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# Influence of native endophytic bacteria on the growth and bacterial crown rot tolerance of papaya (*Carica papaya*)

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### 21 Abstract

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The native plant microbiome is composed of diverse communities that influence its overall 23 health, with some species known to promote plant growth and pathogen resistance. Here, we 24 show the antimicrobial and growth promoting activities of autoclaved culture metabolites 25 (ACMs) from native endophytic bacteria (NEB) in a papaya cultivar that is tolerant to bacterial 26 27 crown rot (BCR) caused by Erwinia mallotivora. Initially, bacterial colonization in recovering 28 tissues of this cultivar was observed before onset of tissue regeneration or 'regrowth'. We further isolated and characterized these bacteria and were able to identify two culturable stem 29 30 NEB under genera Kosakonia (EBW), related to Enterobacter, and Sphingomonas (EBY). We also identified root NEB (BN, BS and BT) under genus Bacillus. Inhibition assays indicated 31 that ACMs from these NEB promptly (18-30h) and efficiently inhibited (60-65%) E. 32 33 mallotivora proliferation in vitro. Interestingly, when ACMs from BN and EBW were inoculated in surface-sterilized papaya seeds, germination was variably retarded (20-60% 34 reduction) depending on plant genotype, but plant biomass accumulation was significantly 35 36 stimulated, at around two-fold increase. Moreover, greenhouse experiments show that ACMs from all isolates, especially EBW, significantly reduced BCR incidence and severity in 37 susceptible genotype, at around two-fold. In general, our observations of pathogen 38 39 antagonism, plant growth promotion leading to disease reduction by ACMs of native endophytic bacteria suggested its contribution to increased fitness of papaya and tolerance 40 41 against the (re)emerging BCR disease.

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*Keywords:* papaya bacterial crown rot, *Erwinia, Kosakonia, Sphingomonas, Bacillus,*endophytic bacteria, autoclaved culture metabolites

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### 45 Introduction

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Papaya (*Carica papaya*) is an economically important tropical fruit, mainly cultivated for food 47 48 and cosmetic products. Due to its popularity, production of papaya steadily increased by 4.35% globally from 2002 to 2010 (Evans and Ballen, 2012). However, the industry still faces yield 49 losses due to diseases, causing problems from plantation, transportation and processing until 50 51 marketing (Ventura et al., 2004). Most importantly, emerging diseases greatly impair papaya production, and even cause up to 100% yield loss in some afflicted areas, especially in Asian 52 tropical countries (Ploetz, 2004). A re-emerging disease of papaya, named bacterial crown rot 53 54 (syn. soft rot, canker, decline) caused by a bacterium of genus Erwinia was reported in 55 Southeast Asia (Maktar et al., 2008). Historically, the disease was reported in Java (von Rant, 56 1931), and in other regions such as Mariana Islands (Trujillo and Schroth, 1982) and in the US 57 Virgin Islands (Webb, 1984). In Mindoro, Philippines, a similar soft rot disease, which has water-soaked symptoms on leaves, petioles and whorl accompanied by a foul odor was 58 59 reported. The pathogen was identified under the genus *Erwinia* (Pordesimo and Quimio, 1965) and remained a major problem until the 1980s (Obrero, 1980). 60

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62 Re-emergence of *Erwinia* rot in papaya was reported in many regions across the globe in recent past decade. In early 2000, the bacterial 'canker' disease of papaya was reported in the 63 64 Mediterranean region, caused by Erwinia papayae sp. nov. (Gardan et al., 2004). In Asia, a 65 bacterium identified as Erwinia papayae was reported to cause 'papaya dieback' disease in Malaysia (Maktar et al., 2008). The 'crown rot' disease that was recently observed in the 66 67 Philippines (dela Cueva et al., 2017) and 'black rot' disease in Japan (Hanagasaki et al., 2020) were both reported to be caused by Erwinia mallotivora. Interestingly, the 'crown rot' disease 68 of papaya in the Republic of Tonga in Africa was reported to be caused also by E. mallotivora 69 70 (Fullerton et al., 2011). In the Philippines, studies were reported regarding the possible resistance or tolerance of papaya against the bacterial crown rot (BCR) disease. A slow 71 hypersensitive response exhibited by tolerant genotypes were reported. This was followed by 72 73 tissue hardening and lateral stem regrowth at the junction of the diseased and healthy stem in some genotypes. The phenomenon, referred to as 'regrowth', is thought to be the manner by 74 which papaya recovers from the disease, and perhaps a mechanism for tolerance (Magdalita et 75 76 al., 2016). Breeding for resistance and development of management strategies against the 77 bacterial crown rot disease are already in its early stages in the Philippines. Regrowth hybrid lines with good marketable qualities and with resistance to papaya ringspot disease are 78 currently under preliminary field trials and back-cross F3 progenies are now in the pipeline 79 80 (Magdalita et al., 2015).

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However, these candidate BCR-tolerant cultivars are still undergoing field trials and there is a 82 83 great need to develop augmentative solutions to combat BCR emergence and spread. 84 Fortunately, in recent years, research in the role of endophytic bacterial community in plant defense has improved greatly (Podolich et al., 2015). In a recent study, autoclaved culture 85 86 metabolites (ACMs) from *Bacillus* species were shown to significantly induce disease resistance against Pseudomonas syringae pv. lachrymans in cucumber and pepper (Song et al., 87 2017). Moreover, growing evidences have shown the important role of plant endospheric 88 89 microbiome in plant defense and overall fitness (Liu et al., 2020; Trivedi et al., 2020). Here, we showed the possibility of exploiting native endophytic bacteria (NEB) of papaya stem and 90 roots, a possibility that was recently reported in NEBs from papaya seeds (Mohd Taha et al., 91 92 2019). We prepared ACMs as previously shown (Song et al., 2017) and investigated its effect 93 on fitness of a susceptible cultivar, contributing to BCR tolerance. Specifically, we also performed antimicrobial assays using ACMs from NEBs and investigated in effect on seed 94

95 germination, plant growth and response to *E. mallotivora* challenge. We hypothesize that 96 antimicrobial activity, growth promotion and resistance-induction of ACMs from NEBs could 97 be acquired or external mechanisms for pathogen defense in plants based. The use of these 98 augmentative defense strategies in as early as seed or seedling stage were also suggested to 99 help in developing more resilient genotypes or cultivars (Singh et al., 2018) that are otherwise 910 highly susceptible to disease, but with good marketable qualities.

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### 103 Materials and Methods

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### Ultrastructural observation and isolation of endophytic bacteria in regrowth tissues

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Tissue samples from two-month old tolerant cultivar 5648 that were freshly recovering from 107 BCR infection were prepared and examined using scanning electron microscope (SEM). 108 Imaging was done using the Phenom XL<sup>TM</sup> (Phenom-World BV, Eindhoven, The Netherlands), 109 a table top SEM. To further isolate observed bacteria, stem portions from the regrowth plants 110 111 were directly obtained from the junction of the regrowth and the healthy stem part. Similarly, portions of the roots of regrowth plants tissues were prepared. The tissues underwent surface 112 sterilization with following procedure: 95% ethanol for 1 min, 3% sodium hypochlorite 113 114 solution for 6 min and 95% ethanol for 0.5 min followed by rinsing twice with sterile distilled water for 5 min (Coombs and Franco, 2003). Thereafter, sterilized tissues were submerged for 115 10 min in 5 mL sterile water in a test tube to visibly detect bacterial ooze. A loopful of the 116 117 serially diluted (10<sup>-8</sup>) bacterial suspension was streaked onto peptone sucrose agar (PSA) plates and incubated at room temperature for 24 h. Single colonies of actively growing bacteria were 118 transferred to new PSA plates for subculture and purification. Pure colonies of the bacteria 119 120 were maintained in PSA culture slants or as glycerol-skim milk stocks and stored at 4°C for 121 future use.

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## 123 Cultural and biochemical characterization and pathogenicity tests of bacterial isolates

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All cultural characterization tests conducted in this part of the study were adapted from the 125 procedures in phytobacteriology books (Goszczynska et al., 2000; Borkar, 2017) with minor 126 modifications. In order to prepare single colonies, a loopful of a serially diluted suspension (10<sup>-</sup> 127 <sup>8</sup>) of the isolates was streaked multiple times onto the surface of PSA plates. The color, colony 128 diameter, morphology (e.g. shape, margin and elevation) and consistency were noted. 129 130 Additionally, single stroke colonies were prepared in nutrient agar (NA) and described after one week. Colony color, shape, and other characteristics were likewise noted. Additionally, 131 growth in nutrient broth was characterized in a test tube, where observations were done after 132 133 one and two weeks. The morphology of the bacterial cells was characterized using gram staining methods. Biochemical tests include assay for catalase, cysteine desulfurase, lipase and 134 gelatinase activities, while physiological test include test for oxygen requirement and 135 utilization of starch and other sugars. All tests conducted in this part of the study were adapted 136 from the procedures in phytobacteriology books (Goszczynska et al., 2000; Borkar, 2017) with 137 minor modifications. Identification based on biochemical tests were done using the Bergey's 138 139 Manual of Systematic Bacteriology (Whitman et al., 2015). The tests were done in triplicates 140 and the entire experiment was repeated twice to verify results.

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142 On the other hand, in order to test for pathogenicity of the isolates, suspensions of the bacteria 143 grown PSA slants were used in inoculation of two-month old seedlings at a concentration of 144  $10^8$  cfu/mL. BCR-susceptible genotype 336 was used as the test plant. The plants were

wounded first at the leaf petiole and leaf midrib using a sterile needle. The inoculum was 145 delivered using a sprayer at approximately 1.0 mL per plant. Observations were done at 7 and 146 21 d after inoculation. Successful infection is indicated by necrosis and water-soaked lesions 147 and progressive rotting from the point of wounding. 148

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#### DNA extraction and amplification of 16S rRNA 150

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DNA extraction was done using a simple protocol developed by Chen and Kuo, with minor 152 modifications (Chen and Kuo, 1993). Single pure colonies were harvested from 72-h slant 153 154 cultures in PSA. Both genomic DNA and diluted colony cell suspension were used as template for PCR reactions to amplify 16S rRNA of the bacterial isolates. Around 10-20 ng of DNA 155 was used as template in PCR reactions and around 10-20 cells/mL were used as template in 156 157 cell suspension PCR. For the 25 uL PCR reaction mixture, the final concentration of PCR reagents (Invitrogen, MA, USA) was as follows: 1X PCR buffer without MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2.0 mM 158 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.5 µM of forward primer and 0.5 µM reverse primer. Tag DNA 159 polymerase was added at 0.04 U/µL. Universal 16S rRNA primers used were F8/rP2 and 160 161 27F/1492R (Weisburg et al., 1991). The PCR program was set at 94°C for 10 min for initial denaturation, followed by 32 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 55°C for 40 s and 72°C for 60 s, and final 162 extension 72°C for 5 min and indefinitely at 4°C for storage. PCR amplicons were checked for 163 164 correct size, at around 1300 bp, and purity in 1% agarose gel. Amplicons were then sent for Sanger sequencing at AIT Biotech, Inc. (Singapore). 165

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### Bioinformatic analysis using 16S rRNA to identify bacterial isolates

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The bacterial isolates were identified up to the closest taxa using 16S rRNA sequence. For the 169 purpose of identifying closest species-level taxon, we primarily used valid species (i.e. type 170 specimens) curated in EZ-BioCloud (www.ezbiocloud.net/identify), a public data and analytics 171 for the taxonomy of bacteria and archaea (Yoon et al., 2017). The sequences of closest 172 accessions were collected and used further in phylogenetic analysis in Molecular Evolutionary 173 Genetics Analysis software version 7 (MEGA7) (Kumar et al., 2016). Multiple sequence 174 alignment following the ClustalW method (Thompson et al., 1994) was performed before 175 inferring phylogenetic tree using Neighbor-Joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987) following 176 the Tamura-Nei model (Tamura and Nei, 1993). Lastly, we also used BLAST (Basic Local 177 Alignment Search Tool) in NCBI (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) (Altschul et al., 178 1990) to check for the identity of our isolates to closest species or strains in GenBank. 179

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### Antimicrobial assay using autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) 181

183 A suspension of the 72-h old culture (log phase) of the endophytic bacteria and *Bacillus* isolates in PSA was diluted to obtain approximately 10<sup>8</sup> cfu/mL or OD<sub>600</sub> at 0.75-0.80. A 1.0 mL aliquot 184 consisting of approximately 10<sup>8</sup> cells was inoculated in a 100 mL 3% tryptic soy broth (TSB, 185 BD-Difco) in Erlenmeyer flasks. The broth cultures were incubated for 72 h at room 186 temperature with continuous shaking at 120 rpm. Thereafter, the bacterial broth cultures were 187 incubated for 30 min at autoclaving temperature (121°C) and pressure (15 psi) in order to retain 188 189 only the autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs). The ACMs were centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 10 min to separate cell debris. The supernatant was then filter-sterilized using a 0.2 µm-190 pore size polyether sulfone (PES) membrane filter (Sterile Acrodisc, Gelman Sciences or 191 192 Whatman, GE Life Sciences) to remove remaining bacterial cell debris. To use ACM filtrates 193 for *E. mallotivora* inhibition assays, dilutions were made to obtain approximately  $OD_{600}$  of 0.25 194 to 0.30 as standard concentrations.

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Log phase colonies (72-h old) of *E. mallotivora* was prepared as suspension in sterile water at 196 0.25 to 0.30 OD at 600 nm, in order to obtain approximately  $10^4$  cells/mL. The assay was done 197 in a 96-well microtiter flat-bottom polycarbonate plate (Tarsons, Cat. No. 941146). ACMs and 198 *E. mallotivora* cells were mixed in a well at 1:1 ratio (50  $\mu$ L + 50  $\mu$ L). Wells that served as 199 controls contain E. mallotivora cells only and E. mallotivora cells in tryptic soy broth while 200 201 tryptic soy broth and sterile water only served as blanks. The OD<sub>600</sub> reading and log<sub>10</sub> cfu/mL of the wells at 0, 24, 48 and 72 h were noted and compared across treatments. In order to have 202 a good estimate of the inhibitory effect of the ACMs, percent inhibition was calculated using 203 the formula:  $\frac{OD_{Em+TSB}-OD_{ACM}}{2P} \times 100\%$ , where  $OD_{Em+TSB}$  is the optical density reading of the 204 OD<sub>Em+TSB</sub> negative check (Em+TSB) at a given time point and OD<sub>ACM</sub> is the optical density of any ACM-205 treated Em suspension at a given time point. This assay followed a randomized complete block 206 design (RCBD), wherein the ACMs served as treatments and replicates as the blocking factor. 207 208 Three replicates were prepared for each treatment containing three samples with 12 subsamples. Thus, for each treatment, 96 readings were done every time the OD values were 209 assessed.

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### 212 Preparation of seeds and ACM treatment

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The papaya seeds used in this study were obtained from the papaya germplasm collection at 214 215 the Fruit Breeding Laboratory at Institute of Plant Breeding, College of Agriculture and Food Science, University of the Philippines Los Baños. The genotypes used were variety Cariflora 216 (genotype 5648), a PRSV-tolerant and BCR-tolerant 'regrowth' genotype with good yield and 217 218 fruit quality, and the Solo variety (genotype 501), which is susceptible to both PRSV and BCR. Sterilized coir dust-garden soil medium was prepared as potting medium for the seeds. Seeds 219 220 were surface sterilized in an Erlenmeyer flask using 70% ethanol solution for 1 min, followed 221 by rinsing twice in sterile water for 2 min and blot- and air-drying under the laminar flow hood for 15 min. The seeds were immersed in the ACMs for 16 h, followed by blot- and air-drying 222 under the laminar flow hood for 30 min. Soaking in sterile tryptic soy broth only served as the 223 224 mock treatment. The seeds were sowed in sterile potting medium with complete (40-40-40) fertilizer and maintained under greenhouse conditions with daily watering for six weeks. The 225 plants were ready for inoculation if it has 4-5 leaf nodes already and about 10 cm in height. 226 The effects of ACM treatment on seed germination was assessed based on percent of seeds 227 germinated after four weeks. To evaluate the effect of ACM treatment on plant biomass, the 7-228 wk old ACM-treated plants were slowly dried in an oven at 65°C. The dry weight of the samples 229 were assessed after 36 h. This experiment followed a randomized complete block design 230 (RCBD), wherein the ACMs served as treatments and replicates as the blocking factor. 231 232 Separate statistical analyses were done for the two genotypes.

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### 234 Inoculation of ACM-treated plants and disease assessment

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Six-week old ACM-treated seedlings of both papaya genotype 5648 and 501 were inoculated with *Erwinia mallotivora* as described by Supian *et al.*, with some modifications (Supian et al., 2017). The plants were watered first before inoculation to increase its internal turgor pressure and activate transpiration and water translocation, thus increasing inoculation efficiency. To further increase chances of infection, the apical tips, petiole and midrib of the second and third youngest leaf were pricked with a sterile syringe needle. On the other hand, the inoculum was prepared by suspending a 72-h old pure culture of *E. mallotivora* in sterile water and diluting

the suspension to obtain approximately  $10^8$  cfu/mL (OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.75-0.80). The inoculum was

applied through spraying three times per plant, delivering approximately 1.0 mL of inoculum.
After inoculation, plants were covered with clear plastic cups in order to maintain high relative
humidity and favor bacterial growth for 48 h.

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Disease assessment was done at 7 and 21 days post inoculation (dpi). Percent disease incidence 248 was calculated as  $PDI = \frac{\text{no.of diseased plants}}{\text{for a last of a last$ 249 total no.of plants scoring used by Supian et al. (2017) with some modifications. This modified scale consisted 250 251 of the following: 0 (no symptom), 1 (lesions are restricted to inoculation point only), 3 (lesions are expanding to less than half of leaf area), 5 (lesions are expanding to more than half of leaf 252 253 area), 7 (lesions and rotting spread to the petiole and stem and 9 = (plant suffers severe rotting, crown falls off). Finally, percent disease severity index was calculated as (PDSI = 254 255 design (RCBD), wherein the ACMs served as treatments and replicates as the blocking factor. 256 Three replicates were prepared for each treatment containing three samples with five 257 subsamples each. Thus, for each treatment, 45 plants were allotted. 258

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### 260 Statistical analysis of data.

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All *in vitro* experiments were done twice and greenhouse experiment were done thrice to confirm results. All data generated were subjected to statistical analysis through one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ) in SAS software program version 14.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC). Separate statistical analyses were done for the two papaya genotype used. The means were subjected to pairwise mean comparison using Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test. All tests are considered significant if P < 0.05 (\*), P < 0.01 (\*\*) or P < 0.001 (\*\*\*).

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## 270 **Results**271

### 272 Native endophytic bacteria from 'regrowth' BCR-tolerant plants

273 Initially, a community of bacterial cells was observed in the tolerant genotype, 5746 (var. 274 275 *Cariflora*) in early stages of regrowth (3-4 wks), but not in fully regrowth tissues (7-8 wks) (see Supplementary Figure 1). Building on the SEM observations, regrowth-associated 276 culturable native endophytic bacteria (NEB) were isolated. Two morpho-culturally distinct, 277 stem NEBs (EBW, EBY) and three root NEBs (BN, BS, BT) were isolated. Based on Bergev's 278 Manual of Systematic Bacteriology (Whitman et al., 2015), EBW was identified under genus 279 Enterobacter (Gammaproteobacteria: Enterobacterales: Enterobacteriaceae). EBY was 280 281 identified under genus Sphingomonas (*Alphaproteobacteria*: Sphingomonadales: Sphingomonadaceae). On the other hand, the Bacillus isolates were not easily identified using 282 phenotypic characteristics because their colonies are very much alike and also exhibit similar 283 biochemical properties. Identification using 16S rRNA sequence was carried out to determine 284 the most probable taxa of the bacterial isolates. Figure 2 shows the resulting phylogenetic trees 285 with the percent identity to valid taxa or type specimen identified in EzBioCloud. The analyses 286 showed that EBW is paraphyletically related to *Kosakonia* sp. clade and monophyletically 287 288 related the *Enterobacter* sp. clade. It is worthwhile to note that *Kosakonia* sp. is a new genus of plant-associated, endophytic ex. Enterobacter species (Brady et al., 2013). Moreover, EBY 289 is paraphyletically related to S. endophytica YIM 65583 (Huang et al., 2012) and 290 Sphingomonas phyllosphaerae FA2 (Rivas et al., 2004), although percent identity to closest 291 292 taxa is not convincingly high enough, which also implies that it could be a new species (see

293 Supplementary Table 1). On the other hand, the *Bacillus* isolates cannot be definitively identified because of inherent limitation of 16S rRNA for Bacillus taxonomy (Maughan and 294 Van der Auwera, 2011). Nevertheless, it is possible that the three isolates are members of the 295 296 Bacillus subtilis species complex (Fan et al., 2017) based on bioinformatic and phylogenetic analysis done. Lastly, all the isolates were not able to infect papaya nor cause any 297 hypersensitive reaction, which implies no interaction with plant resistance machinery. The 298 299 summary of characteristics of the isolates is shown in Table 1, while all supplementary data can be accessed in the through provided herewith. 300

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### E. mallotivora was promptly and efficiently inhibited by ACMs.

304 The microtiter plate assay for the inhibition of *Em* was proven to be useful in evaluating 305 inhibition efficacy of the autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) by just monitoring the absorbance readings. Figure 3 shows the trend in absorbance of the ACM treatments, as well 306 as percent relative inhibition. After 24 h, a drastic increase in cell density was observed in the 307 BS, BT and EBY treatments. Nevertheless, this observed increase in cell density in the ACM 308 309 treatments was still considerably lower than the negative control, at around 2-3 folds. Thus, 310 there is still a significant inhibition of cell multiplication in these treatments. More importantly, bacterial growth was highly inhibited when Em was subjected to BN and EBW at 60-65% and 311 312 53%, respectively.

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### All ACMs reduced growth vigor of papaya, except ACM from Kosakonia.

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Treatment of surface-sterilized papaya seeds with ACMs from bacterial endophytes and 316 Bacillus isolates resulted to retarded germination compared to mock-treated seeds. Figure 4a 317 318 shows the average percent germination of papaya seeds of genotype 501 (var. Solo) and 5648 (var. *Cariflora*), which were evaluated as susceptible and tolerant (*i.e.* regrowth) to the crown 319 rot disease, respectively. Among the all treatments, BS has no significant adverse effect on the 320 321 germination of papaya seeds in both genotypes. However, treatment with isolate BN and BT resulted to a significant reduction in percent germination of 501, while treatment with isolate 322 EBW and EBY resulted to lowest percent germination in genotype 5648. This implies that 323 papaya might respond differently to ACM treatments, depending on genotype. Plant growth 324 was assessed by getting the dry biomass of plants at 7 wks after sowing. Figure 4b shows the 325 accumulated biomass, measured as oven-dried weight, of the ACM-treated plants. Treatment 326 with ACM from EBW yielded the highest dry weight, particularly in genotype 5648, which 327 328 correspond to more than two-fold increase relative to mock. However, no significant increase 329 in biomass was observed in genotype 501 in the same treatment, indicating that growth stimulation by bacterial ACMs in papaya might be genotype-dependent. Finally, all other 330 331 treatments significantly reduced biomass accumulation in both genotypes as depicted, especially in BS ACM-treatment. 332

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- 334 ACMs significantly reduced the incidence and severity of BCR disease in Papaya. 335

The possibility of using easy to prepare, sterile, highly-stable, and potent metabolites from 336 337 beneficial bacteria as promoter of disease resistance in papaya was assessed in this study. Although plant vigor was adversely affected by the treatment of ACMs, the papaya plant would 338 eventually recover and grow normally. Figure 5a,b shows the representative photographs of 339 340 inoculated plants after two weeks of observation. Based on observations made, BN-treated 341 plants in both genotypes seemed to have retarded growth after 14 dpi, due to infection. Necrosis 342 within half of the inoculated leaf area was commonly observed in these plants. BS- and BT-

343 treated plants in both genotypes were not significantly affected by the pathogen challenge and continued to grow normally. At most instances, plants in this treatment only had necrosis at the 344 inoculation point. Recorded percent disease incidence (Figure 5c) revealed that in general, 345 ACM-treated plants have lower propensity to bacterial crown rot infection. BCR incidence 346 continued to increase until 21 dpi, but the incidence in ACM-treated plants remained lower 347 compared to that of the mock-treated plants, in both genotypes. On the other hand, there was a 348 349 general reduction in average severity ratings in both genotypes (Figure 5d). More importantly, 350 a two-fold reduction in disease severity was observed in EBW treatment at 21 dpi relative to control. Lowest severity was observed in EBW-treated 5648 plants relative to control. 351 352 Generally, improved resistance is more pronounced in 5648 (resistant) plants than in 501 (susceptible) plants. 353

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### 355 Discussion

356 BCR tolerant genotypes such as 5648 (var. Cariflora) were primarily identified using the lateral 357 stem 'regrowth' phenotype at 5-7 wks after infection (wai) as indicator of disease resistance or 358 359 tolerance. In this study, it was observed through SEM that infection sites in recovering tissues from genotype 5648 were colonized by a community of bacteria at the onset of regrowth (3-4 360 wai). Building around the initial observations, endophytic bacteria from stem and roots were 361 362 isolated from regrowth genotype 5648, and further characterization and identification using 16S rRNA were carried out thereafter. Root-associated Bacillus species were identified under 363 the Bacillus subtilis species complex, while the two endophytic bacteria were identified under 364 365 genus Kosakonia ex. Enterobacter (isolate EBW) and Sphingomonas (isolate EBY). Related species under the B. subtilis species complex include Bacillus velezensis strain CR-502 (isolate 366 BN) that was shown to produce surfactants that confer antimicrobial activity against other 367 368 microbes (Ruiz-García et al., 2005). Additionally, antibiotics from Bacillus successfully inhibited gram-positive bacteria that are also human-pathogenic such as *Stapylococcus aureus*, 369 Clostridium difficile and Listeria monocytogenes (Collins et al., 2016). We report herewith the 370 371 first instance that a strain of the B. subtilis species complex was shown to have inhibitory properties against a bacterial plant pathogen. 372

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374 Species of the genus Sphingomonas are reported to have beneficial properties and are usually 375 associated as endophytes in many plants. In particular, S. paucimobilis associated with an orchid plant (Dendrobium officinale), was proven to have growth promoting properties by 376 increasing phytohormone production and aiding in atmospheric nitrogen fixation, processes 377 378 which the plant cannot carry out normally (Yang et al., 2014). Likewise, S. phyllosphaerae and 379 S. endophytica were originally isolated as endophytes in Acacia caven and Artemesia annua, respectively. On the other hand, Kosakonia sp. (formerly Enterobacter sp.) is a new taxon name 380 381 assigned to endophytic, plant-associated Enterobacteraceae species. Two species, K. oryzophilus and K. oryzendophytica, were found to be key inhabitants of rice root endosphere 382 (Hardoim et al., 2013). The two species were able to promote rice growth by supplying nitrogen 383 and phosphorus to the plant. Similarly, Kosakonia sacchari (Zhu et al., 2013) (formerly 384 Enterobacter sp.) is an endophyte associated with sugarcane stem, roots and rhizosphere. The 385 bacterium was shown to help the plant in producing fixed nitrogen for its consumption. Another 386 387 species of Kosakonia, named K. pseudosacchari, was discovered to be endophytically associated with field grown corn (Zea mays) root tissues. K. pseudosacchari is also a closely 388 related species of K. sachari and K. oryzedophytica (Kämpfer et al., 2016). However, there 389 390 were no studies were reported yet regarding the antimicrobial properties of Kosakonia and 391 Sphingomonas species other than this study. Interestingly, the aforementioned Bacillus species and endophytic bacteria were not able to infect papaya plants nor cause any hypersensitive 392

reaction and is resistant to latex exposure. A similar set of endophytic bacteria were also
isolated from and constantly associated with tissue-cultured papaya plants based on previous
studies (Thomas et al., 2007b, 2007a; Thomas and Kumari, 2010).

397 Endophytic bacteria and various *Bacillus* species associated with plants were reported to have growth-promoting and disease resistance-inducing properties (Hallmann et al., 1997; Ongena 398 399 and Jacques, 2008; Podolich et al., 2015). Species of Bacillus, such as B. paralicheniformis MDJK30 was reported to promote growth in Arabidopsis thaliana (Dunlap et al., 2015; 400 Palacio-Rodríguez et al., 2017) and suppress growth of Fusarium solani (Wang et al., 2017). 401 402 Another strain, B. paralicheniformis KMS 80 was discovered to be associated with rice root endosphere and helped the plant in nitrogen fixation (Annapurna et al., 2018) (Annapurna et 403 404 al., 2018). However, assays for growth-promotion and disease resistance induction heavily rely 405 on the availability of culturable isolates and its compatibility or ability to colonize the host plant. In this study, these challenges were surpassed by preparing culture metabolites that are 406 407 easy-to-prepare, sterile and highly stable, thus the term, autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs). Moreover, seed inoculation using ACMs of bacteria is a relatively new method used 408 409 in stimulating plant growth and in turn, enhance disease resistance in plants. This method was previously demonstrated in pepper and cucumber using ACMs of *Bacillus gaemokensis* PB69 410 (Song et al., 2017). Unlike the study by Song et al., this study used unpurified preparations of 411 412 ACMs, which contains mixture of metabolites that might have caused reduced germination in papaya seeds. However, it was shown that growth vigor of papaya seedlings was enhanced 413 later on as shown in higher biomass accumulation compared to the normal or untreated ones. 414 415 Comparatively, treatment of live cell suspensions of endophytic and other beneficial bacteria also led to reduced germination and seedling vigor in papaya (Thomas et al., 2007a), tomato 416 (Worrall et al., 2012) and oil palm (Azri et al., 2018), but recovery of plant growth was 417 418 observed when grown in greenhouse conditions. Nevertheless, live cell suspensions are prone to contamination and the cells are unprotected and unstable unlike when using ACMs. 419

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421 On the other hand, ACMs from the NEBs contributed to the reduction of the incidence of crown rot, in both susceptible and resistant genotypes. The plants remained healthy wherein only local 422 necrosis at the inoculation site was observed in the test plants. These observations indicated 423 that ACM-treatment has a potential to decrease the predisposition of the papaya plant to the 424 425 crown rot disease, as a collateral effect of plant growth stimulation. However, these observations still demand further molecular transcriptomic investigation to be referred to as a 426 disease biopriming phenomenon. Interestingly, genotype dependence of papaya responses to 427 428 ACM treatments might be important to consider in breeding programs to augment disease 429 resistance. Endophytic bacteria and many *Bacillus* species were proved to have such bioactivity in plants, may it be its native host or a non-host (Tonelli et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2014; S. et 430 431 al., 2018; Wicaksono et al., 2018). However, induction of defense responses in plants comes 432 with a penalty or cost (Cipollini et al., 2003; Dietrich et al., 2005) by delaying and lowering the plant's germination and seedling vigor. Nonetheless, we show that fully-grown seedlings 433 eventually recuperate and even accumulate higher biomass relative to the untreated 434 counterpart. 435

436

The use of live cell suspension remains the most popular method in exploiting beneficial microbes to promote better plant health (Hallmann et al., 1997). However, we present herewith, the use of autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) is relatively new but promising and only a few studies were reported to prove resistance-inducing bioactivity in plants (Noh et al., 2017; Song et al., 2017). The use of ACMs provides a convenient and fast way to screen plantassociated microbes because this method is easy to prepare, and the metabolites produced are

443 highly stable and potent. If optimally applied, disease protection and induction of systemic

resistance using beneficial microbes or its metabolites will be a good alternative to chemicalpesticides or resistance inducers.

446

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448

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452

### 453 Supplementary Data

- 454
- 455 All supplementary data for this study can be downloaded through this link:
- 456 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13499409.v1
- 457

### 458 **Declarations**

459

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463

Availability of data and material. Sequences of the 16S rRNA gene for each bacterial isolate
 are deposited in NCBI GenBank. Accession numbers and sequences are also available in
 supplementary data [link].

467

468 *Conflict of interest.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

469

*Author contributions.* MPSR and PMM did the study conception and design and funding
acquisition. PMM supervised all experiments. Material preparation and data collection were
performed by MPSR, EPP, SFMD and EM. MPSR did the data analysis. The first draft of the
manuscript was written by MPSR and all authors approved the final manuscript.

### 474

### 475 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

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*Research involving Human Participants and/or Animals*. We confirm that in this research any
human and/or animals participant was not used and there is no any disagreement with informed
consent.

480

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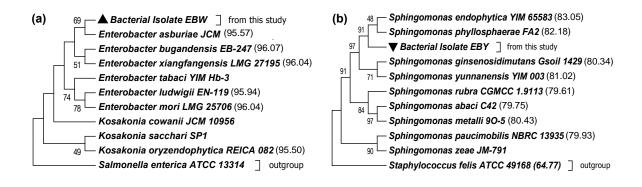
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Table 1. Summary of morpho-cultural and biochemical properties of the bacterial isolates isolated in this study.

Properties	E. mallotivora	<i>Kosakonia</i> sp.	Sphingomonas sp.	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. BN	<i>Bacillus</i> sp. BS	<i>Bacillu</i> s sp. BT
Cell / Single Colony <sup>1</sup>						
colony color	cream white	white	deep yellow	light brown	cream white	cream white
cell shape	rods	rods	short rods	rod	rod	rod
gram stain	negative	positive	negative	positive	positive	positive
spore formation	absent	present	absent	present	present	present
diameter (mm)	0.8-1.0	6.0-6.5	5.5-6.0	6.0-6.5	7.0-7.5	5.0-6.0
shape	circular	circular	circular	irregular	irregular	irregular
margin	entire	entire	entire	undulate	undulate	undulate
elevation	convex	convex	convex	umbonate	flat	raised
consistency	fluidal	fluidal	butterous	dry	dry	dry
Morpho-cultural <sup>2</sup>						
nutrient agar stroke	filiform, butyrous	filiform, viscid	filiform, butyrous	effuse, butyrous	effuse, rubbery	rhizoid, brittle
nutrient broth	flocculent	ring	flocculent	membranous	membranous	membranous
Biochemical <sup>3</sup>						
oxygen requirement	facultative anaerobe	facultative anaerobe	facultative anaerobe	obligate aerobe	obligate aerobe	obligate aerobe
catalase	+	+	+	+	+	+
cysteine desulfurase	-	+	+	+	-	-
lipase	-	+	+	+	+	+
gelatinase	-	+	-	+	+	+
starch utilization	+	-	+/-	+	+	-
cellobiose utilization	-	+	+	+	+	+
glucose utilization	+	+	+	+	+	+
lactose utilization	-	+	+	+	+	+
maltose utilization	-	+	+	+	+	+
mannitol utilization	+	+	-	+	+	+
mannose utilization	+	+	+	-	-	-
sorbitol utilization	-	+	-	+	+	+

<sup>1</sup>Colony morphology in Peptone Sucrose Agar (PSA) after 7 d of room temperature incubation. <sup>2</sup>Morpho-cultural properties after 14 d of room temperature incubation. <sup>3</sup>+, positive test; -, negative test; +/-, weak positive. 



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- Figure 2. Phylogenetic trees showing most probable taxa and species-level identity based on 16S rRNA sequences of: (a) Isolate EBW tree showing relationship with *Enterobacter/Kosakonia* clade, percent identities to EBW are shown in the members of the clade; (b) Isolate EBY tree showing relationship to the *Sphingomonas* species, percent identities to EBY are shown in the members of the clade. The
- 667 analysis followed Neighbor Joining following the Tamura-Nei model in MEGA7. Bootstrap values for
- 668 1000 replicates greater than 45% are shown in the nodes.

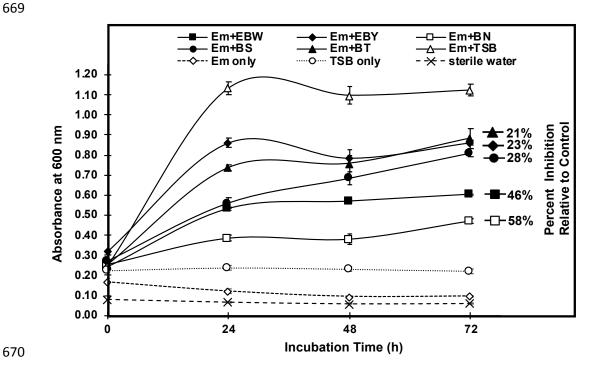
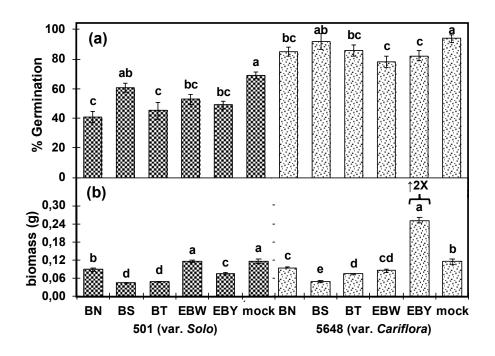




Figure 3. Antimicrobial effect of autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) on Erwinia mallotivora 672 673 proliferation *in vitro*. Changes in absorbance readings at 600nm (left axis) through time (horizontal axis) and percent inhibition relative to the controls (right axis) of the autoclaved culture metabolite-treated 674 675 Erwinia mallotivora (Em) cell suspensions are shown. The treatments are as follows: Em treated with 676 ACM from isolate EBW (Kosakonia sp.) (Em+EBW), EBY (Sphingomonas sp.) (Em+EBY), isolate BN 677 (Em+BN), isolate BS (Em+BS) and isolate BT (Em+BT). Em in tryptic soy broth (Em+TSB) and Em only 678 served as negative controls while TSB only and sterile water only served as blanks. Standard deviation 679 shown as error bars are depicted in each data point. 680



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Figure 4. Effect of autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) on the growth vigor of papaya. (a) Germination data taken at 21 days after sowing (das) and (b) biomass taken at 49 das. Columns with checkered shade are data from the papaya BCR-susceptible genotype and columns with dotted shade are data from papaya BCR-tolerant genotype. The two-fold increase in dry biomass is EBY-treated genotype 5648 is also highlighted. Treatments marked with different letters are statistically different after HSD test at P < 0.05 (\*).

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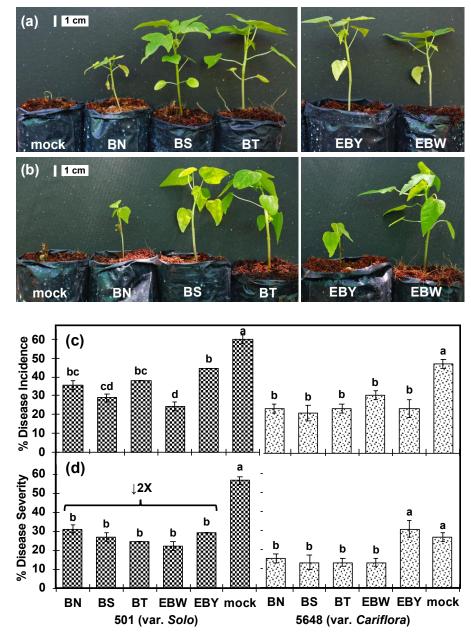
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Figure 5. Effect of autoclaved culture metabolites (ACMs) on the incidence and severity of bacterial crown rot disease of papaya. Representative photos of pathogen-challenged ACM-treated plants of (a) genotype 501 and (b) genotype 5648. Scale bars are shown in the figure above. (c) Average percent disease incidence taken at 21 days after inoculation (dai), (d) average percent disease severity at 21 dai. Columns with checkered shade are data from the papaya BCR-susceptible genotype and columns with dotted shade are data from papaya BCR-tolerant genotype. Treatments marked with different letters are statistically different after HSD test at P < 0.05 (\*).

SEM observations and Bioinformatic analysis results

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