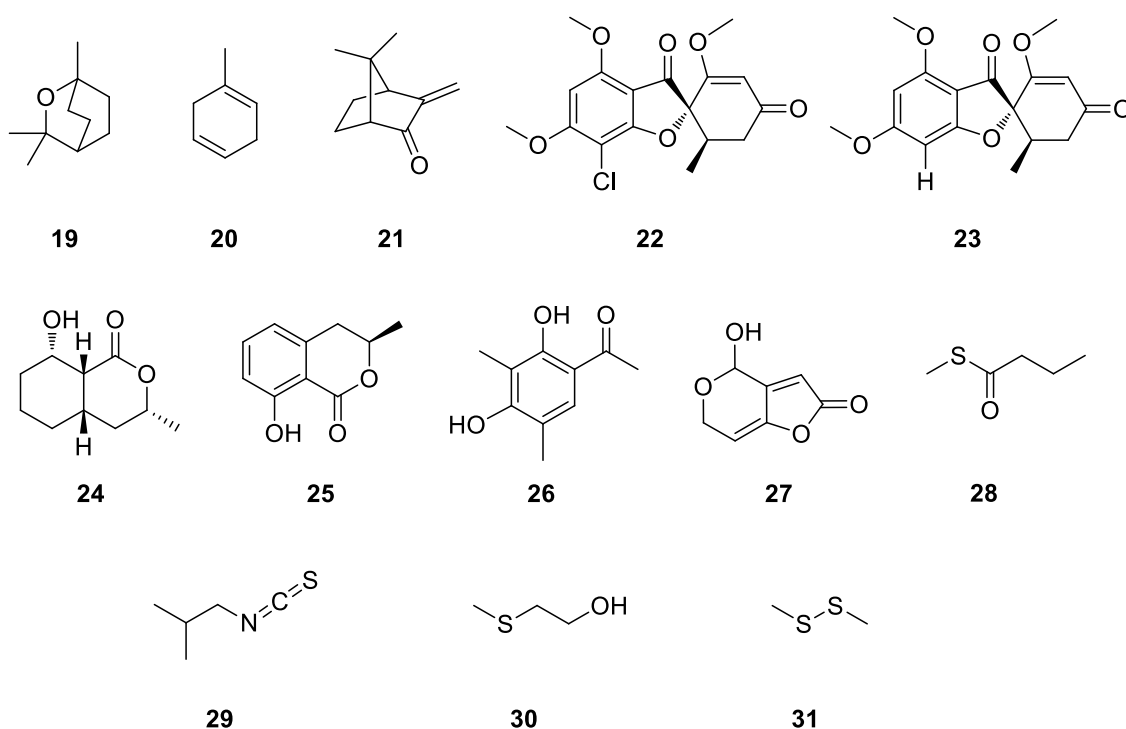
2 Tomscheck et al. (2010) isolated an endophytic fungus from *Persea indica* which
3 was identified as a *Hypoxylon* sp. This fungus produced a wide variety of VOCs including
4 1,8-cineole (**19**), 1-methyl-1,4-cyclohexadiene (**20**), and a compound which was
5 tentatively identified as α -methylene- α -fenchocamphorone (**21**). The VOCs produced by
6 *Hypoxylon* sp. had a 100% inhibition index against *B. cinerea*. However, when sub-
7 cultured again, the gray mold remained viable. Zhao et al. (2012) purified four
8 compounds identified as griseofulvin (**22**), dechlorogriseofulvin (**23**), 8-
9 dihydroramulosin (**24**) and mellein (**25**) from a culture of the endophytic fungus
10 *Nigrospora* sp. isolated from roots of *Moringa oleifera*. The four compounds proved
11 active against *B. cinerea* at an IC₅₀ concentration ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) of 0.20, 40, >100 and 49 for
12 compounds **22-25**, respectively.

13 Terhonen et al. (2016) isolated two endophytic fungi from *Picea abies* which
14 were identified as *Cryptosporiopsis* sp. and *Phialocephala sphareoides* B.J. Wilson. They
15 inhibited the growth of *B. cinerea* by approximately 50%. The metabolites extracted from
16 *Cryptosporiopsis* sp. also induced apical swelling at the tips of the hyphae and along the
17 mycelium of *B. cinerea*. Zhang et al. (2008) isolated an endophytic fungus identified as
18 *Aspergillus clavatonanicus* from a twig of *Taxus mairei*. They were able to isolate
19 clavatul (**26**) and patulin (**27**), which are two polyketides capable of inhibiting *B. cinerea*
20 with an IC₅₀ mg/mL of 0.058 and 0.021 for **26** and **27**, respectively.

21 Rojas-Solís et al. (2018) isolated two endophytic bacteria identified as *Pseudomonas*
22 *stutzeri* (E25) and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (CR71) from *Physalis ixocarpa*. In the
23 VOCs production tests, *P. stutzeri* (E25) and *S. maltophilia* (CR71) reduced the mycelial
24 diameter of *B. cinerea* by more than 40% and 52%, respectively. In the direct co-
25 inoculation assays, *S. maltophilia* (CR71) had an inhibition index of 24% and *P. stutzeri*

1 (E25) of only 12%. These results show that the antagonistic effect of these two bacterial
2 strains is attributable to the VOCs and not to the production of diffusible compounds. A
3 total of 34 VOCs were produced by the strains, 11 of which were produced by both strains,
4 7 were exclusive of *P. stutzeri* (E25) and 16 were exclusive of *S. maltophilia*. The VOCs
5 produced in the highest quantity by the two strains were those containing sulfur: S-
6 methylthiobutyrate (**28**), isobutyl isothiocyanate (**29**), 2-methylthioethanol (**30**), and
7 dimethyl disulphide (DMDS) (**31**). Inhibition tests with **31** showed that it was more toxic
8 when it was in direct contact with the phytopathogen and it produced an inhibition effect
9 even at concentrations of 0.1 μM , while as a volatile product showed an inhibition effect
10 at 10 μM . The chemical structure of compounds **19-31** are shown in Figure 4.

11



12

13 **Fig 4** Chemical structure of compounds **19-31**.

14

15 Li et al. (2012) studied the metabolites of the endophytic fungus *Aspergillus*
16 *fumigatus* LN-4 which had been isolated from the stem bark of *Melia azedarach*. Among

1 the various metabolites of the fungus, the compounds identified as fumitremorgin C (**32**),
2 cyclotryprostatin B (**33**), verruculogen TR-2 (**34**), verruculogen (**35**), 12 β -hydroxy-13 α -
3 methoxyverruculogen TR-2 (**36**), fumitremorgin B (**37**), fumiquinazolines F (**38**),
4 fumiquinazolines A (**39**), 3-hydroxyfumiquinazoline A (**40**), 4,8-dihydroxy-1-tetralone
5 (**41**) and helvolic acid (**42**) were active against *B. cinerea*. Compounds **36**, **37** and **42**
6 showed the greatest activity with an MIC of 6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Park et al. (2005) evaluated the
7 antifungal capacity of the endophytic fungus *Xylaria* sp. isolated from the inner cortex of
8 *Abies holophylla*. This fungus produced two compounds identified as griseofulvin (**22**)
9 and dechlorogriseofulvin (**23**), which exhibited antifungal activity against *B. cinerea* with
10 an IC₅₀ ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) of 5 and > 200, respectively. Evaluation of the *in vivo* activity of these
11 two compounds on tomatoes showed that at a dose of 150 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, griseofulvin has an
12 inhibition index of 60% against *B. cinerea*, while dechlorogriseofulvin at the same
13 concentration had an inhibition index of only 25%. The chemical structure of compounds
14 of **32-42** are shown in Figure 5 and table 4 summarizes the compounds isolated from
15 endophytic microorganisms.

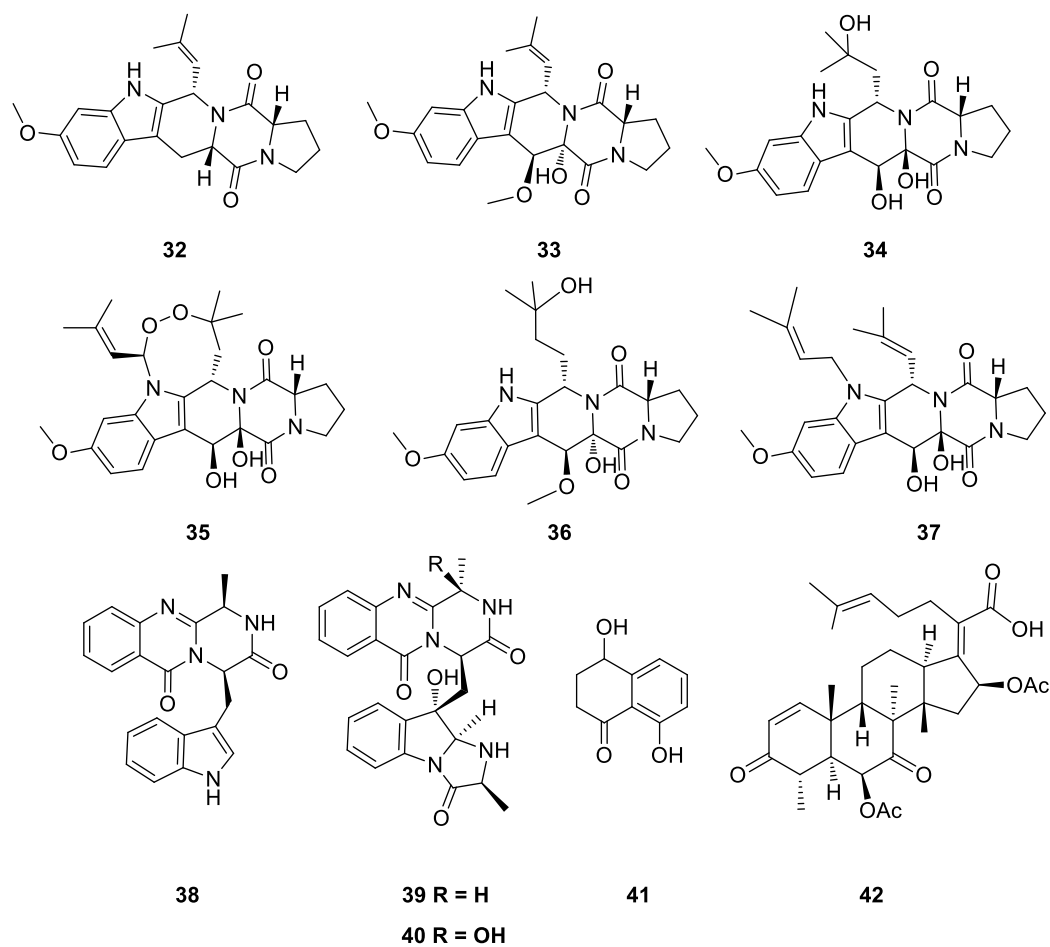


Fig 5 Chemical structure of compound 32-42

Table 4. Compounds isolated from endophytic microorganisms

Microorganism	Compound	Reference
<i>Bacillus mojavensis</i>		Soares et al. 2015
<i>B. halotolerans</i>		
<i>B. subtilis</i>	1-4	Kefi et al. 2015
<i>B. amyloliquefaciens</i>		
<i>B. subtilis</i>	Protein E2	Liu et al. 2010
<i>B. velezensis</i> ZSY-1	5-8	Gao et al. 2017
<i>Daldinia cf. concentrica</i>	9	Liarzi et al. 2016
<i>Phoma terrestris</i>	10-15	Park et al. 2015
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	16-18	Fu et al. 2011
<i>Hypoxyylon</i> sp.	19-21	Tomscheck et al. 2010
<i>Nigrospora</i> sp.	22-25	Zhao et al. 2012
<i>Aspergillus clavatonanicus</i>	26-27	Zhang et al. 2008
<i>Pseudomonas stutzeri</i> (E25)		
<i>Tenotrophomonas maltophilia</i> (CR71)	28-31	Rojas-Solís et al. 2018
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> LN-4	32-42	Li et al. 2012

5

1 **Conclusions**

2 In this review we have noted that *B. cinerea* is considered to be a high-risk
3 pathogen in terms of its resistance to fungicides. There are now limiting factors in terms
4 of its chemical control. The use of many fungicides may become unsustainable in the
5 context of their effect on human health and the environment. Consequently the search for
6 new environmentally-friendly alternatives for the control of *B. cinerea* which do not have
7 adverse effects, is an important area for study. In this context the study of endophytic
8 micro-organisms that establish a close relationship with their host plant could lead to the
9 discovery of new biological control agents and bioactive molecules of interest.

10 In order to examine the control of *B. cinerea* by this means, it is worth
11 considering aspects of the interaction between endophytic organisms and necrotrophic
12 organisms such as *B. cinerea* in the wild. The role of the necrotrophic organism is to
13 facilitate the decay of the plant after senescence and the recycling of its constituents and,
14 in the case of fruit containing the seed, to provide a nutrient base for the seed to germinate.
15 Amongst its other properties, the role of the endophytic organism in this context is to
16 protect the plant against premature attack by a necrotrophic organism prior to
17 senescence. Thus the endophytic organism is playing a regulatory role in the life cycle of
18 the plant. When the plant reaches senescence the conditions within the plant that favour
19 the growth of the endophyte (water, nutrient, nitrogen source) may cease allowing the
20 necrotrophic organism (e.g. *B. cinerea*) to flourish. Thus for the use of endophytic
21 organisms to protect plants, the conditions that favour their growth and metabolite
22 production particularly within the plant, must be understood and these must be maintained
23 especially as the plant reaches maturity.

24 The fact that the same plant may host several different endophytic organisms,
25 each with its own special range of anti-microbial metabolites, could be considered as the

1 natural way of overcoming the development of resistance. If the invasive organism, in
2 this case *B. cinerea* begins to develop resistance to one set of anti-microbial metabolites,
3 there are different metabolites that are also present which have been produced by other
4 endophytic organisms that can combat the resistant strains before they can pass on the
5 resistance to the next generation. This multiplicity of endophytic organisms needs to be
6 considered when they are being evaluated for use as biocontrol agents. It might be wise
7 not to rely on just one organism as a biocontrol agent against phytopathogenic fungi.

8 In the immediate future there are several questions that must be solved in order
9 to provide a rational basis for the biocontrol of phytopathogenic fungi by endophytes. As
10 previously indicated, endophytic organisms are not 'inert passengers' within their host.
11 There is already evidence for a chemical communication between the endophyte and its
12 host which needs to be explored much more thoroughly particularly in the context of the
13 stressed plant. A well-known strategy for restoring secondary metabolite production by a
14 fungus weakened by repeated sub-culturing, is to grow it on its host plant. There is a
15 question as to whether this chemical communication changes when a plant is infected and
16 produces a phytoalexin. Does the phytoalexin have an effect on the endophytic organisms
17 by, for example, activating the silent or 'orphan' genes to produce 'cryptic' metabolites
18 which might be anti-microbial? It is known that plants when attacked produce volatile
19 organic compounds such as methyl salicylate which convey a warning to healthy plants
20 that an attack by an invasive organism may be imminent. The healthy plants respond by
21 activating their defense mechanisms. Are their endophytic organisms part of this response
22 and do they then start to produce anti-microbial metabolites?

23 It is important to point out that most of the metabolites listed in this review have
24 been isolated from the endophyte which has been cultured in the absence of its
25 host. Fungal metabolite production is notoriously sensitive to the medium. Consequently

1 in the future the metabolite production by the endophyte needs to be examined in terms
2 of bipartite host:endophyte and tripartite host:endophyte:pathogen relationships.

3 Although a number of endophytic bacteria and fungi and their metabolites have
4 exhibited the potential to exert biocontrol against *B. cinerea*, their widespread use
5 requires development. Furthermore of the more than 300,000 species of plants that have
6 been described, the accompanying microbiota of only a handful of these have been
7 studied. This relatively unexplored field is therefore seen as an interesting source of new
8 micro-organisms and of their metabolites particularly in the context or their ecological
9 role and exploitation.

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