Contents lists available at ScienceDirect







Larrea divaricata volatilome and antimicrobial activity against *Monilinia fructicola*



Joana Boiteux, Carolina Monardez¹, María de los Ángeles Fernández, Magdalena Espino, Pablo Pizzuolo, María Fernanda Silva^{*}

Instituto de Biología Agrícola de Mendoza (IBAM-CONICET), Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, Universidad Nacional de Cuyo, Mendoza, Argentina

ARTICLE INFO	A B S T R A C T		
A R T I C L E I N F O Keywords: Volatilome HS-SPME/GC-MS Larrea divaricata Control Fungus Antimicrobial activity	<i>Monilinia fructicola</i> is the most destructive pre- and postharvest pathogen in stone fruit worldwide. A great attention has been paid to plant extracts, a rich source of bioactive chemicals, for the sustainable pest control. Volatile organic compounds from plant matrices have proved important antimicrobial activity. In the present work, an analytical procedure for the characterization of the volatile profile in <i>L. divaricata</i> extract by headspace solid-phase microextraction (HS-SPME) coupled to gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC–MS) was proposed. Moreover, the biological activity of <i>L. divaricata</i> extract was evaluated for their contact-phase and vapor-phase effects on <i>M. fructicola</i> mycelial growth. In order to improve the absorption of volatile compounds, the following experimental parameters were optimized: fiber coatings, time and temperature extraction. As a result of the optimization, CAR/PDMS fibers, 30 °C and 30 min were selected for the extraction volatile compounds from <i>L. divaricata</i> extract. A total of 79 VOCs were identified in the extract. Among them, aromadendrene was found at highest concentration. Other bioactive volatile compounds were detected such as eugenol, carvacrol, limonene and thymoquinone. The antimicrobial activity of <i>L. divaricata</i> extract showed significant antimicrobial activity on <i>M. fructicola</i> mycelial growth in both conditions. The results reveal that <i>L. divaricata</i> is a promising antifungal agent which could be used as bio-fungicide in the protection of fruits and vegetables against post-barvest infections.		

1. Introduction

Monilinia fructicola (Winter) is the most destructive pre- and postharvest pathogen in stone fruit worldwide [1, 2]. This pathogen causes brown rot leading to important economic losses in food industry [3]. Current management of this disease still relies heavily on the use of synthetic chemical fungicides [4]. However, public concern over the potential impact of fungicides on the environment and human health, as well as the development of resistance strains, have promoted the search of novel methods for the control of *M. fructicola* [5]. Among the alternative treatments to chemical products, plant extracts have received growing attention due to their potential antimicrobial properties [6]. Several studies have demonstrated that plant extracts constitute a rich source of bioactive chemicals such as phytosterines, saponines, phenolic compounds, alkaloids, volatile compounds, glucosinolates, quinons, tannins, sterols [7, 8].

Larrea divaricata Cav. (Zygophyllacea) is a perennial woody shrub

with widely distribution in Argentina. In folk medicine, different *L. divaricata* extracts have been used as anti-inflammatory, antirheumatic, dysphoretic, amenagogic and antimicrobial agents [9, 10]. Although phytochemical studies had reported the presence of secondary metabolites such as lignans, essential oils, phenolic compounds and glycosides [11, 12], the volatile profile of *L. divaricata* extract has not yet been reported.

The totality of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) synthesized by plants has been termed the volatilome (or volatome) [13], being terpenes, fatty acid derivatives, benzenoids, phenylpropanoids and amino acid derived metabolites, the most relevant groups. These compounds play an important role in plants; acting as signals in plant-plant communication, in the attraction of pollinators as well as in the defense against organisms pathogens [14, 15]. Thus, the volatile organic compounds in plant extracts could play an effective role in the control of postharvest diseases.

Analytical procedures for the analysis of volatile constituents from

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.microc.2018.06.011

^{*} Corresponding author at: Instituto de Biología Agrícola de Mendoza (IBAM-CONICET), Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, Universidad Nacional de Cuyo, Alte. Brown 500, CP 5505 Chacras de Coria, Mendoza, Argentina.

E-mail address: msilva@fca.uncu.edu.ar (M.F. Silva).

¹ Equal contribution of both authors.

Received 8 March 2018; Received in revised form 6 June 2018; Accepted 7 June 2018 0026-265X/ @ 2018 Published by Elsevier B.V.

plants require sample preparation methods for the extraction and preconcentration of target compounds [16, 17]. Headspace-solid-phase microextraction (HS-SPME) is one of the most commonly used methods combining sampling, extraction, concentration and cleanup in a single step [15, 18]. This technique presents remarkable advantages for volatilome analysis, including high selectivity and sensitivity, possible automation of extraction, solvent-free process and small sample volume [14]. Extraction efficiency is affected by experimental factors [19, 20]. The fiber coating is a key factor in SPME, different coatings interact with analytes through different adsorption/absorption mechanisms [16, 21, 22].

In the present work, an analytical procedure for the characterization of the volatile profile in *L. divaricata* extract by headspace solid-phase microextraction (HS-SPME) coupled to gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC–MS) was proposed. Moreover, the biological activity of *L. divaricata* extract was evaluated for their contact-phase and vapor-phase effects on *M. fructicola* mycelial growth.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant extract preparation

Larrea divaricata (10 plants) was cultivated at a greenhouse under natural radiation were identified by means of morphological, anatomical, and histochemical analyses. Leaves were harvested during flowering, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and then lyophilized in darkness. The extract was prepared from *L. divaricata* leaves (20 g) using the methodology proposed by Widmer and Laurent with modifications [23]. Then, the leaves were placed into Erlenmeyer flasks containing 200 mL of distilled water and autoclaved for 45 min at 121 °C at 1 atm. The liquid was filtered and the volume was reduced by boiling in laminar-flow hood to an approximate volume of 20 mL. Finally, the extract was centrifuged and the supernatant was autoclaved for 20 min at 121 °C at 1 atm. The extracts were stored at 4 °C until analysis.

2.2. HS-SPME/GC-MS

2.2.1. Reagents and materials

The SPME tested fibers were Stable Flex[™] polydimethylsiloxane/divinylbenzene (PDMS/DVB, 65 µm), polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS, 100 µm), Stable Flex[™] carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane (Car/PDMS, 85 µm), and Stable Flex[™] divinylbenzene/carboxen/polydimethylsiloxane (Car/PDMS/ DVB, 50/30 µm); SPME support and holder manual for SPME were purchased from Supelco (Bellefonte, PA, USA). Magnetic stirrer bar and 10 mL glass vial with PTFE-faced silicone septa were supplied by Varian (Lake Forest, CA, USA). Magnetic stirrer Ret Control Visc IKAMAG Safety Control (IKA, Wilmington, USA) was used. Fibers were conditioned following the instructions from manufacturers, and cleaned at 250 °C for 5 min. Ultrapure water was obtained from a RiO/Elix3-Sinergy185 purification system (Millipore, Sao Pablo, Brazil). The internal standard (IS) anisole was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI, USA). Methanol chromatographic grade was purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

2.2.2. HS-SPME conditions

In order to improve the absorption of volatile compounds, the following experimental parameters were optimized: four coating fibers (PDMS, CAR/PDMS, DVB/CAR/PDMS and PDMS/DVB); extraction temperature (25–40 °C); extraction time (10–60 min). As a result of the optimization, *L. divaricata* extract (2 mL) was spiked with an internal standard solution to obtain a final concentration of $1 \,\mu g \, mL^{-1}$. Then, the extract was placed into a 10 mL glass screw-top vial with polytetrafluoroethylene/silicone septa. The sealed vial was placed in a thermoblock at 30 °C and stirrer at 1000 rpm. After thermal equilibration for 30 min, the SPME needle (CAR/PDMS fiber) was inserted

through the septum and the fiber exposed in the HS (2 cm) for 30 min. After extraction, the SPME fiber was removed from the vial and inserted into the injection port of GC–MS. All the analyses were performed in triplicate.

2.2.3. GC-MS analyses

GC–MS analyses were performed on a Varian CP-3800 gas chromatograph with a Saturn 2200 Ion Trap Mass Spectrometric detector (Varian, Walnut Creek, CA, USA). The system was operated by Saturn GC–MS Workstation software Version 6.41. The column was a Factor Four TM capillary column VF-5MS (50 m \times 0.25 mm I.D., with 0.25 µm film thickness; Varian, Lake Forest, CA, USA).

The oven temperature program was: 40 °C (2 min), 4 °C min⁻¹ to 220 °C (5 min), 30 °C min⁻¹ to 280 °C (10 min). The 1079 injector was equipped with a glass insert for SPME and the temperature was programmed isothermally. Desorption temperature was set at 220 °C based on previous studies carried out in our laboratory [24]. The injection was in split/splitless mode for $2 \min$, and then the split ratio was 1/50. The carrier gas flow rate (Helium 6.0, Linde, Buenos Aires, Argentina) was constant at 1 mL min⁻¹. The electron impact energy was 70 eV. Transfer line and ion trap temperature were 200 °C and manifold temperature was 40 °C. Mass spectrometry acquisition was carried out using the continuous scanning mode (5 μ scan s⁻¹) from m/z 30 to m/z300. Qualitative analysis was performed by comparison of mass spectra and retention times with standard compounds and/or by comparison of the mass spectrum with those of reference compounds in the NIST Mass Spectral Search Program (NIST Version 2.0). The relative amounts of volatile compounds were expressed with respect to IS (R2 = 0.998) as $\mu g g^{-1}$ of plant extract. The volatile compounds were expressed as $\mu g m L^{-1}$. All data were reported as the mean \pm SD for three replications and analyzed by Statgraphics Plus Version 5.0 program (Manugistic Inc., Rockville, MD, USA) [32].

2.3. Antimicrobial activity of Larrea divaricata extract on Monilinia fructicola mycelial growth

Monilinia fructicola was obtained from the microorganism's collection of the Cátedra de Fitopatología de la Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias de la Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (Mendoza, Argentina). The fungus was maintained on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA). The effect of Larrea divaricata extract on M. fructicola mycelial growth was evaluated under contact- and vapor-phase conditions. The vapor phase was tested by using the technique of Ma et al. [25], in Petri plates (90 mm \times 20 mm; 130 mL air space) containing Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) [25]. Subsequently a 4 mm disk of M. fructicola obtained from the edge of 10 days old culture was placed in the center of Petri dishes. A filter paper disk (4 cm in diameter), impregnated with the extract at different concentrations (50 to 750 mg mL $^{-1}$), was placed on the inner surface of the Petri plate lid, in order to prevent direct contact of *M. fructicola* with the extract. Control was performed by replacing extract with sterile distilled water. Inoculated Petri plates were sealed immediately and were incubated at 21 \pm 2 °C for 5 days. Each treatment contained three replicates and the assay was repeated three times. After incubation period, the M. fructicola colony area was measured using Axio Vision 4.8 software. The results were expressed as inhibition percentage of mycelial growth using the formula (1).

Inhibition (%) =
$$[(C - T)/C] * 100,$$
 (1)

where C and T correspond to the fungus colony area (cm^2) of control and treatments (cm^2) , respectively.

In the contact phase assay, the biological activity of *L. divaricata* extract against *M. fructicola* was tested using the solid agar bioassay [26]. In this case, a 4 mm disk of *M. fructicola* was placed in the center of Petri dishes containing Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) amended with different concentrations of extract (50 to 750 mg mL⁻¹). Control plates were performed simultaneously, using the growth medium without

extract. A positive control was included using tebuconazole, a commercial fungicide. Stock suspension was prepared by mixing the fungicide in sterile-distilled water at the recommended concentration (tebuconazole 0.3 mL L^{-1}). Each treatment contained three replicates and the assay was repeated three times. Petri plates were incubated at 21 ± 2 °C for 5 days. After incubation period, the *M. fructicola* colony area was measured using Axio Vision 4.8 software. The results were expressed as inhibition percentage of mycelial growth using the formula (1).

All data were reported as the mean \pm SD for three replicates. Comparison of the means was achieved by analysis of variance (ANOVA) according to Tukey test, $\alpha < 0.05$ using Statgraphics Plus Version 5.0 program (Manugistic Inc., Rockville, MD, USA).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. SPME optimization

The sensitivity and selectivity of a SPME method can be affected by the type of fiber coating, temperature and time of extraction. These variables were optimized by means of the one-at a time procedure to determine the most suitable conditions for the analysis of volatile compounds of *L. divaricata* extract.

Four different fibers (PDMS, PDMS/DVB, CAR/PDMS and DVB/ CAR/PDMS) with a wide range of polarities were evaluated according to their extraction efficiency, expressed as the amount of retained compounds. As can be seen in Fig. 1, the CAR/PDMS fiber showed the highest performance in the extraction of volatile compounds being selected for the following optimization assays. Previous studies have used CAR/PDMS fiber for volatile compounds extraction from plants demonstrating high extraction efficiency when compared with others fiber coatings [27–29].

Then, the effect of extraction temperature was investigated at 25 °C, 30 °C, and 40 °C. The best results concerning extraction efficiency were obtained at 30 °C, consequently it was considered for subsequent optimization (Fig. 2).

Finally, the extraction time of volatile compounds in *Larrea divaricata* extract was studied in the range of 10 to 60 min. The highest extraction efficiency was reached at 30 min (Fig. 3).

As a result of the optimization, CAR/PDMS fibers, 30 °C and 30 min



Fig. 1. Extraction efficiency of volatile compounds from *Larrea divaricara* extract using different SPME fiber coating (SPME conditions: extraction temperature 40 °C and extraction time 40 min).



Extraction temperature (°C)





Fig. 3. Extraction efficiency of volatile compounds from *Larrea divaricara* extract using different extraction time (SPME conditions: fiber, CAR/PDMS and extraction temperature 30 °C).

were selected for the extraction volatile compounds from *L. divaricata* extract.

3.2. Performance of the analytical method

Analytical quality parameters were evaluated to assess the performance of the HS-SPME/GC–MS procedure with the selected conditions. The repeatability (within day precision) of the method was determined by a series of six replicates carried out on the same day. In all cases, the percentage of relative standard deviation (RSD %) was lower or equal to 12%. The reproducibility of the method was tested in different days with six replicates analyses each day, the values were lower or equal to 11%.



Microchemical Journal 142 (2018) 1-8

J. Boiteux et al.

Fig. 4. GC/MS chromatogram of Larrea divaricata extract volatilome.

4

Table 1

Concentration of volatile organic compounds ($\mu g m L^{-1}$) determined by HS-SPME/GC-MS analysis in *L. divaricata* extract.

TR ^a	Class ^b	Compounds	Concentra	Concentration ^c	
23.2	0	Hydrocinnamoyl bromide	4.500	0.003	
24.5	HA	4-Ethyltoluene	29.910	0.001	
27.6	ES	Hexanoic acid. ethyl ester	10.720	0.001	
29.1	0	2-Pentanone. 3.4-epoxy-3.4-dimethyl-	43.930	0.003	
29.1	AL	p-Menth-1-en-4-ol	5.240	0.001	
29.4	ES	E-9-methyl-8-tridecen-2-ol.acetate	3.900	0.001	
30.2	AL	14-Methyl-8-hexadecyn-1-ol	2.040	0.000	
31.0	Т	Limonene	10.870	0.005	
33.4	ES	Methyl (9E)-9-octadecen-12-ynoate	15.520	0.000	
34.3	A	1.3.4-Trimethyl-3-cyclohexenyl-1- carboxaldebyde	4.420	0.001	
35.7	0	N-Methoxy-4-methylbenzamide	14.540	0.000	
36.7	ES	Methyl eicosa-8.11.14-trienoate	1.460	0.001	
36.9	0	Diethyl bis(trimethylsilyl) orthosilicate	2.160	0.001	
37.5	HA	p-Isopropenyl toluene	16.120	0.002	
38.9	Н	4-tert-Pentyl-1-cyclohexene	5.370	0.001	
39.7	ES	2.2-Dimethylpropionic acid. 2-ethylhexyl ester	2.390	0.000	
41.2	Т	Myrcenol	0.160	0.001	
42.5	0	Methyl 2-methyl-3-oxobutyldithiocarbamate	0.220	0.001	
43.2	E	1.3-Dioxolane. 2-benzyl-	3.620	0.000	
43.4	AL	5-Octen-2yn-4ol	12.070	0.001	
45.3	ĸ	2-(1-Cyclopent-1-enyl-1-methylethyl)	50.520	0.000	
45 7	т	4-Ternineol	12.820	0.001	
46.3	т	4-Carvomenthenol	13.270	0.001	
46.8	0	Acetohydrazide.2-hydroxy-2-phenyl-N2-(1-	3.330	0.001	
	-	methylcyclohexen-4-yl)-			
47.2	AL	1-Methyl-4-(à-hydroxyisopropyl)benzene	7.470	0.010	
48.2	Α	Safranal	11.320	0.002	
48.5	ES	Sabinyl acetate	4.810	0.002	
48.9	AL	Benzenemethanol. à-(1.1-dimethylethyl)-	1.400	0.001	
49.3	Α	Isoxylaldehyde	0.230	0.001	
49.4	Α	p-Menth-1-en-9-al	4.750	0.001	
50.3	F	m-Cumenol	24.960	0.001	
50.3	A	Terephthaldialdehyde monodiethyl acetal	2.210	0.000	
50.4	Н	Bornylene	2.960	0.001	
50.7	0 V	2.4-Dimethoxyacetophenone	1.020	0.000	
50.7	К	/a-Metnyi-1.2.3.6././a-nexanydro-5H-inden-5- one	0.410	0.000	
52.3	К	Thymoquinone	25.640	0.001	
52.4	Е	Tricyclo[4.3.1.1(3.8)] undecane.1-methoxy-	0.300	0.002	
54.2	0	5-Hydroxy-4a-methyloctahydro-1(2H)-	17.990	0.001	
		naphthalenone			
54.5	F	p-Cresol. 2-ethyl-	29.460	0.002	
55.2	AL	Cuminol	3.150	0.001	
55.6	E	2-Methyl-5-[1-methyl-1-(5-methyl-2-furyl) ethyllfuran	7.390	0.001	
55.7	F	Carvacrol	0.440	0.001	
56.9	HA	Cumol	2.280	0.001	
57.2	Н	1.5.9.9-Tetramethyl-2-methylene-spiro[3.5]	29.460	0.000	
		non-5-ene			
57.2	AL	trans-Pinocarveol	12.740	0.002	
57.5	0	Eugenol	1.080	0.002	
58.3	н	Cyclohexene.1.3-diisopropenyl-6-methyl-	2.800	0.000	
58.6	A	4.4-Dimethylpent-2-enal	13.040	0.001	
59.2	0	3-Allyl-2-methoxyphenol	12.330	7.120	
59.6	0 V	trans-m-Propenyl gualacol	39.510	0.002	
60.5	ĸ	4-(/./-Dimemyidicycio[4.1.0]hept-3-eii-3-yi)- 2-butanone	0.070	0.001	
61.4	НА	1 4 6-Trimethyl-1 2-dihydronanhthalene	0.210	0.001	
61.5	н	Oxacvclotetradeca-4 11-divne	25 040	0.001	
61.7	0	2.3 Dehydro-4-oxobetaionol	1.290	0.004	
61.9	HA	1.2-Dimethylnaphthalene	2.920	0.003	
62.3	0	Thiocyanic acid.1.1.3-trimethyl-3-phenylbutyl	4.710	0.000	
		ester			
62.9	AL	Dihydromyrcenol	0.020	0.000	
63.7	HA	1.4-Dihydrobiphenyl	2.330	0.001	
63.7	К	6-(3-Isopropenylcycloprop-1-enyl)-6-	0.950	0.001	
640	ч	methylhept-3-en-2-one	22.020	0.001	
04.9 64 0	п 0	2.(2.Methoyynhenyl)-2.propagal	22.930 6.670	0.001	
65.5	0	4 6 10 10-Tetramethyl-5-ocyatricyclo	0.070	0.001	
00.0	-	[4.4.0.0(1.4)]decen-2-en-7-ol	0.010	0.000	

Table 1 (continued)

TR ^a	Class ^b	Compounds	Concentration ^c	
65.7	0	3-Buten-2-one.4-(5.5-dimethyl-1-oxaspiro[2.5] oct-4-yl)	1.070	0.001
66.0	F	Phenol. 2.5-di-tert-butyl-	1.040	0.001
66.2	Е	Aromadendrene oxide-(2)	311.440	0.001
67.8	F	2.4.6-Triisopropylphenol	1.590	0.001
68.3	ES	Actinidiolide. dihydro-	0.130	0.001
68.5	0	2-(Phenylsulfanyl)cyclopentanone	1.390	0.010
68.9	0	5-Hydroxy-2.3.3-trimethyl-2-(3-methyl-buta-	7.550	0.001
		1.3-dienyl)-ciclohexanone		
69.5	0	Apocynin	0.350	0.001
71.0	AL	2.5.8-Trimethyl-1.2.3.4-tetrahydro-1-naphthol	2.670	0.001
71.6	AL	Bicyclo[4.4.0]dec-5-ene.1.5-dimethyl-3-	4.910	0.001
		hydroxy-8-(1methylene-2-hydroxyethyl-1)-		
71.8	0	Cumopyran	0.410	0.002
71.8	Н	Dysoxylonene	1.200	0.001
72.2	AL	5-(7a-Isopropenyl-4.5-dimethyl-	0.680	0.001
		octahydroinden-4-yl)-3-methyl-pent-2-en-1-ol		
72.2	AL	Perhydrocyclopropa[e]azulene-4.5.6-	4.770	0.002
		triol.1.1.4.6-tetramethyl		
72.4	ES	Methyl (4Z.7Z.10Z.13Z.16Z.19Z)-	2.390	0.001
		4.7.10.13.16.19-docosahexaenoate		
72.5	ES	Heptafluorobutyric acid. n-tridecyl ester	3.950	0.001
72.7	0	2.7-Octanedione.4.4-dimethyl-3-[2-(1-hydroxy-	4.320	0.000
		1-methylethyl)-3-methyl-3-butenylidene]-		

^a RT retention time.

^b H hydrocarbon. HA aromatic hydrocarbons. K ketone. A aldehydes. AL alcohol. E ether. ES esters. T terpene. O others.

^c Means \pm standard deviation of the concentration of volatile compounds in $\mu g m L^{-1}$ in relation to the concentration of IS.

3.3. Volatile profile of Larrea divaricata extract

The HS-SPME optimized method was applied and the volatile compounds from *Larrea divaricata* extract were characterized by GC–MS. Typical chromatogram corresponding to *L. divaricata* extract is shown in Fig. 4.

Seventy nine different volatile compounds were identified and quantified in L. divaricata extract belonging Eucalyptus globulus to various compound classes: hydrocarbons, aromatic hydrocarbons, ketones, aldehydes, alcohols, phenol, esters, ether, terpene and other (Table 1). Analyzing the results obtained, most of the compounds were found at concentrations between 0.02 and $50\,\mu g\,m L^{-1}$. Interestingly, aromadendrene oxide-(2) belonging to esther class, showed the highest concentration (311.44 μ g mL⁻¹). Several authors have been reported antimicrobial activity of this compound against different microorganism pathogens [30, 31]. Mulyaningsih et al. [32] demonstrated that aromadendrene was the main compound present in the oil. Additionally, these authors reported that the aromadendrene was able inhibit the microbial growth of Bacillus subtilis, Staphylococcus aureus, S. epidermidis, S. saprophyticus, Streptococcus pyogenes, S. agalactiae and Enterococcus faecalis with minimal inhibitory concentration (0.2 and 2 mg mL^{-1}) [32].

Moreover, as can be seen in Table 1, others bioactive compounds in *L. divaricata* extract were determined. Eugenol, carvacrol, limonene and thymoquinone were found. Different authors have reported antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of these volatile compounds [33, 34].

These results suggest that *L. divaricata* extract is a potential source of bioactive compounds that could be used as an alternative to synthetic chemical fungicides in postharvest.

3.4. Antimicrobial activity of Larrea divaricata extract on Monilinia fructicola mycelial growth

In order to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of *L. divaricata* extract against *M. fructicola* mycelial growth, under contact- and vapor-phase conditions were tested. For this purpose, the following extract



L. divaricata extract concentrations (mg mL $^{-1}$)





Fig. 5. Antimicrobial activity of different dose of *L. divaricata* extract against *M. fructicola* mycelial growth, A) under contact-phase; B) vapor-phase. Diverse letter indicate differ significantly according to Tukey test, $\alpha < 0.05$.

concentrations were selected: 50, 150, 300, 450, 650 and 750 mg mL⁻¹. Analyzing the results obtained (Fig. 5) the inhibition of the mycelial

growth was dose-dependent in both conditions (contact and vapor phase). In addition, the lowest concentration tested (50 mg mL^{-1}) presented stimulatory effect on *M. fructicola* mycelial growth, whereas

highest concentrations showed inhibitory activity. Such dose-dependent behavior has already reported for other plant extracts as well as for pure bioactive compounds. Some reports demonstrated that subinhibitory concentrations stimulated fungal growth [35, 36].

B

As can be seen in Fig. 5a, the extract in the contact-phase at

150 mg mL⁻¹ inhibited 20% *M. fructicola* mycelial growth, while at 300 mg mL⁻¹ the total inhibition was achieved. Besides, tebuconazole (positive control) completely inhibited *M. fructicola* mycelial growth. In the vapor phase (Fig. 5b), the extract at low concentration (150 mg mL⁻¹) revealed a great potential in the inhibition of *M. fructicola* (40%). However, under this condition the highest inhibition obtained was of 67% even at the maximum concentration tested (750 mg mL⁻¹). Therefore, *L. divaricata* extract at higher concentrations was more effective in the contact phase than in volatile phase. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that at 150 mg mL⁻¹ the volatile phase showed a better performance.

Several reports have demonstrated the antimicrobial activity of *Larrea divaricata* extracts against phytopathogens [11, 37]. Hapon et al. [38] demonstrated that this extract at 200 mg mL⁻¹ inhibited *Botrytis cinerea* mycelial growth about 94% [38]. Stege et al. reported inhibitory activity of aqueous extract of *L. divaricata* on the growth of *Helicobacter pylori* (40 mg mL⁻¹) [39]. Besides, other research studied the effectiveness of organic extracts of *L. divaricata* against *Fusarium graminearum*, *F. solani*, *F. verticillioides* y *Macrophomina phaseolina*. Chloroformic extract showed the highest antifungal activity against all phytopathogen fungus [11].

The results showed that the *L. divaricata* extract is a promising antifungal agent which could be used as bio-fungicide in the protection of fruits and vegetables against postharvest infections.

4. Conclusions

The results obtained demonstrated that HS-SPME/GS-MS is a simple and robust method for the volatilome analysis from *L. divaricata* extract. A total of 79 VOCs were identified in the extract. Among them, aromadendrene was found at highest concentration. Other bioactive volatile compounds were detected such as eugenol, carvacrol, limonene and thymoquinone. To the best of our knowledge, the volatile profile of this Argentinean autochthonous plant was assessed for the first time.

This work highlights the capacity of *L. divaricata* extract to inhibit *M. fructicola* mycelial growth. The extract obtained presented an effective activity not only in contact phase but also in vapor phase. This reveals its potential as postharvest protection agents representing an alternative source to chemical fungicides. Further researches are needed to evaluate its effectiveness *in vivo* and adjust the most suitable concentration and formulation for use.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET) (PIP 11220130100185CO) and Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (Mendoza, Argentina) (06/P31-04 and A044 SECTyP).

References

- J.L. Pergomet, M.G. Di Liberto, M.G. Derita, A.B.J. Bracca, T.S. Kaufman, Activity of the pterophyllins 2 and 4 against postharvest fruit pathogenic fungi. Comparison with a synthetic analog and related intermediates, Fitoterapia 125 (2018) 98–105.
- [2] P.S.F. Lichtemberg, Y. Luo, R.G. Morales, J.M. Muehlmann-Fischer, T.J. Michailides, L.L. May De Mio, The point mutation G461S in the MfCYP51 gene is associated with tebuconazole resistance in Monilinia fructicola populations in Brazil, Phytopathology 107 (2017) 1507–1514.
- [3] M. Bernat, J. Segarra, C. Casals, N. Teixidó, R. Torres, J. Usall, Relevance of the main postharvest handling operations on the development of brown rot disease on stone fruits, J. Sci. Food Agric. 97 (2017) 5319–5326.
- [4] J. Hrustić, M. Mihajlović, M. Grahovac, G. Delibašić, B. Tanović, Fungicide sensitivity, growth rate, aggressiveness and frost hardiness of *Monilinia fructicola* and *Monilinia laxa* isolates, Eur. J. Plant Pathol. (2017) 1–12.
- [5] A. Gotor-Vila, N. Teixidó, C. Casals, R. Torres, A. De Cal, B. Guijarro, J. Usall, Biological control of brown rot in stone fruit using *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* CPA-8 under field conditions, Crop Prot. 102 (2017) 72–80.
- [6] H. Yi, Y. Chen, J. Liu, J. Zhang, W. Guo, W. Xiao, Y. Yao, Extraction and separation of active ingredients in *Schisandra chinensis* (Turcz.) Baill and the study of their antifungal effects, PLoS One 11 (2016).

- [7] W. Fu, G. Tian, Q. Pei, X. Ge, P. Tian, Evaluation of berberine as a natural compound to inhibit peach brown rot pathogen Monilinia fructicola, Crop Prot. 91 (2017) 20–26.
- [8] K. Pazolini, I. dos Santos, R.D. Giaretta, M.M. Marcondes, D.A. Reiner, I. Citadin, The use of brassica extracts and thermotherapy for the postharvest control of brown rot in peach, Sci. Hortic. 209 (2016) 41–46.
- [9] M.R. Alonso, I. Peralta, D. Monti, R. Martino, C. Anesini, Stability of an aqueous extract of *Larrea divaricata* Cav. during a simulated digestion process, Phytother. Res. 31 (2017) 1708–1714.
- [10] M.P.A. Carabajal, M.I. Isla, I.C. Zampini, Evaluation of antioxidant and antimutagenic activity of herbal teas from native plants used in traditional medicine in Argentina, S. Afr. J. Bot. 110 (2017) 258–265.
- [11] V. Vogt, D. Cifuente, C. Tonn, L. Sabini, S. Rosas, Antifungal activity in vitro and in vivo of extracts and lignans isolated from *Larrea divaricata* Cav. against phytopathogenic fungus, Ind. Crop. Prod. 42 (2013) 583–586.
- [12] J. Boiteux, C.S. Vargas, P. Pizzuolo, G. Lucero, M.F. Silva, Phenolic characterization and antimicrobial activity of folk medicinal plant extracts for their applications in olive production, Electrophoresis 35 (2014) 1709–1718.
- [13] M. Mansurova, B.E. Ebert, L.M. Blank, A.J. Ibáñez, A breath of information: the volatilome, Curr. Genet. (2017) 1–6.
- [14] N. Dudareva, A. Klempien, J.K. Muhlemann, I. Kaplan, Biosynthesis, function and metabolic engineering of plant volatile organic compounds, New Phytol. 198 (2013) 16–32.
- [15] G. Vivaldo, E. Masi, C. Taiti, G. Caldarelli, S. Mancuso, The network of plants volatile organic compounds, Sci. Rep. 7 (2017).
- [16] C. Yang, J. Wang, D. Li, Microextraction techniques for the determination of volatile and semivolatile organic compounds from plants: a review, Anal. Chim. Acta 799 (2013) 8–22.
- [17] L. Ma, Y. Qiao, L. Du, Y. Li, S. Huang, F. Liu, D. Xiao, Evaluation and optimization of a superior extraction method for the characterization of the volatile profile of black tea by HS-SPME/GC–MS, Food Anal. Methods 10 (2017) 2481–2489.
- [18] P.K. Mehta, M. de Sousa Galvão, A.C. Soares, J.P. Nogueira, N. Narain, Volatile constituents of jambolan (*Syzygium cumini* L.) fruits at three maturation stages and optimization of HS-SPME GC–MS method using a central composite design, Food Anal. Methods 11 (2018) 733–749.
- [19] T. Živković Semren, I. Brčić Karačonji, T. Safner, N. Brajenović, B. Tariba Lovaković, A. Pizent, Gas chromatographic-mass spectrometric analysis of urinary volatile organic metabolites: optimization of the HS-SPME procedure and sample storage conditions, Talanta 176 (2018) 537–543.
- [20] P. Zou, L. Wang, Z.G. Yang, H. Lee, H.P. Li, Rapid and simultaneous determination of ten off-flavor compounds in water by headspace solid phase microextraction and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry, J. Cent. South Univ. 23 (2016) 59–67.
- [21] F. Zhu, J. Xu, Y. Ke, S. Huang, F. Zeng, T. Luan, G. Ouyang, Applications of in vivo and in vitro solid-phase microextraction techniques in plant analysis: a review, Anal. Chim. Acta 794 (2013) 1–14.
- [22] S.G. Arcari, V. Caliari, M. Sganzerla, H.T. Godoy, Volatile composition of Merlot red wine and its contribution to the aroma: optimization and validation of analytical method, Talanta 174 (2017) 752–766.
- [23] T. Widmer, N. Laurent, Plant extracts containing caffeic acid and rosmarinic acid inhibit zoospore germination of *Phytophthora* spp. pathogenic to *Theobroma cacao*, Eur. J. Plant Pathol. 115 (2006) 377–388.
- [24] V.C. Soto, I.B. Maldonado, V.P. Jofré, C.R. Galmarini, M.F. Silva, Direct analysis of nectar and floral volatile organic compounds in hybrid onions by HS-SPME/GC–MS: relationship with pollination and seed production, Microchem. J. 122 (2015) 110–118.
- [25] B.X. Ma, X.Q. Ban, J.S. He, B. Huang, H. Zeng, J. Tian, Y.X. Chen, Y.W. Wang, Antifungal activity of Ziziphora clinopodioides Lam. essential oil against *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* on rapeseed plants (*Brassica campestris* L.), Crop Prot. 89 (2016) 289–295.
- [26] K.M. Soliman, R.I. Badeaa, Effect of oil extracted from some medicinal plants on different mycotoxigenic fungi, Food Chem. Toxicol. 40 (2002) 1669–1675.
- [27] A. Luca, V. Bach, M. Edelenbos, Optimization of headspace solid-phase microextraction and static headspace sampling of low-boiling volatiles emitted from wild rocket (*Diplotaxis tenuifolia* L.), Food Anal. Methods 8 (2015) 1185–1196.
- [28] P.R.R. Mesquita, E.C. Nunes, F.N.d. Santos, L.P. Bastos, M.A.P.C. Costa, F. de M. Rodrigues, J.B. de Andrade, Discrimination of Eugenia uniflora L. biotypes based on volatile compounds in leaves using HS-SPME/GC–MS and chemometric analysis, Microchem. J. 130 (2017) 79–87.
- [29] I. Rjeibi, S. Ncib, A. Ben Saad, S. Souid, Evaluation of nutritional values, phenolic profile, aroma compounds and biological properties of Pittosporum tobira seeds, Lipids Health Dis. 16 (2017).
- [30] Z. Bey-Ould Si Said, H. Haddadi-Guemghar, L. Boulekbache-Makhlouf, P. Rigou, H. Remini, A. Adjaoud, N.K. Khoudja, K. Madani, Essential oils composition, antibacterial and antioxidant activities of hydrodistillated extract of *Eucalyptus globulus* fruits, Ind. Crop. Prod. 89 (2016) 167–175.
- [31] T. Naz, J. Packer, P. Yin, J.J. Brophy, H. Wohlmuth, D.E. Renshaw, J. Smith, Y.C. Elders, S.R. Vemulpad, J.F. Jamie, Bioactivity and chemical characterisation of *Lophostemon suaveolens*-an endemic Australian Aboriginal traditional medicinal plant, Nat. Prod. Res. 30 (2016) 693–696.
- [32] S. Mulyaningsih, F. Sporer, S. Zimmermann, J. Reichling, M. Wink, Synergistic properties of the terpenoids aromadendrene and 1,8-cineole from the essential oil of *Eucalyptus globulus* against antibiotic-susceptible and antibiotic-resistant pathogens, Phytomedicine 17 (2010) 1061–1066.
- [33] H. Miladi, T. Zmantar, Y. Chaabouni, K. Fedhila, A. Bakhrouf, K. Mahdouani, K. Chaieb, Antibacterial and efflux pump inhibitors of thymol and carvacrol against food-borne pathogens, Microb. Pathog. 99 (2016) 95–100.

- [34] A. Marchese, I.E. Orhan, M. Daglia, R. Barbieri, A. Di Lorenzo, S.F. Nabavi, O. Gortzi, M. Izadi, S.M. Nabavi, Antibacterial and antifungal activities of thymol: a brief review of the literature, Food Chem. 210 (2016) 402–414.
- [35] S. Pradhan, F.J. Flores, H. Melouk, N.R. Walker, J.E. Molineros, C.D. Garzon, Chemical hormesis on plant pathogenic fungi and oomycetes, ACS Symp. Ser. (2017) 121–133.
- [36] D. Wang, E.J. Calabrese, B. Lian, Z. Lin, V. Calabrese, Hormesis as a mechanistic approach to understanding herbal treatments in traditional Chinese medicine, Pharmacol. Ther. 184 (2018) 42–50.
- [37] P.W. Stege, L.L. Sombra, R.C. Davicino, R.A. Olsina, Analysis of nordihydroguaiaretic acid in *Larrea divaricata* Cav. extracts by micellar electrokinetic chromatography, Phytochem. Anal. 22 (2011) 74–79.
- [38] M.V. Hapon, J.J. Boiteux, M.A. Fernández, G. Lucero, M.F. Silva, P.H. Pizzuolo, Effect of phenolic compounds present in Argentinian plant extracts on mycelial growth of the plant pathogen *Botrytis cinerea pers*, Phyton 86 (2017) 270–277.
- [39] P.W. Stege, R.C. Davicino, A.E. Vega, Y.A. Casali, S. Correa, B. Micalizzi, Antimicrobial activity of aqueous extracts of *Larrea divaricata Cav* (jarilla) against *Helicobacter pylori*, Phytomedicine 13 (2006) 724–727.