In vitro evaluation of grapevine endophytes, epiphytes and sap micro-organisms for potential use to control grapevine trunk disease pathogens.

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Summary. Grapevine trunk diseases (GTDs) threaten the economic sustainability of viticulture 11 worldwide causing a significant reduction of both yields and quality of grapes. Biological control 12 presents a promising sustainable alternative to cultural and chemical methods to mitigate the 13 effects of pathogens causing GTDs, including Botryosphaeria dieback, Eutypa dieback and Esca. 14This study aimed to identify naturally occurring potential biological control agents from a variety 15 of grapevine tissues, including sap, cane and pith and evaluate their antagonistic activity against 16 selected fungal pathogens responsible for GTDs in vitro. Bacterial and fungal isolates were 17 preliminary screened in vitro to determine their antifungal activity via a dual culture assay against 18 Neofusicoccum parvum and Eutypa lata. Among the fungal isolates, Trichoderma spp. inhibited 19 *E. lata* mycelial growth up to 64% and *N. parvum* mycelial growth up to 73% with overgrowth 20 and stopped growth being the likely antagonistic mechanisms. Among the bacterial isolates, 21 Bacillus spp. inhibited E. lata mycelial growth up to 20% and N. parvum mycelial growth up to 22 40%. Select antagonistic isolates of Trichoderma, Bacillus and Aureobasidium spp. were subject 23 to further dual culture antifungal analysis against *Diplodia seriata* and *Diaporthe ampelina*, with 24 Trichoderma isolates consistently causing the greatest inhibition. Volatile organic compound 25 antifungal analysis revealed that these Trichoderma isolates resulted significantly inhibited 26 27 mycelial growth of N. parvum, E. lata and D. ampelina causing up to 20.11%, 60.55% and 70.9% inhibition respectively ($P \le 0.05$). Multilocus sequence analysis revealed that the *Trichoderma* 28 isolates are most closely related to Trichoderma asperellum and Trichoderma hamatum. This study 29 identifies grapevine sap as a novel source of potential biological control agents for control of GTDs 30 to support existing efforts to control GTDs. Further testing will be necessary to fully characterize 31 these microbes mode of antagonism and assess their efficacy for pruning wound protection in 32 planta. 33

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Keywords. Biological control, Grapevine trunk diseases, Endophytes, Microbial antagonism,
 Antifungal

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- 38 Introduction

Fungal diseases are a major biotic threat to the future economic sustainability of table grapes and wine grapes worldwide. Grapevine trunk diseases (GTDs) are prevalent in most viticulture regions worldwide causing a significant reduction of both yields and quality of grapes, as well as increasing crop management costs for cultural and chemical preventative measures (Urbez-Torres *et al.*, 2006; Gubler *et al.*, 2005; Siebert *et al.*, 2001; Bertsch *et al.*, 2013; Kaplan *et al.*, 2016). GTDs lead to premature decline and dieback of grapevine and are caused by a complex of several

45 taxonomically unrelated groups of Ascomycete. Botryosphaeria dieback, also known as Black

Dead Arm or 'Bot Canker' is one of the most severe GTDs and is currently associated with 26 46 botryosphaeriaceaous taxa in the genera Botryosphaeria, Diplodia, Dothriorella, Lapsiodiplodia, 47 Neofusicoccum, Neoscytalidium, Phaeobotryosphaeria, and Spencermartinsia (Pitt et al., 2013; 48 Urbez-Torres. 2011; Pitt et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Rolshausen et al., 2013). Another 49 devastating GTDs is Eutypa dieback, caused by 24 species in the Diatrypaceae family with the 50 most virulent and common being Eutypa lata (Luque et al., 2014; Pitt et al., 2013; Rolshausen et 51 al., 2014: Trouillas et al., 2010). Esca and Phomopsis dieback also comprise the GTDs complex 52 and are of worldwide economic importance (Munkvold et al., 1994; Gubler et al., 1995). GTDs 53 can occur simultaneously in all grapevine producing areas though severity may differ among 54 regions (Mugnai et al., 1999; Pascoe and Cottral, 2000; Halleen et al., 2003; Gubler et al., 2005). 55 Characteristic symptoms of Botryosphaeria and Eutypa dieback are the formations of wedge-56 shaped cankers in infected trunks and cordons. From the infection site, which is often a pruning 57 wound, the fungal pathogen will grow downwards occupying vascular elements as well as adjacent 58 cells. When the affected vineyards are no longer economically sustainable to maintain, growers 59 sadly face no alternative but to replant (Gramaje et al., 2018). GTDs can also be found in dormant 60 wood cuttings and young grafted plants and thus spread to grapevines during the plant propagation 61 process (Aroca et al., 2010; Gramaje and Armengol, 2011; Waite and Morton, 2007; Billones-62 Baaijens et al., 2013). 63

Management of GTDs is difficult and influenced by the specific disease and/or pathogens involved 64 but over the years a variety of preventative methods have been studied and implemented, including 65 cultural practices such as double pruning and application of chemical fungicides (Bertsch *et al.*, 66 2013). However, these methods are highly variable in efficacy, not environmentally sustainable 67 and can be very costly (Zanzotto et al., 2016). A promising new approach is the use of biological 68 control agents (BCAs) to control pathogens causing GTDs. Biological control refers to the 69 utilization of naturally occuring micro-organisms to suppress pests and pathogens (Martinez-Diz 70 71 et al., 2020; Heimpel and Mills, 2017). Grapevine, like perennial woody plants, can be colonized by an innumerable number of micro-organisms that can reside intercellularly or intracellularly 72 within grapevine tissue and are called endophytes (Gilbert et al., 2014; West et al., 2010) or they 73 can colonize the surface of grapevine organs, such as leaves and are called epiphytes (Bruisson et 74 al., 2019; Hardoim et al., 2015). Endophytes have been shown to be a valuable source of potential 75 BCAs as they are believed to be associated with all 300,000 plant species, most of them non-76 77 pathogenic bacteria or fungi that colonize plants asymptomatically (Strobel and Daisy. 2003). Since the turn of the century, more than 40 BCAs have been isolated, identified and tested against 78 the pathogens responsible for the GTDs complex and whilst the majority of cultured endophytes 79 do not exhibit inhibitory activity, some *Trichoderma spp.* and *Bacillus spp.* have proved highly 80 efficient in protecting pruning wounds against various GTDs pathogens in vitro, greenhouse and 81 field trials (Mondello et al., 2018; Di Marco et al., 2002; 2004; John et al., 2008; Halleen et al., 82 2010; Schmidt et al., 2001; Kotze et al., 2011; Rezgui et al., 2016; Martinez-Diz et al., 2020) and 83 several successful efforts have been made to commercialize these species as BCAs (Otoguro and 84 Suzuki, 2018). Trichoderma spp. can stimulate plant growth and suppress pathogens by direct 85 competition for nutrients and space, exhibit mycoparasitism and antibiosis and induce systemic 86 resistance (Harman. 2006; Mukherjee et al., 2013; John et al., 2005). Bacillus spp. can antagonize 87 GTDs via antibiotic production, competition for nutrients and activation of the plant defense 88 response (Cawoy et al., 2011; Choudhary and Johri 2009). 89

To our knowledge, there have been no published reports evaluating grapevine sap inhabiting microbes for their antifungal activity against pathogens causing GTDs. The majority of antagonistic endophyte studies related to GTDs have sourced microbes from grapevine bark and roots. Thus, our study aimed to exploit this gap in the knowledge by isolating microbes from grapevine sap both immediately after making fresh pruning cuts as well as seven days later and evaluate for their antagonistic activity against a variety of pathogens responsible for GTDs *in vitro*. We also made isolations from other grapevine sources including pith and cane tissue.

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101 Isolation of potential biocontrol organisms from grapevine

102 All microbial sampling was performed at the University of California, Davis, Plant Pathology 103 Fieldhouse Facility in Yolo County (38°31'24.1"N 121°45'43.3"W) from an 8-years old 104 'Sauvignon blanc' vineyard in March 2019 prior to any standard pruning. A total of 10 randomly 105 selected 'healthy' looking vines were used in this study with samples taken from four randomly 106 pruned spurs per vine. For collection of sap exudate, the cut points of one-year old lignified spurs 107 were sprayed with 70% ethanol for surface sterilization to avoid contamination, and once dry, a 108 horizontal pruning cut was made with sterile pruning shears. A 100 µl sample of sap exudate was 109 immediately collected from the bleeding wound with a pipette and stored on ice. A 20 µl aliquot 110 of sap exudate from each spur was spread by a sterile glass rod onto potato dextrose agar amended 111 with tetracycline at 100 mg/L (PDA-T) and nutrient agar (NA) plates. Growing fungal and 112 bacterial cultures were sub-cultured for *in vitro* screening and molecular identification. Sampling 113 for epiphytic microbes was performed by scraping dry sap from the pruning surface seven days 114 after the initial cut from the same canes and plated as described above. After incubation at 25°C 115 for roughly 7 days, sub-cultures of all growing microbes were made to fresh PDA-T and NA. 116

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Grapevine endophytes were also isolated in September 2019 from the same vineyard from untreated control canes used in a pruning wound protection trial. The canes were split longitudinally, and isolations were made from the exposed wood and pith tissues. A total of ten canes were used and three pieces of tissue and three pieces of pith were collected from each cane and plated on PDA-T and NA plates. Plates were incubated at 25 °C for roughly 7 days before subcultures of growing isolates were performed.

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125 Genomic DNA extraction

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Genomic DNA was extracted by scraping fungal mycelium from 1 week old subcultures of isolates
and added to a 2ml tube containing 300 µl of Nuclei Lysis Solution and 1mm diameter glass beads
(bioSpec Products). Mycelium was homogenized for 40 seconds at 6 m/sec in a FastPrep-24TM 5G
bead beating grinder and lysis system (MP Biomedicals). Genomic DNA was extracted using a
DNA extraction kit (Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit; Promega Corp, Madison, WI).
Genomic DNA was extracted from 1-week old bacterial sub cultures by collecting a loop of
bacteria with a sterile pipette tip and inoculating a 0.2 ml PCR tube containing 15 µl of Molecular

Grade Water and ran in a thermal cycler for 15 minutes at 95 °C.

135 *PCR* amplification and sequencing of Fungal ITS, TEF-1a and β 1-tubulin genes.

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The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of the ribosomal RNA (*rRNA*) gene was amplified using the primers, ITS1 and ITS4 (White *et al.*, 1990). The translation elongation factor 1 alpha gene (TEF-1a) was amplified using the primers, EF1-728F and EF1-968R (Carbone and Kohn, 1999). The beta tubulin gene (*Bt*) was amplified using the primers, Bt2a and Bt2b (Glass and Donaldson. 1995).

141 PCR amplification and sequencing of Bacterial 16S rRNA, purH and rpoB genes.

The 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the primes 16S U1 and 16S U2 (Lu *et al.*, 2000). The purine biosynthesis gene was amplified using the primers, purH-70f and purH-1013r (Rooney *et al.*, 2009). The RNA polymerase subunit B (*rpoB*) gene was amplified using the primers, rpoB-229f and rpoB-3354Rr (Rooney *et al.*, 2009).

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All PCR assays were performed in a final volume of 25 μ l in a reaction mixture containing 0 mM 147 Tris-HCl (pH 8.8), 50 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂ 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 1.0 µM of each primer and 1481 unit of Go Taq polymerase, Promega Corp., Madison, WI. Primers and excess nucleotides were 149 removed from the amplified DNA using a PCR clean-up kit (EXO SAP). New England BioLabs 150 and DNA was quantified using a QuantiFluor dsDNA System, Promega Corp., Madison, WI. 151 Purified PCR samples were sent to Quintarabio, Hayward, CA for Sanger Sequencing. Sequence 152 chromatograms were analyzed, and the sequences were assembled using Sequencher version 5.4.6. 153 Alignment was performed with Clustal W. Phylogenetic analysis was performed with Mega X 154 using the Maximum composite likelihood model for estimating genetic differences. A 155 phylogenetic tree was obtained using the neighbor-joining method with 1000 bootstrap replicates. 156

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158 Dual culture assay

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All fungal and bacterial isolates were tested in an initial *in vitro* dual culture assay against the 160 GTDs, N. parvum and E. lata. Fresh subcultures were made from each isolate and incubated at 161 25°C for 1 week on PDA-T plates for fungal isolates and PDA plates for bacterial isolates for the 162 assay. A 5mm diameter plug from each isolate was then placed 1cm from the edge of a 100 x 163 15mm plate and a 5 mm diameter plug of 1 week old N. parvum or E. lata was placed 1cm from 164 the opposite edge of the plate. Plates with only the pathogen served as controls. N. parvum assays 165 were incubated at 25°C for 4 days before the percentage of pathogen inhibition was recorded 166 whereas E. lata assays were incubated at 25°C for 14 days before being recorded. The percentage 167 of inhibition of pathogen mycelial growth was calculated using the formula reported by Idris et al. 168 (2007): % inhibition = $[(C-T)/C] \times 100$ where C is the radius in mm of the pathogen when plated 169 by itself and T is the radius of the pathogen when plated with an isolate. There was a total of 10 170 replicates per isolate. Representative isolates from each genus isolated exhibiting potential 171 biological control ability against N. parvum and E. lata were subsequently tested against the GTD 172 pathogens, Diplodia seriata and Diaporthe ampelina using the same assay. 173

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175 Volatile assay

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The production of antifungal volatile organic compounds (VOCs) was assessed using the twosealed-base-plates method described in Gotor-Vila *et al.*, (2017) with modifications. 100 x 15mm petri dishes were half filled with PDA-T or PDA and a 5mm diameter mycelial plug of 1 week old

isolates were placed in the center of a base plate. A 5mm diameter mycelial plug of a pathogen 180 was placed in the center of another base plate and the two base plates were immediately sealed 181 together using parafilm. Plates with only the pathogen served as controls. N. parvum and D. seriata 182 assays were incubated at 25°C for 4 days before percentage of pathogen inhibition was recorded 183 whereas E. lata and D. ampelina assays were incubated at 25° C for 14 days The percentage of 184 inhibition of pathogen mycelial growth was calculated using the formula reported by Idris et al., 185 (2007) as mentioned above. There was a total of 10 replicates per isolate tested. 186

Statistical analyses 188

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Data obtained from the dual culture assay was analyzed by one-way ANOVA and means were 190 separated by the post-hoc Dunnett's test at a 0.05 significance level. 191

- Results 193
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Isolation and ITS/16s sequencing of all potential biocontrol organisms from grapevine

In total, eleven fungal isolates and two bacterial isolates were cultured on growth media from all 197 grapevine 'structures' sampled (Table 1). The majority of isolates were obtained from either 198 grapevine cane tissue or sap collected immediately after pruning cuts were made. Only two isolates 199 were obtained from sap seven days after pruning and one isolate was obtained from grapevine pith. 200 PCR amplification of the ITS gene, sequencing and BLAST revealed that nine of the fungal 201 isolates were members of the Aureobasidium genus and two were members of the Trichoderma 202 genus (Table 1). PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA, sequencing and BLAST revealed that the 203 two bacterial isolates were members of the Bacillus genus (Table 1). 204

- Preliminary screening Dual culture assay (N. parvum and E. lata) 206
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The antagonistic potential of all subcultured bacterial and fungal isolates (Table 1) was initially 208 evaluated against the GTDs pathogens N. parvum and E. lata in vitro using a dual culture assay. 209 Whilst the majority of isolates showed no significant inhibition of N. parvum mycelial growth, the 210 two bacterial isolates (Bacillus spp.), UCD 8745 and UCD 8347 and the two Trichoderma isolates, 211 UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 caused a significant inhibition of N. parvum mycelial growth, ranging 212 from 35% to 64.4% (Fig. 1A, $P \le 0.05$) compared to the *N. parvum* control. When the isolates were 213 tested for antagonistic potential against E. lata, only the Trichoderma isolates, UCD 8368 and 214 215 UCD 8717 were able to cause significant inhibition of *E. lata* radial mycelial growth, both resulting in excess of 65% mycelial inhibition compared to the control (Fig. 1B, $P \le 0.05$). 216

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Dual culture assay (D. seriata and D. ampelina) 218

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The Trichoderma isolates, UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 and Bacillus isolates, UCD 8745 and UCD 220 8347 were taken forward for further dual culture analysis as were the Aureobasidium isolates, 221 UCD 8189 and UCD 8344 so that each genus of microorganisms isolated were evaluated. The 222 antagonistic potential of these isolates were next evaluated against the GTDs pathogens D. seriata 223

and D. ampelina using the same dual culture assay as mentioned above. All isolates caused a 224

significant inhibition of *D. seriata* radial mycelial growth, ranging from 15.23% to 50.2% (Fig. 225

2A, P \leq 0.05) compared to the control. Both *Trichoderma* isolates caused the greatest radial 226 inhibition at roughly 50% compared to the control. There was variation between the Bacillus 227 isolates as UCD 8347 caused roughly 32% radial inhibition whilst UCD 8745 only caused roughly 228 11% radial inhibition. The Aureobasidium isolates, UCD 8189 and UCD 8344 were similar in their 229 antagonistic activity, causing roughly 15% and 17% radial inhibition respectively. When the 230 isolates were tested against the GTDs pathogen, D. ampelina, the Trichoderma isolates, UCD 8368 231 and UCD 8717 caused the greatest inhibition, in excess of 80%. The Bacillus isolate UCD 8347 232 also significantly reduced mycelial radial growth of D. ampelina, though to a much lesser extent 233 (Fig. 2B, P≤0.05 and Fig. 3). 234

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236 Volatile organic compound (VOC) assay

237 When the isolates were screened for antagonistic activity via production of antifungal volatile 238 organic compounds (VOCs) against N. parvum, only the Bacillus isolate, UCD 8347 and 239 Trichoderma isolate, UCD 8368 caused significant inhibition of N. parvum, causing roughly 10% 240 and 20% radial inhibition respectively (Fig. 4A, P \leq 0.05). When the isolates were tested against E. 241 *lata*, all but the *Aureobasidium* isolates were capable of causing significant radial inhibition. The 242 Trichoderma isolates, UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 isolates exhibited the greatest VOC effect, both 243 causing at least 50% radial inhibition, whilst the Bacillus isolates, UCD 8745 and UCD 8347 244 isolates caused roughly 37% and 39% radial inhibition respectively (Fig. 4B, P<0.05). No isolates 245 exhibited any VOC mediated significant inhibition of D. seriata (Fig. 7C). However, against D. 246 ampelina, all isolates exhibited VOC mediated significant inhibition with UCD 8717 causing 247 roughly 70% inhibition. The other Trichoderma isolate, UCD 8368 caused roughly 40% inhibition, 248 whilst the Bacillus isolates, UCD 8745 and UCD 8347 and Aureobasidium isolates, UCD 8189 249 and UCD 8344 all caused roughly 20% inhibition (Fig. 4D, $P \leq 0.05$ and Fig. 5). 250

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- 252 Multilocus phylogenetic analysis of antagonistic isolates
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²⁵⁴ Multilocus phylogenetic analysis of the *ITS* and β *l-tubulin* gene via maximum parsimony revealed ²⁵⁵ that the isolates, UCD 8344 and UCD 8189 were most closely related to *Aureobasidium pullulans* ²⁵⁶ (Figure 6). Multilocus phylogenetic analysis of the *purH and rpoB* gene via maximum parsimony ²⁵⁷ revealed that the isolates, UCD 8347 and UCD 8745 were most closely related to *Bacillus* ²⁵⁸ *velezensis* (Figure 7). Multilocus phylogenetic analysis of the *ITS* and *TEF-1a* gene via maximum ²⁵⁹ parsimony revealed that the isolates, UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 were most closely related to ²⁶⁰ *Trichoderma asperellum* and *Trichoderma hamatum* respectively (Fig. 8).

- 261
- 262 Discussion

Grapevine pruning wound protection has historically been mediated by synthetic chemicals which 263 have dominated the crop protection industry dating back to the 1980s. However, the longevity of 264 crop production requires a greater shift towards sustainable practices so there is great interest in 265 novel solutions to prevent and control grapevine trunk diseases (GTDs) (Mondello and Songy. 266 2018). Biological control agents (BCAs) including Trichoderma spp. and Bacillus spp. have been 267 demonstrated to have excellent potential for pruning wound protection against infection from 268 GTDs in vitro (Di Marco et al., 2002, 2004; John et al., 2008; Halleen et al., 2010; Schmidt et al., 269 2001; Kotze et al., 2011; Rezgui et al., 2016). Microbial inhabitants of nutrient rich grapevine sap 270

have not been evaluated for BCA ability against GTDs, so along with isolations from grapevine pith and cane tissue, we evaluated isolated microbes against the selected GTDs fungal pathogens,

273 *Neofusicoccum parvum, Eutypa lata, Diplodia seriata and Diaporthe ampelina in vitro.*

In vitro dual culture assays are the primary means to detect antagonistic activity of microorganisms 274 (Di Marco et al., 2002; Haidar et al., 2016). Both Trichoderma isolates UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 275 in this study exhibited significant mycelial inhibition against all pathogens in dual culture assays, 276 exhibiting at least 75% mycelial inhibition against the slow growing pathogens, E. lata and D. 277 ampelina (Fig. 1B and 2B). UCD 8368, which is most closely related to T. harzianum (Fig. 8) was 278 also shown to be effective in a similar in vitro study at in inhibiting E. lata radial growth (Úrbez-279 Torres et al., 2020). Whilst Trichoderma spp. possess various antifungal mechanisms, this 280 mycelial inhibition can be likely attributed to overgrowth (Kotze et al., 2011) as they grew 281 considerably faster and surrounded the pathogens in dual culture (Figure 3). These findings have 282 been backed up by similar studies where various Trichoderma spp. have been subject to dual 283 culture assays against N. parvum, D. seriata and E. lata (Mutawila et al., 2015; Silva-Valderrama 284 et al., 2020; Urbez-Torres et al., 2020). For example, Trichoderma isolates from Southern Italy 285 were able to inhibit N. parvum radial growth by up to 74.3% (Úrbez-Torres et al., 2020). It is 286 hypothesized that this observed overgrowth by Trichoderma spp. translates to competition for 287 space and nutrients in grapevine pruning wounds and therefore a mechanism to protect against 288 GTDs (Úrbez-Torres et al., 2020). 289

However, in the volatile assay, UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 were still able to cause significant 290 inhibition of E. lata and D. ampelina (Figures 4B and D) which is most likely due to the ability of 291 Trichoderma spp. to produce volatile and non-volatile substances which have been shown to 292 inhibit a range of fungi (John et al., 2004; Kucuk and Kivanc, 2004; Kexiang et al., 2002; Dennis 293 and Webster, 1971a; Ghisalberti and Sivasithamparam, 1991; Chambers and Scott, 1995). John et 294 al., (2004) showed that volatile compounds synthesized by T. harzianum AG1, AG2, and AG3 295 were able to inhibit growth of *E. lata* compared to a control and *E. lata* growth was completely 296 inhibited by non-volatile compounds. In this study UCD-8368 and UCD 8717 elicited a coconut 297 odor (detectable via smelling) which has previously been characterized as 6-n-pentyl-2H- pyran-298 2-one (Claydon et al., 1987), and reported to inhibit fungi such as Rhizoctonia solani. The 299 significant mycelial inhibition of N. parvum and D. seriata by UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 in the 300 dual culture assay can likely be attributed to stopped growth, a term which describes when 301 microorganism and pathogen grow until they came in contact with one another, whereafter growth 302 of both organisms seizes (Kotze et al., 2011) (Fig. 1A, 2A and 3). This mechanism as the primary 303 method of inhibition can be supported in the volatile assay because there was no inhibition of N. 304 parvum and D. seriata by UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 (Fig. 4A, C and Figure 5). The mycoparasitic 305 reactions such as coiling, adhesion and penetration of pathogenic hyphae (Almeida et al., 2007), 306 have been shown to coincide with the physical contact interactions; overgrowth and stopped 307 growth. With UCD 8717 being isolated from grapevine sap, this is to our knowledge the first report 308 of a grapevine sap inhabiting microbe showing promising BCA ability against GTDs in vitro. In a 309 recent study, Devett and Rolshausen (2019) utilized a culture-independent amplicon metagenomic 310 approach to characterize the major bacterial and fungal taxa that comprise grapevine xylem sap 311 microbial communities, revealing that the core microbiome consisted of seven bacterial and five 312 fungal taxa. Grapevine sap is a rich source of glucose, fructose and amino acids, especially in 313 spring when nutrients are remobilized to the vegetative parts of the grapevine following winter 314

dormancy and is thus a conducive environment to harbor beneficial microbes (Deyett and Rolshausen, 2019).

The bacterial isolates (Bacillus spp.) UCD 8347 and UCD 8745 exhibited varying antifungal 317 ability and mechanisms of antifungal ability in this study depending on the GTDs fungal pathogen. 318 In the dual culture assay between UCD 8347 and E. lata, a zone of inhibition was observed (Fig. 319 3). Inhibition zones are most likely indicative of antibiotic production (Kotze, 2004), a mechanism 320 of mycoparasitism. Ferreira et al., (1991) identified at least two Bacillus produced antibiotic 321 substances that were responsible for the inhibition of mycelial growth and ascospore germination. 322 In a recent study, Kotze, (2008) dual incubated (in vitro) E. lata with the same isolate and showed 323 that E. lata displayed little mycelial growth and a clear inhibition zone between the cultures. 324 Malformation of the hyphae, specifically swelling, was observed at a microscopic level. Another 325 study by Kotze, (2011) showed that a *Bacillus subtilis* isolate exhibited a clear zone of inhibition 326 against Phomopsis viticola. In the volatile assay, isolate UCD 8347 caused significant inhibition 327 against E. lata suggesting that the antibiotic substance may be a volatile product. Isolate UCD 328 8347 also exhibited a small zone of inhibition against N. parvum in the dual culture assay (Fig. 3) 329 and it could also significantly inhibit N. parvum growth, albeit by only 10% in the volatile assay 330 indicating the antibiotic substance may be a volatile product (Fig. 4A). Isolate UCD 8347 also 331 exhibited significant inhibition of *D. seriata* and *D. ampelina* in the dual culture assay (Fig. 2A 332 and B) and D. ampelina in the volatile assay (Fig. 4D) but the mechanism of inhibition is unclear. 333 Isolate UCD 8745 had similar results to UCD 8347 albeit with less inhibition in some assays and 334 the mechanism of inhibition is not as clear. It may be prudent in subsequent studies to investigate 335 the VOC profile of these isolates. 336

Studies of the grapevine microbiome show that Aureobasidium pullulans is commonly distributed 337 in grapevine, both in below and above ground structures (Sabate *et al.*, 2002; Martini *et al.*, 2009; 338 Grube et al., 2011; Barata et al., 2012; Pinto et al., 2014) and therefore, A. pullulans is an attractive 339 micro-organism for investigating BCA potential. In this study, the Aureobasidium isolates UCD 340 8344 and UCD 8189, whilst possessing no antagonistic ability against N. parvum, E. lata and D. 341 ampelina in the dual culture assay, were able to cause significant mycelial inhibition of D. seriata 342 in dual culture (Fig. 2A). This is likely due to stopped growth as they had no inhibitory effect 343 against D. seriata in the volatile assay (Fig. 4C). Similar results were obtained in a study by Pinto 344 et al., (2018), where A. pullulans strain Fito_F278 was able to significantly reduce the mycelial 345 growth of D. seriata F98.1 in a dual culture assay and was also postulated to be as a result of 346 stopped growth. 347

Although several different types of microorganisms were tested in this study, currently only 348 Trichoderma spp. have been shown to be the most suitable agent for biological control of GTDs. 349 The reason for this supremacy probably stems from the synergistic action of *Trichoderma spp*. 350 various biocontrol mechanisms, in their ecological characteristics (saprotrophic, endophytic) and 351 in the positive effects induced in their host plants. Considering that grapevines accommodate a 352 large pool of resident microorganisms embedded in a complex micro-ecosystem (Pinto and 353 Gomes, 2016), further attempts should be made to identify novel strains of Trichoderma and other 354 microorganisms promoting advances in management of GTDs. 355

With the imperative need to make future agricultural practices as sustainable as possible we need 356 novel solutions to control GTDs thus yielding high quality grapes that comply with the high 357 standards of food safety. Whilst BCA efficacy in vitro does not always translate to efficacy in 358 *planta*, they are at present the most promising, sustainable option for grapevine growers based on 359 the restrictions and concerns of using chemical fungicides. This study has identified potential 360 BCAs with great potential for simultaneous control of economically important pathogens 361 responsible for GTDs and warrants further studies to characterize their modes of antagonism and 362 evaluate their efficacy in field trials. There is hope these potential BCAs can provide long lasting 363 protection of grapevine against GTDs because they share the same host. 364

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- ³⁶⁸ Competing Interests: The Authors declare no conflict of interest.
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Table 1. Source of isolated microorganisms and ITS/16S identification

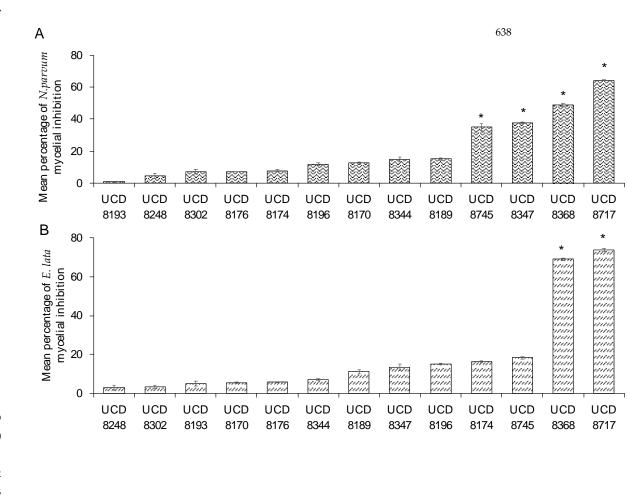
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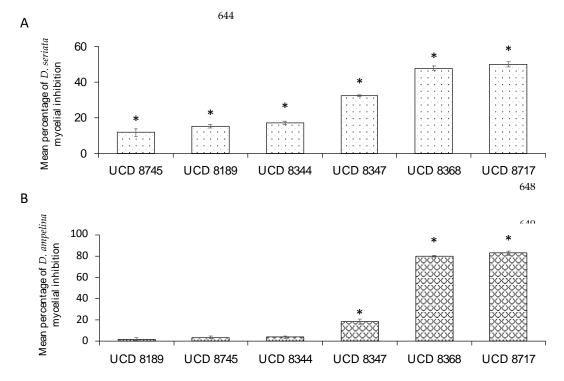
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Isolate	Source	Genus
UCD 8193	Grapevine cane tissue	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8248	Grapevine cane tissue	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8302	Grapevine sap, collected immediately	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8176	Grapevine cane tissue	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8174	Grapevine sap, collected immediately	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8196	Grapevine sap, collected immediately	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8170	Grapevine sap, collected immediately	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8344	Grapevine cane tissue	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8189	Grapevine sap, collected immediately	Aureobasidium (ITS)
UCD 8745	Grapevine sap, collected after 7 days	Bacillus (16S)
UCD 8347	Grapevine cane pith	Bacillus (16S)
UCD 8368	Grapevine cane tissue	Trichoderma (ITS)
UCD 8717	Grapevine sap, collected after 7 days	Trichoderma (ITS)

628	Figure 1. Preliminary In vitro dual culture evaluation of isolated micro-organisms ability to inhibit
629	radial mycelial growth of the grapevine trunk disease pathogens (A) Neofusicoccum parvum and
630	(B) Eutypa lata. The percentage of inhibition of pathogen mycelial growth was calculated using
631	the formula: % inhibition = $[(C-T)/C] \times 100$ (49)where C is the radius in mm of the pathogen
632	when plated by itself and T is the radius of the pathogen when plated with a grapevine isolate.
633	Values represent the average of ten replicates \pm standard error. Asterisk (*) indicates significant
634	inhibition in comparison with a control (Dunnett's test $P \le < 0.05$).

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Figure 2. In vitro dual culture evaluation of selected micro-organisms ability to inhibit radial mycelial growth of the grapevine trunk disease pathogens (A)) Diplodia seriata and (B) Diaporthe ampelina. The percentage of inhibition of pathogen mycelial growth was calculated using the formula: % inhibition = $[(C-T)/C] \times 100$ (49) where C is the radius in mm of the pathogen when plated by itself and T is the radius of the pathogen when plated with a grapevine isolate. Values represent the average of ten replicates \pm standard error. Asterisk (*) indicates significant inhibition in comparison with a control (Dunnett's test P \leq < 0.05).

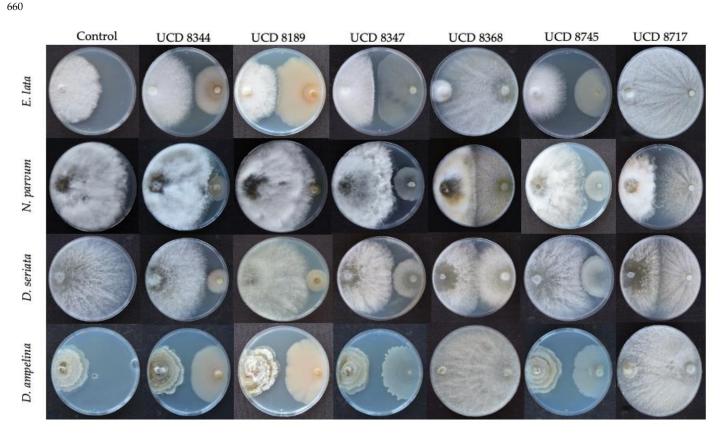


Figure 3. Representative visual summary of In vitro dual culture evaluation of selected isolates ability to inhibit radial mycelial growth of selected grapevine trunk disease pathogens.

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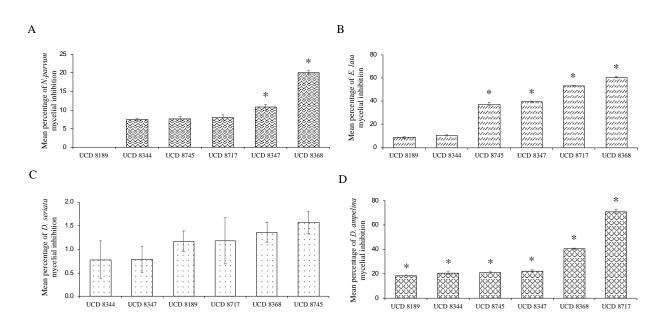


Figure 4. In vitro volatile evaluation of selected micro-organisms ability to inhibit radial mycelial 669 growth of the grapevine trunk disease pathogens (A) *Neofusicoccum parvum*, (B) *Eutypa lata*, (C) 670 Diplodia seriata and (**D**) Diaporthe ampleina using the sealed-base-plates method (50) with 671 modifications. The percentage of inhibition of pathogen mycelial growth was calculated using the 672 formula: % inhibition = $[(C-T)/C] \times 100$ (49) where C is the radius in mm of the pathogen when 673 plated by itself and T is the radius of the pathogen when plated with a grapevine isolate. Values 674 represent the average of ten replicates \pm standard error. Asterisk (*) indicates significant 675 inhibition in comparison with a control (Dunnett's test $P \le < 0.05$). 676

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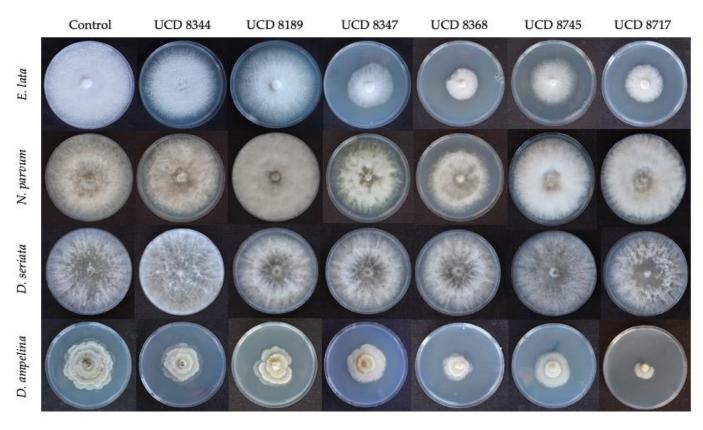
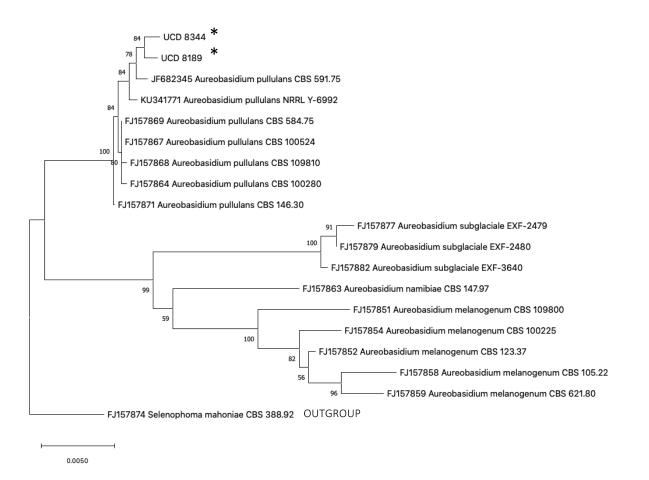


Figure 5. Representative visual Summary of *In vitro volatile* evaluation of selected microorganisms ability to inhibit radial mycelial growth of the grapevine trunk disease pathogens

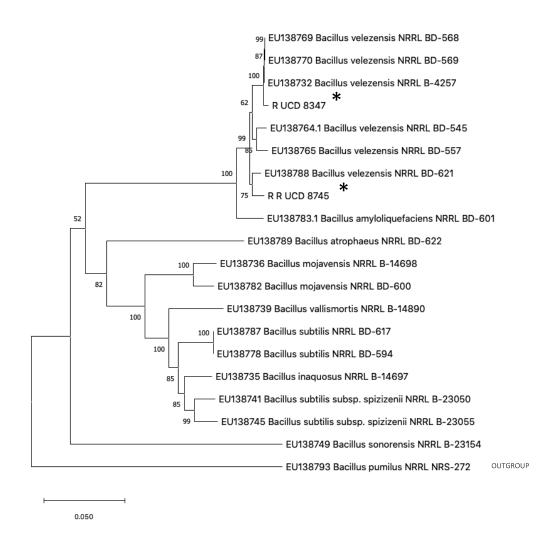


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Figure 6. Maximum parsimony phylogenetic tree of UCD 8344 and UCD 8189 based on a multigene data set of internal transcribed spacer rDNA (ITS) and β 1-tubulin. Bootstrap support for the maximum-likelihood analysis is given at each node (1000 replicates). Asterix (*) indicates

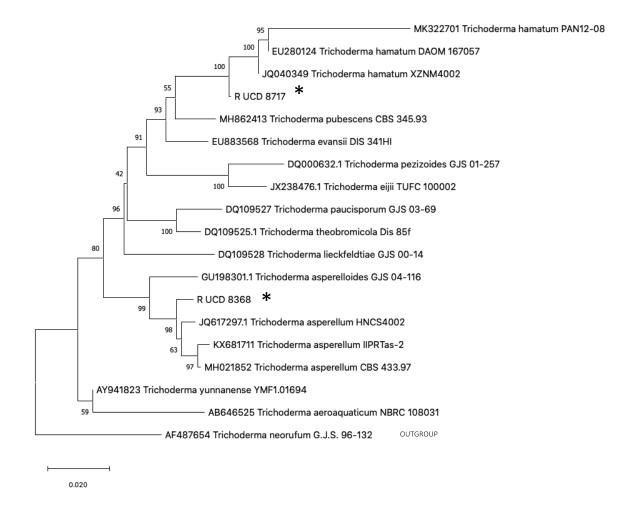
isolates evaluated in this study. FJ150872 *Selenopoma mahoniae* was used as an outgroup.

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Figure 7. Maximum parsimony phylogenetic tree of UCD 8347 and UCD 8745 based on a multigene data set of purine biosynthesis (*purH*) and RNA polymerase subunit B (*rpoB*). Bootstrap support for the maximum-likelihood analysis is given at each node (1000 replicates). Asterix (*) indicates isolates evaluated in this study. EU138793 *Bacillus pumilus* was used as an outgroup. bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.02.09.430335; this version posted February 10, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.



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Figure 8. Maximum parsimony phylogenetic tree of UCD 8368 and UCD 8717 based on a multigene alignment of the *Trichoderma* Hamatum/Asperellum clade using internal transcribed spacer rDNA (ITS), and translation elongation factor 1-alpha (TEF1). Bootstrap support for the maximum-likelihood analysis is given at each node (1000 replicates). Asterix (*) indicates subcultures evaluated in this study. AF487654 *Trichoderma neorufum* was used as an outgroup.