1	Identification and antimicrobial properties of bacteria isolated from naturally
2	decaying wood
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17	Running title: antimicrobial properties of wood-inhabiting bacteria
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# 22 Abstract

23

24	Research on wood decay in forest ecosystems has traditionally focused on wood-rot fungi, which lead
25	the decay process through attack of the lignocellulose complex. The role of bacteria, which can be
26	highly abundant, is still unclear. Wood-inhabiting bacteria are thought to be nutritionally dependent on
27	decay activities of wood-rot fungi. Therefore, we hypothesized that these bacteria are not antagonistic
28	against wood-rot fungi whereas antagonistic activity against other bacteria may be high (resource
29	competition). This was examined for decaying wood in temperate forests. We found that the
30	abundance of cultivable bacteria in decaying wood can be highly variable. The general pattern is an
31	increase of bacteria with progressive decay, but we also identified several fungi that were apparently
32	able to exclude bacteria from their woody territory. We established a bacterial collection which is
33	highly representative for decaying wood with typical wood-inhabiting taxa: Xanthomonadaceae,
34	Acetobacteraceae, Caulobacteraceae, Methylovirgula, Sphingomonas, Burkholderia and Granulicella.
35	In vitro antagonistic activity against other bacteria and fungi was evaluated. In contrast to our
36	hypothesis, we found surprisingly low antagonistic activity against bacteria (<2% of isolates), while
37	antagonism against fungi was more prevalent. These results may point at a prominent role of
38	mycophagy (growth at the expense of living fungi) among wood-inhabiting bacteria.
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41	Keywords: wood decay, antagonism, antibiotics, fungal-bacterial interactions,
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# 46 Introduction

47

48 The process of wood decay has been extensively studied; both from the perspective of functioning of 49 forest ecosystems (e.g. carbon and nutrient cycling) and of wood industry and construction (Schmidt 50 2006; van der Wal et al 2013). The main players in aerobically decaying wood are wood-rot fungi. They lead the process of wood decay with their ability to attack the lignocellulose complex using a 51 52 complex machinery of extracellular enzymes and chemical mediators (Dashtban et al 2010). The 53 presence of bacteria in wood decayed by wood-rot fungi has also been demonstrated, though information on abundance, identity and functional characteristics is still very limited (Johnston et al 54 2016). The contribution of bacteria to wood decay via direct attack of the ligno-cellulose complex is 55 assumed to be limited to circumstances where fungal decay is suppressed, like in water-logged wood 56 57 and foundation piles (Klaassen 2008). However, the indirect influence of bacteria on wood decay via 58 mutualistic or competitive interactions with wood-rot fungi is potentially large (de Boer and van der 59 Wal 2008; Johnston et al 2016).

60 Information on the bacterial community composition in decaying wood is increasingly 61 becoming available (Johnston et al 2016). Bacterial taxa that are commonly found in decaying wood 62 include Acidobacteria, Alpha-, Beta- and Gammaproteobacteria (Beijerinckiaceae, Burkholderiaceae, Xanthomonadaceae) and Actinobacteria (Hervé et al 2014; Hoppe et al 2015; Kielak et al 2016; Rina-63 64 Kanto et al 2016; Tláskal et al 2017; Probst et al 2018). Bacterial biomass and diversity increases with 65 progressive decay (Hoppe et al 2015; Kielak et al 2016; Tláskal et al 2017; Probst et al 2018) and the 66 relative abundance of some bacterial taxa is associated with the stage of decay, e.g. the genus 67 *Methylovirgula* is generally found in intermediate to advanced stages. Besides decay stage, tree 68 species is also influencing the bacterial community composition (Hoppe et al 2015). No relationship 69 between bacterial and fungal communities was found in a pine decay range (Kielak et al 2016), 70 indicating that the physico-chemical parameters of the wood rather than the composition of fungi were 71 the main determinants for bacterial community composition. In contrast, co-occurrence patterns

between fungi and nitrogen fixing bacteria were found in decaying *Fagus* and *Picea* wood (Hoppe et al 2014).

74 It is well known that bacteria and fungi can have a large impact on each other's growth and 75 performance via the production of secondary metabolites, but these interactions have hardly been 76 investigated in the context of wood decay. In contrast, antagonistic interactions among different wood 77 decaying fungi have received a lot of attention (Boddy 2000; Hiscox et al 2018). Wood decaying fungi 78 heavily compete for substrate and a wide range of antimicrobial compounds have been identified. 79 These compounds can inhibit fungi as well as bacteria (Suay et al 2000; Barros et al 2008). In addition, acidification of wood by fungal production of organic acids, like oxalic acid, have a big 80 81 impact on the growth conditions for bacteria. Indeed, a sharp decline in the number of bacteria in woodblocks on forest soil has been observed after invasion of the blocks by the white-rot fungus 82 83 Hypholoma fasciculare and rapid acidification rather than toxic compounds were the most likely 84 cause of this decline (Folman et al 2008; de Boer et al 2010). In contrast, high bacterial numbers of up 85 to 10<sup>10</sup> colony forming units per gram of wood have been observed in naturally acidic, decaying wood 86 covered with H. fasciculare fruiting bodies (Valaskova et al 2009). Currently, it is still unclear, how 87 bacterial abundance and functioning is influenced by wood-rot fungi during the decay process.

88 Conversely, bacteria in decaying wood can also influence wood-rot fungi. Co-inoculation studies with wood decaying fungi and bacteria have reported positive as well as negative effects on the 89 decay process (Blanchette and Shaw 1978; Murray and Woodard 2003). Only one study examined the 90 91 direct interactions between wood-rot fungi and co-existing bacteria and reported neutral, inhibitory 92 and in one case stimulatory effects on fungal growth (Kamei et al 2012). No studies exist on 93 antibacterial properties of bacteria from decaying wood. We hypothesize that their combative 94 strategies are primarily directed towards other bacteria, while leaving the wood-rot fungi unaffected. 95 This hypothesis is based on the assumption that bacteria in non-saturated decaying wood are 96 nutritionally dependent on the release of oligomers of wood polymers by decay fungi (de Boer and van 97 der Wal 2008). To test this hypothesis we aimed to get a collection of bacterial strains that is 98 representative for different stages of decaying wood in a temperate forest. Of the identified bacterial

- 99 strains, antibacterial and antifungal properties were determined by *in vitro* screenings. In addition to
- 100 identification of antimicrobial properties, we also determined abundance of cultivable bacteria in wood
- samples with different wood-rot fungi and in different decay stages.

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104 Materials and methods

105

### **106 Sample collection**

Decaying wood samples were collected in a mixed forest close to the village of Wolfheze in the centre
 of The Netherlands (51°59'39''N; 5°47'39''E). For a pilot experiment, wood samples from decaying

- 109 birch trees with either *Piptoporus betulinus*, *Fomes fomentarius*, *Stereum subtomentosum* or
- 110 Plicaturopsis crispa fruiting bodies were collected in duplo in autumn 2012. In addition, two

111 coniferous samples (Abies fir and pine wood) with clear visual indications of brown-rot patterns were

112 collected in the same year. For the main experiment, twenty samples of pine wood (*Pinus sylvestris*) in

different stages of decay were collected in autumn 2013. For all samples, the bark was removed and

slices of wood were surface sterilized under UV light for 30 min. Saw dust was produced with a wood

drill, sterilized with 70% ethanol. Highly decayed wood samples, which could not be drilled, were

116 fragmented using sterile forceps and scalpel. Frozen saw dust samples from oak stumps two and five

117 years after cutting (van der Wal *et al* 2015) were included in the pilot.

118

#### **119 Bacterial enumeration and identification**

120 About 0.4 g of fresh saw dust was weighed into a 5 mL tube and mixed with 4 mL 0.9% sodium

- 121 chloride buffered at pH 5.0 with 1.95 g 2-(*N*-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) per liter. Tubes
- were shaken at 300 rpm for 90 min, sonicated twice for 30 seconds and shaken for another 30 min. For

the pilot experiments, two times 50  $\mu$ L of 10<sup>0</sup>, 10<sup>-1</sup>, 10<sup>-2</sup>, 10<sup>-3</sup>, 10<sup>-4</sup> and 10<sup>-5</sup> dilutions were spread on 123 water-yeast agar pH 5.0 with cycloheximide (containing 1 g sodium chloride, 0.1 g yeast extract, 1.95 124 125 g MES, 20 g agar and 100 mg cycloheximide per liter). Previous experiments identified this low-126 nutrient, low-pH medium as the most suitable medium for the isolation of bacteria from decaying 127 wood (Valášková et al 2009). Plates were incubated at 20 °C and bacterial colonies were counted after 128 5 weeks of growth. A maximum of 24 colonies per wood sample were randomly collected for 129 identification by 16S rDNA sequencing. For the main experiment, two times 50 µL of 10<sup>-2</sup>, 10<sup>-3</sup>, 10<sup>-4</sup>, 10<sup>-5</sup> and 10<sup>-6</sup> dilutions were spread on water-yeast agar pH 5.0 with cycloheximide, thiabendazole and 130 methanol (containing 1 g sodium chloride, 0.1 g yeast extract, 1.95 g MES, 20 g agar, 100 mg 131 cycloheximide, 11 mg thiabendazole and 1 g methanol per liter). Methanol was included, because in 132 133 the pilot experiments, diminished growth was observed for *Methylovirgula* isolates in the absence of 134 methanol. The applied concentration of methanol is unlikely to be lethal for the majority of bacteria (Wadhwani et al 2008). A combination of cycloheximide and thiabendazole appeared to be more 135 136 effective to inhibit fungal growth that cycloheximide alone (Hol et al 2015). Plates were incubated at 137 20 °C and bacterial colonies were counted after 10 days, 3 weeks and 6 weeks. At each time point, a 138 maximum of 24 colonies per wood sample were collected for further identification. 139 Bacteria were identified by 16S rDNA sequencing. Colony PCR was performed with primers 140 27f (5'-GAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG-3') and 1492r (5'-GRTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'; Lane, 141 1991). The PCR mixture contained 0.04 U FastStart Tag DNA polymerase, 1× buffer (Roche 142 Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), 0.6 µM of each primer and 200 µM of each deoxynucleoside

143 triphosphate in a total volume of 25  $\mu$ L. The PCR cycling regime was (1) one cycle of 5 min at 94°C,

144 (2) 35 cycles of 1 min at 94°C, 1 min at 55°C, and 1.5 min at 72°C, and (3) one final extension cycle

145 of 10 min at 72°C. PCR products were verified by agarose gel electrophoresis. Fragments were

sequenced (Macrogen, Seoul, Korea) from both directions in the pilot experiment and with primer1492r in the main experiment.

Low quality regions of 16S rDNA sequences were trimmed and DNA fragments that were
sequenced from both sides were assembled (DNA Baser Sequence Assembler; www.dnabaser.com).

Sequences were identified using the EzTaxon server (http://www.ezbiocloud.net/eztaxon; Kim et al 150 2012) and classified into a taxonomic group with RDP Classifier (version 2.10, training set 14; Wang 151 et al 2007). Trimmed and assembled sequences were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers 152 153 KY907704-KY908306. The relative abundance of taxa was calculated, including only randomly picked colonies and taking into account the relative abundance at each time point as derived from 154 colony counts. Bacterial communities from the same wood samples have been previously identified 155 156 with pyrosequencing (Kielak et al 2016). Abundance of bacterial taxa as derived from sequenced 157 isolates was plotted against the relative abundance in the pyrosequencing data for comparison. This 158 was done at class as well as genus level.

For a comparative analysis, sequences from two previously published studies were recovered
from GenBank (Folman *et al* 2008, Valášková *et al* 2009) and reclassified with RDP Classifier version
2.10 and training set 14. Presence of bacterial taxa was compared between the two published studies
and the present work.

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#### 164 Physicochemical characteristics

Wood density was determined by water displacement of wood blocks (Olesen 1971). Moisture content
was determined by drying wood dust at 60 °C for 4 days. Dried wood was grinded with liquid nitrogen
and carbon and nitrogen content were measured on a Flash EA1112 CN analyzer (Interscience, Breda,
the Netherlands).

Water extracts of saw dust were prepared by shaking 0.3 g of fresh saw dust with 6 mL milliQ water at 300 rpm for 1 hour. Water extracts were used to determine pH, manganese peroxidase,
laccase and cellulase activities as previously described (Valášková *et al* 2009). Ergosterol content was
determined as an indication for fungal biomass with alkaline extraction and HPLC analysis (Baath
2001; de Ridder-Duine *et al* 2006).

A correlation matrix was produced for all wood physicochemical parameters (density,
moisture content, pH, C/N ratio), fungal biomass (ergosterol content), enzyme activities (Mn
peroxidase, laccase, cellulase) and bacterial numbers (CFU per gram dry wood after 6 weeks).
Correlations were calculated with Kendall's tau-b and Spearmann's rho coefficients using SPSS
version 23.0.

179

#### 180 Antibacterial activity screening

181 A total of 635 isolates from decaying pine wood (main experiment) were screened for antibacterial activity. They were routinely grown in 24 well plates on water-yeast agar pH5 with 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> methanol 182 (WYA5m) at 20 °C. The bacteria were transferred to 1-well plates (Greiner Bio-One; www.gbo.com) 183 containing 35 mL WYA5m with the use of a custom-made 24-pin tool. The plates were incubated at 184 185 20 °C for 1, 2 and 5 weeks for the isolates collected after 10 days, 3 weeks and 6 weeks respectively. 186 Antibacterial activity was tested against four bacterial strains, Escherichia coli WA123, 187 Staphylococcus aureus 533R4, Dyella strain WH32 and Burkholderia strain 4-A6. E. coli and S. aureus are clinically relevant strains for the development of new antibiotics and the Dyella and 188 Burkholderia strains are ecologically relevant, as they originate from decaying wood. E. coli and S. 189 190 aureus were routinely grown at 37 °C in Luria broth (LB) and Dyella and Burkholderia at 25 °C in 1/10 tryptic soy broth pH5 (TSA5, containing 3 g tryptic soy broth (Oxoid) and 1.95 g MES per liter). 191 192 Bacteria were grown overnight and the optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) was determined. Agar medium (LB or TSA5 with 15 gram agar per liter) at 50 °C was inoculated with the bacteria to a final 193 194 OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.002, 0.002, 0.004 and 0.008 for *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, *Dyella* and *Burkholderia* respectively. 195 Plates were overlaid with 15 mL and the occurrence of clear zones around the bacterial isolates was 196 observed after one day of growth. Isolates that showed inhibition zones were streaked for purity and 197 the overlay assay was repeated in order to verify the results of the screening.

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#### 199 Antimicrobial activity of selected isolates

200 Thirty-six isolates were selected for a more in-depth characterization of antimicrobial properties 201 (Suppl. Table 1). The selection was based on two criteria, (1) the isolates originated from pine samples 202 colonized by Stereum sanguinolentum or Mycena galericulata (Kielak et al 2016), and (2) the isolates 203 belonged to bacterial groups that are commonly isolated from decaying wood. Fungal strains S. 204 sanguinolentum CBS 927.72 and M. galericulata CBS 623.88 were obtained from CBS-KNAW 205 Collections (www.cbs.knaw.nl). Fungi were pre-grown on malt-extract agar (MEA, containing 20 g 206 malt extract (Oxoid) and 12 g agar per liter). Inhibition experiments were performed on two types of 207 agar medium, WYA5m and MEA. Methanol was also added to MEA for all Methylovirgula strains. 208 Bacteria were inoculated onto the plates and incubated at 20 °C for 3 weeks for the Methylovirgula 209 strains, and for 1 week for the other strains. In order to detect the production of antifungal compounds, 210 agar plugs from S. sanguinolentum or M. galericulata cultures were inoculated in the middle of the 211 plate at a distance of 2 cm from the pre-inoculated bacterial colonies. Plates were further incubated at 212 20 °C and inhibition zones or delayed fungal growth was observed during two months. For the 213 detection of antibacterial compounds, bacteria were grown on WYA5m and MAE and overlay assays 214 with E. coli WA123, S. aureus 533R4, Dyella WH32 and Burkholderia 4-A6 were performed as 215 described above. Three replicates were prepared in all experiments, and delayed or inhibited fungal 216 growth should be observed in all replicates. 217 218 Results 219 220

221 In order to get an overview of the abundance and identity of bacteria that can be isolated from

decaying wood, different sources of wood were used: 1) birch wood with either *Piptoporus betulinus*,

223 Fomes fomentarius, Stereum subtomentosum or Plicaturopsis crispa fruiting bodies, 2) Abies fir and

224 pine wood with clear visual indications of brown-rotting patterns, and 3) oak stumps several years

225 after cutting. The number of bacteria varied between 0 and 1\*10<sup>8</sup> CFU per gram dry wood, with extremely low numbers in the birch wood samples (Figure 1a, Suppl. Table 2). The detection limit for 226 227 the birch wood samples was about 200 CFU per gram dry wood. Low bacterial abundance in 228 Piptoporus and Fomes colonized birch wood was confirmed on several independent sampling 229 occasions (data not shown). Bacteria from Abies, pine and oak were isolated and identified by nearly 230 complete 16S rDNA sequences (Suppl. Table 3). An average of 54% of randomly picked isolates had 231 less than 97% sequence identity to known bacterial species, indicating that they were potentially new 232 species. Growth of the Methylovirgula and Beijerinckia isolates slowed down after transfer to fresh agar plates without methanol and resumed after the addition of 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> methanol to the growth 233 medium. 234

235 Bacterial communities were subsequently characterized in pine wood samples in different 236 stages of decay. The number of bacteria, as determined by the number of CFU per gram dry weight, 237 increased with decreasing wood density, which is an indicator for wood decay stage (Figure 1b, Table 238 1). Apart from density, wood moisture content and C/N ratio were also highly correlated with bacterial 239 numbers (Suppl. Table 4). This was expected, because moisture increases, while C/N ratio decreases 240 during decay. Moisture was used as a proxy for decay stage in a comparison of bacterial abundance in the experiments in this publication and the data of Valaskova et al (2009) (Figure 2). Other parameters 241 that were measured, i.e. pH, ergosterol, manganese peroxidase, laccase and cellulose activity, did not 242 243 correlate with the number of bacteria (Suppl. Table 4).

244 Partial 16S rRNA sequences were determined for a maximum of 24 isolates per sample per 245 time point. A complete list of identified bacteria is presented in Suppl. Table 5. Relative abundances of bacterial taxa were calculated for 14 of the 20 samples (Figure 3, Suppl. Table 6). For the other six 246 247 samples, Pi01, Pi02, Pi03, Pi07, Pi10 and Pi15, only 0-3 sequences per sample were obtained. They 248 were therefore excluded from the community analysis. Three genera were significantly correlated with 249 density, namely Streptacidiphilus, Mycobacterium and Rhodanobacter (Kendall's tau-b: P=0.006, 250 0.006 and 0.009 respectively). All three were exclusively found in more decayed wood samples with a density lower than 0.3 g (cm<sup>3</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>. The identity of isolated strains matched well with previously 251

published pyrosequencing data on the same wood samples (Kielak et al 2016). We obtained
representative isolates for all taxa (until genus level) with an abundance of more than 2% in the
pyrosequencing data (Figure 4).

255 In order to identify those bacterial taxa that are most common in naturally decaying wood, we 256 made a comparison between bacteria isolated in the current experiments and two published studies 257 (Table 2). In the published work, bacteria were isolated from decaying wood of various tree species with the white-rot fungi Hypholoma fascicularum and Resinicium bicolor (Folman et al, 2008, 258 Valaskova et al, 2009). Within the Alphaproteobacteria, members of the family Acetobacteraceae and 259 the genus Sphingomonas were commonly isolated from decaying wood. Methylovirgula, one of the 260 261 dominant taxa in decaying wood, was found in all studies except by Valaskova et al. Furthermore, Burkholderia sp. from the Betaproteobacteria and Xanthomonadaceae from the Gammaproteobacteria 262 263 were recovered in every experiment in the comparison. Acidobacteria from subdivision 1 also 264 appeared to be commonly isolated from decaying wood, with Granulicella as the most abundant 265 genus.

Less than 2% of the isolates showed antibacterial activity. These bacteria were identified as 266 267 Streptacidiphilus (5), Kitasatospora (1), Microbacteriaceae (1) and Acidisoma (3). They were active 268 against S. aureus 533R4, Dyella WH32 and/or Burkholderia 4-A6. Antibacterial activity was observed 269 in three wood samples, Pi16, Pi17 and Pi19, all of which belonged to the more decayed wood samples 270 (Table 3). A selection of 36 strains of frequently isolated taxa were tested for antibacterial and antifungal activity on two different media (Table 4). The Methylovirgula strains did not grow on MEA 271 272 and were therefore tested on WYA5m only. As in the first screening, antibacterial activity was not 273 observed on the poor water-yeast agar, while two strains showed slight inhibition of E. coli on the rich 274 MEA medium. In contrast, antifungal activity was observed against S. sanguinolentum and M. 275 galericulata for several Xanthomonadaceae and Burkholderia strains. Three of the Xanthomonadaceae 276 strains originally co-occurred with S. sanguinolentum, but had activity against both fungi. One 277 Mycobacterium strain, isolated from late stage decay where it co-occurred with M. galericulata 278 showed activity against *M. galericulata*, but not against *S. sanguinolentum* (Table 4). For

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279 *Burkholderia*, antifungal activity was more frequently directed against not co-occurring fungi than
280 against co-occurring fungi.

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# 283 Discussion

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285 Antagonistic interactions among wood decaying fungi have been extensively studied, but little is 286 known about the interactions with other wood inhabiting microorganisms (Johnston et al 2016). We 287 know that wood decaying fungi heavily compete for substrates and a wide range of antimicrobial compounds have been identified (Hiscox et al 2015). These fungal compounds can inhibit fungi as 288 289 well as bacteria (Bérdy 2005). Toxic fungal compounds could potentially be an explanation for the 290 extremely low abundance of bacteria in decaying birch wood. Though low bacterial numbers were observed for four different wood decay fungi, including white and brown-rot fungi from three different 291 292 orders (*Polyporales, Russulales* and *Agricales*), high numbers have also been observed for birch wood 293 colonized by Hypholoma fasciculare (Valášková et al 2009). Therefore, we can conclude that the 294 abundance of bacteria in decaying birch wood is influenced by fungal species. Another pattern was 295 observed for decaying pine wood. We showed that bacterial abundance was correlated with wood 296 density, which is an indicator for the stage of wood decay. Later stages of decay were apparently more 297 favorable for bacteria than earlier stages, which might be related to the higher moisture and nitrogen 298 content. However, there is one exception in this range. Sample Pi15 was highly decayed, while 299 bacterial numbers were around the limit of detection. This sample was dominated by one fungal 300 species, 99.7% Ischnoderma benzoinum. To conclude, the general pattern is that bacterial abundance 301 increases during wood decay. In addition, we identified several wood decaying fungi that successfully 302 excluded other fungi and bacteria. These were Piptoporus betulinus, Fomes fomentarius, Stereum 303 subtomentosum, Plicaturopsis crispa and Ischnoderma benzoinum.

In order to investigate antagonistic activity of bacteria from decaying wood against fungi and 304 305 other bacteria, we established a culture collection of bacteria from decaying wood. One of the major 306 problems when working with isolated bacteria is that they are often not representative for the original 307 community. In most habitats, only a few percent of the bacteria is culturable and many taxa are not 308 captured in isolation attempts (Rappe and Giovannoni 2003). Valášková et al (2009) previously 309 demonstrated that it is relatively easy to culture bacteria from decaying wood, even for groups that are 310 generally considered as hard-to-culture like the Acidobacteria (Jones et al 2009). In agreement, we 311 found a good match between the identity of isolated bacteria and pyrosequencing data of the same 312 wood samples (Kielak et al 2016). Though Acidobacteria were underrepresented in the culture 313 collection, we obtained representative isolates for all taxa (until genus level) with an abundance of more than 2% in the pyrosequencing data. In addition, many potentially new bacterial species were 314 315 isolated. Several new groups within the genus *Methylovirgula* were also captured. It is likely that these 316 groups were previously missed, because of the absence of methanol in the isolation medium. By 317 comparing our data with previously published studies reporting on isolated bacteria from decaying 318 wood, we were able to identify several taxa that are 'typical' for this environment. These were 319 Xanthomonodaceae, Acetobacteraceae, Caulobacteraceae, Methylovirgula, Sphingomonas, 320 Burkholderia and Granulicella. Our current collection is highly representative for bacterial 321 communities in decaying wood.

322 The complete collection of bacteria from decaying pine wood was screened for antagonistic 323 activity against four different bacteria, but surprisingly few bacteria produced antagonistic compounds 324 against other bacteria. Low bacterial abundance could be an explanation for low antibacterial activity, 325 because bacteria are less likely to encounter each other at low abundance. Indeed, all bacteria that 326 exhibited antibacterial activity were isolated from the more decayed wood samples with higher 327 bacterial abundance. However, even in those samples, antibacterial activity was not very common. Screening for antibacterial activity was performed on a low nutrient agar, water-yeast agar pH5 with 328 329 methanol. We choose this medium, because many isolates are not able to grow at higher nutrient 330 concentrations or pH. It is likely that the medium composition influenced the production of

antimicrobial compounds. Higher nutrient concentrations did not increase the frequency of bacteria
expressing antibacterial compounds in a pilot experiment (data not shown), though a slight increase
was observed when a subset of the isolates from pine wood were tested on MEA medium (Table 4).
Apparently, bacterial competition via the production of antibacterial compounds is not an important
trait for bacteria in wood decay.

336 We originally hypothesized that bacteria would not attack the wood decaying fungi, because 337 they are thought to be nutritionally dependent on the fungi. However, in contrast to observations by Valášková et al (2009), several isolates from decaying wood showed antagonistic activity against 338 339 wood decaying fungi. Xanthomonadaceae isolated from wood colonized by the early successional 340 fungus S. sanguinolentum were antagonistic against S. sanguinolentum as well as the late successional fungus M. galericulata. For Burkholderia, the isolates from S. sanguinolentum colonized wood were 341 342 pre-dominantly active against *M. galericulata* and vice versa. So, no general pattern could be observed related to decay stage or co-occurrence, but antifungal activity was definitely higher than antibacterial 343 344 activity. Close associations between soil Burkholderia and fungi have been reported with antagonistic 345 as well as mutualistic interactions (Stopnisek 2016). Members of the genera Burkholderia and Dyella 346 (Xanthomonadaceae) have both been identified as mycophagous, *i.e.* fungal feeding bacteria (Rudnik 347 et al 2015; Ballhausen et al 2015) and are able to migrate along fungal hyphae (Warmink and van Elsas 2009). The picture arises of bacteria that are consuming fungal hyphae and/or fungal exudates, 348 349 while at the same time using the hyphae to explore new territories. Assuming that the bacteria are not 350 able to totally eliminate the wood decaying fungi, this is likely to be an efficient strategy. Feeding on 351 fungi has also been indicated as an important nutritional strategy of bacteria inhabiting decomposing 352 leaf litter (Tláskal et al., 2016).

In conclusion, bacterial abundance in decaying wood increases with progressive wood decay, but can be drastically diminished when wood is colonized by some specific fungi. Contrary to our original hypothesis, bacteria isolated from decaying wood hardly exhibited antagonistic activity against bacteria, while several isolates did show antagonistic activity against wood decaying fungi.

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Figure 1: Number of colony forming units in decaying wood samples. a) Pilot experiment with
decaying Abies (Br1), pine (Br2), oak (Os1, Os2) and birch wood (Pb1, Pb2, Ff1, Ff2, Ss1, Ss2, Pc1,
Pc2). b) Main experiment with a decay range of pine wood. For a description of wood samples see
Table 1 and Suppl. Table 2.



Figure 2: Number of colony forming units in decaying wood samples from the samples collected for
this study and from Valášková *et al* (2009) combined. Moisture content serves as a proxy for decay
stage, as density was not available for all samples. Measurements below 10<sup>4</sup> CFU (g dry weight)<sup>-1</sup>
become less accurate due to the low number of colonies on plates, this area is indicated in grey.



470

471 Figure 3: Bacterial community composition in decaying pine wood as determined by the identity of

- 472 randomly picked isolates. For samples with very low bacterial abundance, we could not obtain
- 473 sufficient data.

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475

476 Figure 4: Relationship between the relative abundance of bacterial classes (open circles) and genera477 (closed circles) in pyrosequencing data and 16S rDNA sequences of isolated strains.

#### 479 Table 1: Overview of wood parameters and number of bacteria.

480

Wood sample	рH	Moisture (w/w)	Density (g (cm <sup>3</sup> ) <sup>-1</sup> )	Nitrogen	Carbon	C/N	Ergosterol (mg (kg dry wood) <sup>-1</sup> )	CFU after 10 days (CFU (g dry wood) <sup>-1</sup> )	CFU after 3 weeks (CFU (g dry wood) <sup>-1</sup> )	CFU after 6 weeks (CFU (g dry wood) <sup>-1</sup> )	Mn- peroxidase*	Laccase*	Cellulase*
Pi01	5.1	22%	0.50	0.07%	49%	674	12	5.0E+04	6.3E+04	6.3E+04	185	27	0
Pi02	4.0	19%	0.49	0.05%	47%	963	37	0.0E+00	0.0E+00	0.0E+00	15	0	0
Pi03	4.3	19%	0.45	0.02%	51%	2384	1	1.2E+04	1.2E+04	1.2E+04	6	0	0
Pi04	4.9	28%	0.42	0.05%	47%	911	14	2.6E+05	3.1E+05	3.1E+05	807	16	2
Pi05	4.7	50%	0.42	0.03%	47%	1421	17	9.7E+06	9.9E+06	9.9E+06	57	0	0
Pi06	4.1	21%	0.39	0.07%	48%	653	60	8.7E+04	1.6E+05	1.6E+05	22	0	3
Pi07	3.7	25%	0.37	0.05%	48%	1028	55	3.9E+04	5.1E+04	5.1E+04	191	0	1
Pi08	4.2	22%	0.37	0.07%	47%	653	29	8.9E+04	3.9E+05	5.2E+05	80	1	12
Pi09	4.0	28%	0.36	0.06%	47%	756	62	1.1E+07	1.2E+07	1.3E+07	7	0	1
Pi10	4.2	25%	0.35	0.06%	47%	734	28	5.1E+04	5.1E+04	6.4E+04	895	0	19
Pi11	3.7	74%	0.34	0.07%	48%	678	49	5.3E+05	3.8E+06	6.5E+06	108	1	2
Pi12	3.8	76%	0.32	0.07%	47%	665	28	7.4E+05	7.0E+06	7.9E+06	49	0	16
Pi13	4.0	131%	0.28	0.11%	48%	431	28	4.1E+06	1.6E+07	2.6E+07	101	0	0
Pi14	4.0	146%	0.23	0.22%	52%	243	44	4.6E+07	2.0E+08	3.9E+08	17	0	0
Pi15	3.7	58%	0.22	0.02%	46%	2143	51	5.7E+04	5.7E+04	5.7E+04	5	0	5
Pi16	3.9	60%	0.19	0.10%	47%	481	57	5.1E+07	6.1E+07	6.1E+07	55	0	2
Pi17	4.4	128%	0.19	0.44%	48%	108	207	6.6E+06	3.1E+07	5.0E+07	314	0	2
Pi18	4.6	251%	0.18	0.19%	44%	230	13	8.7E+07	1.0E+08	2.4E+08	48	0	0
Pi19	4.8	237%	0.15	0.41%	50%	125	57	1.0E+07	3.2E+07	6.3E+07	25	0	0
Pi20	3.9	274%	0.12	0.66%	50%	75	37	4.7E+07	7.7E+07	1.0E+08	76	0	0

\* Mn-peroxidase, laccase and cellulase activity in nmol DMAB-MBTH (g dry wood)<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, µmol ABTS · (g dry wood)<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> and µmol RBB (g dry wood)<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> respectively.

481 482

483 Table 2: Comparison of bacterial taxa that were isolated from decaying wood in different experiments,

the pilot and main experiment of this study, the experiment by Valášková et al (2009) and by Folman

485 et al (2008). Strains that could not be identified at the family level were excluded, except for

486 Acidobacteria. Taxa with only one or two representatives over all five experiments were also

### 487

excluded.

Phylum	Family	Genus	Pine	Pilot	Valaskova et al	Folman et al
Acidobacteria (Gp1)			5%	9%	+	+
		Acidicapsa	0.5%		+	+
		Granulicella	2%	5%	+	+
Actinobacteria	Acidimicrobineae_incertae_sedis	Aciditerrimonas		7%		
	Actinospicaceae	Actinospica	0.3%	9%		
	Conexibacteraceae	Conexibacter		18%		
	Microbacteriaceae		14%	2%		
	Microbacteriaceae	Frondihabitans	6%			
	Microbacteriaceae	Gryllotalpicola	2%	2%		
	Mycobacteriaceae	Mycobacterium	8%	4%		
	Streptomycetaceae	Streptacidiphilus	0.7%	<2%		
Firmicutes	Staphylococcaceae	Staphylococcus	5%			+
Proteobacteria (Alpha)	Acetobacteraceae	•	13%	12%	+	+
	Acetobacteraceae	Acidisoma	2%	2%		+
	Acetobacteraceae	Acidisphaera	0.3%	2%	+	
	Beijerinckiaceae		16%	9%		+
	Beijerinckiaceae	Beijerinckia	0.8%	2%		+
	Beijerinckiaceae	Methylovirgula	11%	7%		+
	Bradyrhizobiaceae	Bradyrhizobium	2%	4%		+
	Methylocystaceae	Methylosinus	2%			
	Caulobacteraceae		2%	2%	+	+
	Caulobacteraceae	Phenylobacterium	2%			
	Sphingomonadaceae	Sphingomonas	3%	4%	+	+
Proteobacteria (Beta)	Burkholderiaceae	Burkholderia	14%	11%	+	+
Proteobacteria (Gamma)	Xanthomonadaceae		10%	4%	+	+
	Xanthomonadaceae	Dyella	4%	<2%	+	
	Xanthomonadaceae	Rhodanobacter	3%	4%		

Wood sample	Isolate	Selection	Taxon	Antibacterial activity against
Pi16	P26-C5	random	Microbacteriaceae	Dyella
Pi16	P26-B6	random	Acidisoma	Dyella, Burkholderia
Pi16	P26-C2	random	Acidisoma	Dyella, Burkholderia
Pi16	P26-B4	random	Acidisoma	Dyella, Burkholderia
Pi17	P43-C6	random	Kitasatospora	Staphylococcus, Dyella
Pi17	P03-D6	random	Streptacidiphilus	Staphylococcus
Pi17	P43-C3	random	Streptacidiphilus	Staphylococcus, Dyella
Pi17	P43-D4	random	Streptacidiphilus	Staphylococcus, Dyella
Pi17	P03-A5	morphology	Streptacidiphilus	Staphylococcus, Dyella
Pi19	P43-B6	random	?*	Staphylococcus
Pi19	P02-A3	morphology	Streptacidiphilus	Dyella

#### 490 Table 3: Isolates with antibacterial activity.

\* No sequence could be obtained for this isolate.

# 491

- 492 Table 4: Antifungal and antibacterial activity of bacteria from decaying wood. Green and blue indicate
- bacteria that originally co-occurred with *S. sanguinolentum* and *M. galericulata* respectively. ++,
- 494 inhibited fungal growth; +, delayed fungal growth; -, no effect on fungal growth.

Isolate	Taxon	S. sanguinolentum CBS 927.72		M. galericulata CBS 623.88		Dyella WH32		Burkholderia 4-A6		E. coli WA321		S. aureus 533R4	
		WYA5m	MEA	WYA5m	MEA	WYA5m	MEA	WYA5m	MEA	WYA5m	MEA	WYA5m	MEA
P04-D5	Xanthomonadaceae-Luteibacter	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P20-A1	Xanthomonadaceae	++	++	++	++	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P20-B1	Xanthomonadaceae	++	++	++	++	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P41-A4	Xanthomonadaceae	++	++	++	++	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P19-A5	Burkholderia	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P19-A6	Burkholderia	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P19-B5	Burkholderia	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P19-D5	Burkholderia	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P22-A2	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P22-B3	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P22-C5	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P22-D6	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P41-C4	Acetobacteraceae	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-A2	Xanthomonadaceae	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
P10-C5	Xanthomonadaceae-Dyella	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-C6	Xanthomonadaceae-Dyella	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
P09-B4	Xanthomonadaceae-Rhodanobacter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P09-A5	Xanthomonadaceae-Rhodanobacter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-C1	Xanthomonadaceae-Rhodanobacter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-B5	Xanthomonadaceae-Rhodanobacter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-C3	Xanthomonadaceae-Rhodanobacter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P09-A1	Burkholderia	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P09-D6	Burkholderia	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-A1	Burkholderia	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-B4	Burkholderia	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P29-A4	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P30-C4	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P45-C2	Beijerinckiaceae-Methylovirgula	-		-		-		-		-		-	
P45-C3	Beijerinckiaceae	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-B6	Acetobacteraceae	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-B3	Acetobacteraceae-Acidisoma	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-A1	Acetobacteraceae-Acidisoma	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P10-D4	Mycobacterium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-B1	Mycobacterium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P30-D6	Mycobacterium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P45-D6	Mycobacterium	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-