Biocontrol against fungal mycoparasites driven by *Bacillus velezensis* strains from

a mushroom crop microcosm

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Abbreviations: NGS, next generation sequencing; CD, cobweb disease; DBD, dry bubble

disease; WBD, wet bubble disease; PLFA, phospholipid fatty acid.

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BioProject ID PRJNA1142391.

Abstract

The cultivation of button mushroom (*Agaricus bisporus*) requires the design of tailor-made

substrates that nourish the crop and promote morphology changes from mycelium to

basidiome. The agronomic stages of mushroom development are also influenced by the

microbiota present in the mushroom crop microcosm, which may have a beneficial impact on

mushroom growth, development and quality, or a detrimental impact through reduction of yield

or quality as pathogens, competitors or disease vectors in mushroom crops. *Bacillus velezensis*

strains isolated from commercial mushroom casing material have been demonstrated to have

antifungal activity against fungal mycoparasites of mushroom crops. In this report we describe

the isolation of multiple strains of *B. velezensis* from mushroom casing material and basidiomes

that show antifungal activity towards major mushroom mycoparasites, along with further

characterization of their mode of action. Full genomes of *B. velezensis* CM5, CM19, CM35,

EM5 and EM39 were sequenced and annotated, which together with metabolic profiling of

specialised metabolites produced by CM5, CM19 and CM35 suggested that antifungal activity

of these strains is linked to the production of the lipopeptide fengycin. However, in crop trials,

these strains did not increase mushroom yield or provide significant control of the mushroom pathogen *Lecanicillum fungicola.* Genomic and analytical tools were designed and used to evaluate *B. velezensis* persistence in casing when the selected strains were artificially applied. *B. velezensis* population levels decreased significantly after application, potentially contributing to the lack of biocontrol activity observed in crop trials.

Introduction

The commercial cultivation of the secondary decomposer white button mushroom (*Agaricus bisporus*) is based on the transformation of agricultural and farming by-products into selective nutritional substrates by means of a 3-phase composting strategy: i) maturation of raw materials through subsequent mesophilic and thermophilic stages; ii) production of a parasite-free substrate through a pasteurization and stabilization stage; iii) induction of *A. bisporus* mycelium growth in the selective compost (Wang *et al.*, 2021). When the selective substrate is fully colonized by the mycelium it is placed in environmentally controlled growing units and topped with bio-based casing material to provide the physical, chemical and microbiological requirements to induce basidiome fructification(Dias *et al.*, 2021).

Microbial parasites are a major issue for crop losses in the food industry (Fones *et al.*, 2020). The fungal parasites associated with green mould (*Trichoderma* spp.), wet bubble (*Mycogone perniciosa*), dry bubble (*Lecanicillium fungicola*), and cobweb (*Cladobotryum spp.*) are responsible for the majority of reported losses caused by pathogenic or competing fungi within the mushroom industry (Gea *et al.*, 2021). It is worth mentioning the difficulty of breeding for resistance in *Agaricus bisporus*, which lies in the typical life cycle of this fungus, which hampers the introduction of traits without considerable linkage drag (Sonnenberg *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, to fight such harmful fungal mycoparasites, selective agricultural fungicides have

historically been used in mushroom farms, including chlorothalonil, carbendazim, metrafenone

or prochloraz-Mn (Kosanović et al., 2013; Commission E., 2019). However, these fungicides

are now either prohibited, or are no longer effective due to resistance outbreaks, necessitating

the development of alternative approaches for disease control. Together with efficient hygiene,

biocontrol is a potential strategy to replace chemical pesticides as part of integrated disease

management programmes (Gea *et al.*, 2021).

There are multiple mechanisms of biocontrol described depending on the agent employed,

including: antagonism though production of lytic enzymes, antimicrobial peptides,

antimicrobial volatile organic compounds (VOCs) or other antibiotics; spatial and nutritional

competition; stimulation of mushroom growth through mycohormone production; and

enhanced nutrient uptake to improve the fungal immune system (Zhang and Sun, 2018;

Carrasco and Preston, 2020).

B. velezensis is a bacterial species that includes several relatively well-studied strains with

biocontrol activity. These are reported to produce antimicrobial metabolites that are able to

control both bacteria and fungi (Rabbee *et al.*, 2023; Kenfaoui *et al.*, 2024). Examples of

antimicrobial metabolites produced by *B. velezensis* include bacillaene, bacillibactin, bacilysin,

difficidin, fengycin, macrolactin H and subtilin (Pandin *et al.*, 2018). Of these, fengycin - a

lipopeptide with strong antifungal activity - is of particular interest in attaining control over

fungal parasites of mushrooms. Fengycin (also known as plipastatin) is synthesized by a non-

ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) complex encoded by a large gene cluster known as the

fen operon (*pps* in *B. subtilis*). This operon encodes five enzymes, each responsible for

recognizing and incorporating specific amino acids during the process of building the final

fengycin peptide (Zihalirwa Kulimushi *et al.*, 2017; Desmyttere *et al.*, 2019; Gao *et al.*, 2019).

Fengycin is known to disrupt fungal cell membranes by interacting with sterols, leading to

increased membrane permeability and cell death (Mantil *et al.*, 2019). Fengycin, and biocontrol

agents which produce fengycin, have been shown to be active against many fungal parasites of

mushroom crops including *Trichoderma aggressivum* (Pandin *et al.*, 2019; Kosanović et al.,

2021), *Cladobotryum mycophilum* (Clarke *et al.*, 2022a; Clarke *et al.*, 2024), *Lecanicillium*

fungicola (Clarke *et al.*, 2022) and *Mycogone perniciosa* (Novikova and Titova, 2023).

There are multiple classes of fengycin broadly classified into two main classes. These are

categorised using the amino acid present at the sixth position of the protein chain, with fengycin

A containing alanine, and fengycin B containing valine (Steller *et al.*, 1999). Further classes of

fengycins produced by *Bacillus* strains have also been described (Yin *et al.*, 2024), including

for instance fengycin S and fengycin C produced by *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* LSC04 and

Bacillus subtilis EA-CB0015, respectively (Lee *et al.*, 2010; Villegas-Escobar *et al.*, 2013). In

B. amyloliquefaciens the production of these lipopeptide analogues has been shown to be

subject to positive regulation by the quorum sensing system encoded by the *comQXPA* gene

cluster (Yin *et al.*, 2024). The ComQXPA system is not unique to *B. amyloliquefaciens* or *B.*

subtilis (Kalamara *et al.*, 2018), since it has also been described to regulate protease activity of

B. velezensis DMB05 (Na *et al.*, 2023).

In this study, we isolated several novel *B. velezensis* strains from casing materials and

basidiomes that displayed antifungal activity to multiple mycoparasitic fungi. We characterise

these novel strains using phylogenetics and comparative genomics. We test three novel *B.*

velezensis strains for antimicrobial activity in crop via artificial inoculation on the casing

medium. In addition, both the survival rate of supplemented *B. velezensis*, and the equilibrium

of the endemic microbiota in this crop trial are assessed. Finally, we use LC-HRMS analysis

to identify and evaluate the secreted specialised metabolites of these *B. velezensis* strains that

correlate with their antifungal activity.

Methods

Isolation of the cultivable bacterial microbiome

Cultivable bacteria were obtained from three casing materials used by the mushroom industry in commercial crops (commercially available casing materials cquired from local providers: black peat, based on peat moss (Euroveen B.V., BVB Substrates, Grubbenvorst, Limburg, The Netherlands); blonde peat, based on Spaghnum peat moss (Valimex KF, Valimex SL, Valencia, Spain); and a mixture of both casing materials (50 % each) (Euroveen B.V. and Valimex KF), the physical and chemical characteristics of which have been previously reported (Carrasco *et al.*, 2019). The methodology described by Aslani *et al.* (Aslani *et al.*, 2018) was implemented to isolate bacteria from basidiomes of *Agaricus bisporus*.

Microbiome cultivation: i) for isolation of casing-colonising bacteria, 10 g of casing was suspended in 100 mL of 0.1% sterile bacteriological peptone broth (Thermo Scientific #LP0037B); ii) for isolation of basidiome-colonising bacteria, fresh and healthy closed mushroom caps were externally disinfected by submerging them in 1% NaClO solution for 30 s and rinsing with sterile distilled water. 10 g of internal mushroom cap tissue was crushed and homogenized with sterile pestle and mortar and suspended in 100 mL of 0.1% sterile bacteriological peptone broth. Samples, either i) or ii) were added to Erlenmeyer flasks and incubated in an orbital shaker-incubator (Ovan 1000001087, Badalona, Spain) at 120 rpm and 25 ºC for 10 min. The supernatant was transferred to a microtiter plate where successive 10-fold dilutions (0.1% sterile bacteriological peptone broth) were dispensed. 100 μL of each solution was transferred and homogeneously spread on growth media in 90 mm Petri dishes. Media recipes employed in this work are described in Table S1.

Isolation and preservation of individual colonies: Exploring maximum diversity, one hundred

and forty-one individual colonies (Table S2) were re-isolated from plates based on colonial

morphology and transferred to plates containing LB Agar (LBA) medium. The re-isolated

colonies were incubated at 28 °C for 24-48 h. Single colonies were then added again to LB and

incubated in Erlenmeyer flasks between 25 and 28 °C in an orbital shaker at 150 rpm between

5 and 18 hours. The colony multiplication ratio was determined by spectrophotometer (Thermo

Fisher Scientific - Genesys 10-S) of the optical density in the culture broth at a wavelength of

600 nm (OD600). The fermentation was stopped when the absorbance at OD600 reached a

value of 1. The resulting cultures were re-suspended in 20% glycerol solution in sterile 2 mL

Eppendorf tubes. Finally, the tubes were stored at -80ºC (Panasonic MDF-U5386S-PE) until

further use.

Genomic extraction and sequencing

DNA extraction and Sanger sequencing of 16S rDNA: Single colonies were transferred to 10

mL LB at and incubated at 28 ºC on a platform shaker at 220 rpm for 24 h. The resulting

cultures were pelleted by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 1 min, and washed twice using

MilliQ water before aliquoting into 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes. DNA was extracted from pellets

using the NucleoSpin Plant II, Mini kit for DNA from plants (MACHEREY-NAGEL GmbH

& Co. KG). The 27F and 1492R primers (Stackebrandt and Goodfellow, 1991) were used for

PCR amplification of 16S rDNA, which was performed using Phusion High-Fidelity PCR

Master Mix (Thermo Fisher, UK), with an initial denaturation of 98 °C for 30 s, followed by

30 cycles of 7 s at 98ºC, 30 s at 56 ºC, and 60 s at 72 ºC. A final extension of 7 min was used

before storage at 4 ºC. PCR products were prepared for sequencing by treatment with ExoSAP-

IT™ PCR Product Cleanup Reagent (Thermo Fisher, UK) and submitted to either Eurofins

(Luxembourg) or Source Bioscience (Nottingham, UK) for Sanger sequencing. Sequences

obtained using forward and reverse primers were aligned using MAFFT online

(https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/). BLASTn searches were carried out using the NCBI

database (Camacho *et al.*, 2009).

Full genome sequencing and analysis: The full genomes of *Bacillus velezensis* CM5, CM19,

CM35, EM5 and EM39 were sequenced and annotated. Four 10 mL bacterial overnight cultures

(LB) were combined, washed twice in PBS and diluted to OD600 = 1, before aliquoting and

pelleting 10 mL and re-suspending in 0.5 mL of DNA shield (Zymo Research, Leyden, NL).

Genome sequencing of the three strains was carried out by Microbes NG, Birmingham, UK.

The downstream processing of sequence data was accomplished using several bioinformatics

tools: Reads were adapter trimmed using Trimmomatic 0.30 with a sliding window quality

cutoff of Q15 (Bolger *et al.*, 2014). De novo assembly was performed on samples using SPAdes

version 3.7 (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012), and contigs were annotated using Prokka 1.11 (Seemann,

2014). The Artemis genome browser was used for visualization and annotation (Rutherford *et*

al., 2000). Assembly metrics were calculated by Quast (Gurevich *et al.*, 2013). A standard

analysis pipeline assigned reads to the closest available reference genome using Kraken (Wood

and Salzberg, 2014). The RAST annotation server and the SEED annotation environment were

used to annotate the prokaryotic genome (Aziz *et al.*, 2008; Aziz *et al.*, 2012). Further

comparative genomics of novel *B. velezensis* strains was carried out using the NCBI

Prokaryotic Genomes Automatic Annotation Pipeline (PGAAP) (Tatusova *et al.*, 2016).

The complete genome sequences of the *B. velezensis* strains reported in this paper have been

deposited in NCBI under the BioProject PRJNA1142391 with the genome accession numbers

CP168150 (CM19), CP168028 (CM5), CP168027 (CM35), CP168026 (EM5), CP168025

(EM39). To identify all genes containing single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in our novel

strains compared to the QST713 reference strain (Accession CP025079), we performed

comparative analyses using various computational tools and packages in R and Python. The analysis workflow involved using BLASTn to detect differences in all genes present in the QST713 reference genome. Genes with identified mismatches were then translated into their corresponding amino acid sequences using the translate method from Biopython. These translated sequences were subsequently compared using the BLASTp function to identify amino acid substitutions. Coding sequences (CDS) with observed mismatches were further analysed to ensure meaningful comparisons of functional protein-coding regions. BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG) was employed for prokaryote genome comparisons (Alikhan *et al.*, 2011). The potential specialised metabolite profiles of the sequenced strains was evaluated by antiSMASH (Blin *et al.*, 2021).

Phylogenetic analysis of* B. velezensis *strains: Phylogenetic analyses were performed using five housekeeping genes: *gyrB*, *pgk*, *rpoB*, *rpoD,* and *tuf.* Genomes of comparative strains were downloaded from NCBI and blasted against the annotated genes of the reference strain *B. velezensis* FZB42. For our isolated strains of interest (CM5, CM19, CM35, CM18, CM20, CM21), DNA extractions were carried out using the NucleoSpin Plant II, Mini kit for DNA from plants (MACHEREY-NAGEL GmbH & Co. KG). Genes of interest were amplified by PCR, carried out using Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase master mix (NEB, Herts, UK) and the primers listed in Table S4. PCR products were treated with ExoSAP as per the manufacturer's instructions and submitted to Source Bioscience (UK) for Sanger sequencing. Both FWD and RVS primers were used for sequencing reactions. Concatenated sequences were used to build a phylogeny using Multiple Sequence Comparison by Log-Expectation (MUSCLE) (Edgar, 2004). The phylogenetic tree was built using IQTREE (Nguyen *et al.*, 2015) using 1000 bootstrap replicates and set to automatically detect the optimal number of threads. The resulting tree was visualised using iTOL (Letunic and Bork, 2021).

Transformation of *B. velezensis* CM19 with pHAPII gfp+

The plasmid pHAPII gfp+ (Cao et al., 2011) was extracted from a transformed strain of *B. velezensis* QST713 (kindly provided by Romain Briandet, INRAE) using the NucleoSpin Plasmid DNA extraction kit (Macherey-Nagel) using standard conditions. Subsequently, *B. velezensis* CM19 cells were transformed using a room temperature electroporation protocol (Morales-Ruiz *et al.*, 2019). In brief, competent cells were made by washing and suspending a stationary phase culture of CM19 in phosphate buffered sucrose electroporation buffer (PEB: 272 mM sucrose, 1 mM $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 7 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4). Electroporation was carried out in a 1 mm cuvette containing 400 ng plasmid and 90 µl of bacterial cells using a single electric pulse at 620V, 200R and 25 µF. Cells were immediately resuspended in SOC medium and incubated at 37 ºC without shaking for 4 h. After plating, a single transformed colony was present after 24 h incubation at 28 ºC. Validation was carried out by plasmid extraction (Macherey-Nagel™ NucleoSpin™ Plasmid) and submission for sequencing with Plasmidsaurus (www.plasmidsaurus.com).

In vitro fungal inhibition assays

***In vitro* confrontation trials:** Four fungal parasites were used for biocontrol assays: *Trichoderma aggressivum* (TAV1), *Mycogone perniciosa* (M25) and *Cladobotryum mycophilum* (CM13900) isolated from commercial mushroom crops in La Rioja (Spain); and *Lecanicillium fungicola* (150/1), a UK isolate of medium virulence obtained from Warwick HRI, UK (Banks *et al.*, 2019). All were stored as 25% glycerol stocks at -80 ºC. Before use, fungi were plated onto PDA (potato dextrose agar) and grown for 3-7 days before scraping and re-suspending in 30 mL MilliQ water in a 50 mL Falcon tube. Bacteria, also stored as 25% glycerol stocks, were grown as overnight cultures in LB before use. For initial qualitative

biocontrol assessments, 10 µL of the fungal suspension was spotted on the centre of a PDA

plate. Four different 10 µL bacterial droplets from LB overnight cultures were spotted at a

distance of 20 mm from the fungal droplet. Plates were incubated in the dark at 25 ºC for 2 to

9 days depending on the parasite. Bacterial strains were scored as positively controlling fungal

parasites if a clear zone of clearing (halo) was observed around the bacterial colony. Each

bacterial strain was assessed at least twice. Since *B. velezensis* displayed biocontrol activity

against the four fungal parasites, further quantitative biocontrol plates were carried out using

just a single bacterial strain per plate. For this, 10 µL of the fungal cultures were co-inoculated

with bacterial droplets (at a distance of 30 mm) for between 1 and 6 days (depending on the

parasite). Plates were again incubated in the dark at 25 ºC for between 4 and 13 days.

Quantitative assessments were made by measuring zones of clearing. Each bacterial strain was

assessed in duplicate for at least two repeat experiments for each fungal parasite.

Spore germination assays Fully colonised PDA plates of the four fungal parasites were scraped

and resuspended in water through 8 layers of Miracloth. Using a haemocytometer, spore counts

were diluted to a concentration between $1 * 10^7$ and $1 * 10^8$ spores mL^{-1}. A 100 µL aliquot was

spread over a PDA plate and allowed to dry for 20 min. Subsequently, a 10 µL droplet of an

overnight, stationary culture of *B. velezensis* CM19 pHAPII gfp (in LB) was spotted onto the

centre of the PDA plate and allowed to dry. After 1-4 days of incubation at 28ºC, sections of

the agar plate around the bacterial droplet and halo of inhibition were cut and mounted on to a

microscope slide and covered with a cover slip. Fungal samples were stained for cell death

using a droplet of propidium iodide (PI, Thermo Fisher, R37108) at a final concentration of 1

µL mL^{-1} and assessed using a Leica TCS SP5 confocal microscope. Samples were scanned at

400 Hz (512 × 512 pixel images) using an argon laser with emission at 488 nm (intensity, 17%)

to excite GFP (detected at 510-530 nm) alongside a DPSS 561 nm laser (intensity, 35%) to

excite propidium iodide (detected at 625-645 nm). Unchallenged fungal parasites (without *B.*

velezensis confrontation) grown *in vitro* on PDA plates, stained for cell death as described were

assessed as control.

Effect of isolated bacteria on A. bisporus mycelium growth: *A. bisporus* was plated onto 2%

agar compost medium (70 g of powdered compost suspended in 1 L of water, autoclaved, then

filtered through Miracloth, and autoclaved again) and incubated in the dark for 7 days. 10 μL

droplets of bacteria from LB overnight cultures were spotted onto the plates at a distance of 3

cm from the original plating position of *A. bisporus*. Plates were divided into quadrants, and

four droplets were dispensed per plate (one per quadrant) with *A. bisporus* H15 inoculated in

the centre. After a further 7 days, photographs were taken and the radius of the distance between

the centre of the bacterial droplet and the edge of the fungal radial growth was measured.

Controls consisted of four droplets of LB broth free of bacteria per plate.

Toxicity of bacteria to A. bisporus sporocarp tissue: For assessment of sporocarp tissue

damage, 10 mm cubes of mushroom tissue were cut from mushroom caps. Bacteria from

overnight LB cultures were pipetted onto mushroom cubes at a rate of 100 μL per cube. Cubes

were photographed and assessed for browning using a 0-4 scale where: 0 was no effect; 1 light

tissue scarring; 2 light browning; 3 heavy browning; and 4 being either black or dark brown

with obvious seepage. Control treatments consisted of mushroom cubes treated with sterile LB

broth at a rate of 100 μL per cube.

Biocontrol activity of *B. velezensis* in a crop trial infected with *L. fungicola*

Bacterial inoculum preparation: Bacteria were grown overnight in LB broth. Cultures with

OD600 > 0.7 were used to inoculate a bioreactor to produce bacterial batches through liquid

fermentation. A 5L Biostat A fermenter (Sartorius, Germany) was then used to culture large

bacterial batches (T = 28 ºC, pH = 7, critical oxygen concentration = 10-50% of air saturation,

time: 7-8 h to an OD600 = 1). The resulting broth was centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 10 min at

10ºC (Sorvall Legend XTR Centrifuge, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The

supernatant was removed and the pellet washed twice with PBS (phosphate buffer, pH = 7.4)

before resuspension in 100 mL of 10% skim milk and 10% saccharose solution as a

cryoprotector. The frozen solution was freeze-dried and pulverized into ready to use water

soluble powder. The viable concentrations were confirmed by plating serial dilutions in sterile

water onto LB.

Crop Trial: The crop trial was conducted in an experimental growth chamber equipped with

climate control (Mod. IGCS 1500 HR LED, Ibercex, Spain) according to standard practices

used in mushroom farms. The trial was performed with a randomized block design using 32

blocks (0.04 m^2 crop surface) of 1250 g phase III compost (Sylvan H15 - supplemented with

Mylo Pro and Champfood) and 750 g of black casing (CNC, Valimex or Euroveen) at

maximum water holding capacity. The six treatment groups are shown in Table **1** (1: Control

(water) + *L. fungicola* (Lf); 2: Control (water) – Lf; 3: CM5 + Lf; 4: CM19 + Lf; 5: CM35 +

Lf;6: Prochloraz-Mn (PCL) + Lf). Treatment with prochloraz-Mn (PCL), as a fungicide

control, was carried out on day 4 after casing (d4), inoculation of bacteria was carried out on

d5, infection with Lf strain 150/1 (Banks *et al.*, 2019) was carried out on d10. *L. fungicola*

inoculum was prepared as described by Gea et al. (Gea *et al.*, 2014) on the day of inoculation

and applied by spraying the top of the casing layer at a dose of 10^6 conidia m^{-2} using a

suspension of 20 mL of 2×10^6 conidia L^{-1}. Bacterial suspensions were applied on top of the

casing layer using 20 mL of a 2×10^9 cfu L^{-1} suspension in tap water for a final rate of 10^9 cfu

m^{-2}.

For analysis of disease and biological efficiency, healthy and diseased mushrooms and bubbles

were scored at the end of the first and second crop flushes. For PLFA analysis in the casing

materials, four timepoints were assessed: d0 (Beginning of trial), day 10 (Fully colonized

casing), d21 (Fructification of first flush), and d29 (End of first flush). 1: Raw casing material

(beginning of the trial, casing free of host), 2: Casing fully colonised by *Agaricus* mycelium

(end of spawn running, day 10), 3: Casing during mushroom fructification (fructification of 1st

flush, day 21); 4: Casing sample taken by the end of 1st flush (end of the harvest, day 29).

Analysis of PLFAs: Casing microbial biomass and structure were determined using

phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis (Frostegård *et al.*, 1993) and fatty acid methyl esters

(FAMEs) were analysed by gas chromatography. The total microbial biomass was estimated

by the total sum of PLFAs and expressed as nmol g^{-1}. Specific PLFAs were used as biomarkers

to quantify the relative abundance of Gram-negative bacteria (monounsaturated fatty acids and

cyclopropyl 17:0), Gram-positive bacteria (iso and anteiso saturated branched chain fatty

acids), Actinobacteria (10-methyl fatty acids) and fungi (18:2 ω6 cis and 16:1w5) (Zelles,

1999). ***Statistical Analysis:*** Total biomass of bacteria and fungi determined by PLFAs was

submitted for the analysis of variance (ANOVA) by previous Levene variance homogeneity

tests to determine significant differences between samples. Means were compared by either

Tukey or Games-Howell post hoc test based on whether variance of homogeneity was met,

respectively ($p < 0.05$). ANOVA and post hoc tests were performed by IBM SPSS Statistics

v24 software package (SPSS Inc. Chicago, USA). Principal component analysis (PCA) was

performed with PAST v3.15 software (Hammer *et al.*, 2011).

TaqMan assays for *B. velezensis* strains (CM19, CM5 and CM35)

DNA extraction: Bacteria were collected with a loop from the agar surface of 90 mm diameter tryptic soy agar (TSA) plates into a 2 mL tube and used for DNA extraction. The Wizard Genomic DNA purification kit (Promega) was used for DNA extraction. DNA yield was determined by using the Qubit ds DNA HS assay kit with the Qubit Fluorometer (Life Technologies).

TaqMan design: To design a TaqMan assay that specifically detects the *B. velezensis* target strains, we made use of the whole chromosomal genome sequence. Potential target sites were identified using CLC genomic workbench (Qiagen, Aarhus, DK). The genome sequences of the target were dissected in 500 bp-long sequences. These sequences were mapped to sequences of *B. velezensis* QST713 (CFSAN0334339), a non-target strain isolated from agricultural soil (Pandin *et al.*, 2018) (CLC mapping settings: length fraction: 0.85, similarity fraction: 0.85, global alignment: no), thus removing sequences that mapped to any of the non-target strains. To assist the final selection and design step, these (unmapped) sequences were added as a track list to the target strain genome.

Before proceeding to the design step, the candidate regions were checked for sequence similarity with non-target organisms using BLASTn (NCBI) (Camacho *et al.*, 2009). At least six sets of primer/probe combinations were designed per target on 500 bp target-specific fragments using primer quest tool of Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT, Leuven, Belgium) with default settings. Two sets of primer/probe combinations were selected for the design of the final triplex TaqMan assay, targeting different genes, based on the kinetics.

Specificity of the TaqMan assays: The specificity of the assays was tested using genomic DNA of 27 strains (Table S6). For most strains 0.5 ng of purified DNA was used, but for some

strains a suspension of 10^9- 10^{10} cells/mL was boiled for 10 min in 150 µL MilliQ water (MQ)

prior to testing. For each TaqMan assay 2 µL of DNA or the boiled suspensions was mixed

with 2 µL reaction mix containing PerfeCTa multiplex qPCR ToughMix 5x (Quantabio,

Beverly, USA), 100 nM probe and 300 nM of each forward and reverse primer. The reactions

were performed in a 12K Flex QuantStudio or a QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR system

(Applied biosystems) using the following conditions: 95 °C for 2 min; 40 cycles of 95 °C for

15 s followed by 60 °C for 60 s. Analysis of the data was done by automatic threshold

calculation within the Applied Biosystems software. A Ct value ≤ 35 was considered positive.

The specificity and usability were further tested using constituents of casing soils or casing

soils of various compositions. DNA was extracted from 10 g of material using the DNeasy

PowerMax Soil kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. TaqMan

assays were performed as described above with 2 µL DNA.

Triplex TaqMan design: The two simplex assays for the target bacteria were combined with

an assay that quantifies *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* (Xcc) into a triplex TaqMan

(Table S7) (Köhl *et al.*, 2011; Taparia et al., 2020). For each group of biostimulants, a triplex

TaqMan assay was designed with two target-specific assays, each with its own dye (Cy5 or

FAM) and an amplification and extraction control (*X. campestris*), labelled with HEX. The

triplex TaqMan was performed using the same PCR conditions and materials as the simplex

tests, with 100 nM probe and 300 nM of each primer in a total volume of 25 µL.

Limit of detection of the assays: The limit of detection for the triplex assays designed for *B.*

velezensis strains CM19, CM5 and CM35 (Table S12-S15) was determined in two casing soils,

i.e. in peat and steamed spent casing soil. 100 µL of a ten-fold serial dilution of 3-days old

cultures of the strains in Ringers in a PowerBead Pro tube was mixed with 250 mg of the

casings ($4 \times 10^7 - 4 \times 10^1$ cells g^{-1} of casing soil). Casing soils with 100 µL Ringers without

supplemented bacteria served as a control. A volume of 100 µL of a suspension of *X.*

campestris (Xcc) of 10^6 cell mL^{-1} was added to each sample as extraction and amplification

control. The soils were subsequently freeze dried overnight and shaken for 2 times 90 seconds

in a paint shaker. DNA was extracted using a DNeasy Power Soil Pro Kit according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The triplex TaqMan assay was executed as described above with

0.75 µL of each primer (10 µM) and 0.75 µL of each probe (10 µM), labelled with FAM, Cy5

(for target specific probes) or HEX (for Xcc).

Surfactant activity and lipopeptide production

Surfactant production: *B. velezensis* strains were cultured overnight in Optimised Medium

(OM, Table S1) and standardised to OD600 = 1. Droplets (10 µL) were pipetted onto the lid of

a Greiner CELLSTAR® 96 well plate, allowed to sit for 2 min, and measured using an eye

piece graticule on a ZEISS dissecting microscope. The mean droplet diameters of three

independent experiments, each containing 2 droplets, were assessed for differences to an OM

only control using Students' T-Test.

Lipopeptide fraction collection: Lipopeptides were extracted from 600 mL liquid cultures of

CM19, which were incubated at 30 ºC for 24 h in Optimized Medium (Table S1). Samples

were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min to remove the cell pellet. The resulting solution was

acidified by addition of concentrated HCl to pH 2.0 and precipitated overnight at 4 °C. The

solution was again centrifuged at 10,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C. The pellet was resuspended in

10 mL methanol while shaking for 2 h continuously. The resulting solution was filtered through

a 0.4 µm filter and concentrated by evaporation to a final volume of 1 mL methanol. The

methanol suspension was then used for the confrontation assays by saturating the discs by

briefly incubating them in the solution.

Extraction of agar plates for targeted metabolic profiling: The *B. velezensis* strains CM5,

CM19 and CM35 were cultivated on LB agar plates for 5 days at 28 ºC. For each strain, five

agar plates were extracted and pooled. Firstly, bacterial agar plates and negative control plates

(unseeded LB agar plates) were crushed and suspended in 20 mL HPLC-grade MeOH (J. T.

Baker, Deventer, The Netherlands). The mixture was transferred to a beaker, 30 mL of fresh

MeOH was added (total volume 50 mL) and further processed in an ultrasonic bath (Sonorex

Longlife, Bandelin, Berlin, Germany). After 10 minutes, the mixture was filtered and the wash

repeated. The filtrate was concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure at 35 °C in a rotary

evaporator (Laborota 4001 Efficient, Heidolph, Schwabach, Germany) operating at 100 rpm.

The residue obtained was dissolved in 1 mL HPLC-grade MeOH, centrifuged at 8000 rpm for

5 min, and measured by HPLC-HRMS.

High-performance liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry (HPLC-

HRMS): The extracts were analysed on a LTQ Orbitrap XL mass spectrometer (Thermo

Scientific, USA) equipped with a HESI-II source coupled to Agilent (Santa Clara, USA) 1200

HPLC system including pump, PDA detector, column oven and autosampler. A Luna C_{18} (2)

column (50 × 3 mm, 3 μm particle size) from Phenomenex (Torrance, USA) was used for the

HPLC-HRMS and an Aeris PEPTIDE XB-C_{18} (150 × 2.1 mm, 3.6 μm particle size) for HRMS[n]

measurements with a H_2O (+0.1% FA) (A) and CH_3OH (+0.1% FA) (B) gradient (flow rate

350 μL min^{-1}). The gradient program was optimized and set as follows: 5% B isocratic for 2

min, linear gradient from 5% to 100% B over 24 min, 100% B isocratic for 6 min, the system

returned within 0.5 min to initial conditions of 95% A and was equilibrated for 3 min. For

selected target fengycins and their HRMS[n] measurements, the gradient was slightly modified:

5% B isocratic for 2 min, linear gradient from 5% to 90% B over 8 min and then over 20 min

up to 100%, the system returned within 0.5 min to initial conditions of 95% A and was

equilibrated for 3 min. The mass spectrometer was operated in positive mode with a nominal

mass resolving power of 60000 at *m/z* 400 with a scan rate of 1 Hz, and *N*-butyl

benzenesulfonamide was used as lock mass ([M + H]$^+$; *m/z* 214.08963 for full scans and a

mass range from *m/z* 160-1600. Helium served as collision gas and N_2 was used as sheath and

auxiliary gas. The HRMS^n measurements were performed with collision-induced dissociation

of 42 eV. An authentic reference standard of fengycin ($\geq$ 90%) was procured from Sigma-

Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). The analyses were performed using Xcalibur software v. 2.2

SP1.48. (Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany). The acquired masses were sorted by intensity

(I > 1.00E3). A maximum mass tolerance of 2 ppm was accepted. Background subtraction was

performed as required using Xcalibur software v. 2.2 SP1.48. (Thermo Scientific, Bremen,

Germany).

Results

***Bacillus velezensis* strains isolated from mushroom casing microbiome display**

antimicrobial activity towards mushroom mycoparasites.

One hundred and forty-one strains belonging to the cultivable bacterial microbiome from the

peat casing layer and basidiomes of *Agaricus bisporus* were isolated and classified using

BLASTn (blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) based on their 16S rDNA sequences (Table S2). A wide

range of bacterial species were isolated of which *Bacillus* spp. and *Pseudomonas* spp. were

most highly represented (Figure **1**A). Initial antifungal confrontation assays (Table S3)

indicated that strains belonging to the species *B. velezensis* showed a particularly high degree

of antagonism towards four major fungal parasites of *A. bisporus*: *Trichoderma aggressivum,*

Mycogone perniciosa, Lecanicillium fungicola, and *Cladobotryum mycophilum* - these strains

were selected for further phenotypic analysis (Figure 1B and Table **2**).

Nine strains of *B. velezensis,* and a control strain CM26 (BLASTn 98.47% *Bacillus*

oceanisediminis) which failed to show antagonistic activity in initial assays, were tested for

antifungal activity against four fungal parasites of the cultivated button mushroom *Agaricus*

bisporus in confrontation assays: *L. fungicola* (150/1); *T. aggressivum* (TAV1); *M. perniciosa*

(M25); and *C. mycophilum* (CM13900). All of the *B. velezensis* strains tested produced

statistically significant levels of inhibition with only CM26 showing significantly different

inhibition (Figure 2A, 4B; ONE WAY ANOVA, *C. mycophilum p* < 0.001, *L. fungicola p* <

0.001, *M. perniciosa p* = 0.139, *T. aggressivum p* < 0.001. Letters are results of post-hoc

TUKEY test showing significant differences *p* < 0.05).

B. velezensis CM19 was selected as a representative strain and transformed with the plasmid

pHAPII gfp. Transformed bacteria were confirmed to express GFP and used to examine the

effect of CM19 on conidial and hyphal viability and morphology *in vitro* (Pandin *et al.*, 2017).

Live dead staining with propidium iodide (PI) was used to study the effect of CM19 on spore

survival and germination (Figure 2C, D, E). Spores were classified as dead if either fully stained

with PI or observed to be hollow/lysed cells. In many cases spores were deemed to have

germinated but resulting hyphae were also found to be stained or lysed.

For a strain to be an effective biocontrol agent against mycoparasitic fungi it is important that

strains are not only antagonistic to mycoparasites, but also show low toxicity to hyphae and

sporocarps of *A. bisporus*. Strains were tested for antagonism to *A. bisporus* in both

confrontation assays and in mushroom cube assays, where cubes of sporocarp tissue were

exposed to dense suspensions of bacteria, a standard assay for mushroom pathogenic bacteria

such as *Pseudomonas tolaasii,* which was used as a positive control (Godfrey *et al.*, 2001). The

majority of the selected strains exhibited limited antagonism to *A. bisporus* and did not cause

significant browning and collapse of sporocarp tissue, making them promising candidates as

biocontrol agents (Figure 2F and Figure S1).

Mushroom casing isolates of *Bacillus velezensis* are closely related to the commercial

biocontrol strain *B. velezensis* QST713

Further phylogenetic analysis was carried out for five *B. velezensis* strains isolated from casing

alongside the commercially used 'Serenade' *B. velezensis* strain QST713 using primers for the

housekeeping genes *rpoB*, *tuf, rpoD*, *pgk* and *gyrB* (Table S4). The nucleotide sequences

obtained were used to build a phylogenetic tree of the isolated *B. velezensis* strains alongside

other *Bacillus* spp. for which sequence data is available in the NCBI database. The results

showed a clear delineation into three clades: *B. amyloliquefaciens*, *B. velezensis* and *B. subtilis*

Figure 1B, which is consistent with previous reports (Fan *et al.*, 2017; Pandin *et al.*, 2018).

Four of the strains (CM5, CM19, CM35 and EM5), were found to be within the *B. velezensis*

clade and to be very closely related to each other and to the commercial biocontrol agent

QST713.

Five *B. velezensis* casing isolates (CM5, CM19, CM35, EM5 and EM39) were selected for

genome sequencing, which confirmed that these four strains had very high levels of homology

compared to QST713, returning a percentage identity of 99.99% when analysed using NCBI

PGAAP (Table **2**). A full breakdown of all genes containing SNPs compared to QST713 and

how these affect the relevant amino acid sequences can be found in Table S5.

Fengycins are the most abundant anti-microbial lipopeptides produced by casing isolates of *Bacillus velezensis in vitro.*

We used the prediction software antiSMASH to identify potential gene clusters involved in specialised metabolite biosynthesis that could be involved in the antagonistic behaviour displayed by the casing isolates of *B. velezensis* (Figure 2). This analysis identified multiple gene clusters (Table 3) with homology to clusters previously shown to encode the enzymatic machinery for synthesis of the nonribosomal peptides surfactin, fengycin, bacillibactin, and bacilysin and the antimicrobial polyketides bacillaene, difficidin, and macrolactin. Surfactin and fengycin are lipopeptides known to have both antimicrobial and surfactant activity (Sur *et al.*, 2018; Gilliard *et al.*, 2024) while bacillibactin is an iron-chelating siderophore (Qin *et al.*, 2019).

Surfactant production by the selected *B. velezensis* strains was evaluated using a droplet diameter assay (Akpa *et al.*, 2001). All *B. velezensis* strains had significantly different droplet diameters compared to the LB-only control (A), confirming that these strains produce factors both with antimicrobial and surfactant activity.

The identity of the specialised metabolites produced by CM5, CM19 and CM35 was further investigated using bioinformatics- and literature-guided targeted metabolic profiling by high-performance liquid chromatography-high-resolution mass spectrometry (HPLC-HRMS).

Targeted metabolic profiling revealed production of fengycin (1xCO,1xOH,Ala:R1=13C) (Figure 4) by all three bacterial strains under the cultivation conditions tested. Fengycins A and B differ in the amino acid alanine (A) or valine (B) at the sixth position. Identification of the fengycin was achieved by comparison with an authentic reference standard and referencing the mass spectral fragmentation pathway with literature (Wang *et al.*, 2004; Ma *et al.*, 2016). Other

503   target compounds from antiSMASH prediction (see Table S9), including macrolactins, were

504   not produced under the tested conditions (i.e., < limit of detection (LOD)).

505   The application of *Bacillus velezensis* strains to mushroom crops was

506   ineffective in limiting disease caused by the dry bubble parasite

507   *Lecanicillium fungicola.*

Three *B. velezensis* strain (CM5, CM19, CM35) were taken forward for crop trials. Application

doses were selected based on preliminary results observed using a small growth chamber and

the application dose approved for the commercial product Serenade ASO® (*Bacillus velezensis*

QST 713) in Spain: 5.4 x 10^8 cfu/100 kg compost against *Trichoderma aggressivum* (MAPA,

2025). The crop trials were designed to assess (i) effects of the treatment on the biological

efficiency of the crop, and (ii) biocontrol effects against the fungal parasite *L. fungicola*.

Disease was successfully established following inoculation with LF and statistically significant

differences between control groups (+LF and –LF) were detected (Figure 5A), confirming that

artificial inoculation with LF affected yield. The control inoculated with LF (Figure 5A) was

the least productive in terms of biological efficiency, and treatment with a single dose of CM19

was the most productive. However, differences between control and *B. velezensis* treatments

were not found to be significant ($p > 0.05$) in the first flush, second flush or total cropping cycle

(Figure 5A). As expected, the use of prochloraz-Mn (PCL) was found to significantly reduce

disease in both the first and second flush.

522   Phospholipid fatty acid analysis (PLFA)

To further examine whether supplementation with *B. velezensis* affected the mushroom casing

microbiota, phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis was carried out to evaluate the relationship

between microbial biomass and community structure in the commercial casing substrate during

the crop trial at different stages of mushroom cropping. PLFA quantifies total microbial

biomass and specific microbial groups (gram-positive bacteria, gram-negative bacteria,

Actinomycetes, and total fungi) to provide a general overview of microbial structure and

dynamics (52) (Table S8).

The total microbial biomass in the casing soil increased significantly over time at the different

stages of the crop. Specifically, microbial PLFAs in the casing soil were 3.4, 5.8 and 9.5 times

higher in the control treatment at the stages of mycelia penetration in the casing layer (initial

cropping stage), first flush primordia formation (start of fructification), and first flush

mushroom growth (end of harvest), respectively, compared to the casing soil (raw material)

(Figure 6A).

The proportion of PFLAs associated with bacterial populations in the casing soil decreased

over time while the proportion of fungal PLFAs increased. Fungal PLFAs were relatively more

abundant than bacterial PLFAs by the end of the first flush (day 29). Gram-negative and gram-

positive bacterial fatty acids were higher during the initial cropping stage compared to the other

stages (Figure 6B,C). However, the relative abundance of gram-negative bacterial PLFAs was

higher than gram-positive ones across all cropping stages. Actinomycete populations were

significantly lower compared to the other bacterial groups (gram-negative and gram-positive

bacteria) during all stages of mushroom growth (Figure 6D).

The casing soils treated with *B. velezensis* strains showed significant differences in microbial

biomass and composition within the four microbial groups analysed and across the different

cropping stages (Figure 6E). The highest relative abundance of bacterial PLFAs at the flushing

stage was observed in the control treatment supplemented with *L. fungicola* (+), while the

highest relative abundance of fungal PLFAs was observed in treatment 5 (strain CM35).

549 TaqMan assays for *B. velezensis* indicate low persistence of biostimulants

550 following supplementation to mushroom crops

To investigate whether the lack of a positive biocontrol effect for *B. velezensis* in crop could

be linked to low persistence of the biostimulants in mushroom casing we developed a specific

TaqMan assay to track the population density of *B. velezensis* when supplemented to casing

soil. The whole genome sequence of *B. velezensis* strains CM19, CM5 and CM35 are almost

identical and only showed a limited number of SNPs (Table S5). It was technically impossible

to differentiate the strains in a TaqMan assay based on a single SNP, and thus we decided to

design an assay for a subgroup of this species that includes the strains CM5, CM19 and CM35,

together with other closely related *B. velezensis* strains. Two *B. velezensis* subgroup-specific

assays, targeting different genes, were combined into a triplex assay with a specific assay for

Xanthomonas campestris pv. *campestris*, which was used as extraction and amplification

control (Table S7).

The two *B. velezensis* subgroup-specific assays in the triplex assay gave a positive result with

the three target strains and with CM18, CM20, CM21 and EM5, which all clustered in the same

subgroup (Figure S2B; Table S14), but not with other *B. velezensis* strains outside this

subgroup, such as *B. velezensis* EM39.

Despite showing high specificity, the assay showed low sensitivity, giving a positive result

only for cells present at 10^4 cfu/g of casing soil when used to detect cells present in exponential

cultures, and 10^7 cfu/g of soil for samples from stationary cultures (Figure 7C), potentially

indicating low efficiency of DNA extraction from spores. When used to detect *B. velezensis* in

casing samples, the bacteria could only be detected on the day of application (days 1 and 18 after casing; Figure 7A, B), suggesting low persistence and/or conversion to spores following supplementation.

Discussion

The horticultural activity of button mushroom cultivation includes different agronomic operations: a) production of a selective substrate through a process of composting; b) inoculation with the selected *A. bisporus* strain; c) casing of colonised substrate, commonly with non-sterile, peat-based material; d) fruiting and harvest (Carrasco *et al.*, 2021). The casing layer is a microbe-rich environment where mushroom fructification occurs, driven by the action of beneficial bacteria (Braat *et al.*, 2022), and is also considered to be the main infection site for mycoparasites, the most damaging biotic disorders of mushroom crops (Carrasco *et al.*, 2021; Gea et al., 2021). The microbiota present in casing soil therefore plays a key role in both promotion of mushroom fructification and disease development or disease suppression. The aim of this work was to isolate and characterize bacteria that are naturally resident in casing soil or live in association with mushroom basidiomes, to show antifungal activity of these bacteria towards economically important mycoparasites; to investigate the mechanistic basis of this antifungal activity, and to investigate the potential of these bacteria as biocontrol agents in crop.

Several strains of *B. velezensis*, including CM5, CM19 and CM35 (included in a published patent (Carrasco and Preston, 2023)), isolated from commercial casing material, and *B. velezensis* EM5 and EM39, isolated from mushroom basidiomes, have been identified and demonstrated to possess antifungal activity towards four of the most damaging mycoparasites (*C. mycophilum, L. fungicola, M. perniciosa* and *T. aggressivum*). The antifungal activity

observed in our strains is consistent with the potential biocontrol activity reported in other

strains, including *B. velezensis* Kos isolated from mushroom casing environment at Teagasc,

Ireland (Kosanović *et al.*, 2021; Clarke *et al.*, 2022a, 2022b) and the commercial biocontrol

agent *B. velezensis* QST713, isolated from soil in a peach tree orchard in Fresno County,

California (USA) (Anastassiadou *et al.*, 2021).

Importantly, *B. velezensis* CM5, CM19 and CM35 showed limited toxicity to *A. bisporus in*

vitro and did not show a deleterious effect on the mushroom mycelium at the dose applied in

crop (10^9 cfu m^{-2}). However, compared to an established chemical treatment (PCL), none of

the three strains provided effective control of the dry bubble parasite *L. fungicola* in a crop trial

(Figure **5**B). According to previous published results, the commercial formulations of *B.*

velezensis strain QST 713 (Serenade®, Bayer Crop Science, Valencia, Spain) and *Bacillus*

amyloliquefaciens subsp. *plantarum* strain D747 (Amylo-X®, Certis Europe, Alicante, Spain)

also offered poor control of wet bubble disease in crop trials, with their effectiveness further

reduced under high pressure of parasite inoculum (Navarro *et al.*, 2023). Similarly, *B.*

velezensis QST 713 did not control cobweb disease in a crop trial artificially infected by *C.*

mycophilum isolate 1546 while *B. velezensis* Kos 96h culture filtrate reached 30–40% efficacy

(Clarke *et al.*, 2024). This indicates that parasite identity, inoculum density and disease pressure

may all affect the outcome of control treatments, and that beneficial effects may largely due to

antimicrobial compounds present in the culture (or culture filtrate) at the time of application.

Our trial used a high inoculum density of *L. fungicola* compared to the natural parasite pressure

in commercial facilities. It is possible that at a lower inoculum density, a higher dose of *B.*

velezensis applied to the crop, or by optimising culture conditions and inoculum design to

increase production of antimicrobial compounds, both prior to and upon application to the crop,

a better disease control will be achieved. However, in pilot assays, at the highest doses used (>

10^{10} cfu/m^2), *B. velezensis* was observed to have a potential deleterious effect on *A. bisporus*

colonisation of casing soil (our unpublished results), and therefore it is likely be necessary to

further optimise the dose and formulation of *B. velezensis* applied to the crop to achieve optimal

results.

Selective TaqMan assays were developed to study the population dynamics of *B. velezensis* in

crop. The availability of two TaqMan assays per target organism in combination with an assay

for extraction and amplification allows specific and reliable detection of the targets in multiplex

set-up. However, the LOD was $\leq 4 \times 10^5$ cells per mL in casing soils, which only allows studies

of the population dynamics in situations in which relatively high densities of the *B. velezensis*

are supplemented to or persist in the casings. Additionally, we observed low efficiency

detection of bacteria that had entered stationary phase, potentially linked to challenges with

efficient extraction of DNA from spores.

When the TaqMan assays were applied to crop trial samples, we found that the target strains

could only be reliably detected on the day of application. This suggests that their population

declines rapidly following inoculation, or that the bacteria have entered stationary phase and

formed spores, in which case the TaqMan assay may significantly under-report their abundance

in casing samples. Since *B. velezensis* must adapt to a complex environment, optimizing the

formulation or antimicrobial activity of *B. velezensis* based products is key to improve stability,

shelf-life and deliver biocontrol activity (Kenfaoui *et al.*, 2024)..

As previously reported (Carrasco *et al.*, 2019, 2020), we observed that microbiome structure

changes along the process of mushroom cultivation. PLFA analyses confirmed that the

cultivation stage of *A. bisporus* correlated with significant changes in the composition of the

microbial communities in the casing, where the bacterial population, particularly gram-

negative bacteria, have been reported to play a fundamental role during the early development

of the mushroom primordia. The highest microbial biomass was found in the casing soil at the

end of fructification, indicating changes in microbial structure associated with mushroom

mycelium growth. The increase in the microbial population, with respect to both bacterial and

fungal biomass, correlated with the mycelial growth of *A. bisporus*, in accordance with

previous results (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Carrasco *et al.*, 2020). The increase in the bacterial

population may be attributable to metabolites released during the development of fruiting

bodies, which alter nutrient composition and influence the diversity of microbial communities

in mushroom casing (Zhao *et al.*, 2022).

Interestingly, application of *B. velezensis* strains in crop had a positive effect on both the gram-

negative and gram-positive communities suggesting that in addition to directly inhibiting

mycoparasitic fungi, it could have a synergistic effect on mushroom growth by promoting the

proliferation of disease-suppressing or fructification-promoting bacteria, perhaps through an

anti-competitor effect or by releasing nutrients through lysis of susceptible organisms. The

higher amount of gram negative compared to gram positive bacteria in all cropping stages is

consistent with the hypothesis that gram negative bacteria play a key role in stimulating the

initiation of mushroom sporophores (Chen *et al.*, 2009). Gram-negative bacteria, particularly

members of the Pseudomonadales such as *Pseudomonas putida* have been identified as major

microbial stimulants for sporophore formation in the casing layer, potentially by metabolizing

volatile compounds in the casing soil that would otherwise inhibit sporophore initiation,

thereby creating conditions conducive to sporophore formation (Rainey, 1989; Noble *et al.*,

2003).

Actinomycetes are sensitive to environmental changes, such as shifts in temperature, pH, and

moisture levels, which occur during mushroom cultivation (Lacey, 1997; Akond *et al.*, 2016).

These fluctuations could adversely affect their survival and proliferation, leading to lower

populations compared to more resilient bacterial groups. Besides, the casing layer is rich in

microbial diversity, leading to competition for nutrients and space. Actinomycetes may be

outcompeted by faster-growing bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas* spp., resulting in their reduced

presence during mushroom growth stages (Rainey, 1989; Noble *et al.*, 2003).

B. velezensis CM5, CM19, CM35, EM5 and EM39 all showed antimicrobial activity against

mycoparasites causing cobweb (*C. mycophilum*), dry bubble (*L. fungicola*), wet bubble (*M.*

perniciosa) and green mould disease (*T. aggressivum*) *in vitro*. Similarly, Clarke et al. (Clarke

et al., 2022a, 2022b) have reported that *B. velezensis* Kos has antimicrobial activity against *C.*

mycophilum and *L. fungicola*. Genome sequencing identified several gene clusters in these

strains that could direct the production of a range of non-ribosomal peptide and polyketide

antifungal compounds. However, analyses of the specialised metabolites produced *in vitro*

identified lipopeptides known as fengycins as the major non-ribosomal peptides produced by

these strains in pure culture under the conditions tested. It therefore seems likely that fengycins

are the primary factors responsible for both the anti-fungal activity and the surfactant activity

observed for these bacteria *in vitro*. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that some of

the anti-fungal compounds produced by these bacteria are only produced in the presence of

other microorganisms, or that these bacteria express a different arsenal of anti-microbial factors

during colonisation of mushroom casing or sporocarps. Previous studies have shown that many

gene clusters encoding anti-microbial factors remain silent in standard culture conditions.

These cryptic biosynthetic genes may only be induced during co-culture or specific

environmental conditions (Ochi , 2017).

The chemical structure of the fengycin analogues produced has been determined for CM5,

CM19 and CM35 when cultured *in vitro*. Interestingly, despite the high degree of similarity

between these strains at a genomic level CM19 showed higher production of the fengycin

analogue *in vitro*, suggesting that epigenetic differences or one or more of the SNPs detected

(Table S16) could be responsible for this differential production.

Fengycin is known to exert its anti-fungal activity by assembling into pore-forming complexes

that target fungal cell membranes (Zakharova *et al.*, 2019) in an interaction that depends on the

lipid composition of these membranes. The observation that fengycins are the major anti-fungal

factor produced by these strains *in vitro* and that these strains exhibit greater antagonism

towards the four mycoparasitic fungi, all of which belong to the order Hypocreales (Division:

Ascomycota) compared to *A. bisporus* (order Agaricales, Division Basidiomycota), raises the

prospect that this differential toxicity could relate to intrinsic differences in membrane

properties between fungi within these two clades. This suggests that biocontrol agents

specifically producing fengycins and selected or engineered to not produce broadly active anti-

fungal compounds could prove particularly effective as biocontrol agents for mushroom

cultivation. This also raises the exciting prospect that fengycins or other lipid-specific,

membrane-targeting compounds could be further developed as selective fungicides capable of

targeting specific groups of fungi. Research is already underway to develop approaches to

produce fengycin through fermentation on an industrial scale (Yin *et al.*, 2024). Additional

research could be carried out to determine which of the different analogues of fengycin

produced by *B. velezensis* and related bacteria display the greatest activity and specificity in

order to focus production on these metabolites.

Although fengycin remains the most likely candidate as the causal agent of the antimicrobial

activity observed *in vitro,* we have not yet been able to validate this hypothesis by knock-out

mutagenesis of the fengycin biosynthetic cluster, as the strains described in this study have

proven to be recalcitrant to transformation. However, the very low efficiency, but successful

transformation of CM19 with pHAPII gfp suggests that with further optimisation of

transformation protocols this might be possible. Additionally, we have not yet been able to

detect expression of fengycin biosynthetic genes or the production of fengycin when these

strains are inoculated into casing (data not shown), consistent with the rapid decline in

detectable bacteria and the lack of suppression of *L. fungicola* observed in crop trials.

Therefore, in order to fully realise the potential of fengycin-producing bacteria as biocontrol

agents it will be necessary to focus on the development of fengycins as selective fungicides or

further optimise the formulation and properties of these strains in the crop environment to

maximise survival and fengycin production.

Conclusion

In this study we set out to investigate whether endogenous casing bacteria have the potential to

be effective biocontrol agents against mycoparasitic fungi. *B. velezensis* strains isolated from

casing and basidiomes were demonstrated to display a high level of antifungal activity against

major fungal parasites, including *L. fungicola*, the causal agent of dry bubble. We identified a

fengycin analogue as the compound most likely to be responsible for the anti-fungal activity

exhibited by these strains *in vitro*. However, these strains have not been demonstrated to be

capable of suppressing the development of dry bubble when inoculated onto mushroom crops

that have been artificially infected with this parasite. The lack of antifungal activity observed

in crop could be due to a number of factors: the doses of mycoparasite and biocontrol agent

used, the level of fengycin present in or produced by the bacterial treatments applied to the

crop and the limited persistence of these strains in the casing material following inoculation.

In this sense, further optimisation of the bacteria formulation in relation to the composition and

dynamics of the microbiota that could compete for space or nutrients in the casing could be the

object of future research. Nevertheless, the specificity shown by these bacteria towards mycoparasitic fungi over their mushroom host raises exciting possibilities to develop selective biocontrol of mycoparasitic fungi. Understanding the composition and dynamics of the microbiota in the casing during commercial cultivation of the fungus *A. bisporus* could be essential to design novel biocontrol agents against mushroom mycoparasites.

Tables

Table 1: Experimental blocks used in crop trial

Treatment	Code	Dose	Infected (*Lecanicillium fungicola* 150/1)
Control	Control+	20 ml Tap water	10^6 conidia m^{-2} (10 days after casing)
Control	Control-	20 ml Tap water	-
Bacillus velezensis CM5	CM5	10^9 cfu* m^{-2}	10^6 conidia m^{-2} (10 days after casing)
Bacillus velezensis CM19	CM19	10^9 cfu m^{-2}	10^6 conidia m^{-2} (10 days after casing)
Bacillus velezensis CM35	CM35	10^9 cfu m^{-2}	10^6 conidia m^{-2} (10 days after casing)
Prochloraz-Mn	PCL	1 g m^{-2}	10^6 conidia m^{-2} (10 days after casing)

*cfu: colony forming unit.

Table 2: Summary of genomic data for *B. velezensis* casing isolates compared to QST713 (BLASTn (Nucleotide BLAST); BLASTp (Protein-Protein BLAST)).

	QST713	CM5	CM19	CM35	EM5	EM39
Similarity to [1]QST713 (%)	100	99.99	99.99	99.99	99.99	98.38
Genes (total)	4,238	4,256	4,255	4,256	4,256	3,906
GC Content	46	45.84	46	45.85	45.84	46.43
Genome Size	4233757	4240819	4240819	4240818	4240818	3929792
[2]CDSs (total)	4,047	4,137	4,136	4,137	4,137	3,788
Genes (coding)	4,047	4,049	4,048	4,048	4,048	3,686

CDSs (with protein)	4,047	4,049	4,048	4,048	4,048	3,686
Genes (RNA)	107	119	119	119	119	118
[3]rRNAs (5S, 16S, 23S)	9, 8, 8	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	9, 9, 9
Complete rRNAs (5S, 16S, 23S)	9, 8, 8	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	10, 9, 9	9, 9, 9
[4]tRNAs	77	86	86	86	86	86
[5]ncRNAs	5	5	5	5	5	5
Pseudo Genes (total)	84	88	88	89	89	102
CDSs (without protein)	84	88	88	89	89	102
Pseudo Genes (ambiguous residues)	0 of 84	0 of 88	0 of 88	0 of 89	0 of 89	0 of 102
Pseudo Genes (frameshifted)	48 of 84	51 of 88	51 of 88	52 of 89	52 of 89	61 of 102
Pseudo Genes (incomplete)	58 of 84	61 of 88	61 of 88	61 of 89	61 of 89	65 of 102
Pseudo Genes (internal stop)	14 of 84	11 of 88	11 of 88	11 of 89	11 of 89	9 of 102
Pseudo Genes (multiple problems)	30 of 84	29 of 88	29 of 88	29 of 89	29 of 89	30 of 102

[1]Results for all strains are from analyses using NCBI PGAAP (Tatusova *et al.*, 2016). Quality Assessment of *Bacillus* genomes using QUAST can be found in Table S1; [2]CDS: Coding sequences; [3]rRNA: ribosomal RNA; [4]tRNA: transfer RNA; [5]ncRNA: non-coding RNA.

Table 3: Comparative AntiSMASH analysis of gene clusters predicted to encode genes involved in specialised metabolite synthesis between *Bacillus velezensis* CM5, CM19, CM35, EM5, EM39 and QST713.

Most similar cluster	Type	QST713	CM5	CM19	CM35	EM5	EM39
bacillaene	Polyketide+[1]NRP	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
bacillibactin	NRP	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
bacilysin	Other	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
butirosin A/B	Saccharide	7%	7%	7%	7%	7%	7%
difficidin	Polyketide	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
fengycin	NRP	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
locillomycin	NRP+Polyketide	28%	28%	28%	28%	28%	-
macrolactin H	Polyketide	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
subtilin	[2]RiPP: Lanthipeptide	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	-
surfactin	NRP:Lipopeptide	82%	82%	82%	82%	82%	82%

 [1]NRP: Non-Ribosomal Peptides (built by non-ribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs)); [2]RiPPs: Ribosomally

synthesized and Post-translationally modified Peptides.

Figures

Figure 1: A) Cultivable bacterial isolates from three types of casing layer and endofungal bacteria from

basidiomes of *Agaricus bisporus* identified using 16S rDNA sequencing; B) Phylogenetic tree of

isolated *Bacillus* strains. The phylogeny was built using concatenated genomes comprising the five

housekeeping genes (*gyrB*, *pgk*, *rpoB*, *rpoD*, and *tuf*) aligned to the reference strain *B. velezensis*

FZB42. Strains highlighted in bold were isolated and phenotypically characterised in this study; C)

Visualization of *Bacillus* genomes using circular map and BLAST comparison using BLAST Ring

Generator (BRIG) (42); Putative specialised metabolite biosynthetic clusters compared to QST713 are

shown by red marks in the outer ring.

| A1 | A2 | A3 | A4 |

C. mycophilum v CM19 d4   *L. fungicola* v CM19 d13   *M. perniciosa* v CM19 d13   *T. aggressivum* v CM19 d5

C. mycophilum 1h   *L. fungicola* 1h   *M. perniciosa* 1h   *T. aggressivum* 1h

LB   CM35   EM39   *P. tolaasii*

Figure 2: A) Representative images of halos formed during antagonism between *B. velezensis* CM19

and the four fungal parasites of the cultivated button mushroom *Agaricus bisporus* in confrontation

assays: *L. fungicola* (150/1); *T. aggressivum* (TAV1); *M. perniciosa* (M25); and *C. mycophilum*

(CM13900). B) Graph shows the mean and standard error of zones of inhibition (mm) of the three

biological replicates of the antagonism assay. Letters indicate groups of statistically different conditions

(one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test $\alpha = 0.05$). C & D) Representative images of unchallenged

fungal parasites grown *in vitro* on PDA plates – images taken using confocal microscope at t=0 (C),

and t=18 h (D). E) Representative confocal microscope images of fungal parasites *in vitro* in the

presence of *B. velezensis* CM19 transformed with the plasmid pHAPII gfp (green). Conidial and hyphal

viability and morphology were assessed *in vitro* using PDA plates. Live dead staining with propidium

iodide (PI; pink) was used to study the effect of CM19 on spore survival and germination (C, D, E).

Spores were classified as dead if either fully stained with PI or hollow/lysed cells. In many cases spores

were deemed to have germinated but resulting hyphae were also found to be stained or lysed. F)

Representative images of mushroom sporocarp cubes 24h after inoculation with LB, *B. velezensis*

CM35, *B. velezensis* EM39, and *P. tolaasii*. Graph of results can be viewed in Figure S1.

Figure 3: Surfactant production in *B. velezensis* strains. Data shown is the mean droplet diameter of

supernatant from overnight LB cultures. Droplet diameters were measured 2 minutes after pipetting

onto microscope slides. Graph shows the mean and standard error of 5 experiments, each containing 5

droplets per treatment. Letters indicate groups of statistically different conditions (one-way ANOVA

and Tukey's HSD test α = 0.05).

Figure 4: HPLC-HRMS analysis of fengycin produced by *B. velezensis* strains CM5, CM19 and CM35

cultivated on LB agar. (A) Extracted ion chromatograms ([M+H]⁺, *m/z* 1463.804, ±2 ppm) show the

production of fengycin by all the three strains. The highest physiological amounts of the compound

were produced by *B. velezensis* CM19, followed by strains CM5 and CM35. The left insert shows the

phenotypic characteristics of the strains grown on LB agar. The chemical structure of fengycin is shown

on the right. (B) HRMS spectrum of fengycin produced by the bacteria.

Figure 5: Crop trial of *B. velezensis* biocontrol activity against *Lecanicillium fungicola* 150/1. Blocks

were artificially infected with *Lecanicillium fungicola* 150/1 and treated with CM5, CM19 and CM35,

using prochloraz-Mn (PCL) as a positive control treatment and water as a negative control: A)

Biological efficiency (BE) of the crop (Kg of mushroom per 100 Kg of compost in dry weight)

recovered from the different treatments at flush 1 (F1), flush 2 (F2) and for the total cropping cycle; B)

Diseased mushrooms (%) collected from the different treatments at F1, F2 and for the total cropping

cycle. Graphs show the mean and standard error of three biological replicates. Letters indicate groups

of statistically different conditions (one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test α = 0.05).

Figure 6: A: Quantification of casing microbial biomass by analysis of PLFAs. Four timepoints were

assessed: d0 (Beginning of trial; grey), day 10 (Fully colonized casing, blue), d21 (Fructification of first

flush, green), and d29 (End of first flush, orange). Treatment 1: Control +LF (+); Treatment 2: Control

-LF (-); Treatment 3: CM5 +LF; Treatment 4: CM19 +LF; Treatment 5: CM35 +LF; Treatment 6: PCL

+LF). Letters in uppercase highlight differences between treatments at the same time point (Tukey Test,

$p > 0.05$). Error bars show SE. B: Abundance of Gram-positive bacteria. C: Abundance of Gram-

negative bacteria. D: Abundance of Actinomycetes. E: Abundance of fungal PLFAs. All data shown

uses nmol g-1.

Figure 7: Population dynamics of *Bacillus velezensis* CM19 following application to mushroom casing

as determined by a quantitative TaqMan assay. T0 = after cac-ing (day 0), T1 = directly after application

of *B. velezensis* CM19 (day 3), T2 = End of spawn run (Day 9), T3 = Beginning of the 1st flush (Day

14), T4 = End of the 1st flush (Day 17), T5 = Directly after the second application of *B.velezensis* CM19

(Day 18), T6 = Beginning of the 2nd flush (Day 22), T7 = End of the 2nd flush (Day 25). A: Results

using the HP2.21 (FAM) TaqMan probe; B) Results using the HP2.19 (Cy5) TaqMan probe C)

Electrophoresis gel showing PCR results from PCR reaction using HP2.19 TaqMan primers (35 cycles)

for DNA extracted from *B. velezensis* CM19 cells (from LB medium) in exponential growth stage (6h)

and stationary cultures (24 h). Numbers indicate the number of bacteria added to the casing soil before

extraction (cells added /g of soil).

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