

# 1 The emerging role of *Yersiniaceae* bacteria in plant disease biocontrol

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## 19 Abstract

20 The immoderate application of agrochemicals worldwide has led to the need to find more  
21 strategies to control diseases that are safer for humans, animals, plants, and the environment.

22 The use of microbial biocontrol agents answers this need well, and more efforts are needed  
23 to increase the number of microorganisms that could be developed as commercial biocontrol

24 agents. A set of bacteria from the *Yersiniaceae* family has emerged as a beacon of hope, a  
25 viable option for commercial biocontrol agents that can be safely applied in agricultural

26 fields. Genera like *Rahnella*, *Rouxiella*, and *Serratia* are not just showing biocontrol  
27 mechanisms but also direct plant growth promotion. On the other hand, other genera within

28 the *Yersiniaceae* family have been scarcely evaluated. This review explores this microbial  
29 group's biocontrol capabilities, mechanisms, strengths, and areas of opportunity, highlighting

30 the importance of ongoing research in this dynamic field.

31 **Keywords:** Biocontrol agents, Plant Growth-Promoting Bacteria, Plant Pathogens,  
32 Rhizosphere, *Rahnella*, *Rouxiiella*, and *Serratia*

### 33 **Introduction**

34 The green revolution emerged in the latter part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century as a global strategy to  
35 increase agricultural production on a smaller area of arable land. Aspects such as the  
36 generation of new variants of vegetable crops (genetically modified or not) tolerant to adverse  
37 environmental conditions and synthetic agrochemicals (like pesticides, fertilisers, fungicides,  
38 etc.) led to a boom in the production of crops where these were applied. (Khaipho-Burch et  
39 al., 2023; John and Babu, 2021). However, the tendency to apply more and more  
40 agrochemicals to produce more was growing until it reached excessive use, which directed  
41 the green revolution towards an environmental problem. Some negative aspects that include  
42 synthetic agrochemicals are environmental pollution, such as the groundwater from which  
43 drinking water is obtained and the toxic effect on pollinating insects. In addition, there is  
44 evidence of certain diseases in humans and animals (Devi et al., 2022). Another adverse effect  
45 of some agrochemicals is their harmful effect on soil microbiota, a fundamental part of soil  
46 health (Thiour-Mauprivez et al., 2019).

47 Strategies have been sought to continue increasing crop production, but now sustainably and  
48 without affecting the environment and human and animal health. In addition to the strategy  
49 of manipulating the genome of plants to grow in harsh environments and under adverse  
50 environmental conditions or to be resistant to certain pests and plant pathogens (Khaipho-  
51 Burch et al., 2023; Raymond Park et al., 2011), there is the alternative of using plant growth  
52 promoting microorganisms (PGPM), including several species of bacteria (Plant Growth-  
53 Promoting Bacteria or PGPB) with multiple mechanisms that allow it to stimulate its  
54 development and production (Guzmán-Guzmán et al., 2023; Hyder et al., 2023; Patel et al.,

2024; Santoyo et al., 2024). Such is the case of the PGPB of the genus *Pseudomonas*, which were one of the pioneer bacterial groups to be used as antagonists of fungal and bacterial plant pathogens (Hansen et al., 2022; Novinscak and Fillion, 2020). Kloepper et al. in the early 1980s described the production of siderophores (iron chelating agents) as one of the first mechanisms that restricted the growth of plant pathogens since by occupying spaces and taking up iron, this element was limited to be taken up by plant pathogens (Kloepper et al., 1980). During the following decades, the increase in the isolation and characterisation of PGPB from the genus *Pseudomonas* increased substantially, encompassing an antagonism against plant pathogens such as *Alternaria* spp., *Botrytis* spp., *Colletotrichum* spp., *Fusarium* spp., *Puccinia* spp., *Rhizoctonia* spp., *Xanthomonas* spp., among others, causing various diseases in cereal, vegetable or fruit crops, to name a few (Guzmán-Guzmán and Santoyo, 2022; Khatri et al., 2023; Shi et al., 2024).

Another of the most studied bacterial groups, such as PGPB, are the species of the genus *Bacillus* (Etesami et al., 2023). Some members of the genus *Bacillus* have the advantage of being sporulating bacteria, which gives them an advantage to be used as bioinoculants and to be stored for longer, preserving their viability until they find better conditions (during application in the field) and germinate (Russi et al., 2024; Salazar et al., 2022). *Bacillus* species such as *B. amyloliquefaciens*, *B. cabrialesii*, *B. pumilus*, *B. subtilis*, or *B. velenzensis*, produce diffusible and volatile compounds involved in the regulation of hormonal synthesis in plants, resulting in the promotion of plant growth (Figuroa-Brambila et al., 2023; Russi et al., 2024; Song et al., 2024; Zeidan et al., 2024). Likewise, the production of cyclic lipopeptides is almost a common characteristic of bacilli with antifungal capabilities since their genomes present extraordinary antagonistic machinery to reduce the incidence of plant diseases (Balleux et al., 2025; Ramesh et al., 2024).

79 The genera *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* are just two examples of PGPB that have shown a  
80 constant in the laboratory or the open field, being efficient stimulators of plant growth and  
81 health. In fact, in multiple works, the co-inoculation of *Bacillus-Pseudomonas* species have  
82 shown synergism to improve plant growth (Kumari et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2023; Maheshwari  
83 et al., 2015; Rojas-Sánchez et al., 2024). Likewise, the interaction of *Pseudomonas* and  
84 *Bacillus* with other rhizosphere bacteria of species like *Serratia marcescens* and *Rahnella*  
85 *aquatilis* have shown positive results in controlling the Fusarium decline of chickpea  
86 (Palmieri et al., 2017) *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* are well-known for their biocontrol and  
87 plant growth-promoting properties, but they are far from the only genera with such  
88 capabilities. The search for new antagonistic bacterial genera remains a constant focus in  
89 current research, driven by the vast diversity of agroecosystems and crops across the globe.  
90 Given the tremendous biodiversity of plant pathogens, relying solely on a few biocontrol  
91 species is insufficient. There is, therefore, an urgent need to identify and apply new bacterial  
92 antagonists that can mitigate the harmful effects of plant pathogens without the adverse side  
93 effects often associated with synthetic agrochemicals, thus reducing economic losses  
94 worldwide. This urgency underscores the importance and relevance of our topic, making it a  
95 crucial area of study for researchers and professionals in the field. (Orozco-Mosqueda et al.,  
96 2021; Thiour-Mauprivez et al., 2019).

97 This review mainly focuses on genera from the recently described Yersiniaceae family  
98 (Adeolu et al., 2016), including *Rahnella (Ra.)* spp., *Rouxiella (Ro.)* spp., and *Serratia* spp.,  
99 which are the most studied members of the family as biocontrol agents. It also highlights the  
100 necessity of exploring antimicrobial capacities in other genera (Calvo et al., 2007; Guo et al.,  
101 2016; Morales-Cedeño et al., 2021; Soenens and Imperial, 2020). Undoubtedly, bacterial

102 members of the Yersiniaceae family, exhibiting multiple beneficial traits, are emerging as  
103 promising bioinoculants in the battle against plant pathogens.

#### 104 **Impact and diversity of plant pathogens in crop production**

105 Plant pathogens can cause different percentages of losses in agricultural production, where  
106 global annual losses can amount to billions of dollars, affecting an estimated 10-16% of total  
107 crop production. In a review study, Savary et al. (2019) reported that approximately 137 plant  
108 pathogens and pests affect wheat, rice, maize, potato, and soybean, which are among the main  
109 crops that feed the global population. Production losses vary depending on the crop. For  
110 example, wheat losses range from 10.1% to 28.1%, rice from 24.6% to 40.9%, and maize  
111 from 19.5% to 41.1%. These percentages may fluctuate depending on the year and the region  
112 where the crops are grown. However, it has been observed that developing agricultural areas  
113 are more vulnerable. Due to inadequate technology and poor crop management, emerging  
114 plant pathogens can cause significantly more damage than in regions with advanced  
115 technologies, disease-resistant crop varieties, and better agricultural sanitation practices  
116 (Fischer et al., 2005; Vitousek et al., 2009). Additionally, there are indirect economic impacts  
117 on producers, as they need to purchase pesticides, fungicides, and other agrochemicals to  
118 repair the damage caused by plant pathogens. This situation has severe negative  
119 environmental consequences, including an increase in pathogen resistance and a rise in  
120 diseases associated with the use of these synthetic compounds (often in excessive amounts),  
121 affecting animal and human health (Khaipho-Burch et al., 2023; Raymond Park et al., 2011).  
122 These harmful effects of agrochemicals have been widely reported and documented for  
123 decades. Recent studies also show a significant impact of herbicides such as glyphosate on  
124 the bee microbiome, which causes a severe impact on these pollinators(Motta et al., 2024).  
125 Therefore, as we try to highlight in this work, it is necessary to explore the option of having

126 multiple options for bioinoculants based on beneficial microbes, particularly from the  
127 Yersiniaceae bacteria.

128 The diversity of plant pathogens is incredibly high, affecting crops. For example, plant  
129 pathogens can include organisms such as viruses, bacteria, fungi, oomycetes, and nematodes,  
130 among others. One of the first lists of viruses that cause plant diseases was made in 2011 by  
131 Scholthof et al. and includes, in order of importance, Tobacco mosaic virus, Tomato spotted  
132 wilt virus, Tomato yellow leaf curl virus, Cucumber mosaic virus, Potato virus Y, Cauliflower  
133 mosaic virus, African cassava mosaic virus, Plum pox virus, Brome mosaic virus, and *Potato*  
134 *virus* which are also highly harmful to crops. Dean et al. (2012) also listed the top ten most  
135 important fungal plant pathogens, including *Magnaporthe oryzae*, *Botrytis cinerea*, *Puccinia*  
136 *spp.*, *Fusarium graminearum*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, *Blumeria graminis*, *Mycosphaerella*  
137 *graminicola*, *Colletotrichum spp.*, *Ustilago maydis*, and *Melampsora lini*. The above list is  
138 in order of importance by the degree of impact on production and the level of economic losses  
139 caused to crops worldwide. Later, Kamoun and coauthors (2015) also listed the 10 most lethal  
140 oomycetes for crops, which include *Phytophthora infestans*, *Hyaloperonospora*  
141 *arabidopsidis*, *Phytophthora ramorum*, *Phytophthora sojae*, *Phytophthora capsici*,  
142 *Plasmopara viticola*, *Phytophthora cinnamomi*, *Phytophthora parasitica*, *Pythium ultimum*,  
143 and *Albugo candida*, with some ties for second and eighth place for the number of votes  
144 received by experts in oomycete phytopathology. There is also a list of the most harmful to  
145 crops in the case of bacterial plant pathogens. This is the list in rank order: *Pseudomonas*  
146 *syringae* pathovars, *Ralstonia solanacearum*, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, *Xanthomonas*  
147 *oryzae* pv. *Oryzae*, *Xanthomonas campestris* pathovars, *Xanthomonas axonopodis* pathovars,  
148 *Erwinia amylovora* (Mansfield et al., 2012; Pedroncelli and Puopolo, 2023). It should be  
149 noted that the list is not complete, neither for fungi, oomycetes, or bacteria, since other groups

150 of microorganisms can be a nuisance for farmers in specific regions or with more local  
151 damage to their crops.

152 Figure 1 presents an overview of the impact of some plant pathogens, mainly fungi, that  
153 affect crops and the main plant tissues. Additionally, it highlights how plants can become  
154 infected, the conditions required for an infection to occur, the potential of the associated  
155 Yersiniaceae bacteria to inhibit potential plant pathogens and pests, and some of their  
156 biocontrol mechanisms.

### 157 **Overview of the *Yersiniaceae* family**

158 The Enterobacteriales order encompasses a diverse group of Gram-negative bacteria  
159 characterised by facultative anaerobic metabolism, absence of spore formation, and rod-  
160 shaped morphology within the Gammaproteobacteria class. This versatile group “thrives  
161 across a spectrum of ecological niches, including soil, water, and symbiotic associations with  
162 various organisms such as plants, insects, animals, and humans” (Brenner and Farmer, 2005).  
163 Notably, several members of the Enterobacteriales order pose significant threats as plant  
164 pathogens to both humans and animals, with species like *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella*  
165 *enterica*, and *Yersinia pestis* exemplifying this risk (Toth et al., 2006). Furthermore, certain  
166 species within this order, such as those belonging to the *Dickeya*, *Pectobacterium*, *Brenneria*,  
167 *Erwinia*, and *Pantoea* genera, wield considerable economic impact as plant pathogens (Hu et  
168 al., 2022; Islam et al., 2024).

169 The classification of the Enterobacteriales order underwent refinement in 2016 when Adeolu  
170 et al. (2016) proposed its division into seven families: Enterobacteriaceae, Erwiniaceae,  
171 Hafniaceae, Morganellaceae, Pectobacteriaceae, Thorselliaceae, and Yersiniaceae. The  
172 Yersiniaceae family now comprises eight genera, encompassing 67 species and three  
173 subspecies, as validated by Soutar and Stavriniades, 2020. Within the *Yersenia-Serratia* clade,

174 genera include *Yersenia*, *Serratia*, *Rahnella*, *Ewingella*, *Hafnia*, *Cedecea*, and *Gibbsiella*,  
175 derived from phylogenetic analyses primarily based on the 16S rRNA gene. Molecular  
176 markers, such as core and ribosomal protein families, and multilocus sequence analysis fo  
177 genes like *rpoB*, *gyrB*, *dnaJ* and *recA* *fusA*, *pyrG*, *rplB*, *rpoB* and *sucA*, corroborated similar  
178 groupings within the *Yersenia-Serratia* Clade, albeit with minor variations (Hata et al., 2016;  
179 Naum et al., 2011). Figure 2 shows the phylogenetic relationships of representative members  
180 of the *Yersiniaceae* family resulting from 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis.

### 181 **Modes of action of bacterial biocontrol agents**

182 PGPB's biocontrol mechanisms often involve the production of antibiotic compounds  
183 (antibiosis), cell-wall degrading enzymes, and competition for nutritional resources, among  
184 other things. These biocontrol mechanisms are considered an indirect strategy used by  
185 beneficial microbes or PGPB to stimulate plant growth, as restricted pathogen growth  
186 prevents the development of diseases in crops.(Glick, 2012). In the following paragraphs, we  
187 describe some of these biocontrol mechanisms described in PGPM, including bacteria from  
188 the *Yersiniaceae* family.

#### 189 *Aantibiosis*

#### 190 *Antibiosis*

191 One of the most described biocontrol mechanisms is the production of antimicrobial  
192 compounds or antibiotics (Hamid et al., 2021). Some examples include compounds such as  
193 lipopeptides, such as iturin, surfactin and fengycin, as well as 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol,  
194 agrocin 84, amphisin, bacillomycin, herbicolin, oomycin, phenazine-1-carboxylic acid,  
195 pyoluteorin, pyrrolnitrin, and viscosinamide, among others (Balleux et al., 2025; Balthazar  
196 et al., 2022; Hernández-León et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2021; Ramesh et al., 2024). Recent  
197 studies have suggested the regulatory role of RpoS in the production of antibiotics like

198 pyoluteorin and 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol in species like *Pseudomonas* in the rhizosphere  
199 (Zhang et al., 2022). PGPB can also produce low molecular weight compounds that are  
200 defined as volatile organic compounds (VOCs), which can be of the type alcohols, aldehydes,  
201 aromatics, sulfides and ketones(Cortazar-Murillo et al., 2023). Three examples of VOCs are  
202 hydrogen cyanide (HCN), dimethyl disulfide or dimethylhexadelamine, produced by bacteria  
203 such as *Arthrobacter*, *Microbacterium*, and *Pseudomonas* (Anand et al., 2023; Hernández-  
204 León et al., 2015; Velázquez-Becerra et al., 2013). Volatile compounds such as dimethyl  
205 disulfide have been reported in different species of *Serratia*, helping to control diseases such  
206 as damping off in tomatoes (Abreo et al., 2021).

### 207 ***Competition for resources and nutrient deprivation through siderophores***

208 TThe

209 The rhizosphere is a highly competitive microenvironment. All microorganisms in the  
210 rhizosphere want to access the best microsites where they can obtain nutritional resources  
211 such as root exudates(Chepsergon and Moleleki, 2023). Root exudates can contain amino  
212 acids, vitamins, organic compounds, and sugars. Therefore, those who are more competitive  
213 will have access to this source of nutrients(Afridi et al., 2024). Likewise, it has been  
214 considered that the root exudates of each plant can vary and be highly selective with specific  
215 groups of PGPB and, therefore, function as chemo-attractants. For example, 2,4-dihydroxy-  
216 7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazine-3-one (DIMBOA), which is produced by corn plants (*Zea mays*  
217 L.), inhibits the growth of potential plant pathogens such as *Ralstonia solanacearum* but  
218 stimulates the growth of beneficial bacteria(Guo et al., 2016).

219 Being competitive in the rhizosphere is essential for plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria  
220 (PGPR)(Hassan et al., 2019). If PGPR can compete for space and nutrients in the rhizosphere,  
221 they can benefit the plant. In some cases, they will even be able to colonise the spaces of the

222 root endosphere and exert a closer relationship with their plant host (Compant et al., 2024).  
223 Characteristics such as the production of exopolysaccharides or biofilm, as well as rapid  
224 growth, antioxidant activities, motility and chemotaxis, and evasion and suppression of plant  
225 immune system, are some of the determinants that will make a PGPR highly competitive in  
226 the rhizosphere and an excellent bioinoculant in the open field (Santoyo et al., 2021).  
227 The  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  ion is a fundamental element for the growth of the rhizosphere microorganisms, and  
228 despite being highly abundant in nature, it is surprisingly insoluble (Harrison et al., 2008).  
229 PGPR produce  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  chelating compounds such as siderophores, some with high affinity for  
230 this element. Once a siderophore-Fe complex is formed, releasing it into the rhizosphere is  
231 almost impossible. Still, they can facilitate it to their plant host. Although it has been  
232 proposed that bacteria cannot assimilate it “easily”, PGPR have an outer cell membrane  
233 receptor that allows them to internalise the complex and release the Fe inside the cell (Kramer  
234 et al., 2019). Studies have shown that bacteria of the genus *Pseudomonas* that produce  
235 siderophores can inhibit the growth of plant pathogens through this mechanism (Srivastava  
236 et al., 2022). Even the abundance of these species in the rhizosphere is associated with  
237 “disease-suppressing” soils (Mendes et al., 2011). Other species of the *Yersiniaceae* family,  
238 such as *Hafnia* spp., *Rouxiella badensis*, *Serratia* spp., or *Rahnella bruci*, also produce  
239 siderophores, so their role as antagonists is relevant as they are inhabitants of the rhizosphere  
240 (Awolope et al., 2021; Eze et al., 2023; Morales-Cedeño et al., 2021). Of course, this  
241 mechanism may not be effective if there is an excess of this element in the medium, and  
242 therefore, it continues to be available for potential plant pathogens. Thus, more studies are  
243 required to reveal other strategies by PGPR to deprive plant pathogens of other essential  
244 elements.

245 ***Hydrolytic enzymes, mycoparasitism and predation***

246 Mycophagy is a mechanism by which certain bacterial (or fungal, such as *Trichoderma*)  
247 species can obtain nutrients from a fungus (Ferreira and Musumeci, 2021; Guzmán-Guzmán  
248 et al., 2023). Strictly speaking, mycoparasitism is a mycophagic behaviour, as it involves  
249 obtaining nutrients by penetrating the host cells. Some reports of mycophagous bacteria  
250 include *Paenibacillus*, *Streptomyces*, or *Pseudomonas*, although the fungal host they attack  
251 is not necessarily a plant pathogen (Leveau and Preston, 2008). Therefore, it would be  
252 interesting to study this bacterial strategy in more detail as a biocontrol mechanism in the  
253 strict sense.

254 The cell wall of fungal plant pathogens is targeted by some lytic enzymes such as chitinases,  
255  $\beta$ -glucanases, and proteases, which can be produced by various bacterial biocontrol agents,  
256 including *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Streptomyces* (Riseh et al., 2024). The  
257 mode of action of these enzymes primarily involves weakening compounds like chitin,  
258 glucans, and structural proteins that are essential components of the fungal pathogen  
259 membrane. Chitinases hydrolyse chitin, while  $\beta$ -glucanases aim to break down the glycosidic  
260 bonds of glucans. Finally, proteases lyse structural proteins without a direct target. The action  
261 of these enzymes is the weakening of the cell wall potential, leading to lysis and cell death  
262 (Reddy et al., 2022).

263 In the case of bacteria like *S. marcescens*, it has been observed that chitinases are relevant  
264 for the biocontrol of the plant pathogen *Sclerotium rolfsii*. This species can synthesise two  
265 types, including chitinase A (ChiA) and chitinase B (ChiB) (Brurberg et al., 1996; Ordentlich  
266 et al., 1988). More recent studies have also shown that species of *Serratia* and *Rahnella*  
267 exhibit genes in their genomes responsible for the synthesis of other  $\beta$ -glucanases and  
268 cellulases (Abo-Elyousr et al., 2010; Trejo-López et al., 2022).

269 ***Induction of plant immune responses and modulation of ethylene production***

270 Sensing attack by plant pathogens, plants respond in a coordinated manner to turn on the  
271 production of pathogenesis-related or “PR” genes. The PR genes code for various proteins  
272 with antimicrobial activity (García-Cristobal et al., 2015). As part of the plant's response to  
273 infection by plant pathogens, some of which cause tissue necrosis, it increases the production  
274 of salicylic acid (SA). SA is an important phytohormone that plays a vital role in a series of  
275 physiological responses but also includes plant defence, particularly systemic acquired  
276 resistance (SAR) (Peng et al., 2011).

277 But plants also respond to the presence of beneficial bacteria or other non-harmful organisms  
278 in the soil, however, they are usually distinguished by the roots of the plant through specific  
279 receptors; but they do not stimulate (in most cases) the synthesis of SA, but rather jasmonic  
280 acid (JA), and this in turn, the synthesis of ethylene (ET). This resistance induced by PGPM  
281 is called systemic induced response (ISR) (Kamle et al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2024). An  
282 interesting component that participates in the signaling of both pathways, SA (SAR) and  
283 SA/ET (ISR) is NPR1 (Non-expressor of Pathogenesis-Related genes) (Dong, 2004).  
284 Interestingly, *npr1* mutants in plants such as *Arabidopsis* exhibit a blockage of ISR activation  
285 by non-pathogenic rhizobacteria, as well as failure to express PR genes after SAR induction,  
286 caused by necrotic plant pathogens (Choudhary and Johri, 2009).

287 ISR can be triggered by various quorum sensing molecules, as well as the production of  
288 rhamnolipids, lipopeptides, antibiotic compounds, siderophores, exopolysaccharides, among  
289 others, which are produced by PGPM (Aznar and Dellagi, 2015; Carezzano, 2023; Helman  
290 and Chernin, 2015). By stimulating ISR in plants by beneficial microorganisms, including  
291 bacteria such as *Serratia*. Such is the case of the CDP-13 strain of *S. marcescens*, which could  
292 induce ISR in wheat plants and confer protection against the plant pathogen *F. graminearum*.  
293 Additionally, this strain managed to confer a cross-response in wheat plants, by stimulating

294 their tolerance to salinity through the production of antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide  
295 dismutase, catalase, and peroxidase (Singh and Jha, 2016).

296 The phytohormone ET is essential to regulate certain physiological and growth processes in  
297 plants. ET is known as the stress hormone, that is, under conditions of abiotic stress (e.g. soil  
298 salinity, heavy metal contamination, drought, cold, extreme temperatures) or biotic stress  
299 (e.g. infection by plant pathogens) its production is stimulated, which, in high levels cause  
300 defoliation, stimulate senescence, inhibition of growth, among other cellular damages that  
301 lead the plant to have low production performance (Moon and Ali, 2022; Orozco-Mosqueda  
302 et al., 2020). A precursor to ethylene synthesis is 1-amino cyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid or  
303 ACC. ACC can be degraded by the action of the ACC deaminase enzyme, which when  
304 present in microorganisms associated with the plant, can lower ET levels under biotic stress  
305 (and in certain conditions also in developing plants) (Gupta and Pandey, 2019; Naing et al.,  
306 2021). ACC deaminase activity is widely distributed in PGPM of soil and rhizosphere, as  
307 well as in inhabitants of the endosphere and phyllosphere (Orozco-Mosqueda et al., 2022).  
308 This mechanism has been widely reported in different experimental conditions, ranging from  
309 the laboratory to the field (Nascimento et al., 2012; Peng et al., 2019), in ACC deaminase  
310 mutants (Ali et al. 2014), as well as through phylogenetic studies that show that said activity  
311 is widely distributed in beneficial fungi (such as *Trichoderma*) (Blaha et al., 2006;  
312 Nascimento et al., 2012), as well as in PGPB, which includes species like *S. marcescens* and  
313 *Ra. aquatilis*. Several studies have shown the importance of ACC deaminase coding genes  
314 in heavy metal resistance and plant growth-promotion (He et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2022;  
315 Yuan et al., 2014).

316 ***Serratia* species as biocontrol agents**

317 Among the different bacterial genera in the family Yersiniaceae, the genus *Serratia* includes  
318 various species such as *Serratia marcescens*, *Serratia inhibens*, *S. rubidaea*, *S.*  
319 *surfactantfaciens*, *S. ureilytica*, and *S. plymuthica*. These species have been reported as  
320 antagonists or biocontrol agents against different crop plant pathogens, which cause severe  
321 diseases and economic losses (Alijani et al., 2022; Cao et al., 2023; Clements et al., 2019;  
322 Hennessy et al., 2020; Müller et al., 2009). As of the writing of this article, 43 species and 4  
323 subspecies of the genus *Serratia* are reported on the portal  
324 “<https://lpsn.dsmz.de/search?word=serratia>”; however, not all have been "validated." In fact,  
325 a literature search with keywords such as “biocontrol” for each of the genera presented in  
326 Figure 3 shows that *Serratia* is the genus in the Yersiniaceae family with the most  
327 publications related to this topic, compared to other bacterial groups like *Rahnella*, *Rouxiella*,  
328 *Hafnia*, among others. This underscores the need to continue isolating and characterizing  
329 new biocontrol agents that might present novel mechanisms for controlling plant diseases.

330 The antagonistic mechanisms against plant pathogens exhibited by the genus *Serratia* are  
331 diverse. For example, the production of biosurfactants, which may include compounds such  
332 as lipopeptides. Lipopeptides are molecules that contain a short chain of amino acids (peptide)  
333 attached to a chain of fatty acids (lipid), and their amphipathic structure allows them to  
334 interact with cell membranes, making them useful as antimicrobials. Lipopeptides have been  
335 widely characterised in PGPB like *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas*, but there is still much to  
336 discover in genera like *Serratia*. The application of biosurfactants produced by *Serratia*  
337 bacteria has also had various uses beyond agriculture, including in the pharmaceutical,  
338 medical, and oil industries (Clements et al., 2019).

339 Some studies, such as those by (Nalini and Parthasarathi (2014), have demonstrated that  
340 biosurfactants produced by a strain of *S. rubidaea* SNAU02 can control plant pathogens such

341 as *F. oxysporum*, *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, and *Pythium aphanidermatum*. The  
342 authors evaluated this activity using the agar well diffusion method. Gas chromatography–  
343 mass spectrometry (GC–MS) analysis of the compounds produced by strain SNAU02  
344 revealed the presence of a rhamnolipid as responsible for the antifungal action. Interestingly,  
345 this surfactant was also found to be non-toxic to plants, making it an excellent candidate for  
346 use in biocontrol against these fungal plant pathogens.

347 In another study, it was reported that an endophytic strain of *S. rubidaea* Mar61-01 produces  
348 a pigment with antifungal action against the plant pathogen *C. nymphaeae*, the causal agent  
349 of anthracnose disease in strawberry crops. Through *vitro*, *in vivo*, and greenhouse tests, *S.*  
350 *rubidaea* Mar61-01 showed consistent antagonistic results against *C. nymphaeae*. The study  
351 also reports the purification of the pigment, named prodigiosin, through thin layer  
352 chromatography, and its chemical structure was characterised by FT-IR and NMR (400 MHz)  
353 spectra, suggesting great potential for controlling diseases like anthracnose in economically  
354 important crops such as strawberries worldwide (Alijani et al., 2022).

355 Another study by Trejo-López et al (2022) also found that *Serratia* strains produce the same  
356 pigment, prodigiosin, which may be involved in antagonism against plant pathogens such as  
357 *C. siamense* and *Alternaria alternata*. The authors evaluated this antifungal activity *in vitro*  
358 and in mango fruits; they also explored the production of chitinases, glucanases, and  
359 cellulases in these strains, suggesting that these lytic enzymatic activities might be involved  
360 in inhibiting the growth of the evaluated plant pathogens. Finally, the authors propose that  
361 *Serratia* strains could be a good option for controlling anthracnose in fruits like mangoes,  
362 which suffer significant economic losses due to plant pathogens like *C. siamense* and *A.*  
363 *alternata*.

364 Another biocontrol mechanism presented by the genus *Serratia* is quorum sensing (QS),  
365 which is regulated by molecules such as N-acyl homoserine lactones (AHLs). AHLs are  
366 essential in bacterial population communication, including *Serratia* in microecosystems like  
367 the rhizosphere, and they are also relevant for biocontrol, as demonstrated by Müllerand et  
368 al. (2009). In this study, the authors generated two mutants in AHL production in the  
369 rhizosphere-associated bacterium *S. plymuthica* HRO-C48. One mutant produced residual  
370 levels of AHLs (*S. plymuthica* HRO-C48 AHL-4), while the other mutant did not produce  
371 detectable levels of AHLs (*S. plymuthica* HRO-C48 pME6863). Interestingly, both mutants  
372 showed impaired effects on the control of *Verticillium dahliae*. Therefore, this study  
373 demonstrated years ago that the QS system is relevant in the biocontrol of rhizosphere  
374 *Serratia* strains.

375 Some *Serratia* strains have not been exclusively isolated from soil, the rhizosphere, or as  
376 endophytes but also from aquatic environments, which contain *Serratia* species with  
377 biocontrol potential. For example, Pereira et al. (2023) recently isolated the strain *S.*  
378 *marcescens* B8 from a mangrove in Brazil, which, along with a strain of *Bacillus* sp., showed  
379 antagonistic action against plant pathogens such as *F. solani*, *F. oxysporum*, and *Rhizoctonia*  
380 *solani*. *Serratia marcescens* BKACT, isolated from an island near India, exhibited  
381 antagonism against various *Fusarium* species. The authors isolated and proved that 2,4-ditert-  
382 butylphenol was the compound responsible for the inhibition of plant pathogen growth  
383 caused by *S. marcescens* BKACT. 2,4-ditert-butylphenol has been isolated and characterised  
384 not only from bacterial sources but also from other organisms, such as the fungus  
385 *Marasmiellus* sp. (PUK64), whose antifungal action has been evaluated against plant  
386 pathogens such as *Aspergillus oryzae*, *Curvularia lunata*, and *F. verticillioides* (Reference).  
387 Other compounds produced by a *Serratia* (and *Bacillus*) bacteria, including austinoneol, Phe-

388 Pro, N-acetyl-l-leucine, Leu-Gly, Ile-Leu, Phe-Pro, 2,5-piperazinedione, 3-(1H-indol-3-  
389 methyl)-6-methyl-cyclo(d-Trp-l-Pro), and cholic acid, have been characterised for their  
390 antifungal action against *Magnapotha oryzae* and *Bipolaris oryzae* (Kushveer et al., 2023).  
391 Some fungal plant pathogens attack agricultural species and tree species, affecting forests. In  
392 an interesting study, various strains of the genus *Serratia* were isolated, but two of them,  
393 identified as *S. proteamaculans* and *S. grimesii*, showed the ability to inhibit plant pathogens  
394 such as *Annulohyphoxylon stygium* and *Daldinia eschscholtzii*, which cause defoliation in  
395 different pine species (Gutiérrez-Flores et al., 2023). Therefore, these *Serratia* species may  
396 have applications beyond agriculture, and in forestry, they could also be an excellent option  
397 as antagonists.

398 Another example of novel biocontrol *Serratia* spp. strains was reported by Garbeva et al.  
399 (2012), who identified *S. inhibens* as a new species and presented it as a novel inhibitor of  
400 plant pathogens such as *Rhizoctonia solani*. Interestingly, in this study, it was found that *S.*  
401 *inhibens* S40, isolated from potato rhizosphere, had radial growth inhibition percentages of  
402 *R. solani* comparable to the biocontrol agent *S. inhibens* PRI-2C (Garbeva et al., 2012).  
403 Unfortunately, no subsequent studies (to our knowledge) have explored this strain's metabolic  
404 or functional capabilities. Moreover, no reports have emerged about isolating other *S.*  
405 *inhibens* species in different regions of the world.

#### 406 **Dual activities in *Serratia* strains**

407 Some PGPB, as previously reviewed, can exhibit dual activities that benefit their plant hosts,  
408 including both plant growth promotion and plant pathogen biocontrol, mechanisms described  
409 as direct and indirect plant growth promotion. Such activities have also been observed in  
410 *Serratia* species. For instance, Hamane et al. (2023) searched endophytes in root nodules of  
411 *Sulla flexuosa* L., a plant from northern Morocco used to prevent soil erosion due to its robust

412 root architecture. In this plant, 19 bacterial endophytes were isolated, some of which were  
413 assigned to the *Serratia* genus. These *Serratia* spp. strains exhibited plant growth promotion  
414 and antifungal activities against plant pathogens such as *Botrytis cinerea*, *Aspergillus*  
415 *ochraceus*, and *F. oxysporum*. However, despite the broad potential of these strains as dual  
416 action bioinoculants (promotion and biocontrol), much remains to be understood about their  
417 modes of action.

418 Similarly, Li et al. (2023) reported that *S. plymuthica* MM exhibits dual action by promoting  
419 the growth of watermelon plants (variety Jingxin No. 1) and antagonizing *F. oxysporum* f. sp.  
420 *niveum* (FON), which affects the same plant host. Although *S. plymuthica* MM secreted  
421 various extracellular enzymes, such as protease, chitinase, glucanase, and cellulase, its  
422 antifungal mechanism remains unknown; interestingly, the authors found that the *S.*  
423 *plymuthica* MM could increase the production of antioxidant and defence enzymes in  
424 watermelon plants by upregulating genes such as LOX, POD, PAL, CIPR3, and C4H.

425 Phosphorus is one of the essential elements for plant nutrition and is considered the second  
426 most important nutrient. Additionally, this element helps plants absorb other nutrients like  
427 nitrogen and magnesium, making its availability crucial in agriculture. Unfortunately,  
428 phosphorus is not available in many soils for plants, requiring the aid of phosphorus-  
429 solubilizing organisms (Bargaz et al., 2021; Etesami et al., 2023). A recent study described  
430 that *S. marcescens* Pt-3 exhibited excellent phosphorus-solubilizing activity. *Serratia*  
431 *marcescens* Pt-3, isolated from tea rhizosphere in a province of China (species not reported),  
432 demonstrated multiple functions in solubilizing insoluble phosphate, promoting corn  
433 seedling growth, and producing abundant VOCs. In addition to promoting plant growth and  
434 phosphate solubilisation, *S. marcescens* Pt-3 showed antagonism against *Magnaporthe*  
435 *oryzae*, *B. cinerea*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *A. fumigatus*, *Colletotrichum graminicola*, and *A.*

436 *alternata*. Individual evaluation of some VOCs revealed that dimethyl disulfide was  
437 important for inhibiting the germination of *A. flavus* by destroying its mycelial cell structures.  
438 The authors suggested that this strain could be an excellent plant growth promoter and  
439 biocontrol agent, making it promising as a biofertiliser and biofungicide (Gong et al., 2022).  
440 Another study published by Méndez-Santiago et al. (2021) showed that an endophytic strain  
441 of *Serratia* sp. exhibited mechanisms such as phosphate solubilisation, siderophore  
442 production, and auxin production, like indole acetic acid, which could be involved in plant  
443 growth promotion. Unfortunately, the effect of the strain on plants was not evaluated to  
444 confirm its role as a PGPB. Still, its antagonism was assessed *in vitro* against plant pathogens  
445 such as *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Bipolaris* sp., *Alternaria raphani*, *A. brassicicola*, and *F.*  
446 *oxysporum*, managing to inhibit the mycelial diameter of some of them. The strain also  
447 showed nematicidal activity against species such as *Nacobbus aberrans* and *Haemonchus*  
448 *contortus*. In contrast, symbiotic associations between *S. nematodiphila* species and  
449 nematodes (*Heterorhabditoides chongmingensis*) have been reported. Interestingly, this *S.*  
450 *nematodiphila* species shows a close phylogenetic relationship with *S. marcescens*,  
451 suggesting that further investigation into the genomic-ecological aspects of such antagonistic  
452 and symbiotic interactions would be valuable (Zhang et al., 2009).

453 Previous studies show that various *Serratia* species are excellent biocontrol agents for plant  
454 pathogens, but they can also act as biofertilisers by improving plant nutrition and stimulating  
455 growth through phytohormone production (Table 1). However, their use needs to be extended  
456 and field studies expanded, as most reported work is *in vitro*. Evaluating other aspects, such  
457 as rhizosphere or endophytic colonisation under optimal or abiotic stress conditions (*e.g.*,  
458 salinity, drought, flooding, heavy metal contamination) remains to be fully explored.

459 ***Rahnella* species as biocontrol agents**

460 *Rahnella* is another bacterial genus that has recently been included within the Yersiniaceae  
461 family, which comprises 13 recognised species (Adeolu et al., 2016)  
462 (<https://lpsn.dsmz.de/genus/rahnella>). The species *Ra. aquatilis* is the most well-known and  
463 was also the first species described within this genus. Initially, the first isolates were  
464 classified as enterobacteria (Enterobacteriaceae) by Gavini et al. in 1976 at Institut Pasteur  
465 (Lee et al., 2019), and later, (Izard et al., 1979) and collaborators (1979) proposed the new  
466 genus *Rahnella*, including *Ra. aquatilis* as the type species. Years later, some *Rahnella*  
467 species were isolated from the rhizosphere of plants like maize and wheat and characterised  
468 as nitrogen-fixing bacteria (Berge et al., 2011). Since then, several *Rahnella* species have  
469 been extensively reported as biocontrol agents against various plant diseases for decades,  
470 including the bacterial plant pathogen *Xanthomonas campestris*, where *Rahnella* was  
471 identified as an important antagonist (Calvo et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007; El-Hendawy et  
472 al., 2005; Sallam, 2011).

473 Currently, strains such as *Ra. aquatilis* MEM40, a PGPR isolated from rice rhizosphere, have  
474 shown antagonism against devastating plant pathogens like *M. oryzae* and *F. graminearum*,  
475 with its genome revealing certain characteristics relevant for plant protection. Other strains,  
476 like *Ra. aquatilis* ZF7, have also sequenced genomes, revealing beneficial capabilities such  
477 as antibiotic and biosurfactant production for biocontrol. Furthermore, growth-promoting  
478 and stress-resistance traits in this genome have been evaluated, including auxin (e.g., IAA)  
479 production, phosphate solubilisation, formation of Se nanoparticles, and organic acid  
480 biosynthesis (Yuan et al., 2014).

481 In another recent study, the genome of *Ra. aceris* strain ZF458 was analyzed, containing  
482 three replicons: one chromosome and two circular plasmids. The authors compared the  
483 genome of this species with other *Ra. aquatilis* strains, finding similar genes encoding

484 essential functions for antagonism and plant growth promotion. They also evaluated *in vitro*  
485 antagonism of strain ZF458 against fungal plant pathogens like *Stemphylium solani*,  
486 *Corynespora cassiicola*, *Ascochyta citrullina*, *Colletotrichum* sp., *Phytophthora capsici*, *F.*  
487 *oxysporum*, and bacteria such as *Acidovorax citrulli*, *Pectobacterium brasiliense*,  
488 *Pseudomonas amygdali*, *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato*, *Ralstonia solanacearum*,  
489 *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris*, *Clavibacter michiganensis*, and *Agrobacterium*  
490 *tumefaciens*. Good antagonistic activity with varying degrees or inhibition percentages was  
491 determined among these plant pathogens (Xu et al., 2022).

492 Interestingly, Type I, II, III, and IV secretion systems were present in several sequenced  
493 *Rahnella* strains, a common feature in these strains. Secretion systems are relevant for the  
494 secretion of molecules and effector proteins that interact with plants and plant pathogens  
495 (Lucke et al., 2020). For example, the Type I protein secretion system (TISS) in nitrogen-  
496 fixing bacteria like *Rhizobium* is responsible for biofilm formation (Poole et al., 2018). Type  
497 III secretion systems (T3SS) and Type IV secretion systems (T4SS) in various PGPB are  
498 relevant for secreting effectors that can regulate proteins and induce plant immune responses,  
499 enhancing resistance to potential plant pathogens. In fact, Type I, III, IV, and VI secretion  
500 systems (T1SS, T3SS, T4SS, T6SS) are capable of directly translocating proteins across both  
501 the inner and outer membranes of Gram-negative bacteria in a single step, bypassing the  
502 periplasm. In contrast, Type II and V secretion systems (T2SS, T5SS) operate in two steps:  
503 first transporting proteins into the periplasmic space, then transferring these proteins to the  
504 outer membrane. T2SS uses a pilus-like structure to push proteins through the outer  
505 membrane, while T5SS, also known as the autotransporter system, involves the protein  
506 forming a  $\beta$ -barrel structure that inserts into the outer membrane, allowing its own secretion  
507 (Gamalero et al., 2022).

508 In another recent study, two bacterial genomes were sequenced and analysed: one from *Ra.*  
509 *perminowiae* S11P1 and another from *Variovorax* sp. S12S4, isolated from the rhizosphere  
510 of *Crocus sativus* L. (saffron). Functional characterization determined that they are plant  
511 growth promoters and possess genes involved in plant pathogen biocontrol. Some of these  
512 genes include *cobOST*, involved in cobalamin (vitamin B12) biosynthesis; *phzF*, *lysR*,  
513 involved in phenazine biosynthesis; *metH*, encoding methionine synthase, an enzyme that  
514 acts as a resistance inducer; *rhlBE*, involved in rhamnolipid biosynthesis (antimicrobial  
515 compounds); *srfAC*, involved in surfactin biosynthesis (antimicrobial and antifungal  
516 lipopeptides); *alsS*, *ilvNG*, encoding the large and catalytic subunits of acetolactate synthase,  
517 involved in volatile organic compound (VOC) production, among others.

518 Volatile organic compounds have attracted attention for their antagonistic activity against  
519 various fungal plant pathogens and for stimulating induced systemic resistance in various  
520 crop species. Volatiles may have certain advantages over other antimicrobial or protein  
521 compounds due to their low molecular weight, low polarity, lipophilicity, and ability to be  
522 transported over long distances while maintaining functionality (Sharifi and Ryu, 2020). In  
523 the case of *Rahnella* bacteria, strains like JZ-GX1 of *Ra. aquatilis* produce volatiles such as  
524 3-methyl-1-butanol and 2-phenylethyl methyl that can inhibit mycelial growth and  
525 germination in plant pathogens like *C. gloeosporioides*. Interestingly, volatiles from JZ-GX1  
526 reduced anthracnose disease spots on leaves of *Liriodendron chinense* x *tulipifera*,  
527 highlighting their role as biocontrol agents (Kong et al., 2022).

528 In this subsection, we highlight the potential of *Rahnella* species as biocontrol agents for  
529 plant diseases. However, not all *Rahnella* species exhibit beneficial interactions with plants.  
530 For instance, *Ra. victoriana*, along with *Enterobacter hormaechei* subsp. *hoffmannii* and  
531 *Citrobacter braakii*, has been associated with walnut decline disease (Hajjaligol et al., 2023),

532 and has also been reported in diseased onion bulbs (*Allium cepa*) cultivated in the United  
533 States and Norway (Asselin et al., 2019). Therefore, caution should be exercised when  
534 proposing new biocontrol agents, and in vivo tests, preferably in greenhouses or semi-  
535 controlled environments, should be conducted to ensure the safety of these strains for plants,  
536 animals, and humans before use. Finding potentially plant-pathogenic strains for crops is  
537 quite common; for example, *Pseudomonas* species, which are favourites as promoters and  
538 biocontrol agents, also include plant-pathogenic species like *P. syringae* (Xin et al., 2018).  
539 Therefore, while there is no need for excessive concern, it is a topic that should not be  
540 overlooked but instead discussed and evaluated with rigour. Table 1 includes reviewed works  
541 here including *Rahnella* species and their controlled plant plant pathogens.

#### 542 ***Rouxiella* species as biocontrol agents**

543 The genus *Rouxiella* has the fewest described species among the main ones analyzed in this  
544 work as biocontrol strains, which include *Ro. chamberiensis*, *Ro. aceris*, *Ro. silvae*, and *Ro.*  
545 *badensis* (<https://lpsn.dsmz.de/genus/rouxiella>). The species *Ro. chamberiensis* was the first  
546 described as the Type species when proposed as a new genus by Flèche-Matéos (2015), and  
547 *Ro. aceris* and *Ro. silvae* were subsequently described by Flèche-Matéos et al. (2017). The  
548 species *Ro. aceris* was proposed by Lee et al. (2021) through a polyphasic taxonomy  
549 approach.

550 However, to our knowledge, none of these species had been characterised as biocontrol  
551 agents until 2021 when Morales-Cedeño et al. isolated *Ro. badensis* SER3 from the  
552 phyllosphere of *Fragaria* × *ananassa* and discovered that it exhibited strong *in vitro*  
553 antagonism towards multiple post-harvest fungal plant pathogens, including species from the  
554 genera *Alternaria*, *Botryosphaeria*, *Botrytis*, *Fusarium*, *Geotrichum*, *Mucor*, and  
555 *Penicillium*. The antagonism exerted by *Ro. badensis* SER3 towards the plant pathogens was

556 through diffusible compounds, where there was direct contact, as well as through volatiles,  
557 in divided Petri dishes. More detailed analyses of the compounds excreted by the SER3 strain  
558 showed that they distorted the morphology of the mycelium of fungi like *Botrytis* and  
559 *Fusarium*. Sequencing the 16S rRNA gene showed similarity with strains of *Rahnella* and  
560 *Serratia*, but obtaining the genome of the strain and performing phylogenomic analyses and  
561 OGRIS (average nucleotide identity or ANI and a genome-to-genome distance calculator or  
562 GGDC) grouped it with the newly described species *Ro. badensis* by Fléche-Matéos et al.  
563 (2017). In fact, it showed 100% 16S rRNA gene identity, 99.69% (ANI), and 98.20%  
564 (GGDC) with *Ro. badensis* strain DM 100043T. Therefore, the strain was designated as *Ro.*  
565 *badensis* SER3.

566 Annotation, genome mining, and metabolite prediction with the AntiSMASH program (Blin  
567 et al., 2021) for *Ro. badensis* SER3 revealed various interesting functions related to plant  
568 growth promotion and biocontrol, such as thiopeptides, non-ribosomal peptide synthetases  
569 (NRPS), and polyketide synthases (PKS), siderophores, and arylpolyene compounds  
570 (Morales-Cedeño et al., 2021). Thus, this was the first study to demonstrate the potential of  
571 a *Rouxiella* strain as a biocontrol agent, opening the possibility of finding these functions in  
572 other species of the genus.

573 Another recent study isolated various strains with potential plant growth-promoting traits, as  
574 well as antagonistic activity against bacterial canker disease from the phyllosphere and  
575 endosphere of *Prunus* spp. in Iran, including some strains of *Rouxiella*, which were evaluated  
576 for their ribosomal gene and showed some similarity to *Ro. chamberiensis* (99.15%).  
577 Unfortunately, no such activities were found among the strains screened by the authors, but  
578 they were found in other isolated strains (Vasebi et al., 2023).

579 Recently, Guzmán-Guzmán et al. (2024) reported that the *Ro. badensis* SER3 strain could  
580 enhance antifungal and plant-beneficial responses of the mycoparasitic fungus *Trichoderma*  
581 *atroviride* by upregulating its effector genes, such as *epl1*, *tatr2*, and *tacfem1*, in tripartite  
582 interactions with the plant pathogen *F. brachygibbosum*. Additionally, *Ro. badensis* SER3  
583 inhibited the growth of *Fusarium* mycelium, either individually or in interaction with *T.*  
584 *atroviride*. Using transgenic lines of *A. thaliana* PR1 and LOX2 to analyze salicylic acid  
585 (SA) and jasmonic acid (JA)-mediated defence responses, a synergistic action between *Ro.*  
586 *badensis* SER3 and *T. atroviride* was observed, stimulating LOX2 expression more than 10  
587 times. This was interesting because, with other strains like *P. fluorescens* UM270 and two  
588 strains of *Bacillus*, *Trichoderma* did not respond similarly or stimulate JA-mediated defence  
589 responses in *Arabidopsis*. Thus, the effector functions of *Trichoderma* were enhanced by  
590 interaction with beneficial bacteria like *Ro. badensis*. This work highlights that *Ro. badensis*  
591 SER3 could be part of a synthetic community (SynCom) with other beneficial fungi for  
592 agriculture like *Trichoderma*, as they showed no antagonism between them but did exhibit  
593 antagonism against plant pathogens like *Fusarium* (Table 1).

#### 594 **Predicting biocontrol metabolites in Yersiniaceae bacteria**

595 Understanding the biocontrol potential of bacteria involves identifying and predicting the  
596 metabolites they produce, which can play a crucial role in their antagonistic activities against  
597 plant pathogens. Thus, the antiSMASH program is instrumental in predicting the potential  
598 production of antimicrobial metabolites (Blin et al., 2021). Table 2 shows a prediction  
599 analysis of metabolites from the different bacterial genomes of members of the Yersiniaceae  
600 family sequenced up to the writing of this work, including species and strains such as *Ro.*  
601 *badensis* SER3, *Ro. badensis* DSM 100043, *Ro. badensis* WG36, *Ro. badensis* DAR 84756,  
602 *Ro. silvae* 213, *Ro. silvae* Leaf50, *Ro. chamberiensis* 13033, *Ro. aceris* SAP-1, *Ra.bruchi*

603 DSM 27398, *Ra. woolbedingensis* DSM 27399, *Ra. inusitata* DSM 30078, *Ra. variigena* CIP  
604 105588, *Ra. victoriana* DSM 27397, *Ewingella americana* CCUG 14506, *S. liquefaciens*  
605 ATCC 27592, *S. proteamaculans* CCUG 14510, *S. quinivorans* NCTC 11544, *S. grimesii*  
606 NCTC 11543, *S. ureilytica* HNU47, *S. ureilytica* C7, *S. ureilytica* 10436wE5,  
607 *Obesumbacterium proteus* DSM 2777, *Hafnia paralvei* ATCC 29927, *H. alvei* NCTC 8105,  
608 and *Cedecea davisae* DSM 4568.

609 The predicted compounds with varying similarity percentages found in the respective  
610 bacterial genomes correspond to NRPS, siderophores, thiopeptides, aryl polyene, T1PKS,  
611 T3PKS, transAT-PKS, Hserlactone, transAT-PKS-like, thioamides, terpenes, beta lactones,  
612 ladderane, pyrrolnitrin, NRP-metallophone, among others. It is noteworthy that this table  
613 includes the genomes of *Obesumbacterium proteus* DSM 2777, *Hafnia paralvei* ATCC  
614 29927, *H. alvei* NCTC 8105, and *Cedecea davisae* DSM 4568, which do not have been  
615 reported to our knowledge, antagonistic, antimicrobial, or antifungal functions against plant  
616 pathogens. However, these genomes do present a broad metabolic potential for exploring  
617 such antimicrobial functions, as well as others like plant growth promotion, including the  
618 production of siderophores. Siderophores can have dual functions and act as iron scavengers  
619 from the soil, improving plant nutrition through iron and other elements, restricting fungal  
620 growth, as well as molecules eliciting ISR responses in agricultural crops. Recent studies  
621 have highlighted the presence of iron in the soil and its fundamental role in microbial  
622 interactions that allow PGPR to coexist in the rhizosphere (Du et al., 2024). Therefore, the  
623 production of siderophores is crucial in the complex microbial communications that occur in  
624 this microenvironment, and the roles of bacterial members of the Yersiniaceae family remain  
625 unexplored.

626 **Other unexplored Yersiniaceae genera as antagonists**

627 The principal biocontrol agents of the Yersiniaceae family are *Serratia* and *Rahnella*,  
628 confirmed as the most studied in this new bacterial family (Alijani et al., 2022; Calvo et al.,  
629 2007; Cao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2007; Clements et al., 2019; El-Hendawy et al., 2005;  
630 Hajjaligol et al., 2023; Hennessy et al., 2020; Müller et al., 2009; Sallam, 2011). After  
631 *Rouxiella*, with two studies where *Ro. badensis* exhibits antagonism against post-harvest  
632 fungal plant pathogens and its synergistic interaction with *Trichoderma* (Guzmán-Guzmán  
633 et al., 2024; Morales-Cedeño et al., 2021), a well-known mycoparasitic and beneficial fungus  
634 (Mukherjee et al., 2022). However, there are no clear studies evaluating other members such  
635 as *Hafnia*, *Obesumbacterium*, and *Cedecea*. Except for some studies like the one by Silva et  
636 al. (2012), who isolated approximately 200 bacterial strains as endophytes from healthy-  
637 looking *Coffea arabica* L. and *Coffea robusta* L. plants, including a strain 119G that might  
638 correspond to *Cedecea davisae*. This strain 119G exhibited a certain degree of biocontrol  
639 severity of leaf rust disease in coffee seedlings caused by *Hemileia vastatrix*. However, the  
640 authors did not provide further descriptions of this endophytic species.

641 Another strain of *Cedecea lapagei* KU14 in co-inoculation with *Bacillus subtilis* KU2  
642 showed beneficial effects on the sustainable production of *Rosmarinus officinalis*, although  
643 no beneficial biocontrol effects against any plant pathogens were reported (Sharma et al.,  
644 2023).

645 Regarding *Hafnia*, there is a short report from 1985 published by Sneh et al. showing the  
646 biocontrol potential of *S. liquefaciens* and *Hafnia alvei* strains in carnations, protecting them  
647 from infection by *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *dianthi*. The authors concluded that *Serratia* was a  
648 better controller than *Hafnia* (Sneh et al., 1985).

649 In the case of the genus *Obesumbacterium*, we did not find literature showing its activity as  
650 a biocontrol agent of plant pathogens. Still, there is a recent study exploring its plant growth-

651 promoting activities, where the rhizobacterium *O. proteus* KH8 exhibited certain PGP traits,  
652 such as phosphate solubilisation, production of siderophores, volatiles like HCN and  
653 ammonia, protease, chitinase, and cellulase activity. Unfortunately, experiments exploring its  
654 potential in plant interactions or interactions with plant pathogens were not conducted  
655 (Bhardwaj et al., 2023). The scarcity of functional, biochemical, or genomic studies of these  
656 three genera represents a significant opportunity to assign beneficial functions associated  
657 with plants, whether through direct or indirect plant growth promotion, such as biocontrol.

### 658 **Conclusions and new challenges**

659 With the current global warming, which is more pronounced in some regions than in others,  
660 new plant pathogens emerge that must be fought with microbial biocontrol agents. Biological  
661 control has multiple advantages over pesticides, such as its zero toxic effects on the  
662 environment. Therefore, new biocontrol agents, such as bacteria from the Yersiniaceae  
663 family, need to be searched for and characterised. These genera, which have been described  
664 previously, despite being close relatives of opportunistic human pathogens, have proven to  
665 be highly safe for both human and animal health, offering the same or even better biocontrol  
666 mechanisms than commonly studied or marketed strains like *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, or even  
667 fungi like *Trichoderma*. In fact, with the new everyday genomic sequencing techniques, it is  
668 quite safe to perform genomic comparison analysis with plant pathogenic bacterial strains  
669 and detect possible plant pathogenicity islands or other virulence factors that could be  
670 harmful to human health. In fact, this should be routine for all microbial biocontrol agents:  
671 the non-detection of genetic factors with possible virulence/pathogenicity.

672 Another aspect to investigate in the future is the compatibility of Yersiniaceae family strains  
673 with known biocontrol agents, or whether they complement functions not found in other  
674 bacterial strains. This would help design synthetic communities or consortia for the

675 development of more effective biopesticides under open field conditions, as well as in  
676 environments where abiotic factors may be extremely variable.  
677 Additionally, it is recommended that the impact of inoculating Yersiniaceae family agents on  
678 the native microbial communities of crops be studied. Studies have shown that the  
679 introduction of new microbial agents to the rhizosphere can impact the structure and  
680 composition of microbial communities and, as a result, modify interactions with the plant  
681 host, affecting growth, metabolism, function, and, ultimately, agricultural production.  
682 Recently, the role of other microbiota groups in the rhizosphere, such as protists, has been  
683 observed, and as far as we know, there are no studies demonstrating beneficial interactions  
684 between these eukaryotic microbes and bacteria from the Yersiniaceae family. Therefore, it  
685 would be helpful to conduct long-term microcosm studies to understand the interactions that  
686 may arise between these soil microorganisms, whose activity is crucial when interacting with  
687 plants. Recently, Asiloglu et al. (2024) discovered that protists may impact microbial  
688 communities in the rhizosphere and those that colonise the plant's internal tissues. Therefore,  
689 the impact of these interactions may go beyond the underground and have an aboveground  
690 effect.

691

## 692 **Acknowledgements**

693 G.S. thanks CIC-UMSNH (2024–2025) for financial support to our research projects.

694

## 695 **References**

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1247 **Figure legends**

1248 Figure 1. Role of biocontrol bacteria belonging to the Yersiniaceae family as part of the  
1249 rhizospheric, endophytic, and phyllospheric microbiomes. Mechanisms such as competition,  
1250 antibiosis, production of lytic enzymes, and induction of systemic resistance (ISR) have been  
1251 detected in these bacterial members. Genera such as *Rahnella*, *Rouxiella*, and *Serratia* and  
1252 their species have shown biocontrol activity against various pathogenic fungi, oomycetes,  
1253 and nematodes in different crops. See the text for additional details.

1254

1255 Figure 2. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree of representative members of the Yersiniaceae  
1256 family based on 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis. The 16S ribosomal DNA sequences were  
1257 obtained from GenBank. Alignment was performed using MUSCLE, and the Neighbor-  
1258 joining statistical method was applied. A total of 1000 bootstrap replicates were used.  
1259 *Morganella morganii* ATCC 25830T (CP034944) was used as an outgroup.

1260

1261 Figure 3. Publications indexed in Scopus (<https://www.scopus.com>) related to biocontrol by  
1262 genera within the Yersiniaceae family. See the text for further details.

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