

# A Review on New Prospects and Agitates for Passable Control of *Macrophomina Phaseolina* Disease on Mungbean (*Vigna Radiata* L. Wilzeck)

Priyanka Gupta<sup>1</sup>, Vinay Kumar<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ph.D. Research Scholar, Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Banasthali Vidyapith, Kangra, India

<sup>2</sup>Lab. Assistant, Regional Forensic Science Laboratory, Dharamshala, India

**Abstract:** Mungbean (*Vigna radiata*L.Wilzeck) is most important legume crop in world. The genus *Vigna* belongs to subfamily Papilionoidae and family Leguminosae. It is mostly grown in Asian region but its cultivation is spread to Africa and Americas in recent times. But *Vigna radiata* is consumed in sprout and dry seed form because of its high protein content. Mungbean is generally grown in arid and semiarid regions due to its rapid growth and early maturing characteristics and ability to restore the soil fertility to make it valuable crop. The main characteristic of mungbean is reducing fertilizer and providing lack of supply nitrogen fertilizer to the agriculture field improving soil structure and providing plant protein but the time of flowering and maturity is shortened under stress compared to well in water conditions. Irregular annual rainfall and lack of source management cause severe decrease in crop yield. *Macrophomina phaseolina* is a wide host range and responsible for causing losses on cultivated crop or wild crop yield. It causes decrease in stem height, root length and head weight. This pathogen infects all plant parts such as seed infection ranges from 2-16% causing 11% decrease in grain yield and 15% reduction in protein content due to this pathogen. There are number of strategies are used to reduce the number of sclerotia in soil and minimize the contact of inoculum host. Soil moisture content, Tillage, Rotation is also responsible to reduce the population of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. Various measures are used to control the infection of Charcoal rot disease. we use chemical fumigates, amendments with bio fertilizers by using biological control anatagonists, Fungicides Chemicals are also used to control the infection of fungus. Bio control approach is also help to manage the pathogen in crop plants. In Bio control measure we use medicinal plant extracts helps to reduce the growth of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. The recent studies shows that crude extract and purified isolated compounds from plants can be used to control *Macrophomina phaseolina* in our crops by different measures.

**Keywords:** *Vigna radiata*, *Ocimum sanctum*L, *Calotropis procera*L, *Astragalous tribuloides* Delile.

## 1. Introduction

Mungbean is an important pulse crop in our country. In India, mungbean cultivated in three different seasons. viz Kharif, Rabi and Summer. It is also grown in rainfed condition during kharif and residual moisture during rabi in eastern and southern part

of India. The seed rate of mungbean is 10-15 kg/ha in kharif season 20-3 kg/ha seed rate in spring season crop (Chadha, 2010). Mungbean is rich source in variety of Polyphenolic compounds, including simple phenols, Flavonoids and Tannins that is considered as natural antioxidants (Prior and Gu, 2005; Sanos Bulega and Scalbert, 2000; Amarowicz et al., 2004 and Troszunska and Cisa, 2002). But Biotic factors are responsible for losses of pulse crop up to 44%-60% (Deshkar et al., 1974; Bashir and Malik, 1988). *Macrophomina phaseolina* causing charcoal rot in mungbean to reduce the crop yield especially in arid regions (Charles 1978; Hoes., 1985).

*Macrophomina phaseolina* attacks on all parts of plant like root, stem, branches, petiole, leaves, pods and seeds. Moreover, seed infection of *Macrophomina phaseolina* ranges from 2.2-15.7% which causes 10.8% reduction in grain yield and 12.3% reduction in protein content in urdbean (Kaushik et al., 1987). In mature plants, *Macrophomina phaseolina* causes red to brown lesions on roots and stems. It produces dark mycelia and black microsclerotia and plants became defoliate and wilted (Abawl and Pastor- Corrales, 1990). *Macrophomina phaseolina* is a heat tolerant pathogen in temperature range 60-65°C (Bega and Smith, 1962; Milhail and Acron, 1984).

## 2. Economic Impact of Mungbean *Macrophomina phaseolina* Fungal Disease

Charcoal rot disease is caused by a common soil- borne fungus known at its imperfect stage as *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Whittaker., 1969), the perfect stage being *Sclerotium bataticulum* Taub.(Butl.). This fungus belongs to Botryosphaeriaceae family. It infects nearly 500 plant species in 75 families with wide geographic distribution (Dhingra and Sinclair, 1978; Bouhot, 1967, 1968 and Gray et. al, 1990; Crous et al, 2006). *Macrophomina phaseolina* causes seedling blight, stem rot and pod rot (Sinclair, 1982). It has very wide distribution covering most of the tropics, subtropics and temperate zones (Singh., 1953; Kumar et al 1969, Philip et. al., 1969; Dhingra and Sinclair, 1977; Smith and Carvil, 1977; Songa, 1995). This pathogen affects those crops, where high

temperature and water stress during the growing season (Cook et al., 1973; Meyer et al., 1974; Short et al., 1980).

#### A. Loss in Yield caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina*

Yield losses caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina* results from plant death or lodging. Lodging occurs at maturity stage that weak the stem and microsclerotia form in vascular tissues (Edmunds, 1964; Odvody and Duke, 1979). 60% yield losses due to charcoal rot (Steven et al., 1987). Annual losses of mungbean is 330-50% due to the infection of Charcoal rot (Ramazami et al., 2007; Senthil Umar et al., 2009).

The low productivity and poor quality of mungbean are attributed to several biotic and abiotic constraints of which diseases caused by fungi (Khan and Khan, 2001). Seed borne disease of many crops, inflicting upto 100% yield losses in mungbean under dry and hot conditions. *Macrophomina phaseolina* show necrotic lesions on mungbean leaves (Bouhot, 1967).

There was 9.38% losses in plant height, 26.32 % loss in number of leaves per plant, 30% loss in number of pod per plant and 40% loss in pod weight per plant (Tiwari and Kotasthane, 1986) reported 10.8% yield loss due to leaf and pod infection by *Macrophomina phaseolina* in mungbean (Kaushik et al., 1987).

### 3. Prospects and Passable Disease Management

There are number of strategies are used to reduce the number of sclerotia in soil and minimize the contact of inoculum host. Soil moisture content is responsible for heat treatment and fumigation is responsible to reduce the population of *Macrophomina phaseolina* upto 42% (Lodha et al., 2003; Dhingra and Sinclair, 1975; Watanable et al., 1970).

#### A. Physical Practices

Tillage is an essential practice that affects the inoculum potential of soil borne pathogen. Tillage reduces the stratification of organic residue on the surface that can influence soil temperature, moisture (Chambell and VanderGaag, 1993). These changes in physical and biological affects disease incidence and severity of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. If the pathogen requires high inoculum density to infect plants and they increased dispersal of soil profile to reduce disease severity. However, a low inoculum density is sufficient for infection and dispersion may aggravate incidence and severity (Olanaya and Campbell, 1988).

Irrigation in cropping season reduces disease infection (Kending et al., 2000). The type of irrigation can affect the charcoal rot disease. The density of soil sclerotia and number of diseased plants was higher in drip irrigated lots than in furrow irrigated plots (Nischwitz et al., 2004). The host plant is destroyed by fungal toxins such as phaseolinone and vascular obstruction by mycelium (Bhattacharya et al., 1994). Since the pathogen is soil borne with high saprophytic ability, effective strategies for disease control are not available.

#### B. Chemical Practices

Chemical control is good choice to control the fungal disease. This practice provide quick, effective as precautionary measure

(Sharma, 1996; Kata, 2000). Thiram and Carbendazin have been used widely for controlling Charcoal rot (Gaikwad, 2002). Tetramethyl Thiuram disulfide (Vitavax-200) is effective for *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Patil and Kamble, 2011). Out of the chemical fungicides used several pose to concern serious acquired resistance like chlonitrobenzene, Bavistin, Vitavax, Brassicola, Allisan, Topsin M (thiophanatemethyl) and Rhizolex (tolclofos-methyl) (Pande et al, 1989; Chattopadhyay et al., 1990). Herbal oils are generally used to inhibit the mycelia growth of pathogen. These oils are Panoram, Mancozeb, Calixin, Liromenzeb, Antracol and Rubigon.

Among these chemical fungicides Bavistin, Captan, Thiram, Indofol M-45, Vitavax or Raxil. Bavistin 50 WP (Carbendaziol) was most effective against *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Rathore and Rathore, 1999). Application of Bavistin and Captan is more effective fungicide to reduce the mycelial growth of *Macrophomina phaseolina* and gave complete inhibition of mycelial growth at 1000ppm concentration. Calixin and Rubigon reduced mycelial growth significantly but decrease in sclerotial production and germination was lower as compared to Panoram. Bavistin, Calixin, Antracol and Rubigon were equally effective in reducing mycelial growth. Bavistin belongs to the benzimidazol group of fungicides and gives similar mode of action (Vyas, 1984). The active ingredients are Fluquinconazole, Metalaxyl, Thiram and Tolyfluamid showed IC50 is higher than pyraclostrobin is moderately sensitive. Fluquinconazole, Metalaxyl, Thiram and Tolyfluamid are non toxic ingredients to *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Edginton et al., 1971).

Carbendazamin was found to be highly effective against *Macrophomina phaseolina* and enhanced the growth of plant to a maximum extent. Carbendazamin has great effectiveness against root rot fungus (Dubey and Singh, 2013). Carbendazamin induced systemic resistance nature in mungbean plants making them less susceptible to *Macrophomina phaseolina* due to its unique mode of action as its inhibits mitosis during cell division by interfering in spindle formation through inhibiting  $\beta$ -tubulin assembly to prevents multiplication of the pathogen (Pall et al., 1980; Khan and Gupta, 1998).

Non systemic fungicides viz., Mancozeb and Thiram inhibited the growth of root rot fungus followed by Captan (Loksha, 2003). Infection of mungbean by *Macrophomina phaseolina* exhibited significant reduction in root nodulation and corresponding nodular dry weight. Rhizobia invade and form nodules on the lateral roots. Roots of infection with *Macrophomina phaseolina* cause rotting, decay, emergence of lateral roots and nodule formation is suppressed (Khan et al., 2001). It is reported that there is a significant reduction in root nodule formation on infection by root rot fungus (Muthomi et al., 2007). So, the treatment of fungicides in the order of effectiveness of the tested fungicides were found as Carbendazamin > Captan > Thiram > Vitavax > Mancozeb.

#### C. Biological practices

The Biological approach using PGPR strain helps to develop the strategy for managing pathogens in crop plant. The

utilization of plant own defense mechanism is systematically activated on exposure of plants to PGPR strains (Baker et al., 1997). This phenomenon is called Induced Systemic Resistance (ISR) (Tuzun and Kuc, 1991).

Biological control is promoting plant growth resistance of plant pathogens by rhizospheric microorganisms. The microorganisms involve directly or indirectly effect on the pathogens. The filamentous fungus is wide spread in nature, with high population densities in soil and plant liters. They are saprophytic in nature and produce large amount of conidia with long lifetime (Manczinger et al., 2002). The uses of microbial antagonist and biological control is considered more or less successful (Gupta et al., 2002; Deshwal et al., 2003 and Adeunle et al., 2006). Biological control is an effective mean to control plant disease; cheaper, in cost and safer for application and user friendly (Abd-elMoitl., 1998).

Neem, Cotton, groundnut cakes are also reported to reduce the inoculum level of *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Desai, 1997; Hundekar, 1998). Biological control using antagonist like *Trichoderma viridae*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Streptococcus sp.* is successful to a certain extent (Ghaffar, 1971; Adhikarshmi et al., 2014).

Medicinal plant extracts are a viable alternative against many fungal phyto-pathogens (Vogt et al., 2015). Neem, cotton, groundnut and sunflower cakes are reduce the inoculum level of *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Desai et al., 1997; Hundekar et al., 1998). *Calotropis procera* extracts reported to be active against charcoal rot in Vitro condition (Jabeen et al., 2013). Plant based bioactive compounds against phytopathogenic fungi and methanol extraction is more effective than other extraction solvents. *O. gratissium* leaf extracts was more effective than *A. melegueta* (Yazdani et al., 2011).

Bioactivity of extract obtained from leaves of medicinal plant extract on growth of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. The crude leaf extract of few medicinal plants can be used as fungicides which are ecofriendly and does not show adverse effect on the fertility of soil as well as quality of seeds. The leaf extracts of neem, garlic, tulsi and onion have some fungicidal properties that inhibit the growth of the fungi (Singh et al., 2014). The crude extracts and purified isolated compounds from plants can be used as natural fungicides for the management of plant diseases (Jabeen and Javaid, 2010; Kanwal et al., 2010 and Riaz et al., 2010).

#### D. Hypersensitivity response

Hypersensitivity response is used by plants to prevent the spread of infection by microbial pathogen. It is characterized by the rapid host death cells in local region that surrounded by infection. These cells associated with defense mediated by 'Resistance genes' (Bryant and Tracy, 2008).

Hypersensitivity response involves, where genes generates an oxidative burst by producing reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as superoxide anions, Hydrogen peroxide, Hydroxyl radicals and nitrous oxide species. These cell compounds affect a cellular membrane to cause lipid damage (Mathews Ben., 2007). These compounds create a barrier to inhibit the spread of the infection (Pontier et al., 1998). Several enzymes are involved

as mediators of hypersensitive response. It involves such as Phenolics, Phytoalexins and Pathogenesis related proteins (PRP) Proteins.

## 4. Enzymes help in Plant Defense

### A. Peroxidase

Peroxidase play important role in biochemical plant defense against microbial pathogen. It involves cell wall lignifications, substrate oxidation, photosynthesis, respiration and growth regulations (Srivastava., 1982). It play important role in plant pathogen interaction and catalyzes the oxidation of hydroxyl-cinnamyl alcohol into free radical (Gross., 1980). Peroxidase is lined to lignification and generation of hydrogen peroxidase at later stage of infection to inhibit pathogen directly or generating other free radicals with antimicrobial effects to restrict the development of Phytopathogenic bacteria (Silvia et al., 2004). Peroxidase is important in PR Proteins (Vanloon et al., 1994). These proteins express peroxidase actively during host pathogen interaction (Yung et al., 1995; Saikia et al., 2004).

### B. Polyphenol oxidase

Polyphenol oxidase is a monophenol oxygenase. It is (3, 4 L-dihydroxyphenyl alanine: Oxygen oxido reductase). It is a compound that contains four atoms of copper per molecule and binding sites for two aromatic compounds and oxygen (Worthington, 2011). This enzyme catalyzes the o-hydroxylation of monophenol molecules in which benzene ring contains a single hydroxyl substituent to o-diphenols. It play important role in plant defense via the oxidation of endogenous phenolic compounds into o-quinones they are highly toxic when they invading into pathogens and pests and they increase their fungal infection (Mohammadi and Kazemi., 2002). Secondary reactions is responsible for wounding and responses to pathogens (Thipyapong et al., 2004). The accumulation of proline occur in response to biotic stresses such as pathogen infection (Slama et al., 2006).

### C. Pathogenesis related Proteins

Pathogenesis related Proteins are the proteins that are produced in plants and attack on pathogen (Loon, 1985). Infected genes produce PR proteins. Some of these proteins are antimicrobial and antifungal because of their attacking king molecule in the cell wall of fungus. Infection also stimulate the cross linking of molecules in the cell wall and the deposition of lignin and response a local barricade that slow the spread of pathogen or other parts of plant (Campbell and Reece., 2005). These proteins lead to increase the resistance of whole plant against a pathogenic attack (Adrienne and Barbara, 2006). There is large number of small, basic cysteine rich antimicrobial proteins that is produced by many organisms in throughout all plant kingdom (Leiter et al., 2000). Antifungal Pathogenesis related proteins have potential use of food and seed preservative agents to phytopathogenic fungi (Dempsey et al., 1998). There are many antifungal protein genes that seems to be more effective than expression of single gene (Bormann et al., 1999).



Pathogenesis related proteins have antifungal activity. It has the ability to hydrolyze the fungal cell wall component. They hydrolyze the  $\beta$ -1, 3 glucanases and chitinases to inhibit the growth of fungal pathogens (Loon, 1985; Campbell and Reece, 2005). These proteins help in releasing the elicitor of oligosaccharides from the cell wall of pathogens and inducing the various plants defense mechanisms. Pathogenesis related Proteins 3 is a group of endochitinase that hydrolyzes  $\beta$ -1, 4 linkages between N-acetylglucosamines of chitin and release oligosaccharides from the cellwalls of many fungi (Boller,1993).

Class 1 of Pathogenesis related proteins of chitinase. It has cysteine rich domain and has 10-15 fold of higher chitinase activity and has antifungal activity in vitro studies of *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Broglie et al., 1991).

Pathogenesis related proteins 4 are acidic protein that is bind with a chitin molecule and namely as tetrameric  $\beta$ -(1, 4) oligosaccharide of AN-Acetyl glucosaamine (Svenson and Svendsen.,1992) PR-4 protein is induced by pathogen attack as well as O<sub>3</sub> in Arabidopsis plants (Rao.,2002).These protein has two groups. They have small antifungal Hevein and Win protein from rubber. Hevein proteins is structurally similar with wheat germ agglutins, lectins and win proteins that were identified in potato PR-4 Proteins were recently found in floral nectar from fungal infestation (Gonzalez-Teuber et al., 2009). PR-12 Proteins is a type of thionins proteins. These proteins are detected after the localized fungal or bacterial infection (Pennecks et al.,1996; Thomma et al.,2002).PR-13 are thionins proteins interact with negatively charged membrane phospholipid and cause membrane disruption by forming pores. These proteins exhibit the toxicity for plant pathogen and divided into two major group  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  -thionins.

PR-14 Proteins are lipid transfer proteins and they are basic in nature. They participate in cutin formation in vivo condition and help in symbiosis and adaptation of plants to various environmental conditions. These proteins are antibiotic activity against bacterial and fungal pathogens.PR-15 Proteins are glycoproteins in nature and responsible for generation of reactive oxygen species after pathogen infection (Xvet et al., 2003).

### 5. Genetic Basis of Fungal Resistance

The immune system of plant pathogens bears the presence of highly effective system of defense response against pathogen invasion and disease. One system is based on disease resistance genes to allow detecting plant pathogen infection and mounting effective defense response. These genes were identified in 20 th century (Ellis and Jones, 1998; Ellis et al., 2000). Pathogens deploy three main strategies to attack plants: Necrotrophs, Biotrophy or Hemibiotrophy. Necrotrophs first kill host cells and then metabolize their content. Cell death is induced by toxins and enzymes targeted to specific substrates (Walton, 1996). Such as Phytiium, and Botrytis. These are fungal necrotrops.

Biotrophs and Hemibiotrophic pathogens invade the living cells to favour their growth and reproduction. Senescing of leaves in plants surrounds the biotrophic infection sites of fungal

rusts and mildews that attest to host cells such as Phytopathogenen and Colletotrichum to kill the surroundings host cell during later stage of infection.

Genetic basis of host pathogen interaction has three views:- the genes foe gene model, the matching –allele model and the quantitative view of resistance. In gene for gene model refers to a specific genetic interaction between a host and pathogen. It states R gene in the host and a virulence gene (Avr gene).R gene is host recognize Avr gene in the pathogen in host gene (Flor., 1956). There is genetic interaction between host and pathogens to assessing the gene for gene view.

In other view termed as the matching allele to explain the genetics underlying the host resistance (Frank. 1993). It predicts the parasites that attack on the same number of hosts (Parker. 1996).

Quantitative resistance does not require the presence of specific genes and combined those genes to determine the effective genes to prevent the pathogens they are affective by environmental conditions such as temperature and nutrients (Smith and Black, 1987; Field et al., 2002).

### 6. Conclusions and future prospects

Food legumes are a vital source of dietary proteins in developing world. The crop plants are frequently subjected to biotic and abiotic stresses. The present review identified that root rot caused by soil-borne pathogens to compact mungbean production. The phenolic compounds play the role of phytoanticipins in plants (VanEtten et al., 1994).The phenolic acids exhibit strong antibacterial property against Gram positive bacteria and partial inhibition of Gram negative bacteria. The Gram negative bacteria differ from Gram positive bacteria having a thick liposaccharide coated cellwall which is not permeable to polar phenolic acids to effect low mortality rates. The antifungal activity of polyphenolic compounds is thought to be the formation of multinucleate stage by the breakage of intersepta in the mycelium and the cell surface damage by pilferage (Bais et al., 2002).

Pharmacological, Pharmaceutical botany, medical and clinical microbiology, Phytopathology and food processing are some fields in which phenolic compounds can be applied. Several antimicrobial drugs are available in market, but antimycotic drugs have several limitations such as low potency, poor solubility and drug toxicity (Bisignano et al., 1999).Fungicides resistance management strategies (such as Physical, Chemical, Biological, Genetical and Enzymatical are different groups of fungicides) should be deployed and help to reduce the risk of developing fungicides. Chemical and Biological prospects used for the control of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. Peroxidase are the enzymes that are most directly involved in lignin biosynthesis that are enzymatically dehydrogenated in the cell wall to phenoxy radicals. These radicals polymerize spontaneously, yielding a complex net of cross linking among monolignols, proteins and polysaccharides (Liyama et al.,1994).Peroxidase implicate the cross linking reactions (Polle et al.,1994).

Recent studies have indicated that phenol-oxidizing enzymes may participate in response to the defence reaction and

hypersensitivity in inducing resistance of plants to biotic and abiotic stress (Jouili and El-ferjani, 2003; Jung, 2004). This review has provided an overview of the physiological, biochemical and molecular response of *Vigna* under *Macrophomina phaseolina* infection and shed light on the putative mechanisms involved in increasing tolerance to such biotic stress factors. Targeted functional studies of important genes are molecular pathways may help to unravel their biological function during the course of producing resistance plants.

### Acknowledgement

The authors acknowledge their profound gratitude to the Banasthali University, Banasthali, Rajasthan for providing the facilities for research work. We are highly indebted to this place.

### References

- [1] Chadha M.L.2010. Short duration Mungbean: A new success in South Asia. Asia-Pacific Association of Agricultural Research Institutions, *FAO Regional Office for Asia and Pacific Bangkok*. Thailand.
- [2] Prior R.L and Gu L. 2005. Occurrence and Biological significance of Pro antho cyanidins in the american diet. *Phytochemistry*. 66:2264-2280.
- [3] Santos Bulrga L and Scalbert A. 2000. Pro anthocyanidine and tannins like compounds- nature, occurrence and dietary intake and effect on nutrients and health. *Journal of Science Food and Agriculture*. 80:1094-1117.
- [4] Amaowicz R, Troszynska A, Barylopiidia N and Shahidi F. 2004. Polyphenolics extracts from legume seeds; correlations between total antioxidant activity, total phenolics content, Tannins content and astringency. *Journal of Food Lipids*. 11:278-286.
- [5] Troszynska A and Cisa F. 2002. Phenolic compounds of seed coats of white and coloured varieties of pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) and their total antioxidant activity. *Czech Journal of Food Science*. 20:15-22.
- [6] Deshkar M.V, Khare M.N and Singh L.1974.A Rhizoctonia disease for mungbean (*Phaseolus aureus* Roxb.) in Madhya Pradesh. J. N. Krishi Vishwa Vidhyalya Research Journal.3:40-43.
- [7] Bashir M and Malik B.A.1988. Diseases of major pulse crops in Pakistan-A Review Tropical Pest Management. 34(3):309-314.
- [8] Charles Y.Y. 1978. "Mungbean diseases and control," In Proceedings of the 1st International Mungbean Symposium, AVRDC.
- [9] Hoes J.A. 1985. *Macrophomina phaseolina* causal agent of charcoal rot of sunflower and other crops. *Agriculture Canadian Research Station, Modern Manitoba*.
- [10] Kaushik C.D, Chand J.N and Saryavir. 1987. Seedborne nature of *Rhizoctonia bataticola* causing leaf blight of mung bean. *Indian Journal of Mycology and Plant Pathology*. 17:154-157.
- [11] Abawl G.S and Pastor corrales M.A.1990.Root rots of bean in Latin America and Africa: diagnosis, research, methodologies and management strategies, CIAT, Cali, Colombia, 114 pp.
- [12] Bega and Smith. 1962.Time –Temperature relationships in thermal inactivation of sclerotia of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Journal of Phytopathology*. 52:632-635.
- [13] Mihail J.D and Alcorn S.M. 1984. Effects of soil solarization on *Macrophomina phaseolina* and *Sclerotium rolfsii*. *Plant Disease*. 68:156–159.
- [14] Whittaker R.H.1969. "New concepts of kingdom or organisms evolutionary relations are better represented by new classifications by the traditional two kingdom science".163:150-194.
- [15] Dhingra O.D and Sinclair J.B. 1978. An annotatal bibliography of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Brasil Universal Federal de Vicos*. 244:1905-1975.
- [16] Bouhot D. 1967. Étude du *Macrophomina phaseoli* sur arachide. *Agronomic Tropic*. 22:1165–1171.
- [17] Bouhat D. 1968. Le. *Macrophomina phaseoli* Sur les plantes cultivars au Senegal *AgricultureTropic*. 23:1172-1181.
- [18] Gray F.A, Kolp B.J, and Mohamed M.A. 1990. A disease survey of crops grown in the Bay Region of Somalia, East Africa. *FAO Plant Protection Buletin*. 38:39-47.
- [19] Crous P.W, Slipper B, Wingfield M.J, Rheeder J and Maraas WFO. 2006. Phylogenetic lineages in the *Botryosphaeriaceae* studies in Mycology. 55:235-253.
- [20] Sinclair J.B.1982. Compendium of soybean diseases 2nd edition *American phytopathology Society*. St. Paul MNP 104.
- [21] Singh D.K. 1953. Inheritance of lobed leaf margin in mungbean (*Phaseolus aureus* L.) *Current Science*. 22:348.
- [22] Kumar S.M, Khare M.N and Srivastava S. 1969. *Macrophomina* leaf spot of urad Mysore. *Journal of Agriculture Science*: 472-474.
- [23] Philip C.T, Kartha K.K, Joshi R.K and Neema K.G.1969.Rhizoctonia disease of mung (*Phaseolus aureus*) in M.P.JNKVV, *International Journal of Entomology*.3:40-43.
- [24] Dhingra O.D and Sinclair J.B. 1977. An annotatal bibliography of *Macrophomina phaseolina*.*Brasil Universal Federal de Vicos*. 244:1905-1975.
- [25] Smith and Carvill. 1977. Field screening of commercial and experimental soybean cultivars for their reaction to *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Plant Disease*. 81:363-368.
- [26] Songa W and Ronno W.K. 1995. Production constraints of Semi arid eastern Kenya with special reference to Charcoal rot. In breeding for disease resistance with emphasis on durability. Proceedings of a regional workshop for eastern and southern Africa, NJARO.Kenya.251-254 (Ed.D.L. Dania) Wagenin: Agricultural University. *Plant Breeding Department*.
- [27] Cook G.E, Boosali M.G, Dunkle L.D and Odvody G.N. 1973. Survival of *Macrophomina phaseolina* in corn and sorghum stalk residue. *Plant Disease Report*. 57:873-875.
- [28] Meyer W.A, Sinclair J.B and Khare M.M. 1974. Factors affecting charcoal rot of soyabean seedlings. *Phytopathology*. 64:845-849.
- [29] G.E and Wyllie T.D. 1978. Inoculum potential of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Phytopathology*. 68:742-746.
- [30] Edmunds L.K, Voigt R.L and Carasso F.M. 1964. Use of Arizona climate to induce charcoal rot in grain sorghum. *Plant Disease Reports*. 48:300-302.
- [31] Odvody G.N and Dunkle L.D. 1979. Charcoal stalk rot of sorghum: Effect of environment on host parasite relation. *Phytopathology*. 69:250–225.
- [32] Ramezani M, Shier W.T, Abbas H.K, Tonos J.L, Baird R.E and Sciumbato G.L. 2007. Soybean charcoal rot disease fungus *Macrophomina phaseolina* in Mississippi produces the phytotoxin(-)-botryodiplodin but no detectable phaseolinone. *Journal of Natural Products*. 70(1):128-129.
- [33] Senthilkumar M, Swarnalakshmi K, Govindasamy V, Lee Y.K and Annapurna K. 2009. Biocontrol potential of soybean bacterial endophytes against charcoal rot fungus, *Rhizoctonia bataticola*. *Current microbiology*. 58(4): 288-293.
- [34] Khan N and Khan M.R. 2001. Screening of mungbean cultivars against increasing inoculum levels of *Rhizoctonia solani*. *Test Agrochemical Cultivar*. 22: 36-37.
- [35] Bouhot D. 1967. Étude du *Macrophomina phaseoli* sur arachide. *Agronomic Tropic*. 22:1165–1171.
- [36] Tiwari and Kotasthare. 1986. Chemical control of fungal foliar diseases of mungbean. *Pesticides*. 20 (12): 47-48.
- [37] Kaushik C.D, Chand J.N and Saryavir. 1987. Seedborne nature of *Rhizoctonia bataticola* causing leaf blight of mung bean. *Indian Journal of Mycology and Plant Pathology*. 17:154-157.
- [38] Lodha S, Sharma S.K, Mathur B.K and Aggarwal R.K. 2003. Integrating sub-lethal heating with Brassica amendments and summer irrigation for control of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Plant and Soil*. 256(2):423–430.
- [39] Dhingra O.D and Sinclair J.B. 1975. Survival of *Macrophomina phaseolina* sclerotia in soil: Effect of soil moisture, carbon: nitrogen ratio, carbon sources, and nitrogen concentrations. *Phytopathology*. 65: 236–240.
- [40] Watanabe T, Smith R.S, Snyder J.R and W. C. 1970. Population of *Macrophomina phaseoli* in soil as affected by fumigation and cropping. *Phytopathology*. 60: 1717–1719.

- [41] Olanya O.M and Campbell C.L. 1988. Effects of tillage on the spatial pattern of microsclerotia of *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *Phytopathology*. 78:217-221.
- [42] Kendig S.R, Rupe J.C and Scott H.D. 2000. Effect of irrigation and soil water stress on densities of *Macrophomina phaseolina* in soil and roots of two soybean cultivars. *Plant Disease*. 84:895-900.
- [43] Nischwitz C, Olsen M and Rasmussen S. 2004. Effect of irrigation type on inoculum density of *Macrophomina phaseolina* in melon fields in Arizona. *Journal of Phytopathology*. 152:133-137.
- [44] Bhattacharya D, Dhar T.K, Siddiqui K.A.I and Ali E. 1994. Inhibition of seed germination by *Macrophomina phaseolina* is related to phaseolinone production. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology*. 77:129-133.
- [45] Sharma P.D. 1996. Plant Pathology. Rastogi Publication Meerut, India.
- [46] Kata J. 2000. Physical and Cultural methods for the management of soil borne Pathogens. *Crop Protection*. 19:725-731.
- [47] Gaikwad M.S, Gite S.B.D, Saudar N.G and Kadam P.S. 2002. Evaluation of Biocontrol against charcoal rot (*M. phaseolina*) of Sorghum Region. *Crops*. 3:454-460.
- [48] Patil V.B and Kamble S.S. 2011. The influence of ultraviolet light on antagonistic activity of *Trichoderma koningii* against *Macrophomina phaseolina* causing charcoal rot of sweet Potato. *International Journal of Academic Research*. 3(1):702-704.
- [49] Pande S.L, Mughogho N.S and Karunaar R.I. 1989. Effects of nitrogen, Plant density, moisture stress and artificial inoculation with *Macrophomina phaseolina* on Charcoal rot incidences in grain sorghum. *Journal of Phytopathology*. 126:343-352.
- [50] Chattopadhyay A. 1990. Chemistry and Biology of N-(7-Nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3 diazol -4-yl) labeled lipids: Florescent probes of biological and model membranes. *Chemistry and Physics of lipids*. 53:1-15.
- [51] Rathore B.S. and Rathore R.S. 1999. Effect of seed dressers on *Macrophomina phaseolina* root rot of mothbean. *Journal of Mycology and Plant Pathology*. 29(3):389-392.
- [52] Vyas K.M. 1984. Efficacy of *Vinca rosea* extracts against protease from human pathogenic strain of *Trichophyton rubrum* Sab. *Hindustan Antibiotics Bulletin*. 26:114-116.
- [53] Edgington L.V, Khew K.L. and Barrow G.L. 1971. Fungitoxic spectrum of benzimidazole compounds. *Journal of Phytopathology*, Saint Paul, Vol.61, 42-44.
- [54] Dubey S.C. and Singh B. 2013. Integrated management of major diseases of mungbean by seed treatment and foliar application of insecticide, fungicide and biological. *Crop Protection*. 47:55-60.
- [55] Pall B.S., Lakshmi J.P and Beohar A.B. 1990. Efficacy of fungicides for controlling *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Tassi) Goid in urdbean (*Vigna mungo* L.) *Research Development Report*. 7:213
- [56] Khan M.R. and Gupta J. 1998. Antagonistic effects of *Trichoderma* species against *Macrophomina phaseolina* on eggplant. *Journal of Plant Disease Protection*. 105: 387-393.
- [57] Lokesh N.M. 2003. Management of dry root rot of pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Tassi) God. In: Annual Meeting and Symposium on recent Developmet in the Diagonis and Management of Plant Disease for Meeting Global Challenges. *Department of Plant Pathology. University of Agriculture Sciences, Dharwad*. 24.
- [58] Khan. 2001. In Rajasthan mungbean yield optimization in mungbean through improved seed and crop management practices in arid Rajasthan. *International Journal of Agricultural Sciences*. 10:437-440.
- [59] Muthomi J.W, Otieno P.E, Cheminingwa G.N, Nderitu J.H and Wagachaja J.M. 2007. Effect of legume root rot pathogens and fungicide seed treatment on nodulation and biomass accumulation. *Journal of Biological Science*. 7:1163-1170.
- [60] Baker R. and Paulitz T.C. 1996. Theoretical basis of Microbial Interaction leading to biological control of soil borne pathogens R.Hall, ed. *American Phytopathological Society*, St.Pal MN.
- [61] Tuzun S and Kuc J. 1991. Plant immunization: An alternative to pesticides for control of plant diseases in green house and field. In Bay-Peterson, J. (Ed.), *The Biological control of plant diseases. Food and Fertilizer Technology Centre, Taiwan*. 30-40.
- [62] Maczinger L., Antal Z and Kredics L. 2002. Ecophysiology and breeding of mycoparasitic *Trichoderma* strains. *Acta Microbiologica et Immunologica Hungarica*, 49(1):1-14.
- [63] Gupta R, Gigras P, Mohapatra H, Goswami V.K and Chauhan B. 2003. Microbial alpha- amylase: A biotechnological perspective process. *Journal of Biochemistry*. 38:1599-1616.
- [64] Deshwal V.K, Dubey R.C and Maheshwari D.K. 2003. Isolation of plant growth promoting strains of *Bradyrhizobium* (*Arachis*) sp. with biocontrol potential against *Macrophomina phaseolina* causing charcoal rot of peanut. *Journal of Current Science*. 84:443-448.
- [65] Adekunle A.T., Ikotun T., Florini D.A. and Cardwell K.F. 2006. Field evaluation of selected formulations of *Trichoderma* species as seed treatment to control damping-off of cowpea cause by *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 5:419-424.
- [66] Abd-El-Moity. 1998. Evaluation of different methods used to control Potato Blight Egyptian. *Demeter new*. Special issue. 6-7.
- [67] Ghaffar A and Erwin D.C. 1969. Effect of soil water on fungi with root rot of cotton caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina*. *International Journal of Phytopathology*. 59:795-797.
- [68] Desai S.A., Malabasari T.A., Patil D.R and Jamadar M.M. 1997. Nonchemical management of charcoal rot of Rabi Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L.Moench). *Advances in Agriculture Research*. 8:147-151.
- [69] Hundekar A.R., Anahosur K.W., Patil M.S., Kalappanavar I.K and Chattannaval S.N. 1998. In Vitro evaluation of organic amendments of stalk rot of Sorghum. *Journal of Mycology and Plant Pathology*. 28(1):26-30.
- [70] Ghaffar A. 1971. Interactions of antinomycetes with *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Maubl). Ashby, the cause of root rot of cotton. *Mycopathologia and Mycologia Applications*. 44:271-276.
- [71] Adhilakshmi M, Paranidharan V, Balachandar D, Ganesamurthy K and Velazhahan R. 2014. Suppression of root rot of mung bean (*Vigna radiata* L.) by *Streptomyces* sp. is associated with induction of peroxidase and polyphenol oxidase. *Archives of Phytopathology and Plant Protection*. 47(5): 571-583.
- [72] Vogt V, Andrés J.A, Rovera M, Sabini L and Rosas S.B. 2015. Biocontrol activity of medicinal plants from Argentina. In: Plant-Growth-Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR) and Medicinal Plant (D Egamberdieva, S Srivastava, A Varma, Eds.) *Series Soil Biology, Springer Verlag*. 42:413-430.
- [73] Desai S.A, Malabasari T.A, Patil DR and Jamadar M.M. 1997. Nonchemical management of charcoal rot of Rabi Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L.Moench). *Advances in Agriculture Research*. 8:147-151.
- [74] Hundekar A.R, Anahosur K.W, Patil M.S., Kalappanavar I.K and Chattannaval S.N. 1998. In Vitro evaluation of organic amendments of stalk rot of Sorghum. *Journal of Mycology and Plant Pathology*. 28(1):26-30.
- [75] Jabeen K and Javaid A. 2010. Antifungal activity of *Syzygium cumini* against *Aschhyta rabiei*, the cause of chickpea blight. *Natural Product and Research Biology*. 24:1158-1167.
- [76] Yazdani D, Tan A.M.A, Zainal Y.H and Jaganath I.B. 2011. A review on bioactive compounds isolated from plants and against plant pathogenic fungi. *Journal of Medicinal Plant Research*. 5:6584-6589.
- [77] Singh S, Sinha A and Misra J. 2014. Evaluation of different treatment on the occurrences of seed borne fungi of Mungbean *Vigna radiata* (L.) Wilczek seed. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*. 9(44):3300-3304.
- [78] Kanwal Q.I, Hussain H.L, Siddiqui and Javaid A. 2010. Antifungal potential of flavonoids isolated from mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) leaves. *Natural Product Research*. 24:1907-1914.
- [79] Riaz T, Khan S.N and Javaid A. 2010. Management of corm-rot disease of gladiolus by plant extracts. *Natural Product Research*. 24:1131-1138.
- [80] Bryant and Tracy. 2008. Spaces of intension and the New Ethical Consumerism, *Un published manuscript*, King's College, London
- [81] Mathews, Ben. 2007. Federation Press, Annadale, N.S.W
- [82] Pontier D, Balague C. and Roby D. 1998. The hypersensitive response. A Programmed cell death associated with plant resistance compete *residue del Acadedemic des Sciences Series III. Sciences de Lavie*. 321:721-734.
- [83] Srivastava A.K and Singh N.N. 1982. Acute toxicity of Propoxur on carbohydrate metabolism of Indian cat fish (*Heteropneustas fossilis*) toxicology. *Letter*. 11:31-34.
- [84] Gross G.G. 1980. The Biochemistry of lignification. *Advancement of Botony Research* 8:25-63.
- [85] Silva C.R., Monterio M.R., *Caldeira-de-Araujo* A., Bezerra RJAC. 2004. Absence of mutagenic and cytotoxic potentiatiy of senna (*Cassia*



- angustifolia* Vahl.) evaluated by microbiological tests. *Revista Brasileira de Frumacognosia* .14:1-3.
- [86] Vanloon L.C, Piperpoint W.S, Voller T and Conejero U. 1994. Recommendations for naming plant Pathogenesis Related Proteins. *Plant Molecular Biology reporter*. 12:245-264.
- [87] Yung L.Y, Tsim S.T and Wang Y.H.1995.Stimulation of CAMP accumulation by the cloned xenopus melatonin receptor through G1 and G2 protein. *FEBS Letter*.372 (1):99-102.
- [88] Saikia R, Singh B.P., Kumar R and Arora D.2004.Detection of Pathogenesis related Proteins-chitanese and  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucanase in induced chick Pea. *Current Science*. 89(4):659-663.
- [89] Worthington. 2011. Polyphenol Oxidase. *Enzyme Manual*. Retrieved 13 September 2011.
- [90] Mohammadi and Kazimi.2002.Changes in peroxidase and polyphenol oxidase activities in susceptible and resistant wheat heads inoculated with *F.gramincarum* and induced resistance. *Plant Science*: 162:491-498.
- [91] Thipyapong P, Melkonian J Wolfe D.W., Steffens J.C.2004 (b). Suppression of Polyphenol oxidases increases stress tolerance in tomato. *Plant Sciences*.167:693-703.
- [92] Mansfield J.W.1983. Antimicrobial concept In: Callow JA, editor Biochemical plant pathology. Chichester, UK: John wiley and Sons Ltd. 237-265.
- [93] Slama I, Messidi D, Ghnaya T, Savaure A and Abdelly.2006. Effect of water deficit on growth and proline metabolism in *Sesuvium portulacastrum*. *Journal of Environmental and Experimental Botany*.56:231-238.
- [94] Loon L.C. 1985. Pathogenesis related Proteins. *Plant Molecular Biology*. 4(2-3):111-116.
- [95] Campbell N.A and Reece J.B.2005. Biology (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). San Francisco. Benjamin Cummings.
- [96] Adrienne C.S. and Barbara J.H.2006. Parallels in fungal Pathogenesis on Plant and Animal Host: *Eukaryote Cell* .5(12), 1941-1949.
- [97] Leiter M.P and Maslach C.2005. A mediation model of job burnout. In A.S.G. Antoniou and C.L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research companion to organizational health psychology*.544-564.
- [98] Dempsey D.M.A, Silva H. and Klessig D.F.1998.Engineering Disease and Pest Resistance in plants. *Trends of Microbiology*. Cheltenham, United Kingdom: Edward Elgar.6:54-61.
- [99] Bormann B. T, Martin J. R, Wagner F. H, Wood G. W, Alegria J, Cunningham P. G, Brookes, M.H, Friesman R., Berg J. Henshaw J. R. 1999. Adaptive Management In: Johnson. NC; Malik, AJ Sexton., WT Szaro R., eds. Ecological stewardship: *A common reference for ecosystem management oxford, U.K; Elsevier Science Ltd.*:505-534(3).
- [100] Boller T. 1993. Antimicrobial functions of the plant hydrolases, chitinase and  $\beta$ -1, 3-glucanase. In: *Rritig B, Legrand M (eds) Mechanisms of plant defense responses*. Kluwer, Dordrecht. 391-400.
- [101] Broglie, Chet I, Holliday M, Cressman R, Biddle P, Knowlton S, Mauvais C.J and Broglie R. 1991. Transgenic plants with enhanced resistance to the fungal pathogen *Rhizoctonia solani*. *Science*. 254(5035):1194-1197.
- [102] Svensson B and Svendsen I .1992. Primary structure of Barwin: Abarly seed Protein closely related to the C-terminal domain of Proteins encoded by wound-induced Plant genes. *Biochemistry* .31: 8767-8770.
- [103] Rao M.V, Lee H, Davis R.2002.Ozone-induced ethylene act in concert to regulate oone-induced cell death. *The Plant cell*, 32:447-456.
- [104]Gozalez- Teuber M, Sascha Eilmus, Aleander Muc, Ales Svatos and Martin Heil.2009. Pathogenesis related Proteins Protect extra floral nectar from microbial infestation. *Journal of Plant Reaserch*. 58:464-473.
- [105] Pennecks I.A, Eggermont Terra F.R.G, Thomma B.P.H, Bichlag A, Mettraux J.P and Broaeart W.F.1996. Pathogen induced activation of Plant defense gene is independent of salicylic acid. *Plant Cell*. 8:2309-2323.
- [106]Thomma B.P.H, Cammue B.P.A and Thevissen K. 2002. Plant defensins. *Planta Genetics*. 216:193:202.
- [107]Xu V,Bidney D.L, Yalpani N, Duvic J.P, Crasta O, Folker O ,Lu G.2003. Over expression of a gene encoding H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> generating oxalate-oxidase evokes defense responses in sunflower. *Plant physiology*. 133:170-181.
- [108]Ellis J and Jones D.1998.Structure and function of proteins controlling strain-specific pathogen resistance in plants. *Current Opinion of Plant Biology*. 1:288-293.
- [109]Ellis J, Dodds P, Pryor T. 2000.Structure, function and evolution of Plant disease resistance genes. *Current Opinion of Plant Biology*. 3:278-284.
- [110]Walton J.D.1996. *Plant Cell*. 8:1723-1733.
- [111]Flor H.H.1956. The complementary gene and systems in flax and flax rust. *Advancement of Genetics*. 29-54.
- [112]Frank S.A.1993. Specificity is detectable polymorphism in host-parasite genetics. *Proceedings of Royal Society of London*.25, 191-197, <http://stevenfran.org.reprints.html>.
- [113]Parker M.A.1996. The nature of Plant parasite specificity. *Evolution of Environment*. 10:319-322.
- [114]Smith B.J and Black L.L.1987. Resistance of strawberry plants to *Collectotrichum fragaria* affected by environmental condition. *Plant disease*. 71, 834-836.
- [115]Field C.J.2002. Nutrients and their role in host resistance to infection. *Journal of Leukocyte Biology*. 71:16-32.
- [116]Vanettam H.D, Sandrock R.W, Wasmann C.C, Soby S.D, McCluskey M and Wang P. 1995.Detoxification of Phytoanticipients and Phytoaleins by Phyto Pathogenic fungi. *Canadian Journal of Botany*. 73:518-525.
- [117]Bais H.P, Walker T.S, Stwemitz RA, Vivanco, Enantiomeric dependent phytotoxic and antimicrobial activity of + catechin; a rhizosecreted racemic mixture from *Centaurea maculosa*, *Plant Physiology*.128(2002) 1173-1179.
- [118]Bisignano G.A, TomainoR.L.O Cascio G, Crisafi N. Uccella and A.Saijia.1999.On the invitro antimicrobial activity of oleuropein and hydroxytyrosol.*J.Pharm.Pharmacol*.51; 971-974.
- [119]Liyama K, Lam TBT, Meikle PJ, Ng, K, Rhodes D, Stone BA.1993.Cell wall biosynthesis and its regulation. In H JunG, D Buxton, R Hatfield, J Ralph, eds, Forage cell wall structure and digestibility. American society of Agronomy, Madison, WL, pp 621-683.
- [120]Polle A, Otter T, Seifert F. 1994.Apoplastic peroxidases and lignification in needles of Norway spruce (*Picea abies* L.).*Plant Physiology*. 106, 53-60.
- [121]Jouili H, El Ferjani E.2003.Changes in antioxidant and lignifying enzyme activities in sun flower roots (*Helianthus annus* L.) stressed with copper excess. *Comptes Rendus Biologies* 326, 639-644.
- [122]Jung S.2004. Variation in antioxidant metabolism of young and mature leaves of *Arabidopsis thaliana* subjected to drought. *Plant Science*.166, 459-466.