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1 **Brown rot on stone fruit: from epidemiology studies to the development**
2 **of effective control strategies**

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14 **Highlights**

- 15 - Brown rot is highly affected by abiotic factors, mainly related to the climatology
16 of each production area, and consequently, the disease behaviour can slightly
17 change.
- 18 - The risk of postharvest contamination of healthy fruit by *Monilinia* spp. conidia
19 is generally low.
- 20 - The combined treatment based on dipping fruit at 60 °C for 40 s plus the
21 application of the antagonist CPA-8 (*Bacillus amyloliquefaciones*) at 107 cfu/mL

22 showed a synergistic effect to control brown rot in comparison with each
23 treatment alone.

24 - Curing treatment at 50 °C for 2 h and 95–99% RH effectively controlled brown
25 rot caused by *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* on peaches and nectarines.

26 - It is essential to integrate all the generated knowledge to design sustainable control
27 strategies to control brown rot and obtain competitive, sustainable, healthy, and
28 high-quality fruit.

29 **Abstract**

30 In the last years, our research has focused on the study of brown rot on stone fruit caused
31 by *Monilinia* spp. in the ‘Valle del Ebro’ (Spain). The epidemiology of this disease was
32 thoroughly investigated in the field and one of the main outcomes was the development
33 of a prediction model that indicates the risk of infection. Furthermore, the epidemiology
34 was also studied in the postharvest phase, providing a lot of information regarding the
35 relevance of the main postharvest handling operations, the identification of fungal
36 population in packing houses, the fruit infection risks and the influence of temperature
37 and humidity on conidia survival.

38 Additionally, many efforts have been oriented to the development of control strategies
39 for both pre and postharvest periods. Traditionally, chemical fungicides have been used
40 to preserve fruit quality over extended periods of storage or transportation. However, the
41 growing public concern over health and environmental hazards associated with high
42 levels of pesticides has resulted in restrictions imposed by legislation and also by
43 distribution companies. In this context, our main goal has been the development of
44 environmentally friendly alternative strategies to synthetic fungicides in order to control
45 brown rot on stone fruit. Although many studies have demonstrated the efficacy of these
46 alternative treatments, only a few of them are currently applied under commercial

47 conditions. Biocontrol agents, natural compounds from different origins and physical
48 means are the main approaches which have been studied, with different success levels.
49 There are several reasons for the limited success of these treatments, such as the
50 inconsistency of results, variability of the efficacy under commercial conditions, low
51 persistence, a narrow spectrum range of activity, the difficulties in developing a shelf-
52 stable formulated product that retains efficacy (in the case of biocontrol agents), and
53 economical and regulatory limitations. Generally, it is accepted that the combination of
54 different strategies is necessary to improve the control of postharvest diseases and that
55 the real solution needs to integrate different tools to achieve satisfactory disease control.
56 The aim of this review is to describe the main efforts conducted by our research group
57 regarding the control of brown rot on stone fruit, from epidemiology studies to the
58 development of effective control strategies.

59 **Keywords**

60 *Monilinia* spp., epidemiology, preharvest, postharvest, alternative treatments, stone fruit

61 **1. Introduction**

62 Peaches and nectarines are included on the list of the most produced fruits in Europe.
63 France, Spain, Italy, and Greece are the main producers with 2.03, 1.54, 1.2 and 0.92
64 million tons, respectively (FAOSTAT, 2021). These fruits are well accepted by
65 consumers because of their high nutritional value and wonderful taste. However, they are
66 perishable products susceptible to pathogen attack in the field, but mostly during
67 postharvest, storage, transportation, and the market. In Spain, the main causal agents of
68 fungal disease on stone fruit are *Monilinia*, firstly the species *M. laxa* (Aderh. & Ruhland)
69 Honey and *M. fructigena* (Aderh. & Ruhland) Honey (De Cal and Melgarejo, 1992), and
70 later the species *M. fructicola* (G. Wint.) Honey (De Cal et al., 2009), all of them causing

71 agents of the disease called brown rot. Moreover, other fungal pathogens, such as
72 *Rhizopus stolonifer* (Ehrenb.:Fr.), *Geotrichum candidum* Link and *Penicillium expansum*
73 Link, have also been reported as causal agents of minor postharvest diseases on stone
74 fruit (Mari et al., 2004; Yaghmour et al., 2012).

75 It is important to note that *Monilinia* spp. infect fruit in the field and losses can occur
76 there, but disease symptoms mainly appear in postharvest in the packing house where
77 losses can be as high as 80 % (Larena et al., 2005). In this context, the control of *Monilinia*
78 spp. must be undertaken, firstly, in the orchard. Currently, the control of *Monilinia* spp.
79 on stone fruit is based on a program of chemical fungicide applications in the field,
80 complemented, in some countries, with fungicide applications at postharvest. This
81 conventional fruit production is unsustainable and could be greatly improved using tools
82 such as: 1) a warning system to detect the most efficient moment to apply fungicides
83 (Holb, 2013), 2) cultural practices applied in the field to reduce the inoculum pressure
84 and 3), the use of alternative strategies to chemical fungicides both in the field and at
85 postharvest (Casals et al., 2021a; Usall et al., 2015). It will be essential in the near future
86 to go deep into these issues to observe legislation and enforce the requirements for fruit
87 production for consumer and distribution chains. The present review describes the most
88 recent knowledge for improving the control of brown rot in the field and at postharvest,
89 in an attempt to achieve more sustainable fruit production based on observing the current
90 legislation requirements, but also those that will be imposed in the coming years.

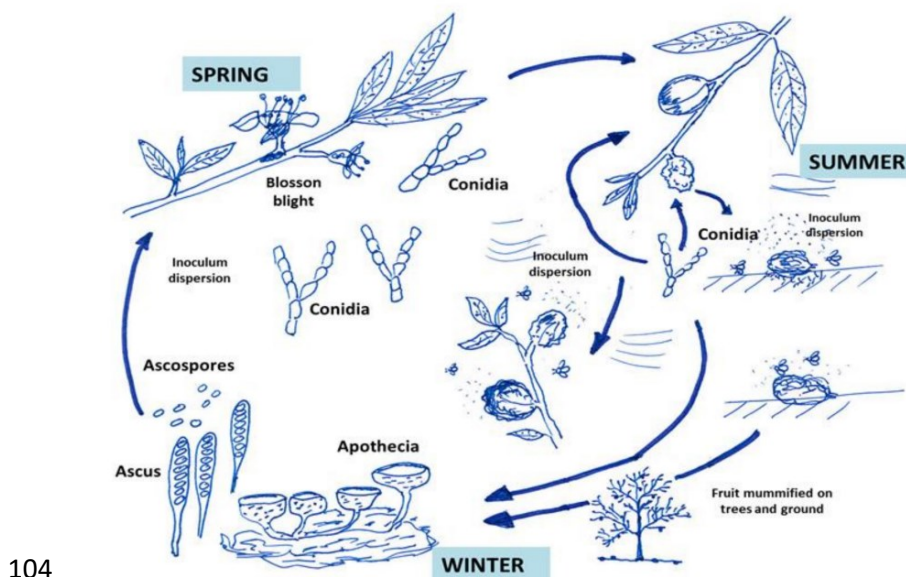
91 **2. Understanding the disease for sustainable control**

92 In the framework of sustainable control strategies for diseases in general, and specifically
93 for brown rot, estimating the possible risk of infections is essential. Insights regarding the
94 epidemiology of brown rot in the field and in postharvest are essential to understanding

95 the disease in each climatic area of stone fruit production. This knowledge is fundamental
96 to designing the most sustainable control strategies for managing the disease.

97 *Epidemiology in the field*

98 In 1977, Byrde and Willetts already reported that brown rot in peaches can be caused by
99 any of the three previously mentioned *Monilinia* spp. (Willetts et al., 1977). They
100 described two infection phases: the blossom blight phase in spring and the fruit rot phase
101 in summer (Figure 1)(Obi et al., 2018). However, the behaviour of the diseases is highly
102 affected by abiotic factors, mainly related to the climatology of each production area, and
103 consequently, the disease behaviour can slightly change.



104
105 Figure 1. Brown rot cycle (Obi et al., 2018).

106 *Monilinia* spp. have been thoroughly studied in the climatological conditions of the Ebro
107 Valley over the last 15 years. Our studies have demonstrated that overwintered *Monilinia*
108 spp. on mummified fruit together with inoculum from necrotic twigs, act as the main
109 source of primary inoculum. For mummified fruit, Casals et al. (2015) elucidated that
110 conidia on ground mummies had less viability through time in the following growing

111 season in comparison with tree mummies, although both can act as a source of inoculum
112 for primary infection on flowers, or later on fruit (Casals et al., 2015). Besides this, studies
113 from Villarino et al. (2010) demonstrated the existence of a positive relationship between
114 mummified fruit and the incidence of brown rot in postharvest (Villarino et al., 2010).

115 When climatic conditions are favourable, conidia sporulation occurs on the overwintered
116 infected tissues by *Monilinia* spp., and then the dispersion of conidia can occur through
117 microorganisms, wind, water, insects, birds, and man. Then, the relationship between the
118 number of airborne conidia of *Monilinia* spp. and the presence of overwintered infected
119 tissues (mummified fruit and pruned branches) on the floor orchards in Ebro Valley was
120 reported (Villarino et al., 2010). According to Figure 1 (brown rot disease cycle), sexual
121 spores (ascospores) of *Monilinia* spp. (mainly *M. fructicola*) produced on ground
122 mummified fruit can also be an occasional source of inoculum (Holtz et al., 1998).

123 However, in Spanish orchards, apothecial were not found, reducing the sources of primary
124 inoculum (Villarino et al., 2010).

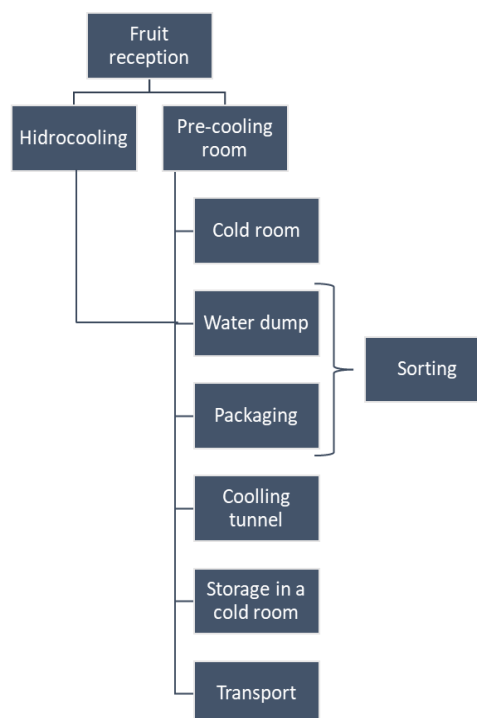
125 Thus, these new generated conidia on overwintered infected tissues, that are dispersed in
126 the orchards by different means, will be the responsibility of the secondary inoculum,
127 infecting flowers and fruit. The number of infection cycles depends on several factors,
128 mainly related to the weather conditions. Accordingly, an *in vitro* study demonstrated that
129 the germination of *Monilinia* spp. conidia was markedly influenced by water activity and
130 temperature, requirements that will also take place under natural conditions (Casals et al.,
131 2010e). Conidia on flowers or on fruit will infect if the required climatological conditions
132 occur. In this sense, short wetness durations in the range 2-6 h at 15 or 20 °C is sufficient
133 for infection of immature or ripe peaches and nectarines (Kreidl et al., 2015). Once the
134 infection has occurred, the disease development can be stopped if there is a lack of
135 nutrients, unfavourable climatic conditions, or chemical compounds in fruit that inhibit

136 the disease. The number of conidia of *Monilinia* spp. dispersed on the fruit surface also
137 had a significant positive correlation with the incidence of latent infections (Gell et al.,
138 2008). Furthermore, it has also been demonstrated that an average of 5-17 % of latent
139 infections at preharvest implied more than 55 % of fruit with brown rot at postharvest
140 (Villarino et al., 2012).

141 All the information related to the epidemiology of *Monilinia* spp. in Ebro Valley has been
142 used by IRTA, INIA and UdL to develop a warning system (unpublished). Its
143 implementation under commercial conditions has had several positive implications on
144 stone fruit production, such as: i) a reduction of the number of chemical applications in
145 the field; ii) the optimization of the treatments applied; and iii) a decrease in the residue
146 level on the fruit surface, without affecting the control of *Monilinia* spp. Our warning
147 system depends on 4 factors: 1) the presence of *Monilinia* spp. inoculum in the field, 2)
148 rainfall, 3) period of leaf wetness, and finally 4) temperature.

149 *Epidemiology in postharvest*

150 When fruit is transported from the orchard to the packing house, the main objective is
151 maintaining the fruit quality and extending its shelf life as much as possible. Fruit in
152 packing houses could already be contaminated or even infected by conidia on their fruit
153 surface, without visible symptoms. Then, different scenarios can occur: (i) healthy fruit
154 (without conidia either on surfaces or infected), (ii) fruit with the presence of conidia on
155 its surface (an interaction between fruit-conidia has not been established), so fruit is
156 contaminated but not infected, and (iii) fruit already infected with *Monilinia* spp. conidia
157 both with and without visible symptoms (Bernat et al., 2019a). In all of the conditions,
158 fruit at postharvest will be submitted to different processes, including fruit reception,
159 sorting, cooling tunnel, cold storage, and transport (Figure 2).



160

161 Figure 2. Diagram of a typical postharvest handling operation of peaches and nectarines
162 in a packing house.

163

164 Basic knowledge on these processes in *Monilinia* spp. development on peaches and
165 nectarines was provided (Bernat et al., 2017a). It was concluded that as a general trend,
166 hydrocooling and water dump reduced the incidence of brown rot in fruit with recent
167 infections (2 or 24 h before operation), however, when infections had been produced 48
168 h before operation, disease was not reduced.

169 For fruit that arrives at packing houses healthy, it will be fundamental to avoid
170 contamination during the postharvest period. In a cold room, healthy fruit can be
171 contaminated by direct contact with a decayed fruit or by airborne conidia deposited on
172 fruit (Dutot et al., 2013). In this sense, the knowledge related to the fungal population in
173 packing houses both in the environment and on inert surfaces is essential. Bernat et al.
174 (2017) sampled environments, surfaces of floors, walls, containers, and lines, all in dirty
175 and clean zones (Bernat et al., 2017b). The main genera identified were *Penicillium* spp.,
176 *Cladosporium* spp. and *Rhizopus* spp. However, *Monilinia* spp. was rarely detected,
177 indicating a low risk of fruit infection in packing houses by this pathogen, and suggesting
178 that most infected fruit in packing houses comes from the orchards. Regarding *Penicillium*
179 spp., it was reported that it can cause significant losses on wounded prunes (Wells et al.,
180 1994), and also on commercial nectarine and plum (Pitt and Hocking, 2009). For
181 *Rhizopus* spp., which was highly detected, it has been described as an unpredictable
182 variable accounting for heavy losses and sometimes destroying entire shipments in severe
183 cases (Taheri et al., 2018).

184 In the case for *Monilinia* spp. conidia found in packing houses, its risk for fruit infection
185 was determined by evaluating the conidia viability when located on different surfaces of
186 the packing houses (floors, packages, equipment, conveyor belts...). Results indicated
187 that the viability of these conidia is lower than 24 h at temperatures of 20 °C or 30 °C
188 (Bernat et al., 2018). Based on all these results it can be concluded that the risk of

189 contamination of healthy fruit by *Monilinia* spp. conidia may be low. Nevertheless,
190 optimal and rigorous measures of prophylaxis in packing houses will still be essential to
191 reduce the infection risk of other pathogens that also affect stone fruit.

192 Fruit with the presence of conidia on its surface, but without infection, has a real risk of
193 finally being infected and consequently developing the disease. The most common
194 handling operations in packing houses are storing fruit for 1 day in the cold room or
195 dumping fruit in a water tank. It has demonstrated that conidia of *Monilinia* spp. on the
196 surface of stored fruit in cold rooms do not suppose a risk of infection and therefore,
197 brown rot symptoms are not developed (Bernat et al., 2019a). However, whether fruit is
198 stored in a cold room and then immersed in a dump tank, or directly immersed in a dump
199 tank, optimal conditions are provided for both infection and developing previous
200 infections (Bernat et al., 2019b, 2017c; Xu and Robinson, 2000). They also indicated that
201 water dump conditions favour the germination of *Monilinia* spp. and the following
202 infection, because of the high relative humidity that remains on the fruit.

203 Finally, for fruit that arrives at postharvest already infected by *Monilinia* spp., the rates
204 of decay and mycelium development increase with temperature from 0 °C to 25 °C (Bernat
205 et al., 2018). Considering that the temperature of harvested peaches and nectarines in
206 Lleida in the field can reach 30 °C, it will be essential to remove this heat as quickly as
207 possible in order to slow down the metabolism and reduce fruit deterioration including
208 physiological and pathological issues (Bernat et al., 2018). This process of cooling down
209 is mainly conducted by using hydro-cooling equipment or a pre-cooling room. In this
210 context, it is important to highlight that when storing fruit already infected in the field at
211 0-0.5 °C, the conidia germination will be slowed, but not stopped (Casals et al., 2010e).

212 Conidia coming from fields, produced in chambers due to the development of latent
213 infections or recent infections, can lead to secondary infections increasing the

214 contamination inside of packing houses. Then, measures adopted to reduce the level of
215 inoculum on fruit surfaces but also in different zones in packing houses, together with
216 adopting the optimal measures for prophylaxis and fruit management, will contribute to
217 reducing the disease.

218 **3. Sustainable control of *Monilinia* spp.**

219 At present, the most common strategy is based on the use of chemicals applied by
220 calendar and, specifically in the Ebro Valley, the applications start from 45 days before
221 harvest (Casals et al., 2021b). Currently, there is a wide range of chemical active
222 ingredients available worldwide which are applied in the field to control brown rot. These
223 include boscalida, cyprodinil, diphenconazole, fenbuconazole, fenparazamine,
224 fhenexamide, fludioxonil, fluopyram, pyraclostrobine, tebuconazole, etc. At this point, it
225 is important to note that some of these active ingredients are recognized as a reduced risk
226 fungicide, because they are characterised by a minimal impact on the environment, high
227 specificity to target organisms, low potential for groundwater contamination, and minimal
228 human health risk from their residues. In any case, the authorization of these fungicide
229 applications in the field, doses, security period and number of treatments for each active
230 ingredient depend on each country. Mostly, they are used to control brown rot, and
231 moreover, some of them have already shown to be effective for controlling *Rhizopus* spp.
232 Additionally, during the postharvest period, the application of chemical treatments can
233 also be used, since it is authorised in some European countries (Di Francesco et al., 2017).
234 These postharvest treatments are advised as complementary to the field strategy for only
235 mid-late varieties, or in the event of adverse meteorological conditions (Casals et al.,
236 2021b).

237 However, this way of plant protection must start to change because of different issues: i)
238 social pressure made by consumer demands for environmentally friendly fruit production

239 that has dramatically increased in recent years, ii) stricter legislation on authorised
240 chemical active ingredients, and the allowable level of chemical residues on fruit, and iii)
241 the risk of these pesticides for developing resistant strains. In addition, the new European
242 plant health regulation (EU 2016/2031), that aims to strengthen compliance with health
243 and safety standards throughout the agri-food chain, has highlighted the use of safer
244 products for consumers in the end results. And, recently, in the framework of the
245 European Green Deal, the “farm to fork” strategy, which aims to accelerate the transition
246 to a sustainable food system, considers the reduction of 50 % of pesticides (use and risk)
247 and at least an increment of 25 % of the agricultural land under organic farming, in 2030.
248 Obviously, the latter gives even more meaning to the different approaches for controlling
249 brown rot described in the following parts of this review.

250 ***3.1. Control strategies addressed in the field***

251 In the field, alternative strategies to the chemicals used for controlling brown rot, are
252 mainly focused on the use of biological control agents (BCA). In this sense, it was
253 demonstrated that a field **calendar** strategy based on the use of BCA formulated products
254 (*Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*-CPA-8 or *Penicillium frequentans*-Pf909) effectively
255 controlled brown rot in most cases (Casals et al., 2021a). However, their efficacy clearly
256 depended on the disease pressure in the field. In this study, authors pointed out the need
257 for tools such as warning systems for the prediction of infection risks to obtain basic
258 information regarding the expected disease pressure in each orchard, and then the best
259 control strategy could be decided. The decision support systems could also be
260 implemented in the framework of fungicide rationalization, to minimize the number of
261 applications in comparison with strategies based on a spray schedule. It is another way to
262 meet the societal and legislative demands.

263 The lack of the BCAs' efficacy under some circumstances can also be overcome by their
264 integration with chemical treatments. Currently, little information is available regarding
265 the integration of BCAs into conventional cropping systems. Data reported by Curtis
266 (2019) showed that BCAs integrated with chemicals to control brown rot on stone fruit
267 dramatically reduced, even to zero, the level of chemical residues in derived juices (De
268 Curtis et al., 2019). This approach for controlling the disease must contemplate that the
269 conventional crop production management could affect the BCAs' viability or efficacy.
270 Therefore, it is essential that the BCAs must be compatible with the pesticides commonly
271 used in field management. This issue was studied on the BCAs CPA-8 and pf99, which
272 were found to be compatible with the majority of chemical products that are applied to
273 stone fruit orchards under conventional production strategies (Gujarro et al., 2019). This
274 information is important to widen their application spectrum. Currently, only three BCA
275 products based on *Bacillus subtilis*, *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* and *Saccharomyces*
276 *cerevisiae* are authorized in some countries for their field applications to control brown
277 rot on stone fruit. Finally, it is important to highlight the registration of BCAs as another
278 major obstacle. The registration process requires a large number of studies concerning
279 human and environmental safety, basic toxicological tests, and an effective evaluation,
280 including semi-commercial validations (Droby et al., 2009).

281 On the path to controlling brown rot in more sustainable stone fruit production, the
282 integration of all available tools will be the key to a successful result. Therefore, cultural
283 practices must be valued and integrated as long as they are economically viable:

284 - *Removing inoculum from the field.* The elimination of all diseased parts (mummies,
285 shoots, branches, fruit) that are sources of primary and secondary inoculum will be
286 essential to reducing inoculum density, especially mummies and brown rotted fruit found
287 in trees (Villarino et al., 2010). It has to be noted that in production areas where the sexual

288 form of *M. fructicola* occurs, mummies located on the ground will favour apothecia
289 formation, and they should also be removed. These practices must be conducted at the
290 beginning of the season for the primary inoculum removal, and 10-15 days before harvest
291 for decayed fruit removal, when fruit is more susceptible to infection and disease
292 development, thereby preventing the dissemination of conidia to healthy fruit.

293 - *Microclimate management*. Another cultural practice to apply in the field is maintaining
294 an optimum microclimate by pruning trees and achieving higher insolation and
295 ventilation, and so avoiding humid conditions that favour *Monilinia* spp. and other fungi
296 development (Michailides and Morgan, 1997).

297 - *Nutritional elements*. Cultural practices in the field also include the provision of
298 nutritional elements needed by the crop. In this sense, it has been demonstrated that
299 applications of chemical elements, such as silica or calcium, have an effect in reducing
300 brown rot. In fact, the incidence of fruit affected by *Monilinia* spp. is significantly reduced
301 after the applications of 6 preharvest foliar treatments of Calcium, and this practice is
302 adopted by stone fruit growers in New Zealand (Elmer et al., 2007).

303 - *Fruit management*. The use of clean boxes, avoiding the exposure of fruit to insolation,
304 and caring for handled fruit to minimize injuries during harvest and transportation, are
305 some practices that will certainly reduce the incidence of disease during postharvest.

306 ***3.2. Control strategies addressed in postharvest***

307 In the European Union, chemical postharvest treatments have been forbidden for many
308 years. In 2012, fludioxonil started to be commercialized in Spain to be applied in the
309 postharvest of stone fruit to control *Monilinia* spp. as an exceptional authorization, and
310 in 2015 this active ingredient was registered as it continues to be, together with
311 pirymetamil. Before that, as no strategies were available to **apply in postharvest, and**

312 **control brown rot on stone fruit**, postharvest pathologist researchers had focused deeply
313 on developing efficient and alternative strategies. Then, the interest in this issue was
314 slightly reduced, since there was an efficient solution to control brown rot at postharvest.
315 However, in 2021, interest has drastically increased again, because of the reason already
316 described in this review, mainly related to achieving sustainable stone fruit production in
317 the framework of the European Green Deal and the need to mitigate climate change.

318 Alternative postharvest strategies to control *Monilinia* spp. have been numbered and
319 thoroughly described by Usall et al., giving relevance to: 1) Susceptibility of varieties; 2)
320 Food additives (organic and inorganic salts); 3) Natural compounds; 4) Biological
321 control; 5) Physical treatments; 6) Inductions of resistance; and 7) Integrated approaches
322 (Usall et al., 2015). In this review, we will focus on physical treatments, and specifically,
323 on heat strategies, which are recognized as effective methods for controlling postharvest
324 diseases by direct pathogen inhibition, and by stimulating the host defence mechanism.

325 *Hot water treatment*

326 Hot water treatment (HWT) is the most studied heat treatment for the control of fruit
327 diseases and is classified as a non-sophisticated strategy. It is based on fruit immersion in
328 previously heated water for an exposure time. This technique is completely safe for
329 humans and the environment (residue-free and environment-friendly) and has a feasible
330 use without registration rules. Likewise, these treatments are easily adaptable to the
331 packing houses that allow their application on just-harvested fruit, and they are currently
332 commercially applied in some countries such as Italy. For these reasons, HWT appears
333 to be especially recommended for organic crops or to comply with the strict regulations
334 of markets and legislations that require minimal or no chemical postharvest treatment on
335 commodities.

336 Many factors can influence the effect of HWT, such as the commodity (cultivars, size,
337 shape, thermal conductivity of tissue, maturity at harvest), the aimed pathogen (species,
338 location on or within the host) and the treatment conditions (temperature, fruit exposition
339 and, quantity of product treated). Consequently, it will be fundamental to achieve the
340 proper treatment conditions in each case. Taking into account all the commodities where
341 the HWT has been studied, the temperature ranged between 46 and 64 °C and exposure
342 time between 15 seconds and 30 min (Usall et al., 2016). Table 1 lists the most relevant
343 works published on the effective conditions to control postharvest disease in stone fruit.
344 Most of them identify 60 °C as the optimum temperature to control brown rot without
345 affecting fruit quality. Some of these studies combined HWT with other alternative
346 strategies such as low toxicity chemical products, natural extracts, or BCAs. In our work,
347 the combined treatment based on dipping fruit at 60 °C for 40 s plus the application of the
348 antagonist CPA-8 (*Bacillus amyloliquefaciones*) at 10⁷ cfu/mL showed a synergy effect
349 to control the disease in comparison with when treatments were applied separately (Casals
350 et al., 2010c). Thus, combining treatments with different modes of action becomes the
351 most effective strategy.

352 Table 1. Hot water treatments for postharvest disease control in stone fruit.

Source	Commodity	Pathogen target	HWT*	Product added to water solution
(Wells, 1970)	Plum Peach Nectarine	<i>Monilinia</i> spp. <i>Rhizopus</i> spp.	51.5 °C for 1.5 min	2,6-dichloro-4-nitroaniline 225 ppm
(Karabulut et al., 2004)	Sweet Cherry	<i>Penicillium expansum</i> <i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	60 °C for 30 s	Ethanol (10 %)
(Mari et al., 2004)	Peach Nectarine	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	60 °C for 20 s	Sodium bicarbonate (1 %)
(Casals et al., 2010c)	Peach Nectarine	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	60 °C for 40 s	Sodium bicarbonate (2 %) <i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i> CPA-8 (10 cfu/mL)
(Karabulut et al., 2010)	Plum	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	60 °C for 60 s	
(Sisquella et al., 2013b)	Peach Nectarine	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	40 °C for 40 s	Peracetic acid (200 mg/L)
(Spadoni et al., 2013)	Peach	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	55 °C for 1 min	

	Nectarine			
(Spadoni et al., 2014)	Peach	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	60 °C for 20 s	
	Nectarine			
(Pazolini et al., 2016)	Peach	<i>Monilinia</i> spp.	50 °C for 30 s	Canola extract Indian mustard extract

*Hot water treatment

353

354 *Hot air treatments*

355 Another technique to control postharvest disease in stone fruit by heat treatments is the
356 use of hot air, otherwise called curing treatment. It is based on the exposure of fruit for
357 several hours or days in an air atmosphere heated to temperatures higher than 30 °C and
358 at a high relative humidity (RH > 90 %). Curing treatment has been widely researched,
359 providing numerous studies that have shown satisfactory disease reductions in a wide
360 variety of citrus cultivars. However, only our 3 papers have reported controlling
361 *Monilinia* spp in stone fruit (Casals et al., 2012, 2010a, 2010b). Our studies demonstrated
362 that exposing peaches and nectarines to 50 °C for 2 h and 95–99 % RH, effectively
363 controlled brown rot caused by *M. laxa* and *M. fructicola* (Casals et al., 2010b). In a
364 subsequent piece of research, the combination of this treatment with chitosan or *Bacillus*
365 *amyloliquefaciens* CPA-8 was also studied to enhance fruit protection after heat treatment
366 (Casals et al., 2012).

367 *Radio frequency and microwave treatments*

368 In recent years, the need to achieve fast and effective heat treatments has increased the
369 study of radio frequencies and microwave heating strategies, also referred to as dielectric
370 heating. Dielectric heating has been widely studied as a rapid pest control treatment.
371 However, little information is available about the use of these new technologies to control
372 postharvest diseases of fruits and vegetables (Guo et al., 2019). Casals (2010)
373 demonstrated the efficacy of radio frequency heating for 18 min to control brown rot,

374 caused by *Monilinia* spp., in peaches (Casals et al., 2010d). However, this treatment was
375 not effective at controlling brown rot in nectarines and its effectiveness depended on fruit
376 size. In the next study, the effectiveness of this radiofrequency treatment to control brown
377 rot in both peaches and nectarines was improved by applying radio frequency heating
378 with fruit immersed in water at 20 °C (Sisquella et al., 2013a). The immersion of fruit in
379 water solved the lack of efficacy in nectarines as the influence of fruit size on treatment
380 efficacy. In the same study, the radio frequency treatment time required to effectively
381 control brown rot was even reduced to 4.5 min by using water temperature at 40 °C.
382 Besides, radiofrequency treatment with fruit immersed in water at 40 °C for 4.5 min did
383 not affect fruit quality.

384 Microwave treatments using and industrial equipment also demonstrated the efficacy
385 using a continuous treatment at 10 kW for 95 s to control *Monilinia* spp. in peaches and
386 nectarines. Once again, fruit size influenced the final fruit temperature, which affected
387 both treatment efficacy and internal fruit appearance (Sisquella et al., 2013c). The
388 improvement of this microwave treatment was also conducted with the immersion of fruit
389 in water (Sisquella et al., 2014). Then, it was studied at 20 kW for 60 s with fruit immersed
390 in water at 40 °C. These conditions controlled brown rot without affecting internal and
391 external appearance and reduced brown rot incidence over 91 % in naturally infected
392 peaches and nectarines, and moreover, its efficacy was not affected by fruit size, time
393 between infection or inoculum concentration of *M. fructicola*. Finally, it was suggested
394 that the lower influence of fruit size on the treatment effectiveness may be due to the
395 similar temperatures achieved, since the temperature reached by smaller fruit in radio
396 frequency and microwave treatments were, respectively, 3 and 4.5 °C lower than those
397 reached by larger fruit. Different dielectric properties between food and the surrounding
398 air cause reflection and refraction phenomena at the interface, resulting in non-uniform

399 electric field distribution (Guan et al., 2002). Therefore, the immersion of fruit in water
400 can improve both radio frequency and microwave treatment (Sisquella et al., 2014,
401 2013a).

402 **4. Conclusions**

403 In the last 20 years, *Monilinia* spp., as main pathogens of stone fruit, have been thoroughly
404 studied in our group. Its epidemiology has been studied in preharvest and postharvest,
405 generating a wide range of information, fundamental to designing the best control
406 strategies. Furthermore, it is important to highlight the warning system developed which,
407 nowadays, is a tool already implemented by stone fruit producers in the Ebro Valley. In
408 parallel, several control strategies have had their applications evaluated, again in both pre
409 and postharvest. These strategies include chemicals, but also alternative strategies, and
410 cultural practices to be applied during crop management. The outcomes of our research
411 have been generated at the right moment, with legislation requirements for fruit
412 production and social awareness about climate change being more established than ever.
413 Therefore, it will be essential to integrate all this knowledge into designing sustainable
414 control strategies to control brown rot, with minimum impact on the environment,
415 farmers, and consumers, and following the Guidelines on Agriculture of the European
416 Green Deal to obtain competitive, sustainable healthy and high-quality fruit.

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420 **6. References**

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