

1

2 **Antifungal properties of onion (*Allium cepa*), Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) and Garlic**3 **(*Allium sativum*) on *Alternaria solani* in vitro**

4

5

6 **ABSTRACT**

7 Plant pathogens cause serious losses in quantity and quality of agricultural products. Use of fungicides is
8 gradually becoming unpopular due to their negative effects on ecosystems, human and animal health,
9 and due to resistance by pathogens to the fungicides. In vitro studies were carried out in order to
10 determine the effects of three plant extracts; onion (*Allium cepa*), ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) and garlic
11 (*Allium sativum*) on the control of *Alternaria solani*. The experiment was laid in a Completely Randomized
12 Design (CRD) with a 3*3 factorial arrangement plus one control. The first factor was plant extract, with
13 three levels (garlic, onion and ginger) the second was plant extract concentration, with three levels (50%,
14 75% and 100%). The experiment was carried out in the laboratory at Midlands State University,
15 Zimbabwe, in October 2014. Data on mycelia growth diameter, mycelia inhibition percent and spore
16 germination percent was collected. Analysis of variance was done using Genstat 14th edition and means
17 were separated using Duncan Multiple Range Test at 5% level of significance. Results showed that the
18 plant extracts had strong antifungal activity and their effect increased with increase in their concentration.
19 Ginger and garlic had significantly stronger effect on reducing mycelia growth, reducing spore
20 germination and causing high inhibition per cent of *A. solani*. Ginger was the most effective in controlling
21 *A. solani* across all concentrations. It can be concluded that the plant extracts (onion, ginger and garlic)
22 can be used as natural fungicides to control pathogenic fungi. It is recommended that further research be
23 done on the plant extracts so as to identify the active compounds which are in the extracts as these are
24 responsible for this fungicidal activity and to carry out more studies to test antifungal activities of these
25 studied plant extracts on other different fungi, at different concentration levels. Further experiments may
26 also be done in the field to determine effects of these plant extracts in controlling diseases caused by *A.*
27 *solani*.

28 **Key words:** Antifungal activity, plant extracts, in vitro, *Alternaria solani*, concentrations

29

30 **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

31 In agriculture, the crop loss due to plant pathogens has become a major concern and one of such
32 pathogens is *Alternaria solani*. *Alternaria solani* is a soil inhabiting air borne pathogen [1] responsible for
33 early blight, an important chronic foliar disease of mainly the Solanacea family including tomatoes
34 (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) and potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) [2]. Basal girdling and death of seedlings
35 may occur, a symptom known as collar rot. Despite the name "early," foliar symptoms usually occur on
36 older leaves, [3]. The disease causes yield losses through defoliation of plants and this may result in a
37 reduction in yields by as much as 20 to 30% for example in potatoes [4].

38

39 Chemical control is the most effective and applied method in controlling *A.solani* and there are numerous
40 fungicides on the market for controlling early blight. The disease is commonly managed using succinate
41 dehydrogenase inhibitor (SDHI) fungicides. Unfortunately, recent studies have shown that SDHI
42 resistance has increased dramatically over the years in *A. solani* populations [5]. In addition, conventional
43 pesticides; over the past five decades have led to a range of problems in agriculture, the environment,
44 and human health [6]. There are numerous costs derived from pesticide use and these include monitoring
45 and sanitation for contamination of soils, drinking water, or food, poisoning of pesticide users and farm
46 workers, and the deleterious effects on non-target organisms such as bees and other beneficial insects,
47 fish, and birds [7]. To overcome these problems, some alternative control methods must be employed.

48
49 Natural plant products (botanicals) are becoming a new source of agricultural chemicals to manage plant
50 diseases [8]. Plant extracts have been known for their medicinal and antimicrobial properties since
51 ancient times [9]. Many higher plants produce economically important organic compounds,
52 pharmaceuticals and pesticides. Plant based secondary metabolites, which have defensive role may be
53 exploited for the management of foliar diseases, [10]. The antifungal action of plant extracts has gained
54 much attention. Nowadays, plants are being used against many plant pathogenic fungi. The plants serve
55 as eco-friendly and economic bio-control agents [11]. Natural chemicals from plants are cheap, readily
56 available and cost-effective in developing countries where synthetic fungicides are scarce and expensive
57 for resource-poor farmers, [12]. A number of researches have been documented which demonstrate the
58 antimicrobial efficacy of various plant extracts which have been seen to contain some antifungal
59 properties against *Alternaria solani*. These botanicals include onions, (*Allium cepa*), ginger (*Zingiber*
60 *officinale*) and garlic (*Allium sativum* [11]; [13]; [14]). These three botanicals have antifungal properties,
61 which enable them to distort the life cycle of *A.solani* [15]. The present study was designed to evaluate
62 the efficacy of three plant extracts, onion, ginger and garlic on *Alternaria solani* in vitro.

63

64 **2.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

65 **2.1 Site description and experimental design**

66 The experiment was carried out in the laboratory at Midlands State University which is located in Gweru,
67 Zimbabwe. The area is found in Agro-ecological Region III [16] on the following coordinates 29°45'E,
68 19°45'S and the altitude is 1420m above sea level.

69 The experiment was laid in a Completely Randomized Design (CRD) with a 3*3 factorial arrangement
70 plus one control. The first factor was plant extract type, with three levels; garlic, onion and ginger, while
71 the second factor was plant extract concentration, with three levels; 50%, 75% and 100%.The control
72 used was ethanol. The experiment was replicated three times.

73

74 **2.2 Experimental Procedure**

75 **2.2.1 Isolation of *A. solani*.**

76 Tomato leaves showing symptoms of the disease were collected from naturally infected tomato plants in
77 a greenhouse. Initial symptoms on leaves appear as small 1-2 mm black or brown lesions and under
78 conducive environmental conditions the lesions will enlarge and are often surrounded by a yellow
79 halo. Lesions greater than 10 mm in diameter often have dark pigmented concentric rings. As lesions
80 expand and new lesions develop entire leaves may turn chlorotic and dehisce, leading to significant
81 defoliation [3]. The infected tissues along with adjacent small unaffected tissue are cut into small pieces
82 (2–5 mm squares) and by using flame-sterilized forceps, they are transferred to sterile Petri dishes
83 containing 5% sodium hypo chloride for 30-60 s for surface sterilization of plant tissues. The sterilized
84 pieces are aseptically transferred to Petri dishes containing solidified PDA and were incubated at 27^oC for
85 72 hours as according to [17].

86 **2.2.2 Preparation of plant extracts and inoculation of *A.solani***

87 The research material ginger (*Z. officinale*) rhizomes, onion (*A. cepa*) bulbs, and garlic (*A. sativum*) bulbs,
88 was obtained from a local vegetable market. Fifty grams of the plant material of each plant species was
89 washed with water and crushed in a mortar with pestle by adding sterile distilled water at the rate of 10
90 ml/10g of plant tissue and the homogenates were centrifuged at 10 000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C and the
91 supernatant solutions were collected [18]. The supernatant was filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter
92 paper and sterilized at 120°C for 30 min. The obtained extracts served as the crude extract which is the
93 100% concentration as according to [19]. The obtained concentrates were stored at 4°C. Out of the 100%
94 crude extract from the different plant materials, the respective dilutions of 50% and 75% were then
95 prepared.

96 **2.3 Determination of mycelia growth diameter**

97 5ml of 50%, 75 % and 100% of natural concentrate of onion (*A. cepa*), garlic (*A. sativum*) and ginger (*Z.*
98 *officinale*), was then administered separately into Petri dishes and blended with cooled liquid PDA. 1ml of
99 ethanol (positive control) was poured per Petri dish using an inoculating needle. 15 ml PDA was
100 separately poured into Petri dishes, allowed to cool and solidify. After complete solidification of the
101 medium, 5mm disc of 72 hour old culture of the *A. solani* was inoculated into PDA at the centre of the
102 Petri dishes. The plates were incubated at 28^oC. The Petri dishes containing media devoid of the extract
103 but with same amount of distilled water served as control. *A. solani* mycelia growth diameter was
104 measured using a string diagonally and the string was put on a 30cm measuring ruler. This was done
105 daily for four consecutive days. Mean diameter was calculated respectively to plant type and
106 concentration level.

107 **2.4 Determination of mycelial inhibition percentage by Poisoned food technique**

108 After incubation the colony diameter was measured in mm [20]. Each treatment was repeated three
109 times. The toxicity of the extracts in terms of percentage inhibition of mycelia growth was calculated using
110 the formula: $Gc - Gt/Gc * 100$, where Gc =diameter in control and Gt= diameter in plant extract.

111 **2.5 Spore germination**

112 The counting of conidia was done by means of haemocytometer for this purpose one disc (1 cm) from
113 each Petri dish was taken from 7 days old culture of *A. solani*. The disc (1 cm) was washed using 2ml of
114 distilled water for the collection of spores. One drop of solution was put on haemocytometer and spores
115 were counted under microscope. The percentage was found using the formula:

116
$$\text{Number of spore germinated/number of examined spores} * 100$$

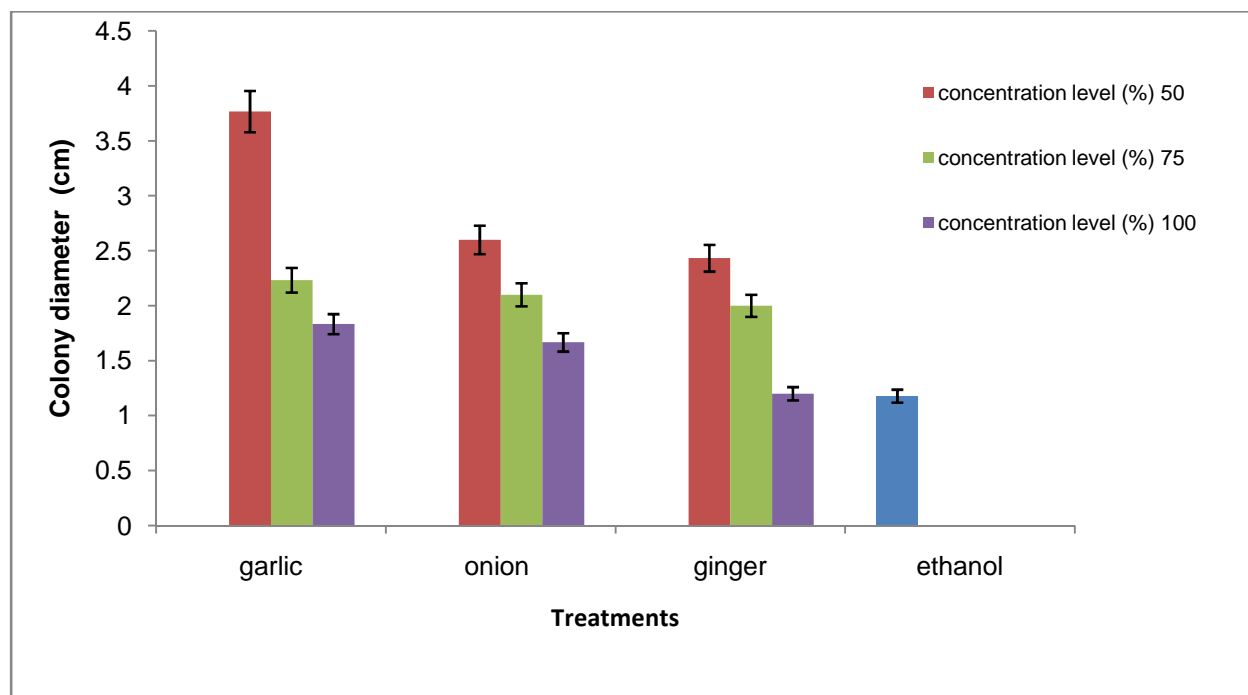
117 **2.6 DATA ANALYSIS**

118 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done on data collected using Genstat 14th edition. Separation of
119 means was done using Duncan Multiple Range Test at 5% level of significance.

120 **3.0 RESULTS**

121 **3.1 Effects of plant extracts on *A. solani* mycelia growth diameter**

122 There was an interaction between plant type and concentration level of the plant extracts on mycelia
123 growth diameter of *A. solani*. The mycelia colony diameter decreased with an increase in concentration
124 rate of the different plant extracts. Of the three plant extracts, the highest mycelial growth diameter
125 (3.7cm) was recorded for garlic at 50% concentration level while the lowest was recorded for ginger at
126 100% and this was not significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from that of the control (ethanol). Generally ginger
127 resulted in the highest decrease in *A. solani* colony diameter across all respective concentrations (50%,
128 75% and 100%) though its effect at 50% and 75% were not significantly different from that of onion at
129 these respective concentrations (Fig 1).

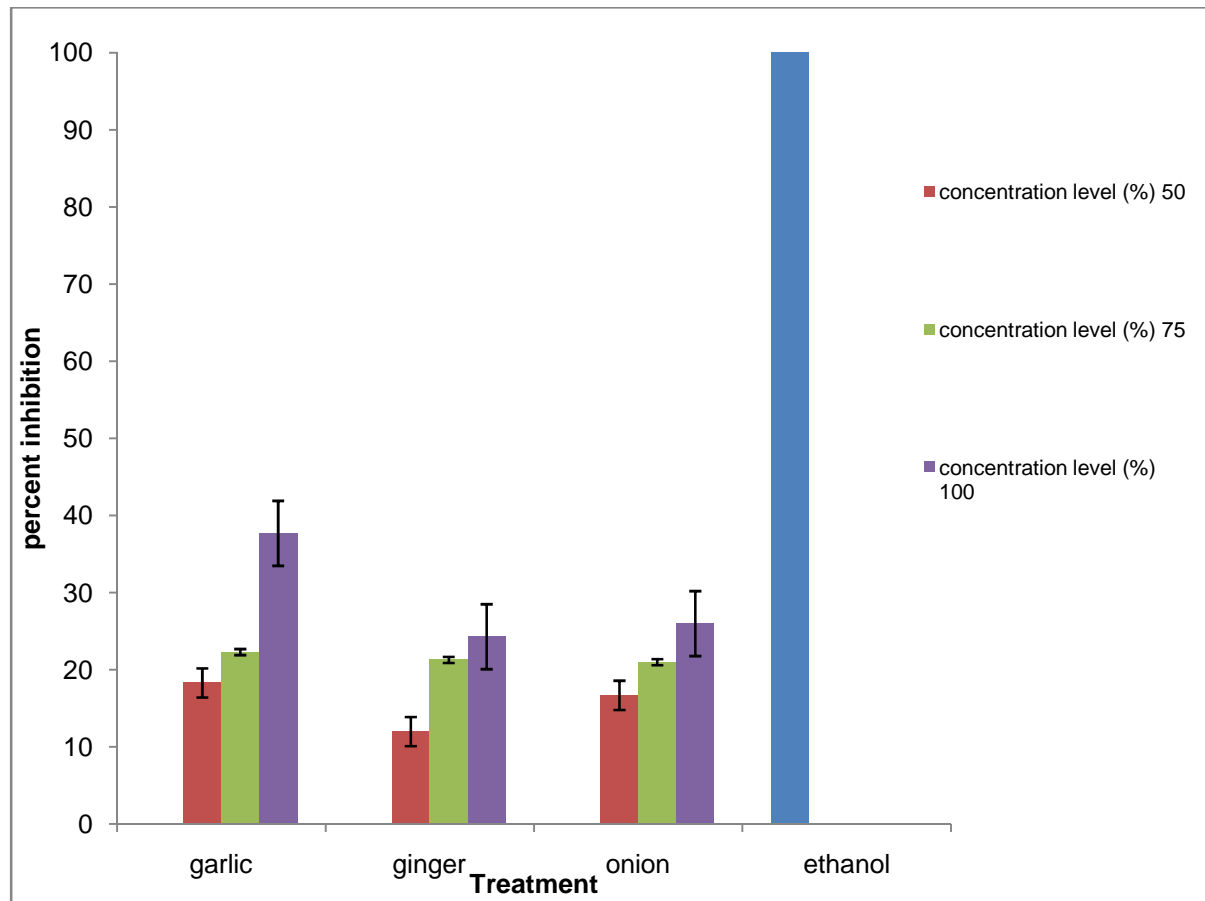


130

131 **Fig. 1.** Effects of plant extracts and different concentrations on mycelial diameter growth of *A.solani*

132 3.2 Effects of plant extracts on inhibition percentage

133 There was an interaction between plant type and concentration level on their effects on inhibition
 134 percentage. As the concentration of the plant extracts increased; the *A. solani* inhibition percentage also
 135 increased (Fig 1). Of the three plant extracts, garlic applied at 100% concentration resulted in the highest
 136 inhibition percentage followed by 100% onion although this was not significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from
 137 that of 100% ginger. Ethanol (control) recorded the highest *A. solani* inhibition percentage (100%).



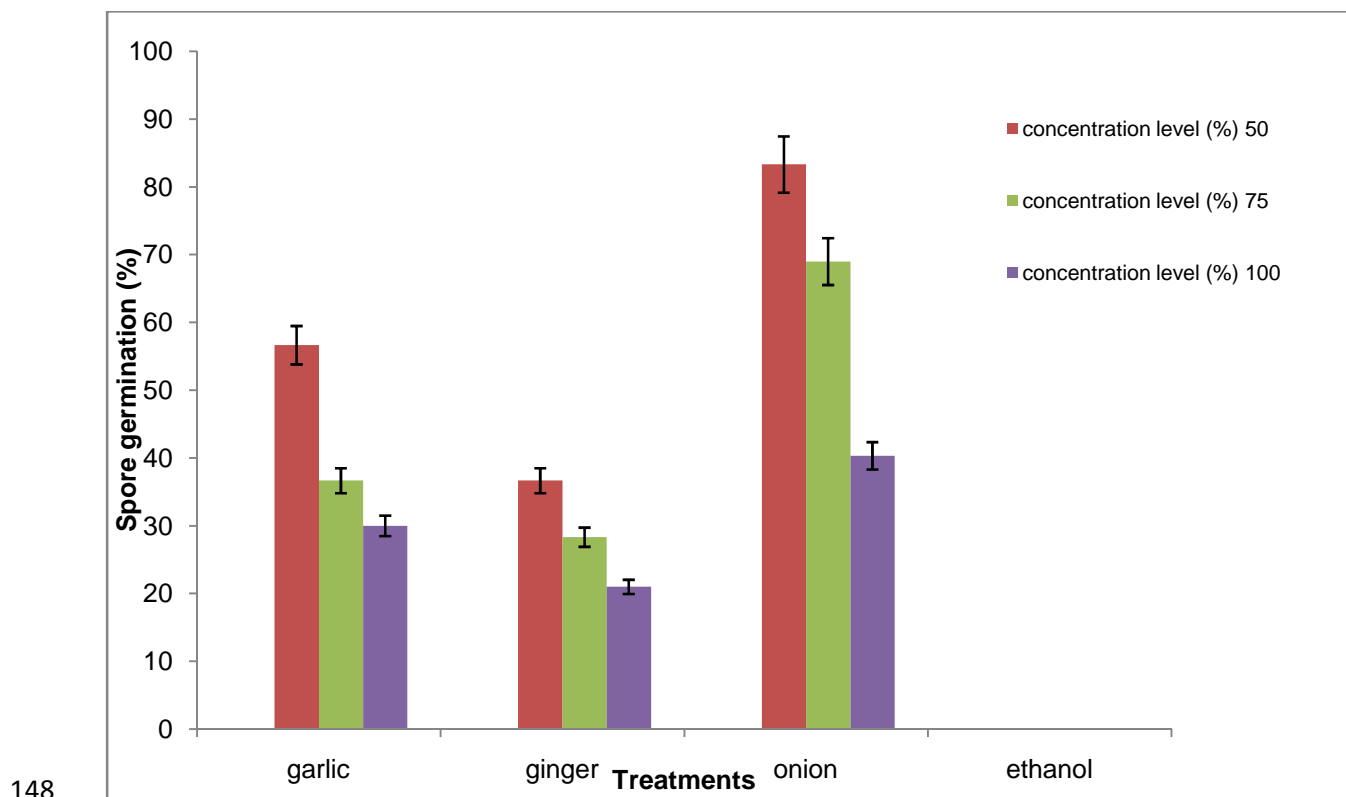
138

139

140 **Fig. 2.** Effects of plant extracts and concentrations on inhibition percentage of *A. solani*

141 3.3 Effects of plant extracts on spore germination

142 There was an interaction between plant extract type and concentration level on *A. solani* spore
 143 germination percentage. There was a reduction in spore germination percentage as concentration of the
 144 respective plant extracts increased. Results showed that ginger resulted in a significantly ($P < 0.05$)
 145 greatest reduction in spore germination percentage while onion resulted in the highest spore germination
 146 percentage under the three concentration levels (Fig 3). Where ethanol (control) was used, no spores
 147 germinated at all.



148
149 **Fig. 3.** Effects of plant extracts and concentrations on spore germination percent of *A. solani* .

150 **4.0 DISCUSSION**

151
152 The results from our study showed that the plant extracts tested (ginger, garlic and onion) have some
153 antifungal properties and have the capacity to suppress development of *A. solani*. The reduction in
154 mycelia growth increased with increase in concentration of the extracts. This is in concurrence with some
155 in-vitro action tests conveyed on some plant extracts on seed borne pathogens of wheat, for example,
156 *Aspergillus spp* [21]. Similar findings were reported by Swame and Alane, 2013 who found that at higher
157 concentrations tested, plant extracts were effective in controlling seed borne fungi of mungbean seed.
158 Tagoe *et al*, 2009 also noted the antifungal properties of garlic in inhibiting the growth
159 of *Aspergillus* species. Results of this study are also in line with those of other researchers who showed
160 that plant extracts result in inhibition of mycelial growth and these extracts include *Allium cepa* and
161 *Allium sativum* [23], *Azadirachta indica* [13], *Zinger officinale* [14].

162 Ginger had the highest antifungal activity on *A. solani* with mycelial diameter mean of (2.4cm) at 50%,
163 (2.1cm) at 75% and (1.2cm) at 100%. The strong inhibition potential of ginger is attributed to the fact that
164 it contains over 400 different compounds, a mixture of both volatile and non-volatile chemical constituents
165 such as zingerone, shogaols and gingerols, sesquiterpenoids (β -sesquiphellandrene, bisabolene and
166 farnesene) and a small monoterpenoid fraction (β -phelladrene, cineol, and citral [24].The
167 main constituents of the garlic essential oils are diallyl monosulfide, diallyl disulfide
168 (DADS), diallyl trisulfide, and diallyl tetrasulfide [25]. *Gingerols* and *shogals*, found in ginger are less
169 volatile as compared to *alliin* in garlic and onion which could have been lost through diffusion during plant
170 extracts preparation process.

171 There was an interaction between plant extract type and concentration level on spore germination
172 percentage. As plant extract concentration level increased, this resulted in a corresponding decrease in
173 spore germination percentage. Ginger at 100 % was most effective with the lowest spore germination
174 percentage of 22%. Results on the effectiveness of ginger as a bio control is in line with findings by
175 Fawzi *et al.*, 2009, who showed that plant extracts including cinnamon (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum*), laurel
176 (*Laurus nobilis*) and ginger (*Zinger officinale*) had strong antifungal activity with high inhibition on growth
177 of *Alternaria alternata* and *Fusarium oxysporum*. According to this study by Fawzi *et al.*, 2009 ginger
178 proved to be the most effective in inhibiting fungal growth, similar to our findings. Of the three extracts
179 used garlic and ginger were comparatively most effective in controlling *A. solani*. This is in line with
180 studies by Islam and Faruq, 2013, who also showed that garlic clove and ginger rhizome were effective in
181 controlling *Fusarium oxysporum* and *Scleretonium rolfsii*; fungi which cause damping off disease.
182 However on spore germination garlic across all concentrations turned to be more effective as compared
183 to onion. This is likely because garlic is known to have some added phytochemicals which inhibit spore
184 germination, [22]. These findings are in agreement with those of [27]; [28]; [29] who found the positive
185 antifungal spore germination effect of the plant extracts *A. cepa* and *A. sativum*. Garlic has also been
186 shown to effectively reduce mycelia growth of *Pythium aphanidermatum*, a causal organism of damping
187 off of chilli [30].

188 Experiment by Mohana and Raveesha 2007, confirmed the antimicrobial activity of six plant extracts
189 including sweat Basil, neem, eucalyptus, Jimson weed, oleander and garlic, against *Alternaria solani* in
190 vitro. In the study, neem and garlic were shown to be the most effective in causing highest reduction of
191 mycelia growth of *A. solani* (43.3% and 42.2% respectively). The inhibitory effects of plant extracts may
192 be due to their direct toxic effects on the pathogen or the plant extracts may induce systemic resistance in
193 host plants resulting in a reduction of the disease development [31].

194 **5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

195 From our findings it can be concluded that plant extracts onion (*Allium cepa*), ginger (*Zingiber officinale*)
196 and garlic (*Allium sativum*) can be used for biocontrol of *A. solani* since they have antifungal properties. It
197 has been demonstrated that these plant extracts extracts can effectively reduce *A. solani* mycelia growth,
198 and cause significant inhibition of fungal growth. Of the plant extracts used; ginger proved to be most
199 effective followed by garlic then onion. It can also be concluded that plant extracts may be more effective
200 in fungal growth control at high concentrations. Use of plant extracts as control method of *A. solani* can
201 contribute to minimizing risks and hazards of toxic fungicides. We recommend for further research to be
202 done on the plant extracts so as to identify the active compounds which are in the extracts as these are
203 responsible for this fungicidal activity. In addition, it is recommended that more studies be done to test
204 antifungal activities of the studied plant extracts on other different fungi, at different concentration levels.
205 Further experiments may also be done in the field to determine effects of these plant extracts in
206 controlling diseases caused by *A. solani* for example early blight.

207

208 **REFERENCES**

- 209
210 [1] Datar VV, Mayee CD. Conidial dispersal of *Alternaria solani* in tomato. *Indian Phytopathology* 35,
211 1982; 68 -70.
- 212 [2] Gudmestad NC, Arabiat S, Miller JS, Pasche JS. Prevalence and impact of SDHI fungicide resistance
213 in *Alternaria solani*. *Plant Dis.* 2013; 97:952-960.
214
- 215 [3] Kemmitt G. Early blight of potato and tomato. The Plant Health Instructor. 2002. *Updated 2013*.
216 <http://www.apsnet.org/edcenter/intropp/lessons/fungi/ascomycetes/Pages/PotatoTomato.aspx>
- 217 [4] Shahbazi H, Aminian H, Sahebani N, Halterman DA. Biochemical evaluation of resistance responses
218 of potato to different isolates of *Alternaria solani*. *Phytopathology*. 2010;100:454 - 459.
219
- 220 [5] Miles TD, Fairchild KL, Merlington A, Kirk WW, Rosenzweig N, Wharton PS. First Report of Boscalid
221 and Penthiopyrad-Resistant Isolates of *Alternaria solani* Causing Early Blight of Potato in Michigan ,
222 2013; 97 (12):1655.

- 223 [6] Geiger F, Bengtsson J, Berendse F, Weisserc WW, Emmerson M, Morales MB, Ceryngier P, Liir J,
224 Tscharrntke T, Winqvist C, Eggers S, Bommarco R, Pa"rt T, Bretagnolle V, Plantegenest M, Clement LW,
225 Dennis C, Palmer C, On"ate JJ, Guerrero I, Hawro V, Aavik T, Thies C, Flohre A, Ha"nke S, Fischer C,
226 Goedhart PW, Inchausti P. 2010 Persistent negative effects of pesticides on biodiversity and biological
227 control potentialon European farmland. Basic and Applied Ecology 2010;11:97-105.
228
- 229 [7] Lamichhane, JR, Dachbrodt-Saaydey S, Kudsk P, Messean A. Toward a reduced reliance on
230 conventional pesticides in European Agriculture. 2015; The American Phytopathological Society.
- 231 [8] Hubert J, Mabagala RB, Mamiro DP. Efficacy of Selected Plant Extracts against *Pyricularia grisea*,
232 Causal Agent of Rice Blast Disease. *American Journal of Plant Sciences* 2015; 6: 602-611.
233 <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ajps.2015.65065>
- 234 [9] Lalitha P, Sripathi SK, Jayanthi P. UV Protecting Ability of Sunscreen Lotions Prepared with Extracts
235 of *Pisonia Grandis* R.Br World Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2015; 4 (02): 324-329.
- 236 [10] Saurabh S, Seweta S, Jyotiranjana M, Richa R, Asha S. Extract Against Predominant Seed Mycoflora
237 of Mungbean *Vigna Radiata* (L.) Wilczek Seed. Life Sciences Leaflets. 2013; 51:83-89.
238
- 239 [11] Swami, CS, Alane, SK, Efficacy of Some Botanicals against Seed - Borne Fungi of Green Gram
240 (*Phaseolus Aureus* Roxb.) Bioscience Discovery, 2013; 4(1):107-110.
- 241 [12] Mossini SAG, Carla C, Kimmelmeier C. Effect of neem leaf extract and neem oil on *Penicillium*
242 growth, sporulation, morphology and ochratoxin A production. *Toxins* 1, 3-13. 2009
- 243 [13] Abd El-Ghany TM, Roushdy MM, Mohamed A. Al Abboud. Efficacy of certain plant extracts as safe
244 fungicides against phytopathogenic and mycogenic fungi. *Agricultural and Biological Sciences Journal*.
245 2015; 1 (3); 71-75
246
- 247 [14] Fawzi EM, Khalil AA, Afifi AF(2009). Antifungal effect of some plant extracts on *Alternaria alternata*
248 and *Fusarium oxysporum* African Journal of Biotechnology. 2009; 8 (11), 2590-2597.
249
- 250
- 251
- 252 [15] Benkeblia N. Antimicrobial activity of essential oil extracts of various onions (*Allium cepa*) and garlic
253 (*Allium sativum*). 2004; *LWT* 37:263-268.
- 254 [16] Mugandani R, Wuta M, Makarau A, Chipindu B, Re-Classification Of Agro-Ecological Regions of
255 Zimbabwe In Conformity with Climate Variability and Change. *African Crop Science Journal*, 2012; Vol.
256 20, Issue Supplement S2: 361 - 369
- 257 [17] Abou-Zeid AM, Mahmoud YAG. Talhi AD. Effect of Gaucho insectide on the efficacy of fungicides
258 used to control root-rot and damping-off diseases in cotton seedlings in Egypt. N. *Egypt. Microbiol.*,2004;
259 9: 1-10.
- 260 [18] Nashwa SMA, Abo-Elyousr KAM. Evaluation of various plant extracts against the early blight disease
261 of tomato plants under greenhouse and field conditions. *Plant Protect. Sci.*, 2012; 48: 74–79.
262
- 263 [19] Mohana DC, Raveesha KA. Anti-fungal evaluation of some plant extracts against some plant
264 pathogenic field and storage fungi. *Journal of Agricultural Technology* 2007; 4(1): 119-137.

- 265 [20] Singh J, Tripathi NN. Inhibition of storage fungi of blackgram (*Vigna mungo* L.) by some essential
266 oils. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal* 1999; 14: 1-4.
- 267 [21] Hasan MM, Chowdoury SP, Shahidul A, Hossain B, Alam MS. Antifungal effects of plant extracts on
268 seedborne fungi of wheat seed regarding seed germination, seedling health and vigor index. *Pakistan*
269 *Journal of Biological Sciences* 2005; 8, 1284-1289.
- 270 [22] Tagoe D, Baidoo S, Dadzie I, Kangah V, Nyarko H. A *Comparison of the Antimicrobial (Antifungal)*
271 *Properties of Garlic, Ginger and Lime on Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus niger and Cladosporium*
272 *herbarum Using Organic and Water Base Extraction Methods*. *The Internet Journal of Tropical Medicine*.
273 2009; 7(1).
- 274 [23] Gohil VP and Vala GD. Effect of extracts of some medicinal plants on the growth of *Fusarium*
275 *moniliforme*, *J. Mycol. Pl. Pathol.* 1996; 26 (1) 110- 111.
- 276 [24] Chrubasik S, Pittler MH, Roufogalis BD. *Zingiberis rhizoma*: A comprehensive review on the ginger
277 effect and efficacy profiles. *Phytomedicine*. 2005; 12(9):684-701.
- 278
- 279 [25] Casella S, Leonardi M, Melai B, Fratini F and Pistelli L. The Role of Diallyl Sulfides and Dipropyl
280 Sulfides in the In Vitro Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oil of Garlic, *Allium sativum* L., and Leek,
281 *Allium porrum* L. *Phytotherapy Research* 2013; 27(3). DOI: 10.1002/ptr.4725
- 282 [26] Islam MT, Faruq AN. Effect of some medicinal plant extracts on damping-off disease of winter
283 vegetable. *World Applied Sciences Journal*.2012; 17 (11): 1498-1503.
- 284
- 285 [27] Bashir S. Evaluation of some medicinal plant extracts against *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. and
286 *Alternaria* sp. M.Sc (Ag) Thesis, Allahabad Agriculture Institute (Deemed University), Allahabad, U.P,
287 India, 2001; 65 P.
- 288 [28] Bhat ZA, Comparative efficacy of bio-control agents, Botanical extracts and fungicide in the
289 management of chickpea wilt caused by *Fusarium oxysporum*. M. Sc. (Ag.) thesis, Allahabad Agriculture
290 Institute (Deemed University). Allahabad-211007, (U.P) India. 2002; 65pp.
- 291 [29] William Q. Least toxic controls of plant diseases. *Brooklyn Botanic garden. Natural Disease Control*.
292 2008; 11,225.
- 293
- 294 [30] Kurucheve V, Padmavathi R. Effect of seed treatment with plant products on seed germination,
295 growth and vigour of chilli seedlings (K-1). *Indian Pathology*, 1997; 50(4): 529-530.
- 296
- 297 [31] Kagale S, Marimuthu T, Thayumanavan B, Nandakumar R, Samiyappan R. Antimicrobial activity and
298 induction of systemic resistance in rice by leaf extract of *Datura metel* against *Rhizoctonia solani* and
299 *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae*. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology*. 2004; 65: 91–100.
- 300