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Signaling between bacterial and fungal biocontrol agents

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in a strain mixture

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Abstract

The use of bacterial and fungal strain mixtures is a promising way to improve efficacy of biocontrol treatments. Certain *Pseudomonas* and *Trichoderma* strains belong to the most common studied biocontrol agents. One key factor for the biocontrol efficacy of several *P. fluorescens* strains is the synthesis of 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG). Production of chitinases, such as the ECH42 endochitinase and the NAG1 *N*-acetyl-β-D-glucosaminidase, is a primary mechanism of action for *T. atroviride*. We examined the molecular interactions between the DAPG-producing *P. fluorescens* strains CHA0 and Q2-87 and chitinase-producing *T. atroviride* P1. Interactions were monitored using the reporter gene constructs, *phlA'-'lacZ* translational fusion in *P. fluorescens* CHA0 and *ech42-goxA* or *nag1-goxA* fusions in *T. atroviride* P1. We found that DAPG enhanced *nag1*, but not *ech42* expression, whereas an unidentified substance from *P. fluorescens* CHA0 repressed expression of both *Trichoderma* chitinases. Addition of *T. atroviride* P1 culture filtrates to growing cultures of *P. fluorescens* enhanced *phlA* expression transiently during growth. These results indicate that negative and positive effects on expression of key biocontrol genes may occur while mixing antagonists.

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Keywords: Pseudomonas; Trichoderma; Biocontrol strain combination; Gene expression; 2,4-Diacetylphloroglucinol; Chitinase

1. Introduction

Introduction of two or more antagonists in a strain mixture has been proposed as an approach to improve the level and reliability of biocontrol treatments across an expanded broader range of environments [1]. Strain mixtures have indeed proven in some cases to be more effective than single strain treatments against a variety of plant diseases [2–7]. There are, however, other reports of biocontrol strain combinations that had no effect on efficacy or even reduced the level of disease suppressive activity of individual antagonists [8–12]. An important

prerequisite for designing effective strain mixtures is choosing strains that complement rather than interfere with the antagonistic activity of each antagonist. Surprisingly, little is currently known at the molecular level about interactions between co-inoculated biocontrol strains despite the level of interest in strain mixtures.

The objective of this study was to determine in vitro the impact of two of the most studied biocontrol organisms, *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Trichoderma atroviride*, on the expression of each other's primary biocontrol genes. Well-characterized model strains of each organism were used. These organisms have distinct mechanisms in biocontrol and distinct regulation of key biocontrol genes. *P. fluorescens* CHA0 and Q2-87 produce various secondary metabolites with antimicrobial activity, including hydrogen cyanide and metal-chelating

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siderophores. Strain CHA0 also produces salicylic acid and the polyketide antimicrobial compound, pyoluteorin. For both strains, one of the most important is polyketide antimicrobial compound 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG) [13]. DAPG is widely distributed in antagonistic P. fluorescens strains that occur in natural disease suppressive soils [14]. It has a wide range activity against bacteria, fungi, and helminths [15,16]. The DAPG synthesis is influenced by edaphic parameters (e.g., pH, mineral concentrations and clay quality) [17,18], host genotype, host age, pathogen infection [19], genetic instability of inoculants [20], and is inhibited by certain pathogen toxins [21]. The DAPG biosynthetic genes, phlACBDE, are organized as an operon [13]. In this study, strain CHA0, harboring a translational fusion of the promoter proximal DAPG biosynthetic gene, phlA, to the reporter gene lacZ on plasmid pME6259 was used to monitor expression of the DAPG biosynthetic gene. Trichoderma biocontrol activity is mostly due to mycoparasitism facilitated by the production of a suite of cell wall-degrading enzymes (CWDE) [22]. T. atroviride strain P1 (formerly classified as T. harzianum) [23], which we have used in our work, has previously been shown to have broad-spectrum biocontrol activity [24]. The CWDEs of strain P1 act synergistically to advance mycoparasitism of phytopathogenic fungi. Of these, the most important are the ECH42 endochitinase encoded by ech42 and an N-acetyl-β-D-glucosaminidase encoded by nag1 [25,26]. Expression of the nagl chitinase gene is repressed by a pathogen toxin [27]. To our knowledge, no other biotic factors influencing chitinase gene expression were identified. Much of the insight of regulation of these genes has been achieved using sensitive reporter fusions of the chitinase genes with the Aspergillus niger glucose-oxidase encoding gene, goxA [25,27]. These are the constructs we have used in our experiments.

In this study, we demonstrate that metabolites from a bacterial and a fungal antagonist alter, positively and negatively, the expression of each other's most critical biocontrol genes.

Table 1 Pseudomonas fluorescens and Trichoderma atroviride strains used

Strain Relevant characteristic Reference Pseudomonas fluorescens CHA0 Wild-type, DAPG+, Plt+, Swiss natural disease suppressive soil [28] CHA631 ΔphlA/DAPG-, Plt+ [29] CHA660 Tn5-insertion, Km^r, DAPG⁺, Plt⁻ [30] CHA89 gacA::Ω-km, Km^r, DAPG⁻, Plt⁻ [31] Q2-87 Wild-type, DAPG+, Plt-, Washington state, natural disease suppressive soil [1,32]Q2-87::Tn5-1 Q2-87 phlD::Tn5-1, DAPG-, Km^r [32] Trichoderma atroviride P1 Wild-type, isolated from wood chips [33] P1 ech42-gox Endochitinase Ech42+, ech42-gox fusion Hygr [25] P1 nag1-gox N-Acetyl-β-D-glucosaminidase Nag1+, nag1-gox fusion, Hyg^r [25]

DAPG, 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol; Plt, pyoluteorin; Km^r, kanamycin resistant; Hyg^r, hygromycin resistant.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Microorganisms and culture conditions

The *P. fluorescens* strains and their derivatives used in this study are described in Table 1. Plasmid pME6259 is a derivative of pME6010 and contains a *phlA'-'lacZ* translational fusion and a tetracycline resistance gene [29]. Plasmid pME6010 has approximately six copies per chromosome and is maintained stably in *P. fluorescens* in the absence of antibiotic selection [34]. Preliminary work has shown that pME6259 retention in strain CHA0 is $98.8 \pm 0.9\%$ after 20 generations. Expression of the *phlA'-'lacZ* translational fusion reflects DAPG biosynthesis [19,29]. Bacteria were routinely cultivated at 27 °C on King's B agar (KB) [35] or LB medium (Difco, Detroit, MI) with the addition of tetracycline (125 µg/ ml) as required, unless otherwise mentioned.

T. atroviride strain P1 and derivatives carrying goxA-reporter gene fusions with the ech42 (derivative ech42-gox) or the nag1 (derivative nag1-gox) chitinase biosynthetic gene, have previously been described [25]. These strains display a glucose oxidase activity pattern that is consistent under various conditions with expression of the native ech42 and nag1 genes, as assayed by Northern analysis [25]. The strains were stored as spore suspensions in 20% glycerol (vol/vol) at -20 °C. Four days before the start of experiments, T. atroviride strains were grown on PDA media [4.8 g potato dextrose broth (Difco), 12 g agar (Oxoid, Hampshire, UK), pH 6.5] at 24 °C in darkness.

2.2. Measurement of gene expression

To measure glucose oxidase activity, 10 ml of a phosphate buffer (KH_2PO_4 : 1.2 g/l, K_2HPO_4 : 2.6 g/l, pH 7.1) were added to each plate. Plates were shaken for 30 min at 80 rpm, the liquid containing mycelia fragments was transferred to 15 ml FalconTM centrifuge tubes (Greiner Labortechnik, Kremsmünster, Austria), and centrifuged for 5 min at 1800g. The supernatant was

used for quantification of glucose oxidase activity according to Mach et al. [25].

β-Galactosidase assays were conducted according to the method of Miller [36]. Activities were expressed as units per 10⁸ cfu. Unit values were calculated according to Miller [36] following the formula:

 $1000 \times \text{OD}_{420}/(\text{time [min]} \times \text{sample volume [ml]})$

= units of β -galactosidase.

2.3. Influence of P. fluorescens and derivatives lacking production of specific metabolites on expression of key biocontrol genes of T. atroviride P1

Unless otherwise mentioned, overnight cultures of the P. fluorescens wild-type strain CHA0 grown in 10 ml of LB broth (27 °C, 160 rpm) were diluted to an optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 0.125, which is equivalent to 10⁸ cfu/ml. The bacteria were inoculated with four spots of 20 µl in equidistance on the circumference of a circle of 3.2 cm from the center of a 1.5% malt extract agar (MA) plate. One plug of an actively growing culture of T. atroviride P1 reporter strain ech42-gox or nag1-gox was placed inverted in the centre of the plate and incubated at 24 °C in darkness. After 66 h, the mycelial surface area of T. atroviride P1 was measured using a planimeter and glucose oxidase activity was measured as described above. Data from four experiments with six replicate plates were pooled after determining there was no significant trial x treatment interaction (P = 0.439, and 0.700 for ech42-, and nag1expression) using Systat version 9.0 (Systat Inc., Evanston, IL). Means of four experiments with six replicates each were separated using Fisher's protected $(P \le 0.05)$ least significant difference (LSD) test.

To evaluate a possible influence of secondary metabolites of *P. fluorescens* CHA0 on chitinase gene expression in *T. atroviride* P1, the reporter strains *nag1-gox* and *ech42-gox* were grown in the presence of the following derivatives of *P. fluorescens* CHAO: CHA631 (DAPG-minus), CHA660 (pyoluteorin-minus) and CHA89 (*gacA*-minus).

In a second set of experiments, the role of DAPG in the interaction of the two antagonists was determined. *T. atroviride* P1 reporter strain *nag1-gox* was grown in presence or absence of *P. fluorescens* wild-type strains CHA0 and Q2-87 and their non-DAPG-producing derivatives CHA631 and Q2-87::Tn5-1 as described above. All treatments were tested on plates prepared with as well as without the addition of synthetic DAPG (0.1 mM).

2.4. Influence of secondary metabolites of P. fluorescens CHA0 on ech42 and nag1 expression in T. atroviride P1

MA plates were amended with synthetic DAPG, pyoluteorin or salicylic acid to a final concentration of 0.1 mM. Salicylic acid was also tested at 0.5 mM. All substances were dissolved in methanol, and the control treatment received the same amount methanol (final concentration: 5%). One plug of an actively growing culture of T. atroviride P1 reporter strain ech42-gox or nag1-gox was placed inverted in the middle of a plate and incubated for 66 h at 24 °C in darkness. The mycelial surface area was measured using a planimeter and glucose oxidase activity was measured as described above. Data from repeated trials were pooled after determining no significant treatment×trial interaction (P = 0.156, and 0.106 for ech42-, and nag1-expression), and analyzed as described above.

2.5. Influence of T. atroviride P1 filtrates on bacterial gene expression in vitro

Czapek-Dox medium (Oxoid, Hampshire, UK) (250 ml in 500 ml baffled flasks) was inoculated with four 7mm diameter plugs taken from an actively growing culture of T. atroviride wild-type strain P1. Cultures were incubated for 7 days at 24 °C on a rotary shaker (180 rpm) in darkness. Fungal biomass was collected by centrifugation at 2200g for 15 min. To remove cells, the supernatant was filtered through a 0.8 µm-membrane (Nalgene, Rochester, NY) and stored at 2 °C for no longer than 1 week. Mid- to end-exponential growthphase LB cultures of P. fluorescens CHA0 carrying the phlA'-'lacZ reporter construct were diluted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.001 and 30-µl aliquots were used for inoculation in 24 ml of KB broth amended with 6 ml of fungal filtrates. Bacteria grown in KB amended with plain Czapek-Dox medium served as a control. Cultures were incubated with rotary shaking at 160 rpm at 27 °C. In all experiments, samples of 1 ml were taken throughout the exponential and early stationary growth phase and β-galactosidase activities were determined as described above. Bacterial growth was estimated at OD₆₀₀, after having established the correlation with cfu by dilution plating on KB agar. The experiment included four replicate flasks and was repeated four times with similar results in all trials.

2.6. Influence of volatile substances from T. atroviride P1 on expression of a phlA'-'lacZ reporter gene fusion in P. fluorescens CHA0

The experiment was conducted on dual compartment dishes to avoid physical contact between the microorganisms but to allow air transfer. One compartment contained KB agar and was inoculated with a 100 μ l drop of a diluted (OD₆₀₀ = 0.1) overnight culture of the *P. fluorescens* reporter strain CHA0/pME6259 grown in 10 ml of LB broth (27 °C, 160 rpm). The other compartment contained MA and was inoculated with one 7-mm-diameter plug of an actively growing culture of *T. atroviride*

wild-type strain P1. The fungal biocontrol agent was inoculated 48 h prior to the bacterial agent. After 17, 20 and 23 h bacterial incubation at 27 °C in darkness, bacteria were scraped off the plate with 5 ml of saline solution (0.9%). The β -galactosidase activities of bacterial suspensions were determined as described above. Bacterial growth was estimated at OD₆₀₀ and by dilution plating on KB agar supplemented with tetracycline.

3. Results

3.1. P. fluorescens strains altered growth and chitinase gene expression in T. atroviride P1

When T. atroviride P1 was grown alone, ech42 expression which is indicative of ECH42 biosynthesis per mycelial surface was 28.6 mU/cm² (Fig. 1A). Expression of the ech42-gox fusion was significantly repressed, between 38.5% and 45%, by co-inoculation with P. fluorescens CHA0 or one of its derivatives (Fig. 1A). In contrast, nag1 expression in T. atroviride P1 which is indicative of NAG1 biosynthesis was not altered in the presence of P. fluorescens CHA0 or its derivative CHA660, both DAPG-producers and ranged between 21 to 22 mU/cm² (Fig. 1C). The DAPG-non-producing derivatives CHA631 and CHA89 repressed expression of the nag-gox fusion by 36.5% (Figs. 1C and 2). In contrast to strain CHA0, the wild-type strain Q2-87 enhanced significantly expression of nag1 by 97%. The DAPG non-producing derivative Q2-87::Tn5-1 had no influence on *nag1* expression (Fig. 2).

After 66 h on MA plates, *T. atroviride* P1 reporter strain *nag1-gox* grew to cover a surface area of 54.5 cm². Fungal growth was reduced by co-inoculation with the wild-type *P. fluorescens* strains CHA0 (by 50%) (Fig. 1D) and Q2-87 (by 40%) (data not shown). Growth reduction with their derivatives was 51% (CHA660), 19% (CHA631), 15% (CHA89) (Fig. 1D), and 11% (Q2-87::Tn5-1) (data not shown). Growth of *T. atroviride* P1 reporter strain *ech42-gox* was similar to that of the *nag1-gox* reporter strain (Fig. 1B).

3.2. Induction of nag1 expression with synthetic DAPG

Amendment of the media with 0.1 mM synthetic DAPG enhanced *nag1* expression in *T. atroviride* (Fig. 2). In presence of strain CHA0 and CHA631 the *nag1* expression was lower than in presence of Q2-87 and Q2-87::Tn5-1, suggesting the existence of an inhibitory factor in CHA0, which is absent in strain Q2-87. On DAPG amended media, *nag1* expression was not lower in the presence of their correspondingly wild-type strains on pure media indicating that the DAPG amendment was able to compensate the loss of DAPG production by the mutants.

3.3. Secondary metabolites of P. fluorescens enhanced expression of a nag1-gox and ech42-gox reporter gene fusion in T. atroviride P1

Expression of *ech42* in *T. atroviride* P1 was slightly induced by DAPG (0.1 mM), pyoluteorin (0.1 mM), and

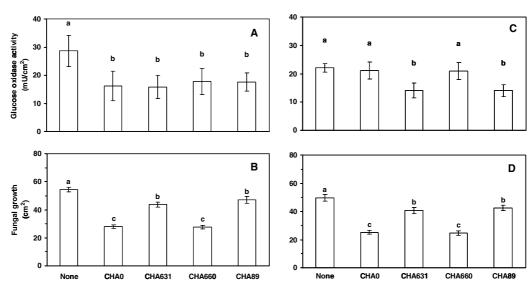


Fig. 1. Expression of the *ech42-gox* (A) and *nag1-gox* (C) fusion and growth of *T. atroviride* P1 derivatives *ech42-gox* (B) and *nag1-gox* (D) in presence of *P. fluorescens* wild-type strain CHA0 or its derivatives CHA631 (DAPG-minus), CHA660 (pyoluteorin-minus), and CHA89 (*gacA*-mutant). Bacteria were inoculated as four 20 μ l spots in 3.2 cm distance of *Trichoderma* and plates were incubated for 66 h at 24 °C in darkness. Each value is the mean of four experiments with six replicates per treatment. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's protected LSD test ($P \le 0.05$).

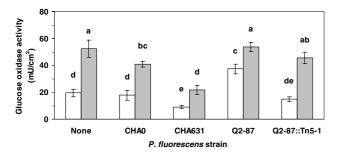


Fig. 2. Expression of the *nag1-gox* fusion in *T. atroviride* P1 grown on MA plates (empty bars) or MA plates containing DAPG (0.1 mM) (grey bars) in presence of *P. fluorescens* wild-type strains CHA0 and Q2-87 and their non-DAPG-producing derivatives CHA631 and Q2-87::Tn.5-1. Bacteria were inoculated as four 20 μ l spots in 3.2 cm distance of *Trichoderma* and plates were incubated for 66 h at 24 °C in darkness. Each value is the mean of three experiments with six replicate plates. Bars with different letters are significantly different according to Fisher's protected LSD test ($P \le 0.05$).

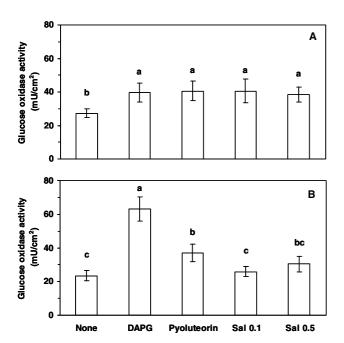


Fig. 3. Expression of the *ech42-gox* (A) and *nag1-gox* (B) fusions in *T. atroviride* P1 grown on MA agar plates amended with DAPG (0.1 mM), pyoluteorin (0.1 mM), and salicylic acid (Sal at 0.1 and 0.5 mM) for 66 h at 24 °C in darkness. The control treatment (None) received same amount of methanol solvent. Each value is the mean of four experiments with six replicate plates. Bars with different letters are significantly different according to Fisher's protected LSD test $(P \leq 0.05)$.

salicylic acid (0.1 and 0.5 mM) (Fig. 3A), with expression levels ranging between 27.2 and 40.6 mU/cm². In contrast, *nag1* expression was strongly induced by DAPG (169%) and pyoluteorin (57%). 0.1 mM salicylic acid did not significantly alter *nag1* expression, but 0.5 mM salicylic acid enhanced *nag1* expression by 30% (Fig. 3B). In the absence of *P. fluorescens* CHA0 sec-

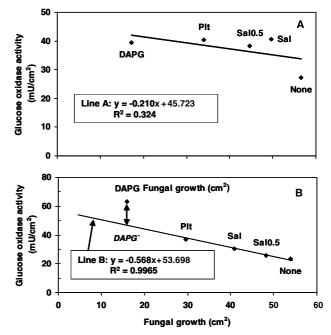


Fig. 4. Correlation between fungal growth and expression of the ech42-gox (A) and nag1-gox (B) fusions in T. atroviride P1 in the presence of DAPG (0.1 mM), pyoluteorin (Plt) (0.1 mM), and salicylic acid (Sal at 0.1 and 0.5 mM). The control treatment (None) received the same amount of methanol solvent. Lines A and B represent the expected values supposing growth and expression would be linked. DAPG' is the expected value for the DAPG treatment in the case that nag1-expression is only growth dependent. The arrow indicates the growth-independent part of the DAPG mediated induction of nag1-expression. Each value is the mean of four experiments with six replicate plates. Equation and R^2 -values were calculated by using Systat version 9.0.

ondary metabolites, *nag1* expression was 23.5 mU/cm² fungal surface area. When growth effects of the bacterial metabolites on *gox* reporter gene expression are accounted for [37], we found that for *ech42-gox* all metabolites (DAPG, pyoluteorin and salicylic acid) were actual inducers (Fig. 4A). In contrast, for *nag1-gox* only DAPG had a growth independent inducer activity (Fig. 4B).

3.4. T. atroviride P1 culture filtrates enhanced the expression of DAPG biosynthetic genes in P. fluorescens CHA0

Fungal metabolites in the filtrates increased expression of the translational phlA'-'lacZ reporter indicative of DAPG biosynthesis transiently during bacterial growth (Fig. 5A). Normal levels of β -galactosidase activity were 30 U/ 10^8 cfu (after 14 h) and 404 U/ 10^8 cfu (after 20 h), with a subsequent decline to 320 U/ 10^8 cfu after 23 h growth. When of T. atroviride culture filtrates were added to the bacterial growth media at a ratio of 5:1 phlA expression was increased by 76% after 14 h of growth. This enhancing effect declined steadily until 23 h of growth when no significant impact of culture filtrates

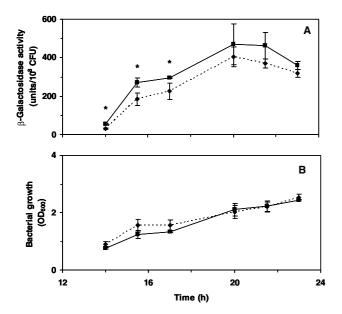


Fig. 5. Expression of phlA'-'lacZ (A) and growth (B) of P. fluorescens CHA0/pME6259 in media amended with T. atroviride wild-type strain P1 culture filtrates. Bacteria were grown in 24 ml KB media amended with 6 ml Czapek-Dox media (\cdots) or in 24 ml King's B medium amended with 6 ml culture filtrates of T. atroviride P1 (-) at 27 °C. Values are means of one representative experiment with four replicate flasks. Asterisks (*) indicate means that are significantly different according to Fisher's LSD protected test $(P \le 0.05)$.

was observed anymore (Fig. 5A). Cell-free culture filtrates of *T. atroviride* wild-type strain P1 had no significant effect on bacterial growth when added to liquid media at a ratio of 5:1 (Fig. 5B).

3.5. T. atroviride P1 volatile substances enhanced expression of DAPG biosynthetic genes in P. fluorescens CHA0

The influence of volatiles emitted by *T. atroviride* P1 on the expression of a *phlA'-'lacZ* fusion in *P. fluorescens* strain CHA0 was monitored by growing both or-

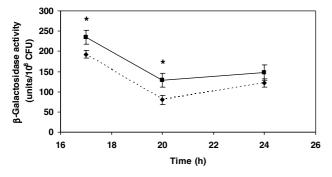


Fig. 6. Expression of *phlA'-'lacZ* in *P. fluorescens* CHA0/pME6259 grown on a two-compartment petri dish co-inoculated (—) or not (\cdots) with *T. atroviride* P1. Means of two experiments with four replicate plates are presented. Asterisks (*) indicate means that are significantly different according to Fisher's LSD protected test $(P \leqslant 0.05)$.

ganisms in a two-compartment petri dish that physically separated the two organisms but allowed gas exchange. In the absence of *T. atroviride* P1 *phlA*-expression in CHA0 was highest 17 h after inoculation (193 U/10⁸ cfu) and decreased to 80 and 121 U/10⁸ cfu after 20 h and 24 h, respectively (Fig. 6). Volatiles from *T. atroviride* P1 induced *phlA* expression. Induction was highest after 20 h, where expression of the *phlA'-'lacZ* fusion was 60% higher in the presence of fungal volatiles than in their absence (Fig. 6).

4. Discussion

Combining biocontrol agents in strain mixtures is one approach to improve the level and reliability of performance [1]. We found that when a bacterial and a fungal biocontrol agent were combined in a strain mixture, there were positive effects on the expression of key biocontrol genes in both antagonists. This is the first report of a beneficial interaction between fungal and bacterial antagonists at the molecular level, and it offers an explanation for improved biocontrol activity with *Trichoderma* and *Pseudomonas* mixtures [38].

Comparison of wild-type strains and mutants indicated that the bacterial antimicrobial compound DAPG was the primary mechanism behind the stimulation of the chitinase gene. The DAPG level we used is similar to what has been reported to be produced by the bacteria in the rhizosphere of different crops [19,39]. Also expression of both chitinases was repressed by an unknown modulator produced by P. fluorescens CHA0; a phenomenon which was absent with P. fluorescens Q2-87. The strains used in this study belong to different ARDRA groups (ARDRA = analysis of restriction pattern of amplified DNA coding for 16s rRNA) showed by comparison of phlD restriction patterns [40] and have therefore genetically different backgrounds. It would be interesting, if members of the same ARDRA group generally alter chitinase expression similarly. Further studies to identify the inhibitory components of CHA0 would enable selection of strains that only improve interactions, or finding ways to selectively shut-off the negative signal. Not surprisingly, ech42 and nag1 were altered differentially by *Pseudomonas* and its secondary metabolites. These genes have distinct regulatory mechanisms [25] and it has been shown that the Fusarium-mycotoxin deoxynivalenol repress only nag1-expression [27]. Stress factors are known as inducers for ech42-, but not for nag1-expression. This indicates that the chitinase gene induction observed was not in consequence of physiological stress.

Environmental factors influence the production of antimicrobial compounds, including DAPG, by fluorescent pseudomonads [13,20]. Here, we report a new biotic modulator for DAPG biosynthetic gene expres-

sion. Some biotic factors, which interfere with *phlA*-expression, interact with the *phlF* gene encoding a repressor protein of DAPG biosynthesis [13]. *T. atroviride* P1 might produce an inducer that binds to PhlF and thereby prevents the interaction of the repressor protein with the *phl* promoter leading to the enhanced *phlA* expression observed. Volatile organic compounds (VOC) modulate interactions between a wide range of soil bacteria and fungi. These effects include both stimulation and inhibition of growth and enzyme production [41]. In our study, *T. atroviride* volatiles had a significant stimulatory effect on *phlA* gene expression. Further research is needed to identify and characterize the volatile fraction responsible for this effect.

Our results show for the first time that the compatibility of antagonists applied as strain mixtures is not only dependant on compatible utilization of nutrients, minerals or space but can also be influenced by molecular signaling between the individual antagonists. In addition to the benefit of enhancing the biocontrol mechanisms of individual strains in the mixture, there is potential for synergistic activity. Fogliano et al. [42] reported that *Pseudomonas* lipodepsipeptides primed pathogen cells such that CWDE penetration and activity was increased. It has been reported recently that DAPG causes different stages of disorganization in hyphal tips in *P. ultimum* var. *sporangiiferum*, including alteration of the plasma membrane, vacuolization and cell content disintegration [43].

It has been shown that some mycotoxins produced by fungal pathogens, like fusaric acid and deoxynivalenol are able to down-regulate expression of genes involved in biocontrol activity of antagonists [27,29,44]. These effects have been interpreted as a potential pathogen self-defense mechanism [21]. Interestingly, in this study, metabolites produced by antagonists positively influence expression of key biocontrol factors.

Despite the positive influence of the bacterial antagonist on biocontrol gene expression in the co-inoculated fungal antagonist, we observed a slight but significant reduction in T. atroviride growth when co-inoculated with wild-type strains of *P. fluorescens*. The bacterial antimicrobial compound DAPG was the likely culprit since we observed less inhibition with the *P. fluorescens* DAPG non-producing mutants. Even though DAPG has been known to have a broad-spectrum antimicrobial activity [15], ours is the first demonstration of non-target inhibition of plant-beneficial fungus, and it provides a reasonable explanation for early observations of ineffective biocontrol with Trichoderma in North American and Australian soils that have large populations of indigenous pseudomonads [8,45,46]. In contrast, the fungal antagonist in our strain mixture had no adverse effect on growth of P. fluorescens. The cosmopolitan occurrence of DAPG-producing pseudomonads [14] and Trichoderma

[24] strains in agricultural soils, particularly strains with disease suppressive activity, increases the importance of looking at the molecular interactions we describe when designing biocontrol inoculants.

In order to overcome the drawback of non-target growth inhibition, it may be feasible to select Trichoderma strains that have enhanced tolerance to DAPG. Natural diversity within populations of pathogenic fungi has been reported for sensitivity to Pseudomonas and Trichoderma metabolites [21]. Recently, active efflux with ABC transporters has been reported to increase tolerance in several fungi to bacterial antibiotics [47]. Nevertheless, whereas compatibility in terms of growth is certainly desirable it is by no means exclusive in terms of improved efficacy of strains mixtures. Pierson and Weller [1] reported that some of the most effective mixtures of *Pseudomonas* strains were those containing mutually growth inhibitory cohorts. Similarly, Duffy et al. [4] reported that Pseudomonas and Trichoderma strain mixtures were effective even when the bacterial cohort inhibited growth of the fungus, probably because the antagonists were spatially separated in the rhizosphere. Induction of expression of genes involved in biocontrol activity (e.g., DAPG effects on nag1 chitinase gene) might compensate for slight growth inhibitory

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