Novel Actinobacterial Diversity in Arid Atacama Desert Soils as a Source of New Drug Leads

Kanungnid Busarakam



Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of Newcastle University for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

July 2014

School of Biology, Faculty of Science, Agriculture and Engineering, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom Dedicated to my family-Busarakam and beloved country-Thailand

"Bacteria dwell in virtually every spot that can sustain any form of life. And we have underestimated their global number because we, as members of a kingdom far more restricted in potential habitation, never appreciated the full range of places that might be searched."- Planet of the Bacteria. *Stephen Jay Gould*

Abstract

The search for new specialised metabolites, notably antibiotics, that can be developed for healthcare has steadily shifted towards the isolation and screening of rare and novel actinobacteria from extreme habitats on the premise that such habitats give rise to unique biodiversity that is the basis of novel chemistry. To this end, a taxonomic approach to bioprospecting for bioactive compounds was used to selectively isolate, dereplicate and classify actinobacteria from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid areas of the Atacama Desert in northwest Chile, namely from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay regions, respectively. Sample pretreatment and selective isolation strategies enabled the recovery of actinobacteria from each of these habitats and while population sizes were small, taxonomic diversity was high.

Relatively large numbers of Amycolatopsis and Streptomyces strains were isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil, as were smaller numbers of Actinomadura, Kribbella, Lechevalieria, Nonomuraea and Saccharothrix strains. In contrast. Modestobacter and Streptomyces isolates predominated in the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil, the latter also contained smaller numbers of Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus and Pseudonocardia strains. With few exceptions representatives of these genera formed distinct phyletic lines in 16S rRNA gene trees. Polyphasic studies carried out on strains of ecological and biotechnological interest showed that isolates assigned to the genera *Modestobacter* and *Streptomyces* belonged to putative new species, as exemplified by the proposal for Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii sp. nov. for strains that formed a distinct branch in the Streptomyces 16S rRNA gene tree. In contrast, representatives of the genus Amycolatopsis were assigned to known species, albeit ones classified in a rare taxon, the Amycolatopsis 16S rRNA gene clade. Most of the representative isolates examined in standard plug assays inhibited the growth of one or more of a panel of five wild type microorganisms. In addition, some of the representative streptomycetes from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were found to inhibit cell envelope, cell wall, fatty acid and RNA synthesis in assays based on the use of Bacillus subtilis reporter genes.

The results of this project demonstrate for the first time that hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils are rich reservoirs of cultivable rare and novel actinobacteria with the capacity to produce a broad range of bioactive compounds that can be developed as drug leads for medicine. Indeed, microorganisms, unlike plants and animals, have overcome the prevailing harsh conditions of the Desert. Life abounds in the Atacama Desert, but most of it is microbial!

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere and deep felt thanks to my supervisor Professor Michael Goodfellow who has supported me with respect throughout the time I've spent on my Ph.D. project. This project would never have been accomplished without his consideration, encouragement and guidance. I am also grateful to Professor Alan T. Bull (University of Kent, UK), Professor Gilles van Wezel and Dr. Geneviève Girard (University of Leiden, The Netherlands), Dr. David Labeda (National Centre for Agriculture-Utilization Research, Peoria, USA), Dr. Byung-Yong Kim (Chun Lab., Seoul, Republic of Korea), Dr. Tiago Zucchi (Microbiology Laboratory, EMBRAPA, Jaguariúna, Brazil), Professor Martha Trujillo (University of Salamanca, Spain), Dr. Mustafa Rateb (University of Aberdeen, UK) and Mr. Ali Kermani (M.Sc. student, School of Biology, Newcastle University), not only for their advice, but also for their collaboration on aspects of the project, as outlined in the thesis.

I also owe so much to Mrs. Roselyn Brown and Mrs. Miriam Earnshaw who selflessly shared their extensive experience of laboratory work and their wisdom of life with me. Indeed, my life in Newcastle would have been greatly diminished without them. I am also grateful to past and present members of the laboratory: Amanda Jones, Avinash Bonda, Blessing Adamu and Hamidah Idris.

I gratefully acknowledge financial support from the Royal Thai Government, and from the Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research (TISTR) for support that gave me the priceless opportunity to develop my career and extend my knowledge in science. Many thanks also to Dr. Anawat Suwannagul who help me to secure a PhD position.

I owe a mountain of thanks to my family for their initial source of encouragement, my best friends and to fellow members of the Thai Fellowship from Thai Society of Newcastle University.

Author's Declaration

Except where acknowledgement has been given, this dissertation is the original work of the author. The material presented has never been submitted to the Newcastle University or to any other educational establishment for purposes of obtaining a higher degree.

July 2014

Kanungnid Busarakam

Publications and Presentations

Publications:

Kanungnid Busarakam, Alan T. Bull, Geneviève Girard, David P. Labeda, Gilles P. van Wezel & Michael Goodfellow (2014). *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* sp. nov., the producer of chaxalactins and chaxamycins, forms a distinct branch in *Streptomyces* gene trees. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **105**, 849-861.

Geneviève Girard, Joost Willemse, Hua Zhu, Dennis Claessen, <u>Kanungnid</u> <u>Busarakam</u>, Michael Goodfellow & Gilles P. van Wezel (2014). Analysis of novel kitasatosporae reveals significant evolutionary changes in conserved developmental genes between *Kitasatospora* and *Streptomyces*. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek*, 106, 365-380.

Wallace Rafael de Souza, Rafael Eduardo da Silva, Michael Goodfellow, <u>Kanungnid</u> <u>Busarakam</u>, Fernanda Sales Figueiro, Douglas Ferreira, Edson Rodrigues-Filho, Luiz Alberto Beraldo Moraes & Tiago Domingues Zucchi. (2014). *Amycolatopsis rhabdoformis* sp. nov., an actinomycete isolated from a tropical forest soil in Brazil. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology*, (In press).

Poster presentations:

Kanungnid Busarakam, Alan T. Bull & Michael Goodfellow. (2011). Diversity of actinobacteria in Atacama Desert soil as a source of novel antibiotics. *Society of General Microbiology Meeting*, York University, UK.

Kanungnid Busarakam, Michael Goodfellow & Alan T. Bull. (2012). New drugs from an old desert: The Atacama Desert. *Conference on Capacities for Mutualism, Symbiosis and Pathogenesis*, Münster, Germany.

Kanungnid Busarakam, Michael Goodfellow & Alan T. Bull. (2013). Actinobacterial diversity in arid Atacama Desert soils. *Society for Applied and Food Microbiology Annual Meeting*, Cardiff, UK.

Table of content

Novel Actinobacterial Diversity in Arid Atacama Desert Soils as a Source of New Drug
Leadsi
Abstractiii
Acknowledgements iv
Author's Declarationv
Publications and Presentations vi
Table of contentvii
Chapter 1. General Introduction1
1.1. Background
1.2. Aims and content of thesis 4
1.3. Prokaryotic systematics
1.4. Actinobacterial diversity and bioprospecting18
1.5. Selective isolation, dereplication and recognition of novel taxa
1.6. Extreme habitats as a source of novel actinobacteria
1.7. Screening for bioactive compounds
Chapter 2. Materials and Methods
2.1. Sampling sites
2.2. Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples
2.3. Selective isolation, enumeration and presumptive classification of actinobacteria
isolated from Atacama Desert environmental samples
2.4. Selection, maintenance and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated
from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples
2.5. Comparative 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies
2.6. Detection of additional chemical markers
2.7. DNA-DNA relatedness assays
2.8. Detection of phenotypic properties
2.9. Data acquired using test kits
2.10. Morphology
2.11. Screening for bioactivity
2.12. Preliminary characterisation of bioactive compounds65
Chapter 3. Biosystematic Studies and Screening of Representative Strains
Isolated from Hyper-arid and Extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert Soils
3.1. Abstract
3.2. Introduction
3.3. Materials and Methods
3.3. Materials and Methods

3.4. Results	
3.5. Discussion	
Chapter 4. Classification of thermophilic <i>Amycolatopsis</i> strat	ins isolated from
arid desert soils	
4.1. Abstract	
4.2. Introduction	
4.3. Materials and Methods	
4.4. Results	
4.5. Discussion	
Chapter 5. Biosystematic studies on <i>Modestobacter</i> strains is	olated from
extreme hyper-arid desert soil and from historic buildings	161
5.1. Abstract	
5.2. Introduction	
5.3. Materials and Methods	
5.4. Results	
5.5. Discussion	
Chapter 6. Polyphasic Studies on Presumptive <i>Streptomyces</i>	Strains isolated
from Hyper-arid and Extreme Hyper-arid Atacama Desert Soil	ls185
6.1. Abstract	
6.2. Introduction	
6.3. Materials and Methods	
6.4. Results	
6.5. Discussion	
Chapter 7. General Discussion and Prospectives for Future	Works220
7.1. General discussion	
7.2. Pospectives for future work	
References	
Appendix 1. Assignment of isolates to colour-groups	
Appendix 2. Reagents and buffers	
Appendix 3. Media formulations	
Appendix 4. Nucleotide similarity and differences tables	
Appendix 5. Figures	

Chapter 1. General Introduction

1.1. Background

The discovery of penicillin in 1929 marked the beginning of the antibiotic era and the realisation that microorganisms were a source of clinically significant natural products (Betina, 1983). The discovery and medicinal use of antibiotics over the past sixty years has without question conferred one of the greatest benefits to humankind. At present, over a thousand microbial natural products are in use as antibiotics, agrochemicals and antitumour agents (Bérdy, 2005, 2012).

It is now common knowledge that new drugs, especially antibiotics, are needed to control the spread of multi-drug resistant microbial pathogens and to treat patients with life-threatening diseases such as cancer (Payne *et al.*, 2007; Fischbach, & Walsh, 2009; Genilloud, 2014). Problems caused by drug-resistant microbial pathogens are especially serious, as illustrated by infections caused by vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium*, fluoroquinoline-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains and even more alarmingly by panantibiotic resistant infections attributed to *Acinetobacter* and carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella* species (Donadio *et al.*, 2010a). Somewhat perversely as the prospect of a return to the pre-antibiotic days of medicine looms the number of approved therapeutic leads is in sharp decline (Donadio *et al.*, 2010b; Butler & Cooper, 2011; Genilloud, 2014).

Microbial natural products are still considered to be the most promising source of new drugs (Bull & Stach, 2007; Cragg & Newman, 2013). This is partly because alternative strategies, such as combinational chemistry and fragment-based drug design, have been found to be disappointing (Newman, 2008) and partly because culture-independent molecular procedures have shown that natural habitats contain an astonishing diversity of prokaryotes, an unknown majority that constitutes an enormous genetic resource for exploitable biology (Whitman *et al.*, 1998; Bull, 2004). Indeed, it is now widely recognized that < 1.0% of microorganisms in natural ecosystems have been cultivated (Bull *et al.*, 2000; Kennedy *et al.*, 2010).

The ability of members of the microbial world to synthesize bioactive secondary metabolites is discontinuously distributed. Amongst prokaryotes, organisms classified in the phylum Actinobacteria, notably in the genus Streptomyces, remain the most abundant source of natural products, including clinically significant antibiotics, antimetabolites and antitumour agents (Bérdy, 2005; Olano et al., 2009; Newman & The number of bioactive compounds synthesised by filamentous Cragg, 2013). actinobacteria assigned to the class Actinobacteria account for nearly half of microbial secondary metabolites with around 8,000 of them derived from streptomycetes (Bérdy, 2005). Despites this amazing-actinobacterial productivity it has been estimated that only about 10% of the natural products that can be produced by streptomycetes have been discovered (Watve et al., 2001). Members of other actinobacteria taxa, such as the Actinomadura. Amycolatopsis, Nonomuraea. Saccharothrix genera and Streptosporangium, have featured in drug discovery programmes (Lazzaruni et al., 2000; Genilloud et al., 2011; Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a); such taxa are often referred to as "rare genera" (Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a).

The resurgence of interest in actinobacteria as a source of novel specialised (secondary) metabolites comes from the application of genomic technologies (Goodfellow & Feidler, 2010; Genilloud, 2014). Whole-genome sequencing studies have shown that the genomes of filamentous actinobacteria, unlike those of almost all other prokaryotes, are rich in biosynthetic gene clusters that code for known or predicted specialised metabolites (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010) while cultureindependent survey have shown that large numbers of novel actinobacterial taxa are present in natural ecosystems (Stach et al., 2003a, b; Das et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2010). Even so, it is becoming increasingly difficult to find new chemical entities from common actinobacteria isolated from well studied habitats as screening such organisms leads to the costly rediscovery of known bioactive compounds (Busti et al., 2006; Lam, 2007; Williams, 2008). Consequently, new approaches are being developed for the selective isolation, dereplication and recognition of novel actinobacteria from neglected and unexplored ecosystems, as illustrated by the bioprospecting strategy recommended by Goodfellow and Fiedler (2010) and outlined in Figure 1.1. This taxonomic approach to bioprospecting has been used to isolate actinobacteria from extreme biomes, notably marine habitats, on the premise that harsh environmental conditions give rise to unique taxa which are likely to have a novel chemistry (Bull & Stach, 2007; Bull, 2011).

Novel actinobacteria from deep sea sediments have been found to be a prolific source of specialised metabolites, as exemplified by the discovery of a new family of polycyclic polyketides, the abyssomicins, from *Verrucosispora maris* (Bister *et al.*, 2004; Riedlinger *et al.*, 2004; Keller *et al.*, 2007; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012b); the anticancer drug, salinosporamide, from *Salinispora tropica* (Jensen *et al.*, 2007; Fenical *et al.*, 2009) and the demacozines from *Dermacoccus abysii*, a piezotolerant strain isolated from the Challenger Deep of the Mariana Trench (Pathom-aree *et al.*, 2006; Abdel-Mageeb *et al.*, 2010). Such studies have sparked a flurry of interest in marine actinobacteria as a source of natural products (Imhoff *et al.*, 2011; Blunt *et al.*, 2012; Zotchev, 2012; Manivasagan *et al.*, 2013).



Commercial Success



Taxonomically diverse actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, have been isolated from marine environments using the strategy shown in Figure 1.1, and representatives of dereplicated groups found to be a good source of novel antibiotics with unique modes of action (Bull *et al.*, 2005; Fiedler *et al.*, 2005; Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010). Particular strong support for culture-dependent approaches to bioprospecting comes from extensive surveys of obligate marine actinobacteria classified in the genus *Salinispora* (Jensen *et al.*, 2005; Jensen, 2010; Freel *et al.*, 2012;

Ahmed *et al.*, 2013), notably those which show strong evidence of a coupling between taxonomic and chemical diversity.

Another neglected ecosystem that has recently attracted the attention of microbiologists is the temperate Atacama Desert in northern Chile (Azura-Bustos *et al.*, 2012; Bull & Asenjo, 2013). Most Atacama Desert soils are either hyper-arid, that is, the ratio of mean annual rainfall to mean annual evaporation is < 0.005 or extreme hyper-arid where the corresponding value is < 0.002. The harshness of these conditions is compounded by very low concentrations of organic carbon, high UV radiation, the presence of inorganic oxidants and in some areas by high salinity. Despite these unfavourable conditions for microbial life both culture-dependent and culture-independent studies have revealed the presence of small populations of taxonomically diverse bacteria, including actinobacteria, in Atacama Desert soils (Drees *et al.*, 2006; Demergasso *et al.*, 2008; Fletcher *et al.*, 2012; Bull & Asenjo, 2013).

Okoro and her colleagues (2009) isolated small numbers of filamentous actinobacteria from heat-pretreated samples of hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils using a range of selective isolation media. Most of the isolates were assigned to putatively novel Streptomyces species, the remainder formed new centres of taxonomic variation within two "rare taxa", the genera Amycolatopsis and Lechevalieria. In subsequent studies, the Lechevalieria strains were classified into three new species (Okoro et al., 2010) while four of the Streptomyces isolates have been given species status (Santhanam et al., 2012a, b, 2013; Busarakam et al., 2014). In addition, a further two Streptomyces isolates were found to produce new ansamycin and 22-membered macrolactones that showed a range of antibacterial and antitumour properties (Nachtigall et al., 2011; Rateb et al., 2011a, b). Another putatively novel Streptomyces strain isolated from a high altitude Atacama Desert soil produces novel aminobenzoquinones, the abenquines, which show inhibiting activity against bacteria and dematophytic fungi (Schulz et al., 2011). These initial studies show that Atacama Desert soils contain novel filamentous actinobacteria with the ability to synthesise new natural products.

1.2. Aims and content of thesis

The present study was designed to build upon and extend the pioneering investigations of Atacama Desert actinobacteria by generating a high quality library of taxonomically diverse strains of biotechnological and ecological interest. To this end, the taxonomic approach to bioprospecting for novel bioactive compounds was used to selectively isolate, dereplicate and classify representative actinobacteria from two contrasting Atacama Desert environments, namely hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid soils from the Chaxa de Laguna of the Salar de Atacama and the Yungay regions, respectively. Strains found to be of biotechnological or ecological interest were the focus of polyphasic studies in order to provide genotypic and phenotypic data for the formal description of new taxa. Representative strains, notably streptomycetes, were screened for bioactivity against panels of wild type organisms and *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains in plug assays and extracts of interest sent to Professor Marcel Jaspars (University of Aberdeen) to be screened for novel chemistry. The thesis includes the following chapters.

Chapter 1. General introduction

- Background
- Aims and content of thesis
- Prokaryotic systematics
- Actinobacterial diversity and bioprospecting
- Selective isolation and recognition of novel taxa
- Extreme habitats as a source of novel actinobacteria
- Screening for bioactive compounds

Chapter 2. Materials and methods

- Sampling sites
- Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples
- Selection, maintenance and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples
- Comparative 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies
- Detection of additional chemical markers
- DNA-DNA relatedness assays
- Detection of phenotypic properties
- Morphology
- Screening for bioactivity
- Preliminary characterisation of bioactive compounds

Chapter 3. Biosystematic studies and screening of representative strains isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils

• Sampling sites

- Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples
- Selection, maintenance and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples
- Classification of representative actinobacteria from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples
- Screening for bioactivity
- Preliminary characterisation of some bioactive compounds

Chapter 4. Classification of thermophilic *Amycolatopsis* strains isolated from arid desert soils

- Source, selective isolation and enumeration
- Polyphasic taxonomy of representative strains
- Formal naming of novel species and emended descriptions of *Amycolatopsis ruanii* and *Amycolatopsis thermalba*

Chapter 5. Biosystematic studies on *Modestobacter* strains isolated from extreme hyper-arid desert soil and from historic buildings

- Source, selective isolation and enumeration
- Polyphasic taxonomy of representative strains
- Formal description of novel species
- Screening of selected strains

Chapter 6. Polyphasic studies on presumptive *Streptomyces* strains isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils

- Source and selective isolation
- Polyphasic taxonomy of antibiotic-producing strains
- Formal naming of novel species

Chapter 7. General discussion and prospectives for future work

1.3. Prokaryotic systematics

The power of the taxonomic approach to drug discovery with particular reference to actinobacteria is based upon concepts and practices that underpin prokaryotic systematics (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Schleifer, 2009; Oren & Garrity, 2014).

Prokaryotic systematics, the scientific study of the kinds and diversity of *Achaea* and *Bacteria*, is a scientific discipline which encompasses *Classification*, *Nomenclature* and *Identification*. The first step, classification, is the practice of assigning prokaryotes to taxonomic groups based on similarities and differences. The outcome of this process is an orderly arrangement or system designed to show natural relationships between taxa and serves as an information storage and retrieval system. The term classification includes both the process and the outcome of the exercise though outcomes are often referred to as taxonomies. Sound classification of prokaryotes is a prerequisite for stable nomenclature and reliable identification.

Taxonomies based on genotypic and phenotypic properties are called phenetic classifications. These classifications are built upon phenotypic data (e.g., biochemical, chemical, morphological and physiological properties), including genetic relationships (e.g. DNA-DNA homology values). Phenetic classifications show relationships between organisms as they exist now, that is, without reference to ancestry. In contrast, phylogenetic classifications express inferred evolutionary relatedness between organisms and thereby reflect the extent of change over time. In practice, phenetic and phylogenetic classifications are usually found to be congruent. Current approaches to prokaryotic classification based on 16S rRNA gene sequences are usually considered to be phylogenetic, but many are in fact phenetic as they are based on similarities and differences between homologous nucleotide sequences.

The second step, nomenclature, deals with the terms used to depict ranks in the taxonomic hierarchy (e.g. species, genera, families), notably with the practice of giving correct, internationally accepted names to taxonomic groups according to rules and recommendations given in successive editions of the *International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria* (Lapage *et al.*, 1975, 1992). In 1975, Lapage and his colleagues introduced two changes to the "Bacteriological Code" which had a far reaching impact on the nomenclature of prokaryotes. Thus, a definitive document and starting date was introduced for the recognition of names with the publication of the *Approved Lists of Bacterial Names* on January 1, 1980 (Skerman *et al.*, 1980); names published before this date and omitted from the *Approved Lists of Bacterial Names* lost their standing in nomenclature, a development that cleared away thousands of meaningless names based on poorly described taxa. Secondly, it was decided that new taxa had to be validly published in the *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* (IJSEM; formerly the *International of Systematic Bacteriology*), but could be effectively published in appropriate international journals

and then cited in *Validation Lists* published in the IJSEM. The correct use of names is important to microbiologists as they need to know which organisms they are studying before they transmit information about them within and outside the scientific community (Tindall *et al.*, 2006). In essence, an organism's name is a vehicle of communication and a key to its literature, an entry to what is known about it.

The final step, identification, is sometime seem as the most important element of prokaryotic systematics given the importance of accurately identifying unknown organisms, especially with respect to pathogenic bacteria (Priest & Williams, 1993). It is both the act and the result of determining whether unknown organisms belong to published taxa (Krieg, 2005). It involves determining the key characteristics of unknown organisms and matching them against databases containing corresponding information on validly published taxa (Priest, 2004). Prokaryotes that do not fit into established groups in the taxonomic hierarchy should be classified as new taxa.

Classifications of prokaryotes are data dependent and hence are in a continuous state of development as high quality information becomes available from the application of new and improved techniques (Tindall *et al.*, 2010; ORainey & Oren, 2011; Kim *et al.*, 2014; Oren & Garrity, 2014). Such taxonomies are essentially empirical as they are driven by technological advances not by theoretical considerations, as exemplified by the biological species concept (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Schleifer, 2009). Current approaches to the classification of prokaryotes are based on the integrated use of genotypic and phenotypic features derived from the application of chemotaxonomic, molecular systematic and phenotypic methods. This practice, known as polyphasic taxonomy, was introduced by Colwell (1970) to signify successive or simultaneous studies on groups of prokaryotes using methods chosen to yield high quality data. The polyphasic approach has, and still does, provide a sound basis for stable nomenclature and reliable identification, essential factors for practical or utilitarian taxonomy designed to serve different end users (Vandamme *et al.*, 1996; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Gillis *et al.*, 2005; Krieg & Padgett, 2011).

The application of polyphasic taxonomy led to significant improvements in the classification of prokaryotes, especially in groups like the *Actinobacteria* and *Cyanobacteria* where traditional approaches based on form and function were found to be unreliable (Goodfellow & Maldonado, 2006; Kroppenstedt & Goodfellow, 2006; Gupta, 2009). However, it is not possible at present to recommend a set of methods to be used in all polyphasic studies as the scope of such studies is influenced by the biological properties and rank of the taxa under study and by the equipment available to

investigators. Nevertheless, sequencing highly conserved macromolecules, notably 16S rRNA genes and conserved proteins, has provided valuable data for generating phylogenies at and above the genus level (Ludwig & Klenk, 2005; Ludwig *et al.*, 2012). In contrast, DNA-DNA relatedness, molecular fingerprinting and phenotypic procedures are methods of choice for delineating taxa at and below the rank of species (Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Rosselló-Mora *et al.*, 2011).

The basic taxonomic unit in prokaryotic systematics is the species though this remains an ill-defined concept (Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Staley, 2006; Schleifer, 2009). In the absence of a universally accepted definition of species (Ward, 1998; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 2002), an operational or utilitarian species concept has been proposed for cultivable bacteria (Vandamme *et al.*, 1996; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Schleifer 2009). In particular, extensive taxonomic studies led to the recommendation that genomic species should include strains with approximately 70% or more DNA-DNA relatedness with a difference of 5°C or less in thermal stability (ΔTm ; Wayne *et al.*, 1987). In practice, polyphasic studies draw upon information acquired from chemotaxonomic, numerical phenetic and molecular systematic studies and are of considerable practical value in applied microbiology (Priest & Goodfellow, 2000; Bull, 2004; De Vos *et al.*, 2009).

Chemotaxonomy. This is the study of the discontinuous distribution of chemical macromolecules (e.g. amino acids, fatty acids, polar lipids, polysaccharides, proteins and isoprenoid quinones) across different taxa and the use of such information for classification and identification (Kroppenstedt, 1985; Goodfellow & O'Donnell, 1994; Schleifer, 2009; Da Costa et al., 2011a, b, c). Chemotaxonomic analyses of amino acids, lipids (e.g., fatty acids, mycolic acids and polar lipids), and polysaccharides and related polymers (e.g. sugars and teichoic acids) has provide valuable data for classification of prokaryotes, notably actinobacteria at various ranks in the taxonomic hierarchy (Goodfellow, 2000). The determination of amino acid and cell wall sugar composition and peptidoglycan structure, in particular, led to marked improvements in the classification of actinobacteria (Williams et al., 1989; Goodfellow et al., 2010). The introduction of new technologies, such as analyses of proteins using sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE; Lanoot et al., 2002) and matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of flight (MALDI-TOF; Dridi & Drancourt, 2011) have provided valuable information for the classification and identification of diverse bacteria, including actinobacteria (Lotz et al., 2010; Saleeb et *al.*, 2011). In general, good congruence has been found between the discontinuous distribution of chemical markers and phylogenetic classifications of actinobacteria (Chun & Goodfellow, 1995; Ward & Goodfellow, 2004; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2010).

Numerical taxonomy. This is the classification by numerical methods of strains and taxonomic units into taxa based on many shared characters (Sneath, 1957). The primary aim of this method is to assign individual strains to homogeneous groups or clusters (taxospecies) using large sets of phenotypic data. The organisms to be classified are referred to as operational taxonomic units (OTUs; Sneath & Johnson, 1972). It is essential in such studies to use phenotypic characters that are genetically stable, hence not susceptible to environmental changes, and which are not particularly sensitive to experimental conditions or observational uncertainties. The usual practice is to take a selection of biochemical, cultural, morphological, nutritional and physiological characters to represent the phenome, that is, the genotype and phenotype. It is important in numerical taxonomic studies to have sufficient information to discriminate between taxa (Sneath & Sokal, 1973; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997).

The conceptual basic and operation procedures of numerical taxonomy have been the subject of several comprehensive reviews (Sokal, 1985; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997) and hence will not be considered here. Indeed, conventional numerical taxonomic studies have tended to go out of fashion as they are seem to be timeconsuming and laborious even though new high-throughput methods, such as commercially available 96 well phenotypic array plates, have been introduced to mitigate these problems (Bochner, 2003; Clemons, 2004; Bochner *et al.*, 2008).

The application of numerical taxonomic procedures in their heyday led to significant improvements in actinobacterial systematics. Numerical taxonomic studies were used to circumscribe taxospecies, including those in taxonomically complex genera such as *Actinomadura* (Trujillo & Goodfellow, 2003), *Actinoplanes* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1990), *Gordonia* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1991), *Nocardia* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1982; Goodfellow, 1992), *Mycobacterium* (Wayne *et al.*, 1996), *Rhodococcus* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1998), *Streptosporangium* (Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and *Thermomonospora* (McCarthy & Cross, 1981). Phenotypic analyses of streptomycetes (Williams *et al.*, 1983; Kämpfer *et al.*, 1991; Manfio *et al.*, 1995) provided a sound base for selecting representative strains for detailed taxonomic studies based on chemotaxonomic and molecular systematic procedures (Lanoot *et al.*, 2002; 2005; Girard *et al.*, 2014a).

10

Molecular systematics. The most significant development in prokaryotic systematics in recent times was the realisation that bacterial genomes (and proteins) contain records of changes that have occurred since prokaryotes diverged from a common ancestor around 3.5 billion years ago (Zuckerkandl & Pauling, 1965; Woese, 1987). Molecular-sequence based approaches to systematics have a significant advantage over chemotaxonomic and numerical taxonomic methods as the acquisition of sequence data is independent of cultivation conditions. Molecular-based methods are currently the driving force in prokaryotic systematics, partly as a consequence of rapid technological advances, but also because the end product of this approach reflect natural relationships between prokaryotes as encoded in DNA and protein sequences (Head *et al.*, 1998; Woese, 1998; Gevers *et al.*, 2006; Schleifer, 2009; Alam *et al.*, 2010; Jensen, 2010; Girard *et al.*, 2013, 2014).

Comparative analyses of nucleic acid and conserved protein sequences together with the identification of taxon-specific molecular signatures have had a profound impact on prokaryotic systematics (Stackbrandt & Goodfellow, 1991; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1997; Gupta, 1998, 2000; Zhi *et al.*, 2009; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012a; Gao & Gupta, 2012). Comparison of almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences has proved to be an especially effect way of establishing suprageneric relationships between prokaryotes (Woese, 1987; Ludwig & Klenk, 2001; Ludwig *et al.*, 2011a; Yarza *et al.*, 2012). In contrast, DNA-DNA hybridisation and molecular fingerprinting procedures together with complementary phenotypic data are invaluable in circumscribing taxa at species and infrasubspecific levels (Wayne *et al.*, 1996; Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Tindall *et al.*, 2010; Rosselló-Mora *et al.*, 2011).

16S rRNA gene sequencing. Data derived from sequencing 16S rRNA genes have been used extensively for the classification of cultivated (Yarza *et al.*, 2012) and uncultivated actinobacteria (Stach *et al.*, 2003a, b; Kumar *et al.*, 2007) and for the design of oligonucleotide probes and primers for the identification of specific taxa (Shen & Young, 2005; Zhi *et al.*, 2009). However, 16S rRNA sequencing studies do not always allow delineation between closely related bacterial species (Fry *et al.*, 1991; Fox *et al.*, 1992), as exemplified by studies on the genera *Micromonospora* (Koch *et al.*, 1996), *Saccharomonospora* (Yoon *et al.*, 1997) and *Salinispora* (Jensen *et al.*, 2005). In such cases molecular systematic methods that give higher resolution should be employed, as

illustrated by the delineation of *Salinispora* species based on partial *gyrB* sequences (Ahmed *et al.*, 2013).

Comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence analyses are seen to be a rapid and reliable way of classifying unknown prokaryotes. 16S rRNA gene sequence data held in the DNA Data Base of Japan (DDBJ; Kaminuma et al., 2011; http://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp), the European Molecular Biology Laboratories Database (EMBL; Cochrane et al., 2008; http://www.ebi.ac.uk) and in special rRNA databases such as SIVA (Pruesse et al., 2007; http://www.arb-silva.de), RDP (Cole et al., 2009; and http://www.rdp.cme.msu.edu) Greengenes (De Santis al.. 2006; et http://greengenes.lbl.gov) are retrievable for comparative taxonomic studies. In general, good, congruence has been found between phylogenetic trees derived from 16S rRNA gene sequence data and corresponding trees generated from studies based on other conserved molecules, such as elongation factors, protein-translocating ATPase subunits and RNA polymerase (Ludwig & Klenk, 2001).

Analysis of sequence data and phylogenetic reconstruction. The various methods used to align and analyse 16S rRNA gene sequence data and construct and interpret phylogenetic trees have been considered in detail by Rosselló-Mora *et al.* (2011). The initial step, the alignment of rRNA gene sequences is critical for inferring phylogenetic relationships. The presence of insertions and deletions (indel sequences) may need to be addressed, especially when homology values are low; the use of secondary structural information is essential to localise indel sequences. It is customary to manually adjust alignments and to eliminate nucleotide positions considered to be uncertain (Brocchieri, 2001; Harayama & Kasai, 2006), procedures which rely on the experience and judgment of the investigator.

Numerous tree-making methods are available to infer ancestry once nucleotide sequences have been aligned. In general, treeing approaches can be divided into two groups: cluster methods (algorithms) deal with distance data while discrete character methods use optionality criteria. The most frequently used method for calculating distances is the one-parameter model proposed by Jukes & Cantor (1969), this is based on the assumption that there are independent changes at all nucleotide positions in 16S rRNA sequences, that is, there is an equal probability of ending up with each of the other three bases.

The construction of trees from data in distance matrices is often achieved by using the neighbour-joining (Saitou & Nei, 1987) and weighted least-squares (Fitch &

Margoliash, 1967) algorithms. The neighbour-joining method is theoretically related to clustering methods, such as the unweighted-pair-group method with arithmetic averages (UPGMA; Sneath & Sokal, 1973), but is not based on the assumption that data are ultrametric and that all lineages have equally diverged. In contrast to cluster analysis, the neighbour-joining method keeps track of nodes on the tree rather than taxa or clusters of taxa. The least-squares method fits a given set of pairwise evolutionary distance estimates to an additive tree.

Widely used discrete character methods that employ optimality criteria include maximum-likelihood (Fitch, 1971) and the maximum-parsimony (Felsenstein, 1991) methods. Maximum-likelihood methods seek the tree that is most likely to generate the observed sequences. These methods examine sequences on a site-by-site basis but also incorporate on explicit model of sequence evolution to compensate for superimposed substitutions. Maximum-likelihood methods are used to evaluate the net likelihood that the given evolutionary model will yield the observed sequences; the inferred trees are those with the highest likelihood of achieving this. The maximum-parsimony method is used to find the most parsimonious tree among all possible tree topologies, the tree with the minimal overall number of changes, the most parsimonious one, is taken as the one which infers evolution most closely (Felsenstein, 1981). This also examine sequences on a site-by-site basis and is successful at reconstructing inferred molecular histories, especially when the extent of change is small.

The statistical significance of the order of particular subtrees in a phylogenetic tree can be tested by resampling methods, such as the bootstrap procedure (Felsenstein, 1985). This approach involves random resampling of alignment positions with the result that some of them are included more often than others in analyses whereas others are not included at all. The procedure is usually repeated between 100 and 1000 times with alternatively truncated or rearranged datasets.

DNA-DNA relatedness. A unique property of DNA and RNA macromolecules is their capacity for reassociation or hybridisation. Complementary strands of DNA, once denatured, can reassociate into native duplexes under appropriate experimental conditions. When comparing nucleic acids from any two closely related prokaryotes the amount of the molecular hybrid and its thermal stability provide a measure of the nucleotide sequence similarity between them. These theoretically simple concepts are the basis of DNA-DNA hybridisation (DDH) techniques which are used to make

comparisons of whole genomes between closely related prokaryotes in order to estimate their overall genomic similarities (Rosselló-Mora *et al.*, 2011).

The importance of DDH studies in circumscribing species was underlined by recommendations arising from an *ad hoc* committee on prokaryotic systematics (Wayne *et al.*, 1987). Wayne and his colleagues recommended that the phylogenetic definition of archaeal and bacterial species should be based on the assignment of strains to genomic species when they showed approximately 70% or more DNA relatedness with $5 \degree$ or less thermal stability (ΔTm). It is important to interpret DDH values with care as they may not reflect the actual degree of sequence similarity (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001) and because results can be distorted by differences in genome size and genomic rearrangements (Kang *et al.*, 2007). It is well known that DDH data are prone to experimental error and cannot be used to generate cumulative databases as they are based on pairwise comparisons between tested strains (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 2002 Schleifer, 2009; Kang *et al.*, 2007; Rosselló-Mora *et al.*, 2011).

The strengths and weaknesses of the different DDH techniques that have been developed over the past fifty years have been reviewed by Rosselló-Mora (2006). Two experimental approaches are commonly used to measure the degree of DNA relatedness or similarity between prokaryotes. These approaches are based on assessing the degree of binding by hybridisation (Ezaki *et al.*, 1989; Jahnke, 1994) or by establishing differences in thermal denaturation midpoints (De Ley *et al.*, 1970; Mehlen *et al.*, 2004). The binding strategy involves fixing single-stranded, high-molecular-weight DNA on a solid support, usually nitrocellulose or nylon membranes, followed by incubation in the presence of single-stranded, low-molecular-weight, labelled DNA. The thermal denaturation temperature is used to estimate the thermal stability of hybrid DNA duplexes against that of homologous DNA. The temperature at which 50% of the initial double-stranded molecules denatures into single-stranded DNA is the melting temperature or thermal denaturation midpoint (*Tm*).

A parameter commonly used to estimate DNA-DNA relatedness, ΔTm , is the difference between the Tm of a reference strain and that of corresponding hybrid DNA. To estimate ΔTm , purified total genomic DNA and mixtures of DNA from representatives of related species are denatured and allowed to renature at the optimal temperature for renaturation (T_{or}) ; T_{or} can be estimated from the mol% G+C of the DNA of the strains under study, as described by De Ley *et al.* (1970). The transition from double to single stranded DNA, DNA melting, can be measured by the change in

14

absorbance at 260 nm. Alternatively, the shift in fluorescence of added SYBR Green I dye bound to double stranded DNA can be determined as DNA is 'melted' by progressive heating (Gonzalez & Saiz-Jimenez, 2005). This technique has several advantages over more established methods, as it is rapid and inexpensive, and allows high-throughput comparisons. Comparative studies show that results derived from estimating binding percentages and ΔTm values are generally in good agreement (Roselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Gonzalez & Saiz-Jimenez, 2005; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2007).

Despite their limitations, DDH studies are still widely used for the delineation of closely related prokaryotic species, including actinobacteria (Vandamme *et al.*, 1996; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1997; Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Kumar & Goodfellow, 2008; Rosselló-Mora *et al.*, 2011). Such studies give greater resolution between strains than corresponding 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies, as is apparent from Figure 1.2. Organisms with almost identical 16S rRNA sequence similarities can be distinguished using corresponding DDH data.



Figure 1.2. Comparison of DNA-DNA and 16S rRNA gene similarities of *Proteobacteria, Cytophaga-Flavobacterium-Bacteroides* and Gram-positive bacteria of high GC phyla. The vertical shaded zone indicates the range of cut-off values for DNA-DNA relatedness used for the delineation of genomic species while the horizontal shade zone indicates cut-off values for 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity (99 %) (adapted from Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001).

It is tedious and time-consuming to establish DDH similarities between pairs of closely related strains hence such experiments are to be avoided if there are good reasons for doing so. Stackebrandt and Goebel (1994) recommended that if two strains shared 16S rRNA gene similarities at or below the 97% threshold it was unnecessary to undertake DDH determinations to prove that they belonged to the same species. This threshold was raised to 98.7-99.0%, based, as before, on an empirical dataset taken from the taxonomic literature (Stackebrandt & Ebers, 2006). Using real world 16S rRNA gene sequence and corresponding DDH data, Meier- Kolthoff *et al.* (2013) concluded that a threshold at or below 99.0% was a realistic cut-off point for recognising related pairs of actinobacterial strains belonged to different genomic species. They noted that approximately half of recent DDH experiments could safely been omitted without significant missclassification of tested strains.

The report of the *ad hoc* committee for the re-evaluation of the species definition in bacteriology recommended the use of DNA profiling (e.g., AFLP, PCR-RFLP, rep-PCR and ribotyping) and multilocus sequence typing (MLST) to discriminate between taxonomically closely related strains (Stackebrandt et al., 2002). They also considered that multilocus sequence analyses (MLSA) might be used as an alternative to DNA-DNA relatedness studies in defining genomic species. MLSA involves sequencing a minimum of five housekeeping or other protein coding genes and presenting the resultant data in individual and/or concatenated trees (Enright & Spratt, 1999; Gevers et al., 2005; De Vos, 2011; Cody et al., 2014). The choice of genes needs to be based on their loci; selected genes should be spread across the genome (Maiden et al., 1998; De Vos, 2011). MLSA provides good resolution at and below the species level and greater clarity in genomic relatedness at inter- and intraspecific levels (Thompson *et al.*, 2005; Guo et al., 2008; Martens et al., 2008). Initially, MLSA studies were restricted to epidemiological and population genetic studies (Enright & Spratt, 1999; Robinson & Enright, 2004; Miragaia et al., 2007), but they are now being used to establish taxonomic relationships between closely related bacteria, including actinobacteria, as shown by studies on groups of closely related Streptomyces species (Guo et al., 2008; Rong & Huang, 2010, 2012; Rong et al., 2009, 2010; Adékambi et al., 2011).

Embracing the genome. It has already pointed out that polyphasic taxonomic studies are being increasingly driven by advances in molecular biology, as shown by the impact that 16S rRNA gene sequence and DNA relatedness data have had on the circumscription of prokaryotic taxa, notably at the rank of species (Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001; Sutcliffe *et al.*, 2012). The application of polyphasic taxonomy over the

past forty years has culminated in spectacular improvements in actinobacterial systematics (Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012a). However, serious problems remain, especially with the delineation of species within genera such as *Amycolatopsis* and *Streptomyces* where 16S rRNA gene sequence and associated phenotypic data are not always sufficient for the recognition of species (Kämpfer, 2012; Tan & Goodfellow, 2012). Improved methods are also needed to unambiguously establish the taxonomic status of closely related genera within morphologically complex taxa, such as the families *Pseudonocardiaceae* and *Streptomycetaceae* (Labeda *et al.*, 2010; 2011). There is evidence that such problems can be addressed by the judicious use of whole genome sequence data (Girard *et al.*, 2013, 2014).

The next generation sequencing revolution has seen the number of genome sequences released into the public domain accelerate at an ever increasing rate (Shendure & Lieberman-Aiden, 2012). Currently, sequences of over 8000 bacterial genomes are publically available, including those of strains classified in the phylum *Actinobacteria*. Indeed, following the publication of the genome sequence of *"Streptomyces coelicolor"* A(3)2 (Bentley *et al.*, 2002) over 100 *Streptomyces* genomes and a score of other actinobacterial genomes

have been released (http://www.genomesonline.org).

Comparative genome sequence data are being extensively used to infer genomebased phylogenics (Wu et al., 2009; Klenk & Göker, 2010; Gao & Gupta, 2010) and to illuminate the evolution and mechanisms of actinobacterial complexity (Girard et al., 2013, 2014; Chandra & Chater, 2014). In contrast, there has been a surprising reluctance amongst prokaryotic systematists to use genome sequence data to support the circumscription of novel taxa or to help unravel relationships between poorly delineated genera, despite the fact that the use of such data are a logical extension of the polyphasic taxonomic concept (Kämpfer & Glaeser, 2012). Indeed, the use of such data for descriptive purposes should provide valuable insights into the ecology, metabolism, physiology and biotechnological potential of individual novel taxa and thereby help to re-establish prokaryotic systematics as a fundamental scientific discipline. However, it is critically important that the increasing use of genome data for taxonomic purposes builds upon sound taxonomic concepts painstakingly developed over the last fifty years, not least the nomenclatural type concept (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010; Jensen, 2010; Whitman, 2011, Kämpfer & Glaesen, 2012; Oren & Garrity, 2014). The advantages and limitations of using whole-genome sequences in prokaryotic systematics has been summarised by Sentausa & Fournier (2013).

1.4. Actinobacterial diversity and bioprospecting

The term biodiversity or more precisely biological diversity encompasses *genetic diversity*, the distribution or variation of genes and genomes within a species (intraspecific diversity); *species or organism diversity*, the number of species in a microbial community or the variety of organisms within a region (species richness), and *ecological or ecosystem diversity*, the number of communities in an ecosystem or ecosystem diversity within a region (Harper & Hawksworth, 1994; Bull & Stach, 2004). The focus in the present study is on species diversity of actinobacteria in Atacama Desert soils, notably as a prospective source of novel specialised metabolites.

It has been estimated that a single gram of fertile soil may contain up to 8.3 million bacterial species (Schloss & Handelsman, 2006) and that the number of prokaryotic cells present in natural habitats is 4-6 $\times 10^{30}$ (Whitman *et al.*, 1998). It is astonishing given such estimates that only about 13,000 prokaryotic species have been validly named (http://www.bacterio.net/-number.html#sinceAL). Indeed, it has been estimated less than 0.1% of prokaryotes in marine ecosystems have been cultured (Bull *et al.*, 1992, 2000), a similar situation has been reported for actinobacteria (Stach *et al.*, 2003a, b). It is clear from such estimates that remarkably few actinobacterial taxa have been isolated from natural ecosystems and screened for natural products.

Although only a small fraction of actinobacterial diversity in natural habitats has been isolated and included in pharmacological screening programmes these organisms have proved to be a prolific source of novel bioactive compounds, including antibiotics of therapeutic value (Lazzarini *et al.*, 2000; Strohl, 2004; Genilloud *et al.*, 2011; Genilloud, 2014). It seems likely that this trend will continue as novel actinobacteria are isolated and screened, not least because full genome sequences of taxonomically diverse filamentous actinobacteria have been found to contain over 20 natural product biosynthetic gene clusters for the production of specialised metabolites, as shown by studies on *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* U32^T (Zhao *et al.*, 2002), *Blastococcus saxobsidens* DD2 (Chouaia *et al.*, 2012), *Geodermatophilus obscurus* G20^T (Ivanova *et al.*, 2010), *Kribbella flavida* IFO 14399^T (Pukall *et al.*, 2012), *Modestobacter marinus* BC 501(Normand *et al.*, 2012), *Saccharopolyspora erythaea* NRRL 4338^T (Oliynyk *et al.*, 2007), *Salinispora tropica* CNB 440^T (Udwary *et al.*, 2007), *Saccharothrix espannaensis* DSM 44229^T(Strobel *et al.*, 2012), *Streptomyces avermitilis* MA-4680^T (Ikeda *et al.*, 2003) and "*Streptomyces coelicolor*"A3(2) (Bentley *et al.*, 2002). There is evidence that taxonomic diversity amongst filamentous actinobacteria can be used as a surrogate for chemical diversity, especially at the species level (Goodfellow *et al.*, 2007; Jensen *et al.*, 2007; Tan *et al.*, 2007). It can, therefore, be anticipated that taxa which occupy gaps in actinobacterial taxospace may prove to be a rich source of new bioactive compounds (Ward & Goodfellow, 2004; Jensen, 2010). Consequently, it makes good sense to devise new strategies for the selective isolation and recognition of novel actinobacteria, including streptomycetes and members of "rare genera", as exemplified by the taxonomic approaches to drug discovery (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010; Genilloud *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a, b).

Table 1.1. Antibiotics isolated from actinobacterial genera, as described in the antibiotic database of the *Journal of Antibiotics* (http://www.antibiotics.or.jp).

Actinomycete	AG	ML	AML	BLA	PEP	GP	ANC	ТС	NUC	POL	QN
Streptomyces											
Rare actinobacteria											
Actinomadura											
Actinoplanes											
Actinosynnema											
Amycolatopsis											
Dactylosporangium											
Kibdelosporangium											
Kitatospora											
Microbispora											
Micromonospora											
Microtetraspora											
Norcardia											
Nocardiopsis											
Nonomuraea											
Pseudonocardia											
Rhodococcus											
Saccharomonospora											
Saccharopolyspora											
Saccharothrix											
Streptoalloteichus											
Streptosporangium											
Thermomonospora											

* AG, aminoglycoside; ML, macrolide; AML, ansamacrolide; BLA, β -lactam; PEP, peptide; GP, glycopeptide; ANC, antracycline; TC, tetracycline; NUC, nucleotide; POL, polyene; QN, quinine.

Indeed, members of rare actinobacterial genera are a source of novel antibiotics used extensively in medicine, such as erythromycin produced by *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* (Oliynyk *et al.*, 2007), gentamicin by *Micromonospora purpurea* (Weinstein *et al.*, 1963; Wagman & Weinstein, 1980), rifamycins by *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* (Jin *et al.*, 2002), teicoplanin by *Actinoplanes teichomyceticus* (Somma *et al.*, 1984;

Jung *et al.*, 2009) and vancomycin by *Amycolatopsis orientalis* (Wink *et al.*, 2003). Clearly, it is time to re-energise the quest for the next generation of antibiotics for healthcare from members of novel actinobacterial taxa, including the genus *Streptomyces*.

Another pertinent point is that actinobacterial antibiotics show an extensive range of chemical diversity, as shown in Table 1.1 Streptomycetes in particular synthesise a broad range of chemical entities, structural types of antibiotics commonly produced by these organisms include ansalactam rings, monocyclic lactins and products with polyether and cyclopeptide skeletons (Bérdy 2005).

1.5. Selective isolation, dereplication and recognition of novel taxa

Innumerable filamentous actinobacteria have been isolated and screened since the discovery that a *Streptomyces griseus* strain produced streptomycin (Schatz *et al.*, 1944), a momentous development that stimulated the search for additional novel bioactive compounds of therapeutic value. Early search and discovery programmes were focused on streptomycetes as these organisms were easy to isolate, grow and recognise on isolation media. Intensive screening of members of the genus *Streptomyces* led to the discovery of many novel antibiotics, such as actinomycin from *S. antibioticus* (Waksman & Woodruff, 1941) and neomycin from *S. fradiae* (Waksman & Lechevalier, 1949).

It has already been pointed out that it is important to selectively isolate, dereplicate and recognise novel actinobacteria from environmental samples in order to secure high quality biological material for pharmaceutical screening programmes (Bull *et al.*, 2000; Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010). The application of such procedures show that actinobacteria once considered to be rare in natural habitats are widely distributed and numerous, as shown by studies on acidiphilic (Kim *et al.*, 2003; Busti *et al.*, 2006; Golinska *et al.*, 2013a, b, c), endophytic (Janso & Carter, 2010), halophilic (Meklat *et al.*, 2011), motile (Hayakawa *et al.*, 2000; Suzuki *et al.*, 2001) and marine actinobacteria (Gontang *et al.*, 2007; Becerril-Espinosa *et al.*, 2013) and by studies on individual taxa, such as the genera *Amcolatopsis* (Tan *et al.*, 2006), *Dactylosporangium* (Kim *et al.*, 2011). *Micromonospora* (Goodfellow & Haynes, 1984; Maldonado *et al.*, 2008) and *Rhodococcus* (Colquhoun *et al.*, 1998), *Sphaerisporangium* (Janso & Carter, 2010) and *Streptacidiphilus* (Cho *et al.*, 2006).

20

Most actinobacteria have a saprophytic mode of life in aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, notably in soils, freshwater and marine habitats (Bull *et al.*, 2005; Bull & Stach, 2007). It is not possible to recommend a single procedure for the selective isolation of the many different kinds of actinobacteria present in environmental samples due to their diverse growth and incubation requirements. Consequently, numerous approaches have been recommended for the isolation of specific actinobacterial taxa (Nolan & Cross, 1988; Labeda & Shearer, 1990; Goodfellow, 2010; Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a) based on their biological properties (Cross, 1982; Wellington & Cross, 1983; Goodfellow & O'Donnell, 1989; Goodfellow, 2010). Most selective isolation procedures involve the extraction of propagules (hyphae and spores) from selected environmental samples, pretreatment(s) of samples, use of selective media and appropriate incubation conditions followed by dereplication, and recognition of target colonies.

Extraction of actinobacterial propagules. Physico-chemical interactions of bacterial propagules with particulate substrates affect their recovery from environmental samples. Traditional methods used to separate bacteria from organic matter, sediment and soil particles, include shaking in water or weak buffers (e.g., ¹/₄ strength Ringer's solution), are not always effective (Hopkins *et al.*, 1991). It is particularly important to thoroughly break up soil-sediment particles as many microorganisms, notably those showing mycelial growth, may be bound within them. Procedures used to promote the dissociation of microorganisms from particulate material include the use of chelating agents (MacDonald, 1986), buffered diluents (Niepold et al., 1979), elutriation (Hopkins et al., 1991) and ultrasonication (Ramsay, 1984); all of these procedures address the problem of quantitative and representative sampling to varying degrees. The dispersion and differential centrifugation technique, a multistage procedure introduced by Hopkins et al. (1991), combines several physico-chemical treatments which have been found to be effective in increasing the number and taxonomic diversity of actinobacteria isolated from natural habitats (MacNaughton & O'Donnell, 1994; Atalan et al., 2000; Sembiring et al., 2000; Maldonado et al., 2005).

Pre-treatment of environmental samples. Several pre-treatment procedures are used to select different fractions of actinobacterial communities present in environmental samples. In general, pre-treatment regimes select for target taxa by inhibiting or eliminating the growth of unwanted microorganisms. Actinobacterial spores are more

resistant to desiccation than other bacterial cells hence air-drying soil/sediment samples at room temperature helps eliminate unwanted Gram-negative bacteria which might otherwise overrun isolation plates (Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Labeda & Shearer, 1990; Sembiring *et al.*, 2000). A pre-treatment regime based on alternate drying and wetting of soil has been used to enrich for sporangia (spore vesicles)–forming genera (Makkar & Cross, 1982). Rare spore-forming actinobacteria (e.g., *Actinomadura*, *Microtetraspora*, *Pseudonocardia* and *Streptosporangium*) have been isolated from irradiated soil samples and soil suspensions (Bulina *et al.*, 1997; Terekhova, 2003).

Resistance of actinobacteial propagules to desiccation is usually accompanied by some degree of resistance to heat. The basis of this resistance is not clear but it is apparent that many actinobacterial spores (e.g., Micromonospora and Microtetraspora), spore vesicles (eg. Dactylosporangium and Streptosporangium) and hyphal fragments (e.g., *Rhodococcus*) are more resistant to heat than vegetative cells of other prokaryotes. Heat pretreatment procedures have been shown to be effective in the selective isolation of several actinobacterial taxa, as exemplified by the novel species of Actinomadura, Microbispora, Microteteraspora and Themomonospora on selective media inoculated with suspensions of air-dried soil that had been heated at either 100°C or 120°C before plating onto selective media (Nonomura & Ohara, 1969; Hayakawa et al., 1996). However, actinobacterial propagules are more sensitive to wet than dry heat hence much lower temperatures are used to isolate these organisms from suspensions of environmental samples. Rowbotham & Cross (1977) isolated Dactyosporangium and Thermomonospora strains from water and soil suspensions heated at either 55°C for 6 minutes or at 44°C for 80 minutes prior to plating onto isolation media. Similarly, Orchard & Goodfellow (1974) recommended the pre-treatment of 10^{-1} dilutions of soil at 55°C for 6 minutes as an improved way of isolating nocardiae. This heat pretreatment regime has been used to isolate what proved to be novel *Streptomyces* species from hay meadow soils (Atalan et al., 2000; Manfio et al., 2003). Heat-pretreatment procedures usually lead to a decrease in the ratio of bacteria to actinobacteria on selective isolation plates though counts of the latter may also be reduced (Williams et al., 1984).

Chemical pretreatments of mixed inocula are used to isolate specific actinobacterial taxa, notably members of genera classified in the family *Streptosporangiaceae* (Hayakawa *et al.*, 1988, 1991a, 1995; Yamamura *et al.*, 2003; Goodfellow, 2010). The selective chemical procedures introduced by Hayakawa and his colleagues are based on the differential ability of actinobacterial spores to withstand

treatment with chemical germicides, such as benzethonium chloride, chlorhexidine gluconate and phenol. Treatment with these agents for 30 minutes at 30° C kill vegetative cells of aerobic, endospore-forming bacilli and pseudomonads. The simultaneous use of more than one chemical germicide can further enhance selectivity, as exemplified by the use of chlorheximide gluconate and phenol for the isolation of *Microbispora* strains (Hayakawa *et al.*, 1991b).

Nutrient and baiting techniques have been used to increase the populations of specific fractions of actinobacterial communities in environmental samples to facilitate their isolation on selective isolation media. Amendments of soil with substrates such as chitin and keratin was first used by Jensen (1930) to boost the numbers of streptomycetes. The addition of these substrates led to an increase in the number of streptomycetes through amendment with chitin also led to an increase in the number of unwanted bacteria. The practise of amending environmental samples with substrates has fallen into neglect in recent times, but this approach does provide an effective way of enhancing specific components of actinobacterial communities in soil (Williams *et al.*, 1971; Nonomura &Takagi, 1977).

Selective isolation media. Numerous media have been recommended for the isolation of a diverse actinobacterial taxa from natural habitats and more specifically for selected families, genera and species (Kurtböke, 2003; Goodfellow, 2010; Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a). Most of the 'general'or 'non-selective' media were formulated without reference to either the nutritional or the tolerance preferences of the target organisms. It is now known that widely used'non-selective' media, such as colloidal chitin-mineral salts (Lingappa & Luckwood, 1962; Hsu & Lockwood, 1975) and starch-casein nitrate (Küster & Williams, 1964) agars tend to select for a relatively narrow range of *Streptomyces* species nor do they support the growth of actinobacteria that have different nutritional requirements (Williams *et al.*, 1984a).

Selective isolation media can be formulated in an objective way by drawing upon phenotypic data held in taxonomic databases (Goodfellow & Haynes, 1984; Williams &Vickers, 1988; Goodfellow, 2010). One of the early successes of this approach was the formulation of a medium selective for the isolation of the nocardiae from soil and water samples (Orchard *et al.*, 1977; Orchard & Goodfellow, 1980; Maldonado *et al.*, 2000). The discovery that Diagnostic Sensitivity Agar supplemented with tetracycline was selective for *Nocardia* species was based on information held in an antibiotic sensitivity database (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1989). An extension of this work was the visual scanning of phenotypic databases to highlight antibiotics that might form the basis of selective isolation media. The number of verticillate streptomycetes (formerly members of the genus *Streptoverticillium*), for example, was increased by reducing the number of competing neutrophilic streptomycetes by supplementing isolation media with neomycin and oxytetracycline (Hanka & Schaadt, 1988); verticillate streptomycetes were known to be resistant and other neutrophilic streptomycetes sensitive to these antibiotics (Williams *et al.*, 1985).

It is standard practice to control or eliminate fungal containmants by using antifungal antibiotics, such as cycloheximide, nystatin and pimaricin (Porter *et al.*, 1960; Gregory & Lacey, 1963; Williams & Davies, 1965). Similarly, penicillin G and polymixin B have been used to select actinobacteria from competing soil inhabiting bacteria (Nonomura & Ohara, 1960; Williams & Davies, 1965), as have nalidixic acid and trimethoprim (Hayakawa *et al.*, 1996). Antibacterial antibiotics are also widely used for the selective isolation of specific actinobacterial taxa (Goodfellow, 2010).

Incubation. Incubation conditions, including gaseous regimes, incubation times and temperature, contribute to selectivity. Incubation at 25 to 30°C favours mesophilic actinobacteria whereas their thermophilic counterparts require higher temperatures. Thermophilic species, such as *Pseudonocardia thermophila* and *Saccharopolyspora rectivirgula*, only require incubation for 2-3 days at 45 to 50°C. In contrast, incubation times up to 5 weeks may be required to isolate some genera, such as those classified in the families *Micromonosporaceae* and *Streptosporangiaceae* (Labeda & Shearer, 1990; Goodfellow, 2010). Members of commonly isolated genera, such as *Micromonospora*, *Nocardia* and *Streptomyces*, may be selected from isolation plates after incubation for 14 days.

Colony selection and dereplication. The selection of actinobacterial colonies on selective isolation plates is a time-consuming and fairly subjective stage in isolation procedures. Colonies can be selected randomly or with some degree of choice. When selective isolation media are used the target organism(s) can sometimes be provisionally assigned to genera either on the basis of colony morphology or by examining colonies for distinctive morphological features, such as the presence of spore vesicles and the nature of spore chains, using a long working distance objective. However, it is not usually possible to distinguish between species of the same actinobacterial genus on selective isolation plates. In such instances, the selection of large numbers of colonies is

laborious and can lead to duplication of strains and hence effort, especially in low throughput screening systems. This problem can be overcome by a rapid grouping of isolates based on colonial characteristics and molecular fingerprinting patterns (Tan *et al.*, 2006; Antony-Babu *et al.*, 2008).

A practical and reliable way of dereplicating streptomycetes was introduced by Williams *et al.* (1969) who assigned large numbers of soil streptomycetes to groups based on aerial spore mass, substrate mycelial and diffusible pigment colours produced on oatmeal agar, and on their ability to form melanin pigments on yeast extract-malt extract-iron agar. Colour-groups were subsequently shown to reflect the extent of the taxonomic diversity of streptomycetes in rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils (Williams & Vickers, 1988; Atalan *et al.*, 2000; Sembiring *et al.*, 2000), as representatives of such groups were found to belong to either validly named or novel *Streptomyces* species or species-groups based on computer-assisted identification (Williams & Vickers, 1988; Atalan *et al.*, 2000) and polyphasic taxonomy (Manfio *et al.*, 2003; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2007).

The classification of streptomycetes into colour-groups has been used to gain an insight into the taxonomic diversity of these micro-organisms in a beach and sand dune system (Antony-Babu & Goodfellow, 2008), in marine sediments (Goodfellow & Haynes, 1984; Pathom-aree *et al.*, 2006) and arid desert soils (Okoro *et al.*, 2009), and thereby to the selection of representative isolates for screening assays (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010). A reasonable linear correlation has been found between streptomycete colour-groups and corresponding *rep*-PCR data (Antony-Babu *et al.*, 2010).

Recognition of novel taxa. The classification of representatives of dereplicated groups of actinobacteria can be achieved using a two stage procedure. Reliable methods are used to assign representative strains to higher taxonomic ranks (eg. genera, families and orders) prior to the choice of diagnostic tests for the recognition of new or validly named species. The first objective can be achieved by comparing the almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences of the representative isolates with those of their nearest phylogenetic neighbours using appropriate databases and software (Felis *et al.*, 2010; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Ludwig *et al.*, 2011, 2012) and chemotaxonomic and morphological data (The Society of Actinomycetes Japan, 2001; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012b). The second stage, the classification of representatives to validly named new species can be done by using combinations of phenotypic properties with or without associated DDH assays, as exemplified by the circumscription of novel *Amycolatopsis* (Zucchi *et al.*, 2012; Camas

et al., 2013), Modestobacter (Xiao et al., 2011; Qin et al., 2013) and Streptomyces species (Promnuan et al., 2013; Ray et al., 2013).

1.6. Extreme habitats as a source of novel actinobacteria

Pioneering ecological studies undertaken by Williams and his colledgues showed that the presence, distribution, numbers and kinds of actinobacteria in natural habitats were influenced by key environmental factors, such as aeration, pH, temperature and availability of organic matter and water (Williams et al., 1971, 1972; Goodfellow & Williams, 1988). These observations meant that the chance of isolating novel actinobacteria is dependent on the nature of environmental samples, as shown by the selective isolation of acidiphilic and acidotolerent actinobacteria from acid forest soils (Khan & Williams, 1975; Kim et al., 2003; ; Golinska et al., 2013a, b, c) and alkaliphilic streptomycetes from beach and sand dune soils (Antony-Babu et al., 2008). The realisation that novel actinobacteria were present in such neglected habitats induced a shift towards the isolation, classification and screening of actinobacteria from extreme habitats on the premise that harsh environmental parameters would give rise to a unique actinobacterial diversity that would be the basis of a novel chemistry (Ward & Goodfellow, 2004; Bull, 2011). Strong support for this proposition has come from bioprospecting studies on filamentous actinobacteria isolated from marine habitats (Fiedler et al., 2005; Bull & Stach, 2005; Jensen, 2010; Zotchev 2012; Manivasagan et al., 2013).

Actinobacteria from desert soils. It is surprising that so little attention has been paid to the actinobacterial composition of desert soils as deserts account for about a quarter of the earth's landmass. Most deserts lie in two areas parallel to the equator, at $25^{\circ}-35^{\circ}$ latitude in the northern and southern hemispheres. The desert biome can be defined on the basis of climate, as the sum of all the arid and hyper-arid areas on the planet, biologically as ecoregions that contain organisms adapted for survival in arid environments, and physically as regions with large areas of bare soil, regolith or rock and low vegetation cover. Desert landscapes are diverse, some are found on ancient crystalline rock hardened over millions of years to give flat deserts of rock and sand, as in the Sahara desert, while others are the folded product of more recent tectonic movements and have evolved into crumpled rocky mountains emerging from lowland sedimentary plains, as in Central Asia, North and South America. Life is continuously

under stress by abiotic factors in the desert biome, amongst them desiccation, temperature fluctuations, lack of organic matter and intense solar radiation. Low moisture content and water activity, in particular, limit microbial growth, abundance and diversity in hyper-arid deserts (Skujins, 1984; Kieft, 2002).

Actinobacteria have been isolated from desert soils, including from the Amargosa desert in Nevada (Luedemann, 1968), the Mojave desert in southwest United States (Garrity et al., 1996), the Mongolian desert (Jadambaa, 2000; Kurapova et al., 2012), the Namibian desert (Wink et al., 2003), the Sahara desert (Hozzein et al., 2004; Zitouni et al., 2005; Meklat et al., 2011), the Taklamakan desert in Xinjiang province, China (Luo et al., 2012), the Thar desert in Rajastan, India (Harwani, 2013) and the desert ecosystem in the northeast of the Qinghai-Tibet plateau (Ding et al., 2012). In general, very few actinobacteria have been isolated from such desert soils but most of these that have being assigned to rare genera such as Actinomadura, Actinoplanes, Dactylosporangium, Geodermatophilus, Microbispora, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Saccharothrix and Saccharopolyspora, as well as to the genus Streptomyces. Some desert isolates have been validly named as new genera, such as Geodermatophilus (Luedemann, 1968) and Yuhushiella (Mao et al., 2010) and others as new species, as exemplified by Corynebacterium deserti (Zhou et al., 2012), Geodermatophilus normandii (Montero-Calasanz et al., 2013) and Mycetocola manganoxydans (Luo et al., 2012). In contrast, relatively large numbers of *Amycolatopsis* strains have been isolated from arid Australian soils (Tan, et al., 2006), including some classified to new species, such as Amycolatopsis granulosa, Amycolaopsis ruanii and Amycolatopsis thermalba (Zucchi et al., 2012).

The Atacama Desert. This temperate desert in northern Chile stretches for ~1000 kilometers along the coast of Chile in Regions II (Región de Antofagasta) and III (Región de Atacama) but is only between 100 and 200 kilometers wide. The core zone of hyper-aridity extends from 15° to 30° S at elevations from sea level to 3500 m (Houston & Hartley, 2003). The Atacama Desert is considered to be the oldest and driest desert on the planet having evolved over 100 million years of aridity and 15 million years of hyper-aridity (Hartley *et al.*, 2005; Gomez-Silva *et al.*, 2008).

Most Atacama Desert soils and regoliths are hyper-arid, that is, as stated earlier the ratio of mean annual rainfall to mean annual evaporation is 0.05%, the corresponding ratio for extreme hyper-arid soils is 0.002%. The availability of liquid water and high UV radiation are considered to be the key environmental factors governing microbial colonisation in Atacama Desert soils (Bhatnagar & Bhatnagar, 2005; Paulino-Lima *et al.*, 2013). The harshness of this environment is compounded by very low concentrations of organic carbon, presence of inorganic oxidants and in some areas by high salinity. The harsh conditions found in the Atacama Desert are considered by astrobiologists to provide on accurate analogue of the prevailing conditions on Mars (McKay *et al.*, 2003; Navarro-González *et al.*, 2003; Azura-Bustos *et al.*, 2013).



Figure 1.3. Map of Atacama Desert showing the location of the Salar de Atacama and Yungay regions (adapted from Costello *et al.*, 2009).



Figure 1.4. Cross-section of Atacama Desert region, near Antofagasta, Chile (adapted from Gómez-Silva *et al.*, 2008).

Extreme hyper-arid soils in the Atacama Desert occur from approximately 22° S to 26° S between the Coastal Mountains to the west (~1000-3000m) and the western
Andes Cordillera including the Domeyko Mountains to the east (~4000 m high), and are prominent in the Yungay region (Figure 1.3). This region receives negligible rainfall, below 1 mm year⁻¹ in some areas (McKay *et al.*, 2003). Moisture is provided principally by intermittent fogs entering the Desert from the coast. The Yungay region, which lies within this area, is considered to be the driest part of the desert thereby providing a promising setting to determine the presence of actinobacteria in conditions of extreme hyper-aridity. In contrast, arid and hyper-arid soils are found around the Salar de Atacama (Figure 1.3); this is largest salt flat in Chile (ca. 3000 km²) is bordered by the Cordellera de Domekyo to the west and the Andes to the east (Figure 1.4). The salar is fed by small inflowing rivers from the Andes, but the only outlet for the area is through very high evaporation rates. The Laguna de Chaxa, a product of underground rivers, lies within the Salar de Atacama. Other interesting habitats in the Atacama Desert have been considered by Bull and Asenjo (2013).

Culture-dependent and culture-independent surveys of Atacama Desert soils reveal the presence of small, but taxonomically varied microbial communities (Lester et al., 2007; Gómez-Silva et al., 2008; Bull & Asenjo, 2013; Paulino-Lima et al., 2013) thereby indicating that micro-organisms can withstand the extremes of a aridity that prevent the growth of plants. Drees et al. (2006) sampled subsurface soils across an east-west transect of the Atacama Desert and grew bacteria from all but one of the samples. Molecular profiling using denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) highlighted an unique microbial community in hyper-arid soils dominated by the phyla Gammatimonadetes and Planctomycetes. However, other culture-independent studies of hyper-arid soils from in and around the Yungay region were found to be dominated by actinobacteria (Demergasso et al., 2007; Connon et al., 2007; Lester et al., 2007). Demergasso and her coworkers also have explored microbial communities in the subsurface. A drilling project near the Salar de Grande (Region I, Región de Tarapacá, north of Antofagasta) revealed a microbial habitat at a depth of 2 m that was characterised by abundant hygroscopic salts that allowed deliquescence to occur at low relative humidities and hence microbial colonisation. Actinobacteria were among the bacteria detected in this habitat by means of a multi-signal molecular chip (Parro *et al.*, 2010). In sharp contrast, culture-independent studies of high altitude wetlands from the Chilean Altiplano based on 16S rRNA phylotypes showed that the bacterial communities of these systems were dominated by Bacteroidetes and Proteobacteria (Dorador et al., 2009). DGGE analyses of hypersaline environments were found to be dominated by archaea, cyanobacteria and heterotrophic bacteria (De los Ríos *et al.*, 2010).

Okoro et al. (2009) were the first to study the diversity of culturable actinobacteria in Atacama Desert soils. The use of standard selective isolation procedures allowed them to detect small populations of filamentous actinobacteria in arid, hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid soil samples; in some cases actinobacteria were the only bacteria to be isolated, a result in good agreement with some of the cultureindependent studies (Lester et al., 2007; Neilson et al., 2012). Phylogenetic analyses and associated phenotypic tests showed that the isolates belonged to putatively novel Amycolatopsis, Lechevalieria and Streptomyces species. Subsequent polyphasic taxonomic studies showed that the Lechevalieria isolates belonged to three new species (Okoro *et al.*, 2010), as did four of the *Streptomyces* isolates (Santhanam *et al.*, 2012a, b; 2013; Busarakam et al., 2014). The results of these and an associated study (Schulz et al., 2011) support the view that Atacama Desert soils are a largely unexplored source of novel actinobacteria, some of which have been shown to synthesis novel bioactive compounds (Nachtigall et al., 2011; Rateb et al., 2011a, b; Schulz et al., 2011).

1.7. Screening for bioactive compounds

The initial steps in the culture-dependent bioprospecting strategy described by Goodfellow and Fiedler (2010) are based on the selective isolation of novel actinobacteria from neglected habitats and the selection of representative dereplicated isolates for screening. It has been shown that these steps are highly dependent on developments in actinobacterial systematics and are based partly on the hypothesis that taxonomic diversity remains a surrogate for chemical diversity (Ward & Goodfellow, 2004; Bull & Stach, 2007; Jensen, 2010) and partly on the concept that novel species may synthesis unique bioactive compounds as the evolution of specialised metabolites may be a driver of speciation (Czaran *et al.*, 2002; Jensen, 2010). The remaining steps in the taxonomic approach to drug discovery involve the expression and detection of bioactive compounds from representatives of dereplicated groups grown on appropriated production media, the detection of chemical novelty using appropriate analytical chemical procedures and structural analyses of interesting leads. Numerous assays have been developed for the detection of antimicrobial, antiparasitic and antitumour metabolites (Fiedler, 2004; Singh *et al.*, 2007; Donadio & Sosio, 2010).

30

Production media. It is good practice to grow dereplicated isolates on a range of production media (Fielder, 1994; Theobald et al., 2000), not least because such media can have an enormous impact on the expression of actinobacterial biosynthetic gene clusters. Goodfellow and Fiedler (2010) recommended several media formulations which they considered suitable for the production of specialised metabolites from taxonomically different actinobacteria (see Table 1.2). Media 410, which has a high concentration of carbon and nitrogen, supports the growth of most actinobacteria, notably strains classified in the order Corynebacteriales. This medium is not, however, suitable for the production of specialised metabolites from streptomycetes or streptosporangiae even though they grow well on it. In contrast, media 19, 400, OM and SGG induce the synthesis of novel drug candidates from Streptomyces strains; members of the family *Micromonosporaceae* are best grown on media 333, MMM and SGG. These observations, while somewhat empirical, do help press the point that the success of screening campaigns for specialised metabolites are highly dependent on accurate classification of novel dereplication isolates, as exemplified the production of novel antibiotics from *Streptomyces* strain C34^T which was isolated from the Salar de Atacama region of the Atacama Desert (Rateb et al., 2011b).

Medium	19	333	400	410	MMM	ОМ	SGG
Glucose	-	5	10	10	10	-	10
Glycerol	-	-	-	10	10	-	10
Mannitol	20	-	-	15	-	-	-
Casamino acid	-	-	-	15	-	-	-
Casitone	-	-	-	-	-	5	-
Cornsteep powder	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.5
Meat extract	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
Oatmeal	-	-	-	5	-	20	-
Peptone	20	3	3	10	-	-	5
Soluble starch	-	10	20	-	20	-	10
Yeast extract	-	3	5	5	5	-	2
CaCO ₃	-	2	3	1	1	-	3

Table 1.2. Media suitable for submerged cultivation of actinobacteria (g/l) (taken from Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010).

NaCl	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
NH ₄ NO ₃	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
pH	7.5	7.2	7.0	7.0	7.6	7.3	7.3
C content (g/l)	13.8	10.5	12.7	13.4	12.5	5.2	14.0
C:N ratio	6.3:1	6.05:1	11.3:1	3.5:1	12.5:1	15:1	15.4

Primary antibiotic screening of actinomycetes is usually achieved against a panel of Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria (Baltz, 2007; Urban *et al.*, 2007) and yeasts. Genetically engineered *Escherichia coli* K-12 strains can be used to exclude the rediscovery of the most broad-spectrum antibiotics as they contain genes that confer resistance against antibiotics such as ampicillin, chloramphenicol, streptomycin and tetracycline (Baltz, 2007). Agar plug assays are widely used to establish whether dereplicated isolates show bioactivity against such strains (Fiedler, 2004). There are several variants to this approach, one of which is to take plugs of actinobacterial strains grown on production media and place them on the surface of agar plate supporting the growth of the panel of wild type organisms then recording zones of inhibition after overnight incubation. Alternatively, culture filtrates or organic extracts of actinobacterial mycelia may be spotted onto plates supporting the growth of the microorganisms and zones of inhibition recorded following incubation.

Dereplicated isolates showing activity in the primary screens can be selected for secondary screens designed to detect the target sites of the agents of bioactivity (Fiedler *et al.*, 2004). This approach can be based on mutant strains that carry reporters, such as β -galactosidase or luciferase genes, fixed to promoters that specifically respond to certain types of antibiotics which trigger the promoter resulting in the expression of the reporter gene. The product of β -galactosidase, for instance, leads to X-gal being cleaved to galactose and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-hydroxyindole (Figure 1.5); the production of an insoluble blue pigment (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-hydroxyindole) shows that the antibiotic is repressing the target pathway. Hütter *et al.* (2004) generated several *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains and used them to detect inhibitors of cell walls, DNA, fatty acids and protein biosynthesis. Similarly, Fiedler *et al.* (2004) used fatty acid biosynthesis pathway (FAS)-specific *B. subtilis* reporter strains against several antibiotics and identified two known FAS inhibitors, cerulenin and triclosan.

Another strategy that is increasingly being used to increase the sensitivily of screening assays is based upon antisense technology (Genilloud, 2014). This approach

involves a reduction in the level of the desired bacterial target by inducing the overexpression of the cognate antisense mRNA leading to the generation of strains that are hypersensitive to compounds which inhibit that target hence the probability of finding the inhibitor of that target as an antibacterial compound is significantly increased (Singh *et al.*, 2007). This approach has led to the discovery of several potent antibiotics, including platensimycin (Wang *et al.*, 2006) and platencin (Wang *et al.*, 2007) from *Streptomyces platensis*.



Figure 1.5. Cleavage of 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactoside (X-gal) to β -D-galactose and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-hydroxyindole (Blue compound). Adapted from Voet & Voet (2011).

Chapter 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling sites

Source of environment samples. Environmental samples were collected from two locations in the Atacama Desert by Professor A.T. Bull (School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, UK.), namely the Laguna de Chaxa, Salar de Atacama, near Tocanao and the Yungay region, quite near Antofagasta (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Environmental conditions at sampling sites.

			1			1
Location	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation	Date	Biome	MAR/MAE*
		C				
			(m asl)			
Laguna de	23°17'S	68°10'W	2,300	4-10-2004	Salt flat	0.009
CI					1	
Chaxa,					hyper-	
G 1 1					• 1	
Salar de					arid	
Atacama						
N7	2 (00 (110 (1)	5 0001355 (3)	1022	10.11	T (0.000
Yungay	24°06′18.6″	/0°01/55.6	1033	13-11-	Extreme	0.002
				2010	1	
				2010	nyper-	
					• 1 • 1	
					arid soil	

*MAR, mean average rainfall; MAE, mean average evaporation. Ratio estimated from data provided by Houston (2006).

2.2. Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples

pH. The pH of the environmental samples were determined using the procedure described by Reed and Cummings (1945). Deionised water was added to two grams of each environmental sample until a thin layer of water was visible on the surface of the samples, the latter were mixed thoroughly and left for two hours at room temperature. The pH of each sample was determined, in triplicate, using a glass electrode pH meter (Model 320 Mettler-Toledo AG, CH.8603, Schwerzenbach, Switzerland).

Moisture and organic matter content. The percentage moisture content of the environmental samples were determined, in triplicate, by drying known amounts of the

samples to constant weight at 105°C then calculating the average loss in weight between each set of samples. The dried samples were placed in a muffle furnace (Carbolite, Sheffield, UK), the temperature raised slowly to 700°C and kept constant for 30 minutes to burn off any organic matter. After cooling overnight in a desiccator, the average loss in weight for each set of samples was recorded as the organic matter content.

2.3. Selective isolation, enumeration and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated from Atacama Desert environmental samples

Selective isolation and enumeration. Suspensions from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples were prepared in 1/4 strength Ringer's solution (Oxoid, UK) to give $10^{-1/2}$ dilutions which were shaken on a tumble shaker (TMI Tumbler, Luckham Ltd., Sussex, UK) for 30 minutes, heat-pretreated at 55°C for 6 minutes and 10^{-1} and 10^{-2} dilutions prepared in $\frac{1}{4}$ strength Ringer's solution. Aliquots (100 µl) of the various dilutions were spread over plates of several selective isolation media (Table 3.1) which had been dried for 15 minutes at room temperature prior to inoculation (Vickers & Williams, 1987). Three replicate plates were prepared for each dilution and for each of the isolation media. After incubation at 28° C for 3 weeks, the number of actinobacteria growing on the isolation plates were counted and the results expressed as the number of colony forming units (cfu) per gram dry weight of environmental sample.

	Selective agents		
Media	$(\mu g m l^{-1})$	Target organism(s)	
Gause's No.1 agar (Zakharova <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	Nalidixic acid (10)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria	
Geodermatophilus obscurus agar (Uchida &Seino, 1997)	Nystatin (25)	Geodermatophilus spp.	
Glucose-yeast extract agar (Athalye <i>et al.</i> , 1981)	Rifampicin (20)	Actinomadura spp.	
HV agar (Hayakawa & Nonomura, 1987)	Humic acid $(1g L^{-1})$	Streptosporangiaceae spp.	
Luedemann's agar (Luedemann, 1971)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.	

Table 2.2. Media used for the selective isolation of actinobacteria from the Atacama

 Desert environmental samples.

<i>Microlunatus</i> agar (Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.
Oligotrophic agar (Senechkin <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Low carbon and nitrogen content	Rare and uncommon actinobacteria
R2A (Reasoner & Geldreich, 1985)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.
Starch-casein agar (Küster & Williams, 1964)	Nystatin (25)	Streptomyces spp.
SM1 (Tan et al., 2006)	Neomycin (1) and nystatin (25)	Amycolatopsis spp.

All of the media were supplemented with cycloheximide ($25 \ \mu g \ ml^{-1}$).

2.4. Selection, maintenance and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples

Four hundred and twenty strains randomly chosen from the selective isolation plates were subcultured onto glucose-yeast extract-malt extract agar plates (ISP2, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and incubated at 28°C for 14 days. Three hundred and fifteen of the strains were taken from isolation plates inoculated with suspensions of the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and 105 from the isolation plates seeded with the suspensions of the environmental sample taken from the Yungay region. The isolates considered to belong to the genus *Streptomyces* were recognised by their ability to produce leathery colonies covered by an abundant aerial spore mass while *Geodermatophilaceae* colonies were recognised by their characteristic shiny black colony. In contrast, isolates producing leathery colonies covered by little or no aerial hyphae were considered to belong to other filamentous actinobacterial groups.

Maintenance of strains. All of the isolates were grown on oatmeal (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and modified Bennett's agar plates (Jones, 1949) at 28° C for 3 weeks. Suspensions of spores and mycelial fragments from each of the incubated plates were suspended in 1 ml aliquots of 20%, v/v glycerol (2 vials per strain per medium) in cryotubes, one culture prepared from each medium was kept at -80°C for long-term preservation, the others, the working cultures, were kept at -20°C.

Assignment to colour-groups. The presumptive streptomycete and non-streptomycete strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples were subcultured onto oatmeal agar (ISP medium 3, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1996) and peptone-yeast extract agar plates (PYEIA, ISP medium 6, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and incubated at 28°C for 14 days and 4 days, respectively. The isolates were assigned to colour-groups based on aerial spore mass, substrate mycelial and diffusible pigment colours produced on the oatmeal agar plates, using National Bureau of Standards (NBS) Colour Name Charts (Kelly, 1958), and their ability to produce melanin pigments on the peptone-yeast extract-iron agar plates. The strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample were assigned to 49 multi-membered and 23 single-membered colour-groups; the corresponding numbers for the strains isolated from the Yungay environmental sample were 20 and 13, respectively (Appendix 1). The codes assigned to the strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples include reference to the media they were isolated on and the colour-groups to which they were assigned (Tables 2.3 and 2.4).



Figure 2.1. Colour-grouping of actinobacteria on oatmeal agar (ISP3 medium).

Table 2.3. Selected actinobacteria isolated from the hyper-arid environmental sample from Chaxa de Laguna, Salar de Atacama of the Atacama Desert and assigned to single-and multi-membered colour-groups.

Actinobacteria	Codes
Presumptive streptor	nycetes
Multi-membered	C34, C38, C58, C59, C79, KNN1-1a*, KNN1-2c, KNN1-3b, KNN1-5f; KNN2-1b*,
colour-groups	KNN2-2c, KNN2-3c, KNN2-4c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-6c, KNN2-7d, KNN2-8b, KNN2-9d,
0	KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN2-12d, KNN2-13a, KNN2-14c, KNN2-15a, KNN2-16c,
	KNN2-17d, KNN2-18c, KNN3-1b*, KNN3-2b, KNN3-3c, KNN3-4b, KNN3-5c, KNN3-
	6c, KNN3-7c, KNN3-8c, KNN3-9c, KNN3-10e, KNN3-14d, KNN3-15d, KNN3-16d,
	KNN3-17d, KNN3-18d, KNN3-19b, KNN4-1b*, KNN4-2e, KNN4-3b, KNN4-4a;
	KNN5-1a*, KNN5-2a, KNN5-3c, KNN5-4c, KNN5-5a, KNN5-6a, KNN5-7a, KNN5-8b,
	KNN5-9b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-15b, KNN5-16d, KNN5-17d,
	KNN5-18d, KNN5-19d, KNN5-20d, KNN5-25b, KNN5-28c, KNN5-29b, KNN5-30d,
	KNN5-31e; KNN6-1a*, KNN6-2a, KNN6-3a, KNN6-4a, KNN6-5a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-
	7d, KNN6-8d, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a; KNN8-1b*, KNN8-2b, KNN8-3a,
	KNN8-4b, KNN8-5d, KNN8-6b, KNN8-7a, KNN8-8a, KNN8-9a, KNN8-10c, KNN8-
	11e, KNN9-1a*, KNN9-2e, KNN9-3a, KNN10-1a*, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-
	4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-2a, KNN11-3c, KNN11-4b, KNN11-5a, KNN11-
	6b, KNN14-1f*, KNN14-2c, KNN14-3e, KNN16-1*, KNN16-2, KNN17-1c*, KNN17-
	2b; KNN18-1b*, KNN18-2c, KNN18-3d, KNN24-1b*, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-
	4c, KNN24-5c, KNN24-6a, KNN24-7c, KNN24-8e, KNN29-1a*, KNN32-1a*, KNN32-
	2b, KNN35-1b*, KNN35-2b; KNN36-1*c, KNN36-2c, KNN36-3c; KNN37-1e*,
	KNN37-2a KNN37-3a, KNN37-4a, KNN38-1b*, KNN38-2d, KNN38-3d, KNN38-4a,
	KNN38-5b, KNN41-1b*, KNN41-2a, KNN48-1c*, KNN48-2a, KNN48-3e, KNN48-4e,
	KNN48-5e, KNN52-1c*, KNN52-2b, KNN52-3b, KNN54-1b*, KNN54-2b, KNN58-
	1b*, KNN58-2c, KNN60-1c*, KNN60-2d, KNN63-1b*, KNN63-2b, KNN63-3b,
	KNN63-4b, KNN63-5a, KNN63-6b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-8d, KNN63-9d, KNN63-10d,
	KNN63-11b, KNN63-12b, KNN63-13b, KNN63-14b, KNN63-15b, KNN63-16b,
	KNN63-17b, KNN63-18b, KNN63-19e, KNN64-1a*, KNN64-2a, KNN64-3a, KNN64-
	4b, KNN64-5b, KNN64-6b; KNN65-1f*, KNN65-2a, KNN65-3c, KNN65-4c, KNN65-
	5d, KNN67-1b*, KNN67-2b, KNN67-3b, KNN67-4b, KNN68-1b*, KNN68-2b,
	KNN68-3b, KNN68-4b, KNN69-1e*, KNN69-2a, KNN69-3a, KNN71-1a*, KNN71-2a,
	KNN73-1a*, KNN73-2a, KNN73-3d, KNN74-1c*, KNN74-2c, KNN75-1c*, KNN75-
	2b, KNN75-3b, KNN75-4b, KNN78-1e*, KNN78-2e, KNN79-1b*, KNN79-2b, KNN79-
	3d; KNN80-1c*, KNN80-2d, KNN81-1c*, KNN81-2b, KNN81-3d, KNN82-1a*,
	KNN82-2c, KNN85-1f*, KNN85-2b, KNN85-3b, KNN85-4c, KNN85-5c, KNN85-6c,
	KNN85-7c, KNN85-8a
Single-membered	KNN25c*, KNN26b* KNN27a*, KNN28a*, KNN30a*, KNN31d*, KNN33a*.
colour groups	KNN39c*, KNN43b*, KNN51b*, KNN56a*, KNN59e*, KNN62b*, KNN66*,

KNN70b*, KNN72a*, KNN76b*, KNN83e*, KNN84c*, KNN87b*, KNN94e*

Presumptive non-streptomycetes

Multi-membered GY024, GY142, KNN49-1f*, KNN49-2e, KNN49-3e, KNN49-4e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-

 colour-groups
 6a, KNN49-7c, KNN49-8c, KNN49-9c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-14b, KNN49-15b, KNN49-16c, KNN49-17b, KNN49-18b, KNN49-19a, KNN49-20b, KNN49-21c, KNN49-22d, KNN49-23d, KNN49-24d, KNN49-25d, KNN49-26a, KNN49-27a, KNN49-28a, KNN49-29a, KNN49-30b, KNN49-31b, KNN49-32b, KNN50-1a*, KNN50-2e, KNN50-3c, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-1a*, KNN50-2e, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14d, KNN50-15d, KNN50-10e, KNN50-17d KNN50-8d, KNN53-1a*, KNN53-2a, KNN53-3a, KNN54-1a*, KNN54-2b, KNN57-1b*, KNN57-2b, KNN61-1e*, KNN61-2a, KNN61-3e, KNN61-4e, KNN61-5e, KNN61-6b

Single-membered KNN34a*, KNN77b*

colour-groups

Code exemplified by strain KNN2-1b, this organism was isolated by Kanungnid Busarakam (KNN), assigned to colour-group 2 as the first member of group and was isolated on a humic acid-vitamin agar isolation plate. C-coded strains were studied by Okoro et al who isolated them from hyper-arid soil from the Salar de Atacama region of the Atacama Desert. The GY-coded strains were isolated from an arid Australian composite soil by Tan *et al.* (2006).

Codes for isolation media : (a), Gause No.1 agar; (b), HVA: Humic acid-vitamin agar; (c), Oligotrophic agar; (d), minimal medium agar; (e), SM1 agar; (f) and starch-casein agar; (g) *Geodermatophilus obscurus* agar.

*Representative of colour-groups used to detect isomers of diaminopimelic acid.

Table 2.4. Selected actinobacteria isolated from the extreme hyper-arid environmental

 sample from Yungay region and assigned to single- and multi-membered colour-groups.

Actinobacteria	Codes
Presumptive strepton	nycetes
Multi-membered	KNN12-1a*, KNN12-2a, KNN15-1a*, KNN15-2a, KNN16-2c, KNN19-1b*, KNN19-2c,
colour-groups	KNN23-1a*, KNN23-2a, KNN29-2a, KNN29-3a, KNN48-7d, KNN48-8d, KNN48-9d,
• •	KNN48-10d, KNN48-11b, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-14a, KNN48-15a, KNN48-
	16c, KNN48-17c, KNN48-18c, KNN48-19c, KNN48-20c, KNN77-1a*, KNN77-2a,
	KNN77-3a, KNN77-4a, KNN77-5a, KNN77-6a, KNN86-1b*, KNN86-2b, KNN86-3b,
	KNN86-4b, KNN86-5c, KNN86-6a, KNN88-1a*, KNN88-2b, KNN88-3b, KNN88-4a,
	KNN91-1a*, KNN91-2b, KNN91-3b, KNN91-4a, KNN91-5a, KNN91-6a, KNN92-1b*,
	KNN92-2b, KNN92-3b, KNN92-4a, KNN92-5a, KNN92-6a, KNN92-7a, KNN93-1a*,
	KNN93-2a, KNN93-4a, KNN 93-5a, KNN95-1f*, KNN95-2f, KNN95-3f, KNN95-4f,
	KNN95-5f, KNN95-6f, KNN95-7f
Single-membered	KNN13a*; KNN20c*, KNN21a*; KNN22a*; KNN40a*; KNN42a*, KNN51b*; KNN89b*,
colour-groups	KNN90b*; KNN96b*; KNN97b*; KNN98b*
Presumptive non-stre	ptomycetes
Multi-membered	KNN7-1b*, KNN7-2b, KNN7-3b, KNN7-4b, KNN23-1a*, KNN23-2a, KNN44-1b*,
colour-groups	KNN44-2a, KNN44-3a, KNN44-4c, KNN45-1b, KNN45-2a, KNN45-3b*, KNN45-4b,
	KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b*, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5a, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7g,

Single-membered KNN47* colour-group

Codes as for Table 2.3.

Detection of diaminopimelic acid isomers. Ninety eight strains representing each of the colour-groups (Tables 3.2 and 3.3) were examined for diaminopimelic acid (A_2pm) isomers using the procedure described by Hasegawa et al. (1983). One to two loopfuls of biomass scraped from strains grown on ISP2 agar plates (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1960) at 28°C for 14 days were transferred to cryotubes containing 6N HCl, the preparations autoclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes, left to cool at room temperature, centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 4 minutes and then stored at 4°C until required. The A₂pm isomers were separated by one-dimensional thin-layer-chromatography (TLC) on aluminium-backed sheets (20 x 20 cm diameter; No.5716, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). A pencil line was drawn 1 cm above the bottom of the TLC sheets and 3 μ l of each of the hydrolysates spotted, 1 µl at a time, onto the sheets followed by drying using a hair drier to prevent the spots spreading. A 1 µl preparation, which contained a mixture of 0.01 M LL- and *meso*-A₂pm (Sigma), was used as a standard on each of the prepared sheets. The latter were developed in glass tanks containing the solvent system (32 methanol: 10.4 sterilised distilled water: 1.6 6N HCl : 4 pyridine, v/v) for 4-5 hours, that is, until the solvent front was 1 cm from the top of the sheets. The chromatograms were air-dried, sprayed with 2% (w/v) ninhydrin in acetone and heated at 100°C for 5 minutes. The isomers of A₂pm appeared as dark purple to brown spots that had a lower retention factor (R_f) than other amino acids, the latter gave blue to purple coloured spots. The A₂pm isomers of the test strains were identified by comparison with the standard mixture. The R_f values of the A₂pm isomers run in the order: 3-hydroxy-A₂pm, meso- A_2 pm and *LL*- A_2 pm (from lowest to highest).

2.5. Comparative 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies

Ninety eight isolates were taken to represent multi- and single-membered colour-groups were the subject of 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies to determine whether they belonged to known or putatively novel taxa. The 42 isolates found to contain *LL*-A₂pm in whole-organism hydrolysates were considered to belong to the genus *Streptomyces*,

the remainder, which contained *meso*- A_2 pm, were considered to belong to other actinobacterial genera (Table 2.5).

Extraction of genomic DNA: Bead beating method. Total genomic DNA was extracted from the 98 representative isolates. Three grams of acid washed sterile glass beads (0.1 mm in diameter, Sigma) were added to one to two loopfuls of biomass of each of the isolates grown on yeast extract-malt extract agar plates (ISP medium 2, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and the resultant preparations treated for 30 seconds at 5.5 m/s in a FastPrep® (Thermo Lab Systems, Waltham, USA), a process that was repeated twice prior to the mixtures being centrifuged at 13000 rpm for 2 minutes. DNA was precipitated from the preparations by adding 400 μ l of cold 100% ethanol suspended in 100 μ l of 1x TE buffer (pH8) and quantified using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, USA).The supernatants containing the extracted DNA were transferred to new tubes and kept at -20°C until required.

Table 2.5. Actinobacteria taken to represent multi-membered and single-membered

 colour-groups examined in the comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence studies.

A. Representative isolates from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample

Multi-membered colour-groups:

C34^o, C38^o, C58^o, C59^o, C79^o, GY024^T, GY142^T, KNN2-4c, KNN2-6c, KNN4-1b, KNN4-4a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a, KNN9-1a, KNN9-2c, KNN10-4a, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-5a, KNN24-1b, KNN32-1a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b, KNN41-1b, KNN48-1e, KNN48-3e, KNN48-6d, KNN49-1h, KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-26a, KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14a, KNN50-15a, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d, KNN50-18d, KNN53-1a, KNN53-3a, KNN54-1a, KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b, KNN61-1a, KNN64-5b, KNN82-2c, KNN83e, KNN88-1c

Single-membered colour groups:

KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN34c, KNN56a, KNN70b, KNN87b, KNN94e

B. Representative isolates from the Yungay environmental sample

Multi-membered colour-groups:

KNN7-2b, KNN23-1b, KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b, KNN44-4b, KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c, KNN46-10g, KNN46-11f, KNN55-1b, KNN55-2b

Single-membered colour-groups:

KNN13a, KNN22a, KNN42f, KNN47b, KNN51b, KNN70b, KNN89a, KNN90a

^oStrains isolated by Okoro *et al.* (2009) and ^Tstrains isolated by Tan *et al.* (2006).

Quality of extracted DNA. The quality of the DNA products was checked by agarose gel electrophoresis (1%, w/v agarose in 0.5xTBE, 40 minutes at 110 V). The gels were stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 μ g/ml) and loaded with 4 μ l of crude DNA mixed with 2 μ l of loading dye (0.5 μ g/ μ l, Sigma) (Sambrook, 1989). The sizes of the DNA fragments were compared with 100 bp molecular size markers (Gene RulerTM MBI Fermentas, Vilnius, Lithuania). After electrophoresis, the gels were visualised and photographs taken using a BioRadTM Multimager UV transilluminator.

PCR amplification of 16S rRNA gene preparations. One to two µl of each crude DNA product was used as DNA template in a 25 µl polymerase chain reaction (PCR) which contained 1x buffer (10x buffer: 160 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 670 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.8 at 25°C], 0.1% Tween-20), a mixture of dNTP's containing 0.125 mM of each of the four and 200 of each forward and dNTP's. μM reverse primer (27f: AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG and 1527r: AAGGAGGTGATCCAGCC, respectively; Sigma-Aldrich, Hertfordshire, UK), 1.5 µM of MgCl₂ and 1,25 Taq polymerase. Positive and negative controls were included, the negative control was sterilised distilled water and the positive control a known DNA sample. The PCR reactions were carried out as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for a minute, 30 cycles of 95°C for a minute, 55°C for a minute and 72°C for a minute, and finally 72°C for 5 The PCR products were checked for quality as mentioned above. minutes. The preparations were kept at -20° C prior to use.

Purification of PCR products. Prior to sequencing, the PCR products were purified by using ExoSAP-IT* kits (USB, Corporation, Ohio, USA), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Each PCR product (5µl) was mixed with 2µl of ExoSAP-IT*, the reaction mixtures incubated at 37°C for 15 minutes to degrade the remaining primers and nucleotides, and the preparations incubated at 80°C for 15 minutes to inactivate the ExoSAP-IT*. The purified products were stored at -20°C until required. The sequences of the almost complete 16S rRNA genes were determined by the Newcastle University company GENEIUS.

Phylogenetic analyses. The chromatogram files in ABI were read in Finch TV and converted to FASTA format files. The nearest match of each sequence was determined by using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI; Bethesda, USA) and pairwise sequence similarities

calculated by using the global alignment algorithm implemented using the EzTaxon e web server (http://eztaxon-e.ezbiocloud.net/; Kim *et al.*, 2012). The aligned sequences were used to construct phylogenetic trees generated using either the neighbour-joining algorithm (Saitou & Nei, 1987) from the MEGA5 software program or the maximum-likelihood (Felsenstein, 1981) and maximum-parsimony (Kluge & Farris, 1967) algorithms from the PHYLIP suite of programs (Felsenstein, 2004). The evolutionary distance model of Jukes & Cantor (1969) was used to generate evolutionary distance matrices for the neighbour-joining analyses. The topologies of the resultant trees were evaluated in bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985) based on 1000 resamplings of the neighbour-joining dataset using the CONSENSE and SEQBOOT options from the PHYLIP package.

The Salar de Atacama and Yungay strains included in the comparative 16S rRNA gene analyses were assigned to seven and six genera, respectively as shown in Table 2.6. It can also be seen from this Table that strains assigned to the same colourgroups as tested strains were deemed to belong to the same genus as the strains included in the comparative 16S rRNA gene analyses.

Table 2.6. Assignment of strains assigned to colour-groups containing isolates from the Salar de Atcama and Yungay samples to genera based on 16S rRNA sequencing data. In total, 420 isolates were assigned to 12 genera.

Genera	Tested strains		Additional strains in colour-groups		
Actinomadura	KNN34c,		-		
	KNN53-1a, KN	NN53-3a	KNN53-2a		
Amycolatopsis	KNN49-1f, KNN49-5e, KNN49-11c, KNN49-26a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-5c, KNN50-7d, KNN50-7d, KNN50-11c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-15d, KNN50-17d, KNN50-17d,	KNN49-3e, KNN49-6q, KNN49-12b, KNN50-1a, KNN50-4c, KNN50-6e, KNN550-8b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-10e, KNN50-12c, KNN50-14d, KNN50-18d,	KNN49-2e, KNN49-4e, KNN49-7c, KNN49-8c, KNN49-9c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-14b, KNN49-15b, KNN49-16c, KNN49-47b, KNN49- 18b, KNN49-19a, KNN49-20b, KNN49-21c, KNN49-22d, KNN49-23d, KNN49-24d, KNN49- 25d, KNN49-27a, KNN49-28a, KNN49-29a, KNN49-30b, KNN49-31b, KNN50-3c, KNN61-2a, KNN61-3e, KNN61-4e, KNN61-5b, KNN61-6c		
Blastococcus	KNN47b		-		
Couchioplanes	KNN7-2b		KNN7-1b, KNN7-3b, KNN7-4b		
Geodermatophilus	KNN44-1b, KNN44-4b	KNN44-3b,	KNN44-2a		
Kribbella	KNN56a				

Lechevalieria	KNN94e	-
Modestobacter	KNN45-1b, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5a, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8c, KNN46-9c, KNN46-10c, KNN46-11a	KNN46-12a
Nonomuraea	KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b	-
Pseudonocardia	KNN55-1b	KNN55-2b
Saccharothrix	KNN10-4d, KNN54-1a	KNN10-1a, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-5a, KNN54-2b
Streptomyces	C34, C38, C58, C59, C79, KNN2-4c, KNN2-6c, KNN4-1b, KNN4-4a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a, KNN9-3a, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-5a, KNN13a, KNN22a, KNN23-1b, KNN24-1b, KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN35-2b, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b, KNN48-1c, KNN48-3e, KNN48-6e, KNN51b, KNN64-5b, KNN82-2c, KNN83e, KNN87b, KNN88-1a, KNN89a, KNN90a	KNN1-1a, KNN1-2c, KNN1-3b, KNN1-5f; KNN2- 1b, KNN2-2c, KNN2-3c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-7d, KNN2-8b, KNN2-9d, KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN2-12d, KNN2-13a, KNN2-14c, KNN2-15a, KNN2-16c, KNN2-17d, KNN2-18c, KNN3-1b, KNN3-2b, KNN3-3c, KNN3-4b, KNN3-5c, KNN3- 6c, KNN3-7c, KNN3-8c, KNN3-9c, KNN3-10e, KNN3-14d, KNN3-15d, KNN3-16d, KNN3-17d, KNN3-18d, KNN3-19b, KNN4-2e, KNN4-3b, KNN5-1a, KNN5-2a, KNN5-3c, KNN5-4c, KNN5- 5a, KNN5-6a, KNN5-7a, KNN5-8b, KNN5-9b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-15b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-19d, KNN5-20d, KNN5-25b, KNN5-28c, KNN5-29b, KNN5-30d, KNN5-31e; KNN6-1a, KNN6-2a, KNN6-3a, KNN6-4a, KNN6-5a, KNN8-4a, KNN6- 8d, KNN8-1b, KNN8-2b, KNN8-3a, KNN8-4b, KNN8-5d, KNN8-2b, KNN8-7a, KNN8-8a, KNN8- 9a, KNN8-10c, KNN8-11e, KNN9-1a, KNN9-2e, KNN10-1a, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-4d, KNN12-1a, KNN12-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN11-6b, KNN12-1a, KNN12-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN11-6b, KNN12-1a, KNN12-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN11-6b, KNN12-1a, KNN12-2a, KNN14-1f, KNN14-2c, KNN14-3e, KNN15-1a, KNN15-2a, KNN16-1c, KNN16-2c, KNN17-1c, KNN17-2b KNN18-1b, KNN23-2a, KNN23-2a, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-5c, KNN24-6a, KNN24-7c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-5c, KNN24-6a, KNN24-7c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-5c, KNN30a, KNN31d, KNN32-2b, KNN33a, KNN36-1c, KNN36-3c, KNN36-3c; KNN37-1e, KNN37-2a KNN37-3a, KNN37-4a, KNN38-1b, KNN38-2d, KNN36-3d, KNN38-4a, KNN38-5b, KNN39, KNN41-2a, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-14a, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-4e, KNN48-5e, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-4e, KNN48-16c, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-17c, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-17c, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-16c, KNN48-11b, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-17c, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-17c, KNN48-7d, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-17c, KNN48-16c, KNN63-7b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-5a, KNN63-7b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-5a, KNN63-1b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-5b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-6b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-1b, KNN63-6b, KNN63-11b, KNN63-12b,

KNN63-13b,	KNN63-14t	, KNN63-15	b, KNN63-
16b, KNN	63-17b, KN	N63-18b,	KNN63-19e,
KNN64-1a,	KNN64-2a,	KNN64-3a,	KNN64-4b,
KNN64-6b;	KNN65-1f,	KNN65-2a,	KNN65-3c,
KNN65-4c,	KNN65-5d,	KNN66b,	KNN67-1b,
KNN67-2b,	KNN67-3b,	KNN67-4b,	KNN68-1b,
KNN68-2b,	KNN68-3b,	KNN68-4b,	KNN69-1e,
KNN69-2a,	KNN69-3a,	KNN70b,	KNN71-1a,
KNN71-2a,	KNN72a,	KNN73-1a,	KNN73-2a,
KNN73-3d,	KNN74-1c,	KNN74-2c,	KNN75-1c,
KNN75-2b,	KNN75-3b,	KNN75-4b,	KNN77-1a,
KNN77-2a,	KNN77-3a,	KNN77-4a,	KNN77-5a,
KNN77-6a,	KNN78-1e,	KNN78-2e,	KNN79-1b,
KNN79-2b,	KNN79-3d,	KNN80-1c,	KNN80-2d,
KNN81-1c,	KNN81-2 b,	KNN81-3d,	KNN82-1a,
KNN82-2c,	KNN83e,	KNN84c,	KNN85-1f,
KNN85-2b,	KNN85-3b,	KNN85-4c,	KNN85-5c,
KNN85-6c,	KNN85-7c,	KNN85-8a,	KNN86-1b,
KNN86-2b,	KNN86-3b,	KNN86-4b,	KNN86-5c,
KNN86-6a,	KNN88-2b,	KNN88-3b,	KNN88-4a,
KNN87b, F	KNN91-1a,	KNN91-2a,	KNN91-3a,
KNN91-4a,	, KNN91-5a,	KNN91-6a,	KNN92-1b,
KNN92-2b	KNN92-3b,	KNN92-4a,	KNN92-5a,
KNN92-6a,	KNN92-7a,	KNN94e,	KNN97b,
KNN98b			

2.6. Detection of additional chemical markers

Actinobacteria taken to represent each of the genera highlighted in the comparative 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies were examined for key chemical markers known to be of value in actinobacterial systematics (Table 2.7).

Codes	Source	Genera
KNN53-1a, KNN53-2a	Salar de Atacama	Actinomadura
KNN49-5e, KNN49-26a,	Salar de Atacama	Amycolatopsis
KNN50-8b, KNN50-11c,		
KNN50-16d		
KNN47b	Yungay	Blastococcus
KNN7-2b	Yungay	Cochioplanes
KNN44-1b	Yungay	Geodermatophilus
KNN56a	Salar de Atacama	Kribbella
KNN94e	Salar de Atacama	Lechevalieria
KNN45-2b, KNN46-4b	Yungay	Modestobacter
KNN57-1b	Salar de Atacama	Nonomuraea
KNN55-1b	Yungay	Pseudonocardia
KNN10-4d	Salar de Atacama	Saccharothrix
C34, C38, C58, C59, C79	Salar de Atacama	Streptomyces

Table 2.7. Representative actinobacteria included in the chemotaxonomic analyses.

Whole-cell sugar analyses. All of the representative strains (Table 2.7) assigned to genera based on 16S rRNA gene sequences were examined for the presence of diagnostic whole-cell sugars using the procedure described by Hasegawa *et al.* (1983).

One to two loopfuls of each strain were transferred to cryotubes containing 0.25 N HCl, the preparations autoclaved at 121° C for 15 minutes and 3 µl of each of the resultant hydrolysates and 1 µl of a standard solution of sugars (each at 1%, w/v) applied to 10 x10 cm cellulose TLC plates (10 x 20 cm; No.5552, Merck). The standard sugars were arabinose, galactose, glucose, rhamnose, ribose and xylose (10 mg of each in 1 ml of pyridine). The TLC sheets were developed for 2 hours in a glass tank containing the solvent system, namely 10 n-butanol : 6 sterile distilled water : 6 pyridine : 1 toluene (v/v). The chromatograms were air-dried, developed for 2 hours, air-dried again, sprayed with aniline phthalate reagent and heated at 100° C for 4 minutes when the hexose and pentose sugars gave brown-red and grey-green spots, respectively. The sugar patterns of the strains were identified by comparison against the standard sugars.

Menaquinone analyses. Menaquinones were extracted from the 21 representative strains (Table 2.7), by using the small-scale integrated procedure of Minnikin *et al.* (1984). Freeze-dried biomass (100 mg) of each strain was treated with 2 ml of 0.3% aqueous NaCl/methanol (1:10, v/v) and 2 ml of petroleum ether, mixed on a tube rotator for 30 minutes, and the upper layers transferred to individual clean vials. The lower layers were treated with a further 1ml of petroleum ether, mixed for 30 minutes, and the upper layers initial preparations. The combined extracts were transferred to small glass vials, evaporated to dryness using a nitrogen stream and stored at - 20° C until required.

The extracted menaquinones were resuspended in 200 µl of isopropanol and analysed using a high performance liquid chromatograph (LC-10AS, Shimadzu Co., New Jersey, USA) fitted with a reverse-phase C18 column (250 \times 4.0 mm, 5 μ m particle size; RP-18-Lichrosorb column; Capital Analytical, Leeds, UK). Methanol/isopropanol (2:1, v/v) was used as the isocratic mobile phase with a flow rate of 1 ml/minute at ambient temperature; aliquots of each sample (10 µl) were injected into the chromatograph. The menaquinones were detected at a wavelength of 270 nm using a UV detector (SPD-10A, Shimadzu Co.), and the resultant chromatograms integrated using a C-R6A Chromatopac Integrator (Shimadzu Co.). The menaquinones were identified by comparing their retention times with those of reference samples extracted from *Streptomyces indiaensis* JCM 3053^T which has a well known menaquinone profile (Kudo & Seino, 1987)

Polar lipid analyses. Polar lipids were extracted from the biomass preparations

remaining after the extraction of the menaquinones (Minnikin et al., 1985). Each sample of cell debris was heated in a boiling water bath for 5 minutes, cooled to room temperature, and 2.3 ml of chloroform/methanol/0.3%, w/v aqueous NaCl (9:10:3, v/v/v) added and the resultant preparations mixed on a tube rotator for an hour. Each supernatant was transferred to a clean test tube and 0.75 ml of chloroform/methanol/0.3%, w/v aqueous NaCl (5:10:4, v/v/v) added prior to vortexing for 30 minutes and centrifuging at 2000 rpm for 5 munutes, the supernatants were then transfered to a clean tube; repeat this step was repeated twice. Each of the resultant preparations was mixed thoroughly after the addition of 1.3 ml of chloroform and 1.3 ml of 0.3% NaCl, then centrifugation and the lower layers transferred to clean vials, evaporated to dryness in a nitrogen stream and stored at -20°C. The lipid extracts were dissolved in 50 μ l of chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) and 10 μ l of the resultant samples applied to the corners of five 10 x 10 cm silica-gel TLC plates (No. 1.05721, Merck). Thin-layer-chromatography was carried out using chloroform / methanol / water (65:65:4, v/v/v) in the first direction and chloroform/acetic acid/methanol/water (80:15:12:4, v/v/v/v) in the second one until the solvent front was 1cm below the top of The resultant spots were characterised using differential stains after the plates. Komagata and Suzuki (1987):

(a) The first plate was sprayed with 10% (w/v) phosphomolybdic acid in ethanol (Sigma P-1518) and charred at 120° C for 10 minutes to detect all lipids.

(b) The second plate was sprayed with ninhydrin 0.2% (w/v) in ethanol and heated at 100°C for 5 minutes to detect lipids with free amino groups. Phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) and phosphatidyl-N-methylethanolamine (PME) appear as dark pink spots on a white background. The same sheet was sprayed with Dittmer's reagent (molybdenum blue; Sigma M-3389) to detect phosphorus containing lipids which appear as blue spots on a white background.

(c) The third plate was sprayed with aqueous sodium metaperiodate (1%, v/v) and left for 10 minutes before decoloring with SO₂, followed by spraying with Schiff's reagent (Sigma) and a further decoloring with SO₂. Phosphatidylglycerol gives a bright purple spot immediately and phosphatidylinositol a brown coloured spot on a white background.

(d) The fourth plate was sprayed with α -naphthosulfuric acid (10.5 ml of 15% α -naphthol (Sigma N2480) in 95% ethanol 6.5 ml of concentrated H₂PO₄), 40.5 ml of 95%

EtOH and 4 ml of water) and heated at 100°C for 10 minutes. Phosphatidylinositol dimannosides (PIDM) and glycolipids appear as brown spots on a white background.

(e) The final plate was sprayed with Dragendorff reagent (0.11 M potassium iodide and 0.6 mM bismuth nitrate in 3.5 M acetic acid) to detect phosphatidylcholine (PC), PE and PME which appear as orange spots on a yellow background.

The lipids on each of the TLC plates were identified by comparing their motilities with those of authentic lipids (Sigma PH-9).

2.7. DNA-DNA relatedness assays

Isolates found to be closely related to type strains of known species based on 16S rRNA gene sequence data were subjected of DNA:DNA relatedness studies. High purity genomic DNA, was prepared using the CTAB method (Kieser *et al.*, 2000) from isolates KNN49-5e, KNN49-26a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-8b, KNN50-11c, KNN50-16d, KNN45-2 and KNN46-4.

Determination of optimal temperature for renaturation. DNA-DNA relatedness values were determined between isolate KNN49-5e and A. ruanii NGM112^T, isolate KNN49-26a and A. ruanii NGM112^T, isolate KNN50-2e and A. thermalba SF45^T, isolate KNN50-8b and A. ruanii NGM112^T, isolate KNN50-11c and A. thermalba SF45^T, isolate KNN50-16d and A. thermalba SF45^T, isolate KNN45-2b and M. marinus 42H12-1^T using the procedure described by Gonzalez & Saiz-Jimenez (2005). To determine the thermal denaturation midpoint of hybrid and reference DNA, purified genomic DNA and mixtures of DNA from the pairs of strains were denatured and renatured at the optimal temperature for renaturation (Tor; De Ley et al. 1970). The G+C contents of the strains were determined fluorimetrically. To this end, each genomic DNA preparation (2.5 µg) was added to a 0.5 ml tube, the preparation dried in a Speed vac- DNA 120 (Savant Speed Vac Systems, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA), resuspended in 90 µl resuspension solution (30% formamide, 0.1x SSC buffer [pH 8.0]) and transferred to 0.2 ml MJ clear tubes (MJ Research Inc, Waltham, USA) suitable for fluorescence measurements. Ten µl of 1x SYBR Green I (Molecular Probes) was added to each of the preparations and a thermal ramp run from 25 to 100°C at a 1°C rise per minute in a 185-5201 CFX connected (Bio Rad, Hertfordshire, UK). Double-stranded DNA was bound with SYBR Green I; when the studied-double strand DNA dissociated into single-stranded DNA, the fluorescence was released and measured as described below. The fluorescence from the tubes was measured at each step of the thermal ramp and the $T_{\rm m}$ of each strain calculated from the minimum value of the slope of the tangent to the melting curve of fluorescence versus temperature. The mol% G+C content of each strain was calculated using the equation: mol% G+C = $(1.99T_{\rm m}) - 71.08$. The optimal temperature for renaturation was determined from the G+C values using the equation: $T_{\rm or} = 0.51 ({\rm mol} \% {\rm G+C}) + 47.0$, as described by De Ley *et al.* (1970).

Estimation of ΔT_m between pairs of strains. The generation of genomic DNA reference strains and hybrids for estimation of ΔT_m values between the pairs of test strains was carried out by adding genomic DNA (250 ng/µl in 0.1xSSC, Appendix 2) samples from both the reference and the test strains to a 0.5 ml centrifuge tube. The homologous DNA control and hybrid DNA samples were denatured and rehybridised in a T-gradient Thermocycler $^{(R)}$ (Whatman-Biometra) using the following conditions: 99 °C for 10 minutes, $T_{\rm OF}$ for 8 hours followed by progressive steps in which the temperature was dropped by 10°C then held for an hour until the temperature reached 25°C. The tubes were then held at 4°C, 10µl of 1x SYBR Green I was added and the contents transferred to MJ clear tubes in an PTC -200 DNA Engine Thermal Cycler. Thermal denaturation was achieved as follows: 25 °C for 15 minutes, and a thermal ramp from 25 to $100 \,^{\circ}$ at $0.2 \,^{\circ}$ per second; fluorescence measurements were taken at each step of the ramp. The $T_{\rm m}$ of the homologous and hybrid DNA preparations were calculated by taking the temperature corresponding to a 50% decrease in fluorescence in the melting curve of fluorescence versus temperature. $\Delta T_{\rm m}$ is the difference between these two temperatures; differences of 5°C or more are considered to show that tested strains belong to different genomic species (Wayne et al., 1987; Rosselló-Mora & Amann, 2001).

2.8. Detection of phenotypic properties

2.8.1. Test strains and data acquisition

Phenotypic tests were carried out on representative strains of the genera *Amycolatopsis* (Table 2.8), *Modestobacter* (Table 2.9) and *Streptomyces* (Table 2.10) together with

appropriate marker type strains. The tests were performed using standard microbiological methods and by using API ZYM kits, 20 NE API kits (BioMerieux® Co.) and GEN III MicroPlates (BiOLOG).

Table 2.8. Amycolatopsis strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental

 sample and examined for phenotypic properties together with the type strains of their

 nearest phylogenetic neighbours.

Strains	Source/strain histories
Isolates	KNN49-1h, KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-7c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-11c, KNN49- 12b, KNN49-26a, KNN49-32e, KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14d, KNN50- 15d, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d, KNN50-18d*, GY024 ^A and GY142 ^A
A. eurytherma Kim et al. (2002)	NT202 ^T (=DSM 44348 ^T =NCIMB 13795 ^{Tc}), isolated from arid scrubland soil
A. granulosa Zucchi et al. (2012b)	$GY307^{T}$ (= NCIMB 14709 ^T = NRRL B-24844 ^T), isolated from an arid soil sample from Marla, Australia
A. methanolica Boer et al. (1990)	NCIB 11946 ^T ; isolated from a New Guinea soil
A. thermoflava Chun et al. (1999)	N1165 ^T (= CIP106795 ^T = DSM 44574 ^T = NBRC 14333^{T} = JCM 10669^{T} = NRRL B-24140 ^T), isolated from a soil sample from Hainan Island, China
A. thermalba Zucchi et al. (2012a)	SF45 ^T (=NCIMB14705 ^T =NRRL B-24845 ^T), isolated from an arid soil sample from Marla, Australia
A. ruanii Zucchi et al. (2012a)	$NMG112^{T}(= NCIB14711^{T} = NRRL B-24848^{T})$, isolated from an arid soil sample from Marla, Australia
A. thermophila Zucchi et al. (2012b)	$GY088^{T}$ (= NCIMB 14699 ^T = NRRL B-24836 ^T) isolated from a composite Australian soil sample
A. tucumanensis Albarracín et al. 2010	Professor Martha Trujillo, University of Salamanca, Spain, strain ABO ^T (= $DSM45259^{T} = JCM17017^{T} =$ LMG 24814 ^T), isolated from a sediment sample polluted with copper and collected in Tucumán, Argentina.
A. viridis Zucchi et al. (2012b)	$GY115^{T}$ (= NCIMB 14700 ^T = NRRL B-24837 ^T), isolated from a composite Australian soil sample
i ype strain.	

50

Table 2.9	. Mc	odestobacter	strains isol	lated from	the	Yung	gay er	ivironm	enta	al sam	ple and
examined	for	phenotypic	properties	together	with	the	type	strains	of	their	nearest
phylogene	tic n	eighbours.									

Strains	Source/strain histories
Isolates	KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8d, KNN46-9c and KNN46- 10g
M. marinus Xiao et al. (2011)	Professor Martha Trujillo, University of Salamanca, Spain, strain $42H12-1^{T}$ (= CGMCC 4.5581^{T} =DSM 45201^{T}), isolated from deep-sea sediment from the Atlantic Ocean
<i>M. multiseptatus</i> Mevs <i>et al.</i> (2000) emend. Reddy <i>et al.</i> (2007).	Professor Martha Trujillo, strain $AA-826^{T}$ (= CIP 106529 ^T =DSM 44406 ^T =JCM 12207 ^T), isolated from Antarctic surface soil from Linnaeus Terrace (1600 m) of Asgard Range Transantarctic Mountains
M. roseus Qin et al. 2013	DSM 45764^{T} (= KCTC 19887^{T} = KLBMP 1279^{T} = NBRC 108673^{T}), isolated from the coastal halophyte <i>Salicornia europaea</i> Linn.
<i>M. versicolor</i> Reddy <i>et al.</i> 2007	Professor Martha Trujillo, $CP153-2^{T}$ (= ATCC BAA-1040 ^T =DSM 16678 ^T =JCM 15578 ^T) isolated from a soil crust

^T Type strain.

Table 2.10. *Streptomyces* strains isolated from either the Salar de Atacama or Yungay environmental samples and examined for phenotypic properties together with the type strain of *Streptomyces fimbriatus*.

Strains	Source/strain histories
Isolates	C34 ^{*,1} , C38 ^{*,1} , C58 ^{*,1} , C59 ¹ , C79 ^{*,1} KNN2-4 ¹ , KNN2-6 ¹ , KNN5-48 ¹ , KNN6-6 ¹ , KNN6-9 ¹ , KNN10-4 ¹ , KNN10-5 ¹ , KNN11-1 ¹ , KNN11-5 ¹ , KNN13 ² , KNN23-1 ² , KNN24-1 ¹ , KNN25 ¹ , KNN26 ¹ , KNN32-1 ¹ , KNN35-1 ¹ , KNN35-2 ¹ , KNN38-1 ¹ , KNN42 ² , KNN48-1 ¹ , KNN51 ² , KNN64-5 ¹ , KNN70 ¹ , KNN88-1 ² and KNN90 ²
Streptomyces fimbriatus (Millard & Burr 1926) Waksman and Lechevalier 1953	NRRL B-3175 ^T (=AS 4.1598^{T} = ATCC 15051^{T} = CBS 453.65^{T} = DSM 40942^{T} = NBRC 15411^{T} = JCM 5080^{T} = NCIB 13039^{T} = VKM Ac-761 ^T) isolated from a case of common potato scab

Strains isolated from ¹Salar de Atacama and ²Yungay environmental samples.

^T Type strain.

Inoculation of test media. Most of the tests were carried out in Replidishes (Sterilin Ltd., Staffordshire, UK) at 28°C unless stated otherwise, and the results recorded after final readings. Sterile media were aseptically dispensed into each of the 25 compartments of the Replidishes and individual compartments inoculated with 10 µl aliquots of spore suspensions. Inocula were prepared by scraping spores/hyphal fragments from yeast extract-malt extract agar plates (ISP medium 2, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), which had been incubated at 28°C for 21 days, and transferred to individual 15 ml conical tubes which contained 5 ml of ¹/₄ strength Ringer's solution. The resultant spore suspensions were filtered through sterile cotton wool, centrifuged and resuspended in 2 ml of ¹/₄ strength Ringer's solution to give a turbidity of 5 on the McFarland scale (Murray et al., 1999). Each inoculum (1 ml) was pipetted into a sterile compartment of a Replidish and gently agitated to give an even suspension prior to inoculation. An automatic multipoint inoculator (Denley-Tech; Denley Instruments Ltd., Sussex, UK) was used to inoculate Replidishes containing each test medium. The phenotypic tests carried out in either Bijoux tubes or Replidishes are shown in Table 2.11. All of the tests were carried out in duplicate. Details of the composition of the test media are shown in Appendix 3.

Type of test	Tests
A. Biochemical tests (w/v):	Aesculin hydrolysis (0.1%) ^{A,M,S} , Allantoin hydrolysis (0.1%) ^{A,M,S} , Arbutin hydrolysis (0.1%) ^{A,M,S} , Catalase production [*] : A,M,S, Hydrogen sulphide production [*] : ^{A,M,S} , Nitrate reduction [*] : A,M,S, Urease production [*] : A,M,S
B. Degradation tests (%, w/v):	Adenine $(0.4)^{A,M,S}$, Casein $(1)^{A,M,S}$, Cellulose $(1.0)^{A,M,S}$, Chitin $(0.2)^{A,M,S}$, DNA $(0.2)^{A,M,S}$, Elastin $(0.3)^{A,M,S}$, Gelatin $(0.4)^{A,M,S}$, Guanine $(0.05)^{A,M,S}$, Hypoxanthine $(0.4)^{A,M,S}$, RNA $(0.3)^{A,M,S}$, Tributyrin $(0.1 \% \text{ v/v})^{A,M,S}$, L-tyrosine $(0.5)^{A,M,S}$, Starch $(0.1)^{A,M,S}$, Tween 20 $(1\% \text{ v/v})^{A,M,S}$, Tween 40 $(1\% \text{ v/v})^{A,M,S}$, Tween 60 $(1\% \text{ v/v})^{A,M,S}$, Tween 80 $(1\% \text{ v/v})^{A,M,S}$, Uric acid $(0.5)^{A,M,S}$, Xanthine $(0.4)^{A,M,S}$, Xylan $(0.4\%)^{A,M,S}$,
C. Nutritional testsGrowth on sole carbon sources:1. Monosaccharides (at 1%, w/v)	Hexoses: D-fructose ^A , D-galactose ^A , D-glucose ^A , D-mannose ^A , L- sorbose ^A , D-xylose ^A Pentoses: Amygdalin ^A , L-arabinose ^A , L-fucose ^A , D-turanose ^A , L- rhamnose ^A , D-ribose ^A
 Disaccharides (at 1%, w/v) Tri & tetrasaccharides (at 1%, w/v) 	D-trehalose ^A , D-cellobiose ^A D(+) melezitose ^A , D(+) raffinose ^A , α -lactose ^A , D-maltose ^A , D-melbiose ^A , D-sucrose ^A
4. Polysaccharides (at 1%, w/v)	D-cellubiose ^A , Dextrin ^A , Glycogen ^A , Inulin ^A , Pectin ^A
5. Sugar alcohols (at 1%, w/v)	Adonitol ^A , Dulcitol ^A , <i>meso</i> -inositol ^A , D-mannitol ^A , D-sorbitol ^A ,

Table 2.11. Phenotypic tests carried out in bijou tubes or Replidishes.

 7. Alcohols (1%,v/v) Butan-1-ol ^A, Ergosterol ^A, Ethanol ^A, Ethylamine ^A, Methanol ^A, Methylamine ^A, Propan-1-ol ^A, Propan-2-ol ^A, Propylene glycol ^A Acetate ^A, Adipate ^A, Alginate ^A, Azelate ^A, Benzoate ^A, Butyrate ^A, Citrate^A, Fumarate ^A, Hippurate ^A, Malate ^A, Malonate ^A, Oxalate ^A, Pimelate ^A, Propionate ^A, Pyruvate ^A, Succinate ^A, Tartrate ^A, Urea ^A, Uric acid ^A D. Tolerance tests¹: 1. pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 ^{A,M,S} 2. Temperature 4, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C ^{A,M,S} 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate (2) 	6. Glycosides (at 1%, w/v)	Aesculin ^A , Arbutin ^A , Salicin ^A
 8. Sodium salts (0.1% w/v) Methylamine ^A, Propan-1-ol ^A, Propan-2-ol ^A, Propylene glycol ^A Acetate ^A, Adipate ^A, Alginate ^A, Azelate ^A, Benzoate ^A, Butyrate ^A, Citrate^A, Fumarate ^A, Hippurate ^A, Malate ^A, Malonate ^A, Oxalate ^A, Pimelate ^A, Propionate ^A, Pyruvate ^A, Succinate ^A, Tartrate ^A, Urea ^A, Uric acid ^A D. Tolerance tests¹: 1. pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 ^{A,M,S} 2. Temperature 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	7. Alcohols $(1\%, v/v)$	Butan-1-ol ^A , Ergosterol ^A , Ethanol ^A , Ethylamine ^A , Methanol ^A ,
 8. Sodium salts (0.1% w/v) Acetate ^A, Adipate ^A, Alginate ^A, Azelate ^A, Benzoate ^A, Butyrate ^A, Citrate^A, Fumarate ^A, Hippurate ^A, Malate ^A, Malonate ^A, Oxalate ^A, Pimelate ^A, Propionate ^A, Pyruvate ^A, Succinate ^A, Tartrate ^A, Urea ^A, Uric acid ^A D. Tolerance tests¹: pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 ^{A,M,S} Temperature 1. pH 2.0, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C ^{A,M,S} 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8)^N Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)^N Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)^N Vancomycin sulphate (2) 		Methylamine ^A , Propan-1-ol ^A , Propan-2-ol ^A , Propylene glycol ^A
 Citrate^A, Fumarate^A, Hippurate^A, Malate^A, Malonate^A, Oxalate^A, Pimelate^A, Propionate^A, Pyruvate^A, Succinate^A, Tartrate^A, Urea^A, Uric acid^A D. Tolerance tests¹: pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 ^{A,M,S} Temperature 1. pH 2.0, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C ^{A,M,S} 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate (2) 	8. Sodium salts (0.1% w/v)	Acetate ^A , Adipate ^A , Alginate ^A , Azelate ^A , Benzoate ^A , Butyrate ^A ,
 Pimelate ^A, Propionate ^A, Pyruvate ^A, Succinate ^A, Tartrate ^A, Urea ^A, Uric acid ^A D. Tolerance tests¹: pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 ^{A,M,S} 2. Temperature 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate (2) 		Citrate ^A , Fumarate ^A , Hippurate ^A , Malate ^A , Malonate ^A , Oxalate ^A ,
Uric acid A D. Tolerance tests ¹ : 1. pH 2. Temperature 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride A,M,S : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml) ^{1; A,M} : Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate (2)		Pimelate ^A , Propionate ^A , Pyruvate ^A , Succinate ^A , Tartrate ^A , Urea ^A ,
D. Tolerance tests¹: $2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 \text{ and } 12.0^{A,M,S}$ 2. Temperature $4, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 \text{ and } 60^{\circ}C^{A,M,S}$ 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride $^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 \text{ and } 10.0$ 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml) ^{1; A,M} : Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2)		Uric acid ^A
D. Tolerance tests : 1. pH 2. Temperature 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride A,M,S : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml) ^{1; A,M} : Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2)	D. Talana a tatal	
 pH 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0 2. Temperature 4, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C ^{A,M,S} 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	D. Tolerance tests :	20 20 40 50 C0 80 00 100 110 ml 120 AMS
 Temperature 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C^{A,M,S} Growth in presence of (% w/v) Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (µg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	1. рн	2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 11.0 and 12.0
 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (μg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8) Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	2. Temperature	4, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 55, 58 and 60°C ^{A,M,S}
 3. Growth in presence of (% w/v) 3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (μg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8) Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	1	
 3.2 Lysozyme (0.05) 3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (μg/ml)^{1; A,M}: Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2) 	3. Growth in presence of $(\% w/v)$	3.1 Sodium chloride ^{A,M,S} : 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10.0
3.3 Resistance to antibiotics (μg/ml) ^{1; A,M} : Gentamicin sulphate (8)' Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16)' Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8)' Vancomycin sulphate (2)		3.2 Lysozyme (0.05)
 (8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8) Vancomycin sulphate (2) 		3.3 Resistance to antibiotics $(\mu g/ml)^{1; A,M}$: Gentamicin sulphate
G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16) [,] Streptomycin sulphate(4), Tetracycline sulphate (8) [,] Vancomycin sulphate (2)		(8) Neomycin sulphate (4, 8), Novobiocin sulphate (8), Penicillin
Tetracycline sulphate (8) [,] Vancomycin sulphate (2)		G sulphate (16), Rifampicin (16), Streptomycin sulphate(4),
		Tetracycline sulphate (8) [,] Vancomycin sulphate (2)

Tests carried out on (A) Amycolatopsis, (M) Modestobacter and (S) Streptomyces strains.

2.8.2. Biochemical tests

Aesculin hydrolysis. This test was carried out using the method of Kutzner (1976) and results recorded after incubation for 7, 14 and 21 days. Strains showing β -glucosidase activity hydrolyse aesculin to give 6, 7-dihydroxycoumarin which complexes with ferric ions in the medium to form a brown-black melanin-like polymer. Blackening of the test medium indicated a positive result. It can be difficult to distinguish between a positive result and the production of dark pigments by some actinobacteria hence all strains were inoculated onto a negative control (without aesculin) which was compared to the corresponding aesculin test in order to prevent recording false positive results.

Allantoin hydrolysis. The hydrolysis of allantoin (0.33%, w/v) was detected using the basal medium of Gordon *et al.* (1974) with phenol red as the pH indicator. After incubation for 14 days, inoculated Replidishes were examined for the development of an alkaline reaction which was indicated by a colour change in the medium from orange to pink red. A positive test result, that is, the production of a pink- red colour, indicates the presence of two hydrolytic enzymes, one of which hydrolyses allantoin to allantoic acid and the other which catalyses the formation of urea and glycoxalate.

Arbutin hydrolysis. The hydrolysis of arbutin (0.1%, w/v), a hydroquinone- α -glucopyranoside, was detected using the basal medium described by Williams *et al.* (1983). The hydrolysis of arbutin is catalysed by the hydrolase enzyme, β -glucosidase,

resulting in the production of glucose and a hydroquinone, the latter complexes with iron in the medium to form a black-brown melanin-like polymer. Blackening of the medium after 5, 10 or 15 days was recorded as a positive result.

Catalase production. The presence of catalase was detected by adding a few drops of 20% (v/v) hydrogen peroxide solution to 7-day-old cultures grown on modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949). The production of oxygen bubbles from the reduction of hydrogen peroxide was recorded as a positive reaction.

Hydrogen sulphide production. The ability of the test strains to produce hydrogen sulphide was determined following the method described by Küster and Williams (1964). Tubes of nitrate broth were inoculated and strips of sterile lead acetate paper hooked over their necks. Hydrogen sulphide converts lead acetate to lead sulphide resulting in blackening of the lead acetate paper; blackening of lead acetate strips after incubation for 7 days was scored as a positive result.

Nitrate reduction. This test is used to detect the presence of nitrate and nitrite reductases. Tubes containing 3 ml nitrate broth (0.1%, w/v; Gordon & Mihm, 1962) were inoculated and incubated for 14 days when a few drops of reagents A and B (Appendix 3) were added. The sulfanilic acid in reagent A reacts with nitrite to yield a diazonium salt which forms a stable red dye in the presence of α -naphthylamine in reagent B. The development of a red colour on addition of reagent B indicated the presence of nitrite and was recorded as positive for nitrate reductase activity. In the absence of a colour change traces of zinc dust were added to the broths. Zinc ions catalyse the same reaction as nitrate reductase hence when nitrate is still present the addition of zinc reduces it to nitrite with the formation of a characteristic red colour; such results were recorded as nitrate and nitrite reductase negative. The continued absence of any colour change following the addition of zinc indicates that nitrate has been reduced to gaseous nitrogen; such reactions were recorded positive for nitrate and nitrite reductase.

Urease production. The strains were tested for their ability to hydrolyse urea using the basal medium of Gordon *et al.* (1974) supplemented with urea (1.76 %, w/v). Inoculated Replidishes were incubated for 14 days then examined for the development of a pink-red colour which was recorded as a positive result.

2.8.3. Degradation tests

Adenine, casein, cellulose, elastin, guanine, hypoxanthine, L-tyrosine, uric acid, xanthine and xylan were incorporated into modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) with care taken to ensure an even distribution of the insoluble compounds; each compound was sterilised by Tyndallisation before adding to molten modified Bennett's agar. Inoculated plates were read after 7, 14 and 21 days. In all cases, disappearance of the substrate from under and around the area of growth was recorded as a positive result. Adenine, guanine, hypoxanthine and xanthine are nitrogenous purine bases involved in the biosynthesis of nucleic acids, L-tyrosine is an aromatic amino acid and elastin is a protein found in animal connective tissue. The degradation of uric acid and xylan indicate the production of uricase and xylanase enzymes, respectively.

Casein. The degradation of casein was detected in modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) supplemented with skim milk powder (10 g per litre). Inoculated Replidishes were incubated for 15 days when the presence of clear zones from around and under areas of growth indicated a positive result. Similarly, chitinolytic activity was observed on colloidal chitin agar (Hsu & Lockwood, 1975) after 14, 21 and 28 days and positive results recorded when a clear zone was detected around colonies.

Cellulose. Cellulose is composed of β -(1-4) linked glucose subunits. Carboxymethylcellulose plates inoculated with the test strains were incubated for 14 days then flooded with Congo red solution (0.1%, w/v) for 15 minutes at room temperature. Undigested cellulose stained a pinky red when excess reagent was removed; a pale orange to straw colour zone around areas of growth indicated the breakdown of cellulose, such results were recorded as positive.

DNA and RNA. The degradation of DNA was detected using Bacto DNase test agar (Difco; Appendix 3) which contains DNA (0.2%, w/v). Ribonucleic acid breakdown was examined in tryptose agar supplemented with RNA (0.3%, w/v, Goodfellow *et al.*, 1979). In each case, inoculated 7-day-old plates were flooded with 1 N hydrochloric acid which causes nucleic acids to precipitate as a fibrous mass. Positive reactions were indicated by the presence of clear zones from under and around the growth of the tested strains.

55

Gelatin. The degradation of gelatin was detected using modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) supplemented with gelatin (0.4%, w/v). Inoculated plates were incubated for 7 days then flooded with acidic mercuric chloride solution (Appendix 3), the latter acts as a denaturing agent complexing with gelatin and causing it to precipitate. Extracellular proteases hydrolyse gelatin into small peptides and amino acids which do not react with mercuric chloride, positive reactions were indicated by the presence of clear zones from under and around the growth of the tested strains.

Starch. Starch is composed of α -D-glucopyranose sub-units in two different structural configurations; amylose, an α -(1-4) linked polymer, and amylopectin, an α -(1-4) linked molecule with α -(1-6) branches. This test was performed using modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) supplemented with soluble starch (10 g/ litre). Inoculated plates were incubated for 15 days prior to flooding with Lugol's iodine (Appendix 3); iodine complexes with left handed, α - helical, amylose molecules resulting in the formation of a dark blue starch-iodine complex. Extracellular α -amylases show endo-glycosidase activity and are able to hydrolyse starch molecules by random attack at points distant from the chain ends to form short polysaccharide chains (dextrins) and simple sugars which are unable to complex with iodine. Positive results are indicated by the formation of clear zones from around the growth area following the addition of Lugol's iodine.

Tributyrin. The breakdown of glycerol tributyrate was carried out using tributyrin agar (Sigma T3688). Inoculated plates were read after 7 and 14 days. Positive results were recorded when clear zones were observed from under and around colonies.

Tweens. Tweens 20, 40, 60 and 80 are a homologous series of water soluble, high molecular weight fatty acid esters of a polyoxyalkaline derivative of sorbitan which differ in fatty acid components. Tweens 20, 40, 60 and 80 contain mono-laurate, palmitic, stearic and oleic acids, respectively and can be used to detect the production of specific esterases. Esterases produced by tested strains diffuse into the medium and hydrolyse ester linkages releasing free fatty acids which combine with calcium ions (Ca^{2+}) in the medium to form insoluble calcium salts which precipitate out as white crystals characteristic for each of the Tweens. The basal medium of Sierra (1957) supplemented with individual Tweens (10 ml/litre) were inoculated, incubated and examined for the characteristic precipitates which indicated a positive response.

2.8.4. Nutritional tests

The ability of some test strains to metabolise carbon compounds as sole sources of carbon for energy and growth was examined using carbon utilisation agar (ISP medium 9; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) as the basal medium. Solutions of each carbon source were sterilised by steaming at 101°C for 30 minutes on three consecutive days then added to the basal medium to give the required concentration. Media dispensed into Replidishes were inoculated, incubated and examined after 7, 14 and 21 days. The test strains were also inoculated onto the basal media (negative control) and onto the basal medium supplemented with 1%, glucose (positive control). A positive result was recorded when growth on the test medium was equal or greater to that on the positive control, but negative when growth on the test plate was equal to or less than that on the negative control plate.

2.8.5. Tolerance tests

Temperature. The test strains were examined for their ability to grow on modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) at 4°C, 10°C, 20°C, 25°C, 30°C, 37°C and 45°C. Inoculated Replidishes were incubated and read weekly for 6 weeks at 4°C and 10°C, and for 3 weeks at the other temperatures. In all cases, visible growth was recorded as a positive result. The Replidishes incubated at 37°C and 42°C were placed into plastic bags in order to prevent the inoculated medium from drying out.

pH. The ability of the test strains to grow over a range of pH values (Table 2.8) was examined on modified Bennett's agar adjusted to the appropriate pH using 0.1 M solutions of potassium dihydrogen phosphate (KH_2PO_4) and dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (K_2HPO_4) (Appendix 2). Growth was recorded as a positive result after incubation for up to 21 days.

Sodium chloride and lysozyme. The test strains were examined for their ability to grow on modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) supplemented with sodium chloride at 1.5%, 3%, 5% and 7% (w/v) and lysozyme at 0.05% (v/v). Inoculated plates were read after 7, 14 and 21 days when the growth of strains was compared to that on control plates without the supplements; positive reactions were recorded when growth on the test

plates was greater than that on the control plate and a negative one when growth was less or the same as on the control plate.

Resistance to antibiotics. Some test strains were examined for their ability to grow in the presence of different antibiotics at various concentrations. All of the antibiotic solutions were filter sterilised then added to sterile cooled modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949) to give the required concentrations before dispensing into Replidishes; control plates lacking antibiotic were also inoculated. Inoculated plates were incubated for up to 21 days. Organisms were recorded as resistant (+) where growth on the test plate was greater than or equal to that on the control plate and sensitive (-) when growth was less than that on the control plate.

2.9. Data acquired using test kits

API ZYM kits. Suspensions of the Amycolatopsis, Modestobacter and Streptomyces strains were prepared from cultures grown on yeast extract-malt extract agar (ISP medium 2; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) plates for 7 days at 28°C. Biomass was transferred to sterile disposal bijoux bottles containing 2 ml of sterile 1/4 strength Ringer's solution and emulsified by vigorous vortexing to provide turbidity readings equivalent to McFarland scale 5.0 (Murray et al., 1999). Aliqouts (50µl) of the suspensions were incubated at 28°C overnight prior to the addition of single drops of reagent ZYM A (Tris-HCl and sodium lauryl sulphate in water) and one drop of reagent ZYM B (diazonium salt Fast Blue BB in 2-methoxyethanol) to each cupule. The strips were then developed in strong light for 5 minutes to eliminate any yellow colour which may appear in the cupules due to any excess of Fast Blue BB which had not reacted. Enzymetic activity was revealed by the colour changes shown in Table 2.12, reactions were scored from 0 (no enzyme activity) to 5 (very strong enzyme activity), according to the intensity of the colour reaction in each cupule. Scores of 0 to 2 and 3 to 5 were classified as negative (0) and positive (1), respectively.

GEN III MicroPlateTM BiOLOG tests. Suspensions of the Amycolatopsis, Modestobacter and Streptomyces strains were prepared as mentioned for the API ZYM tests. Test strains were examined to establish their carbon utilisation and chemical sensitivity patterns based on 71 and 23 assays, respectively (Table 2.13). Inocula were prepared in Inocula Fluid (IF, BiOLOG) and vigorous by vortexed to give a turbidity reading equivalent to McFarland scale 5. Aliqouts (100 μ l) of the inocula were added to the wells in the Microplates which were then covered with a lid and incubated at 28°C for 3 to 36 hours. Colour densities in the wells were detected using a spectrophotometer (model Multiskan Ascent, Thermo Labsystems) using software version 1.3.1. Positive results were read when colourimetric readings for both the carbon utilisation and chemical tests were greater than the control and negative results when the readings were less or equal to those of the negative control.

2.10. Morphology

Selected *Actinomadura, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia, Saccharothrix* and *Streptomyces* strains (Table 2.14) were grown on oatmeal agar at 28°C for 21 days prior to detecting spore chain arrangement and spore surface ornamentation which were observed by examining gold-coated dehydrated specimens under a scanning electron microscope (Cambridge Stereoscan 240 instrument), as described by O'Donnell *et al.* (1993).

Test	Enzyme detected	Substrate	pН	Positive	Negative
no.				result	result
1	Control	-	-	No colour	No colour
2	Alkaline phosphatase	2-naphthyl phosphate	8.5	Violet	
3	Esterase (C4)	2-napthyl butyrate	6.5	Violet	
4	Esterase lipase (C8)	2-napthyl caprylate	7.5	Violet	
5	Lipase	2-napthyl myristate	7.5	Violet	
6	Leucine arylamidase	L-leucyl-2-naphthylamide	7.5	Orange	
7	Valine arylamidase	L-valyl-2-naphthylamide	7.5	Orange	
8	Cystine arylamidase	L-cystyl-2-naphthylamide	7.5	Orange	lo
9	Trypsin	N-benzoyl-DL-arginine-2-	8.5	Orange	contr
		naphthylamide			AS 6
10	Chymotrypsin	N-glutaryl-phenylalanine-2-	7.5	Orange	
		naphthylamide			
11	Acid phosphatase	2-naphthyl phosphatase	5.4	Violet	
12	Naphthol-AS-BI-	Naphthol-AS-BI-phosphate	5.4	Blue	
	phosphohydrolase				
13	α-Galactosidase	6-Br-2-naphthyl-αD-	5.4	Violet	

 Table 2.12.
 API ZYM colourimetric enzyme assays.

		galactopyranosidase			
14	β-Galactosidase	2-naphthyl-αD-	5.4	Violet	
		galactopyranosidase			
15	β-Glucuronidase	Naphthol-AS-BI-BD-glucuronide	5.4	Blue	
16	α-Glucosidase	2-naphthyl-αD-glucopyranoside	5.4	Violet	
17	β-Glucosidase	6-Br-2-naphthyl-αD-	5.4	Violet	
		glucopyranoside			
18	N-acetyl-β-	1-naphthyl-N-acetyl-βD-	5.4	Brown	
	glucosaminidase	glucosamine			
19	α-Mannosidase	6-Br-2-naphthyl-αD-	5.4	Violet	
		mannopyranoside			
20	α-Fucosidase	2-naphthyl-αL-fucopyranoside	5.4	Violet	

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
А	A1	A2 Dextrin	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9 Stachyose	A10	A11	A12
	negative		D-Maltose	D Trehalose	D-cellobiose	Gentiobose	N-acetyl-β-D-	D-turanose		Positive control	pH6	pH5
	control						mannosamine					
В	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7	B8	B9	B10	B11	B12
	D-raffinose	α-D-lactose	D-melibiose	β-methyl-D-	D-salicin	N-acetyl-D-	N-acetyl-β-D-	D-acetyl-	N-acetyl-	1% NaCl	4% NaCl	8% NaCl
				glucoside		glucosamine	mannosamine	galactosam-ine	Neuraminic acid			
С	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11	C12
	α-D-glucose	D-mannose	D-fructose	D-galactose	3-methyl-	D-fucose	L-fucose	L-rhamnose	inosine	1% sodium lactate	Fusidic acid	D-serine
					glucose							
D	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5 glycerol	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11	D12
	D-sorbitol	D-mannose	D-arabitol	myo-inositol		D-glucose-6-	D-fructose-6-PO ₄	L-rhamnose	D-serine	Troleandomy-cin	rifamycin SV	minocycline
						PO_4						
Е	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7	E8	E9	E10	E11	E12
	gelatin	glycyl-L-	L-alanine	L-arginine	L-aspartic acid	L-glutaminc	L-histidine	L-pyroglutamic	L-serine	lincomycin	guanidine HCl	Niaproof4
		proline				acid		acid				
F	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
	pectin	D-galacturonic	L-galacturon-ic	D-gluconic acid	D-glucuronic	glucoronamide	mucic acid	quinic acid	D-saccharic acid	vancomycin	tetrazolium	tettrazolium
		acid	acid lactone		acid						violet	blue
G	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G11	G12 potassium
	ρ-hydroxy	methyl	D-lactic acid	L-lactic acid	citric acid	α-keto-glutaric	D-malic acid	L-malic acid	bromo-succinic	nalidixic acid	lithium chloride	tellurite
	phenylacetic	pyruvate	methyl ether			acid			acid			
	acid											
Н	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	H7	H8	H9	H10	H11	H12
	tween30	γ-amino-	α-hydroxy	β-hydroxy-D,L-	α-keto-butyric	acetoacetic acid	propionic acid	acetic acid	formic acid	azetreonam	sodiumbuty-rate	sodium bromide
		butyric acid	butyrc acid	butyric acid	acid							

Table 2.13. Colourimetric carbon utilization and tolerance testing using GEN III Microplates.

Table 2.14. Actinomadura, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia, Saccharothrix andStreptomyces strains examined for spore chain arrangement and spore ornamentation usingscanning electron microscopy.

Genera	Code
Actinomadura	KNN34c, KNN53-1a
Nonomuraea	KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b
Pseudonocardia	KNN51-1b
Saccharothrix	KNN54-1a
Streptomyces	C34, C38, C58, C59, C79, KNN2-6c, KNN13a,
	KNN17-2c, KNN21a, KNN23-1b, KNN24-1b,
	KNN26b, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b,
	KNN42f, KNN48-1c, KNN51-1b, KNN66b, KNN83e,
	KNN87b and KNN90a

2.11. Screening for bioactivity

Plug assays. One hundred and thirty four isolates, 106 from the Salar de Atacama and 28 from the Yungay environmental sample (Table2.15) were taken to represent multi-membered and single-membered colour-groups and screened for antimicrobial activity against a panel of wild type microorganisms using a standard agar plug assay (Fiedler, 2004),

The isolates were grown on ISP medium 2 (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), prepared with 0.8% agar, and incubated for 14 days at 30°C.

- Five plugs were taken from each plate using a sterile cork borer and transferred to Petri dishes labelled *Bacillus subtilis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Staphylococcus aureus*.
- Lysogeny broth (50 ml) was mixed with 50 ml of nutrient agar in four separate sterile bottles and 100 µl of the *B. subtilis, E. coli, P. fluorescens*, and *S. aureus* wild type strains added to the appropriate bottle.
- 50 ml of yeast-potato dextrose (YPD) agar was added to 50 ml of YPD broth and 200 µl of the *S. cerevisiae* wild type strain.

The resultant preparations were carefully poured into the corresponding Petri dishes containing the agar plugs until the bottom of the dishes were covered. The media were

allowed to solidify and the plates incubated overnight at 30°C and then examined for the presence and extent of zones of inhibition around the inoculated agar plugs.

Reporter strains. The 92 isolates which showed activity in the plug assays were examined against five *B. subtilis* reporter strains designed to detect specific modes of action on the target cells (Table 2.16).

- Five plugs were taken from each plate, as explained above, and transferred to Petri dishes labelled with the names of the five *B. subtilis* reporter strains.
- 25 ml Luria broth (LB) 100 μl of erythromycin, 100 μl of X-gal and 100 μl of each reporter strain were added to 75 ml of nutrient agar; for the *phi*105^{CH} reporter strain 100 μl of chloramphenicol was used instead of erythromycin.
- The resultant media were carefully poured into Perti dishes until all of the plugs were covered.

Table 2.15. Representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples and examined in the plug assays against a panel of pathogenic microorganisms.

Salar de Atacama	Yungay
Multi-membered colour-groups:	Multi-membered colour groups:
KNN1-2c, KNN1-5f, KNN2-2c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-6c, KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN3-1b, KNN3-2b, KNN3-11d, KNN3-17d, KNN4-1b, KNN4-3b, KNN4-4a, KNN5-24b, KNN5-25d, KNN6-2a, KNN6-5a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a, KNN8-3a, KNN8-5b, KNN8-8a, KNN8-9c, KNN8-10e, KNN9-1a, KNN9-2c, KNN10-3b, KNN10-4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN11-5a, KNN11-6a, KNN14- 3e, KNN17-1c, KNN17-2b, KNN18-3d, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-7e, KNN24-8e, KNN24-9e, KNN32-1a, KNN35- 1b, KNN35-2b, KNN36-1c, KNN36-3c, KNN37-1e, KNN37-5a, KNN38-1b, KNN38-5b, KNN48-3e, KNN48-6d, KNN49-5e, KNN49- 26a, KNN50-8b, KNN50-11c, KNN52-2b, KNN53-1a, KNN53-2a, KNN53-3a, KNN54-1a, KNN57-1b, KNN58-1b, KNN61-1a, KNN63- 2b, KNN63-15b, KNN64-3a, KNN64-5b, KNN65-1f, KNN65-5d,	KNN7-2b, KNN13a, KNN21a, KNN23-1b, KNN44-2a, KNN44-4b, KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN55-1b, KNN86-1b, KNN88-1a, KNN91-1a
KNN67-4b, KNN68-2b, KNN68-4b, KNN69-1a, KNN69-2, KNN69- 3a, KNN71-2a, KNN73-2a, KNN74-2c, KNN75-4b, KNN81-2b, KNN82-1a, KNN85-1f	KNN47b, KNN51b, KNN89a, KNN90a, KNN96a, KNN97a
Single-membered colour groups:	
KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN27a, KNN28a, KNN29a, KNN30a, KNN31d, KNN33a, KNN34c, KNN39c, KNN43b, KNN56a, KNN66b, KNN72a, KNN76b, KNN83e, KNN87b, KNN94es	

Positive controls (10 μ l) were placed on Whatman filter paper discs (6 mm diameter) and applied to the corresponding plates which were incubated overnight at 30°C and examined for blue rings around Whatman filter paper (Brunstein, 2010), The reporter genes are induced by bioactive substances and causing the cleavage X-gal to galactose and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-hydroxyindole. The presence of a blue halo around inhibition zones which is due to this latter compound, indicates the mode of action of the bioactive compounds.

Positive results in the plug assays based on the *B. subtilis* reporter strains were recorded when a blue halo was formed round zones of inhibition.

Table 2.16. *Bacillus subtilis* strains containing reporter genes and positive controls used in the plug assays designed to determine the mode of action of unknown antimicrobial compounds.

Reporter genes	Positive controls	Targets
<i>yvq</i> I ^{ER}	Bacitracin	Cell wall synthesis
<i>yvg</i> S ^{ER}	Rifampicin	RNA synthesis
ypuA ^{ER}	Cefoxitin	Cell envelope synthesis
Phi105 ^{CH}	Nalidixic acid	DNA synthesis
yjaX ^{ER}	Triclosan	Fatty acid synthesis

ER: erythromycin resistant, CH: chloramphenicol resistant.

Disk diffusion assays. The mycelial extracts of the 92 representative isolates tested in the plug assays were examined against the *E. coli* and *S. cerevisiae* strains and against the 5 *B. subtilis* reporter strains. Each isolate was grown on ISP medium 2 (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), prepared with 0.8% agar, and incubated for 7 days at 30°C. Cultures growing on the ISP medium were crushed using a sterile syringe, kept overnight at -20° C, the supernatants (extracts) collected using wide bore pipette tips and transferred to 10 ml Falcon tubes. The media used for the disk diffusion assays were prepared as for the plug assays. The resultant media were poured into the corresponding Petri dishes and allowed to solidify. Twenty sterile Whatman filter paper disks (6 mm diameter) impregnated with 10 µl of extracts were placed on the agar surface of each Petri dish, the plates incubated overnight at 30°C and the extent of zones of inhibition measured.
2.12. Preliminary characterisation of bioactive compounds

Strains. Six strains belonging to the genera *Amycolatopsis* (isolates KNN50-8b and KNN50-16d) and *Streptomyces* (isolates KNN26b, KNN38-1b, KNN64-5b and KNN90a) were chosen because they produced extensive inhibition zones in the plug assays and were distinct from their closest phylogenetic neighbours in the corresponding *Amycolatopsis* and *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene trees.

Production media and cultivation conditions. Four media were employed for submerged cultivation of the selected strains, namely yeast-extract malt-extract medium (ISP medium 2, Shirling and Gottleb, 1966), medium 19, medium 410 and starch-casein agar (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010) containing 1 gram Amberlite per 50 ml of production medium for secondary metabolites adsorption from cultivated medium (Sigma-Aldrich, Gillingham Dorset, UK). The inoculated media were shaken at 180 rpm for 14 days.

Preparation of extracts. The Amberlite beads were separated from production media biomass by centrifugation at 2,000 rpm for 5 minutes then washed 4-5 times with sterile distilled water. The Amberlite bead preparations were then shaken in 50 ml of methanol overnight prior to centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes and the Amberlite discarded. The resultant supernatants were dried under a nitrogen gas stream and the dried preparations sent to Professor Marcel Jaspars at Aberdeen University for preliminary chemical analyses.

Chemical analyses. Each preparation was dissolved in methanol to give a final concentration of 0.5mg/mL, filtered and submitted for liquid chromatographic/mass spectrometric (LCMS) analysis. High resolution mass spectral data were obtained from a Thermo Instruments MS system (LTQ XL/ LTQ Orbitrap Discovery) coupled to a Thermo Instruments HPLC system (Accela PDA detector, Accela PDA autosampler and Accela Pump using the following conditions : capillary voltage 45 V, capillary temperature 260°C, auxilliary gas flow rate 10-20 arbitrary units, sheath gas flow rate 40-50 arbitrary units, spray voltage 4.5 kV. mass range 100–2000 amu (maximum resolution 30000). An Agilent Poroshell 120, EC-C18, 2.1x100 mm, 2.7um UPLC column was used for LC/MS with a mobile phase of 0-100% MeCN over 30 minutes at 0.5 ml/min flow rate. The results were presented as mass spectrophotometric (MS), liquid spectrophotometric (LC) and ultraviolet (UV) traces.

Chapter 3. Biosystematic Studies and Screening of Representative Strains Isolated from Hyper-arid and Extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert Soils

3.1. Abstract

Atacama Desert soils are a largely untapped source of actinobacteria with a potential to produce biologically active specialised metabolites for the control of drug resistant pathogens. This study was designed to recover and screen taxonomically diverse actinobacteria from two habitats in the Atacama Desert, a hyper-arid soil from the Salar de Atacama region and an extreme hyper-arid soil from the Yungay region. The hyperarid soil yielded relatively large numbers of Amycolatopsis and Streptomyces strains and small numbers of Actinomadura, Kribbella, Lechevalieria, Nonomuraea and Saccharothrix strains. Modestobacter and Streptomyces were predominant in the extreme hyper-arid soil through small numbers of Blastococcus, Couchioplanes and Geodermatophilus strains were isolated. With few exceptions representatives of the genera formed distinct phyletic lines in 16S rRNA gene trees. Most of the representative isolates examined in standard plug assays inhibited the growth of one or more of a panel of five wild type micro-organisms while some of the streptomycetes from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were shown to inhibit cell envelope, cell wall, fatty acid and RNA synthesis in assays based on Bacillus subtilis reporter strains. In contrast, few of the non-streptomycetes produced bioactive compounds through this may reflect the use of an inappropriate production media. Nevertheless, these results confirm that novel actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, from hyper- and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Dsert soils are a rich source of diverse bioactive compounds that may be developed as resources for healthcare.

3.2. Introduction

Previously unknown filamentous actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, are proving to be a rich source of new natural products, especially antibiotics, that can be developed as, resources for healthcare. Streptomycetes account for around 40% of known specialised metabolites and have genomes that typically contain over twenty biosynthetic gene clusters that encode for known or predicted secondary metabolites (Bérdy, 2012). Although an underused resource, it is difficult to find new specialised metabolites from known actinobacteria as screening them tends to lead to the rediscovery of compounds of known provenance (Busti *et al.*, 2000; Lam, 2007; Williams, 2008). Consequently, new strategies are being developed to selectively isolate, dereplicate and recognise novel actinobacteria for pharmaceutical screening programmes, as exemplified by the taxonomic approach to drug discovery recommended by Goodfellow & Fiedler (2010). This approach to bioprospecting has been used to isolate actinobacteria from extreme biomes, especially marine habitats, on the premise that harsh environmental conditions give rise to unique actinobacteria presenting novel chemistry (Bull & Stach, 2007; Bull 2011).

Novel actinobacteria isolated from deep-sea sediments have been shown to be an especially prolific source of new antibiotics, as illustrated by the discovery of caboxamycin, a benzoxazole antibiotic produced by a Streptomyces strain isolated from the Canary Basin in the Atlantic Ocean (Hohmann et al., 2009) and the abyssomicins, a family of polycyclic polyketides isolated from a Verrucosispora maris strain derived from a sediment sample collected from the Sea of Japan (Riedlinger et al., 2004; Keller et al., 2007; Goodfellow et al., 2012b). Salinispora, an obligate marine genus which has a pan-tropical distribution in near shore marine sediments, is proving to be a particularly rich source of new antibiotics (Mincer et al., 2002; Fenical & Jensen, 2006; Jensen et al., 2007; Jensen, 2010). Salinispora arenicola and Salinospora tropica, the founder members of the genus have a large fraction of their genomes encoding for the biosynthesis of structurally unique specialised metabolites which are produced in species-specific patterns, Salinispora arenicola synthesises metabolites in the rifampicin and staurosporine classes and S. tropica compounds in the salinosporamide and spiralide clades, including salinisporamide A, an anticancer agent. Such studies helped promote an explosion of interest in marine actinobacteria as a source of new specialised metabolites (Blunt et al., 2012; Zotchev, 2012; Manivasagan et al., 2013).

The taxonomic approach to drug discovery has been used to isolate and screen novel filamentous actinobacteria from Atacama Desert soils in Northern Chile (Bull & Asenjo, 2013). The Atacama Desert is the oldest and driest desert on the planet having evolved over several million years of aridity and hyper-aridity (Gómez-Silva *et al.*, 2008). Environment conditions in the desert have been considered too extreme to support any form of life due to a dearth of liquid water, virtual absence of organic matter, presence of inorganic oxidants and high levels of UV radiation. Nevertheless, small numbers of phylogenetically novel filamentous actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, have been isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils (Okoro *et al.*, 2009) and shown to synthesise novel specialised metabolites (Bull & Asenjo, 2013). Three of the putatively novel *Streptomyces* isolates have been validly named as *Streptomyces atacamensis*, *Streptomyces bullii* and *Streptomyces deserti* and another two found to syntheses new antibiotics and anticancer agents, the atacamycins, chaxalactins and chaxamycins (Nachtigall *et al.*, 2011; Rateb *et al.*, 2011a, b; Bull & Asenjo, 2013). Another putatively novel *Streptomyces* strain from high altitude Atacama altiplano soil produced new aminobenzoquinones, the abenquines, which show inhibitory activity against bacteria and dematophilic fungi (Schulz *et al.*, 2011). In addition, three isolates assigned to the rare genus *Lechevalieria deserti* and *Lechevalieria roselyniae* (Okoro *et al.*, 2010).

The present study was designed to build upon and extend the pioneering studies of Okoro *et al.* (2009, 2010). To this end, large numbers of actinobacteria were isolated from two contrasting locations in the Atacama Desert using a broad range of selective isolation media, dereplicated, assigned to genera and screened for their ability to inhibit the growth of a panel of micro-organisms and *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains, the latter designed to detected modes of action of bioactive compounds.

3.3. Materials and Methods

3. 3. 1. Sampling sites

Environmental samples were collected from two locations in the Atacama Desert by Professor A.T. Bull (School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, UK.), namely the Laguna de Chaxa, Salar de Atacama, near Tocanao (latitude 23°17'S, longitude 68°10'W), and the Yungay region (latitude 24°06'18.6" and longitude 70°01'55.6") (see Chapter 2).

3. 3. 2. Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples

The pH of the environmental samples were determined using the procedure described by Reed and Cummings (1945). The pH of each sample was determined, in triplicate, using a glass electrode pH meter (Model 320 Mettler-Toledo AG, CH.8603, Schwerzenbach, Switzerland). The percentage moisture content of the environmental samples were determined, in triplicate, by drying known amounts of the samples to constant weight at 105°C then calculating the average loss in weight between each set of samples. The dried samples were placed in a muffle furnace (Carbolite, Sheffield, UK), the temperature raised slowly to 700°C and kept constant for 30 minutes to burn off any organic matter. After cooling overnight in a desiccator, the average loss in weight for each set of samples was recorded as the total organic matter content.

3. 3. 3. Selective isolation and enumeration of actinobacteria isolated from the environmental samples

Soil suspensions from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples were prepared in 1/4 strength Ringer's solution (Oxoid, UK) to give $10^{-1/2}$ dilutions which were shaken on a tumble shaker (TMI Tumbler, Luckham Ltd., Sussex, UK) for 30 minutes, heat-pretreated at 55°C for 6 minutes, as described by Okoro *et al.* (2009). Aliquots (100 µl) of the various dilutions were spread over plates of several selective isolation media (Table 3.1) which had been dried for 15 minutes at room temperature prior to inoculation (Vickers & Williams, 1987). Three replicate plates were prepared for each dilution and for each of the isolation media. After incubation at 28°C for 3 weeks, the number of actinobacteria growing on the isolation plates were counted and the results expressed as the number of colony forming units (cfu) per gram dry weight of environmental sample.

Media	Selective agents ($\mu g \text{ ml}^{-1}$)	Target organism(s)
Gause's No.1 agar (Gause <i>et al.</i> , 1957; Zakharova <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	Nalidixic acid (10)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria
Geodermatophilus obscurus agar (Uchida &Seino, 1997)	Nystatin (25)	Geodermatophilus spp.
Glucose-yeast extract agar (Athalye et al., 1981)	Rifampicin (20)	Actinomadura spp.
HV agar (Hayakawa & Nonomura, 1987)	Humic acid $(1g L^{-1})$	Streptosporangiaceae spp.

Table 3.1. Media used for the selective isolation of actinobacteria from the AtacamaDesert environmental samples.

Luedemann's agar (Luedemann, 1971)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.
Microlunatus agar (Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.
Minimal medium agar (Johnson <i>et al.</i> , 1981)	Nystatin (25)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria
Oligotrophic agar (Senechkin <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Low carbon and nitrogen content	Rare and uncommon actinobacteria
R2A (Reasoner & Geldreich, 1985)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.
Starch-casein agar (Küster &Williams, 1964)	Nystatin (25)	Streptomyces spp.
SM1 (Tan et al., 2006)	Neomycin (1) and nystatin (25)	Amycolatopsis spp.

All of the media were supplemented with cycloheximide ($25 \ \mu g \ ml^{-1}$).

3. 3. 4. Selection, maintenance and presumptive classification of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples

Four hundred and twenty strains chosen to represent the various colony types growing on the selective isolation plates were subcultured onto yeast extract-malt extract agar plates (International *Streptomyces* Project [ISP2], Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and incubated at 28°C for 14 days. Three hundred and fifteen of the strains were taken from the isolation plates inoculated with suspensions of the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and 105 from those seeded with suspensions of the environmental sample taken from the Yungay region. Colonies that produced a leathery substrate mycelium covered by an abundant aerial spore mass were considered to belong to the genus *Streptomyces*, and those which formed shiny black, mucoid colonies were assigned to the family *Geodermatophilaceae*. In contrast, isolates producing leathery colonies covered by little or no aerial hyphae were assumed to belong to a range of filamentous actinobacterial taxa.

Maintenance of strains. All of the isolates were grown on oatmeal (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and modified Bennett's agar plates (Jones, 1949) at 28°C for 3 weeks. Suspensions of spores and mycelial fragments from each of the inoculated plates were suspended in 1 ml aliquots of 20%, v/v glycerol (2 vials per strain per medium) in

cryotubes, one culture prepared from each medium was kept at -80°C for long-term preservation, the others, the working cultures, were kept at -20°C.

Assignment to colour-groups. The presumptive streptomycete and non-streptomycete strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples were subcultured onto oatmeal agar (ISP medium 3, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1996) and peptone-yeast extract-iron agar (PYEIA, ISP medium 6, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) and incubated at 28°C for 14 days and 4 days, respectively. The isolates were assigned to colour-groups based on aerial spore mass, substrate mycelial and diffusible pigment colours produced on the oatmeal agar plates, using National Bureau of Standards (NBS) Colour Name Charts (Kelly, 1958) and by their ability to produce melanin pigments on the PYEIA plates (Tables 3.2 and 3.3).

Table 3.2. Actinobacteria isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental

 sample and assigned to single- and multi-membered colour-groups.

Actinobacteria	Codes	

Presumptive streptomycetes:

Multi-membered	C34, C38, C58, C59, C79, KNN1-1a*, KNN1-2c, KNN1-3b, KNN1-5f; KNN2-1b*,
colour-groups	KNN2-2c, KNN2-3c, KNN2-4c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-6c, KNN2-7d, KNN2-8b, KNN2-9d,
•	KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN2-12d, KNN2-13a, KNN2-14c, KNN2-15a, KNN2-16c,
	KNN2-17d, KNN2-18c, KNN3-1b*, KNN3-2b, KNN3-3c, KNN3-4b, KNN3-5c, KNN3-
	6c, KNN3-7c, KNN3-8c, KNN3-9c, KNN3-10e, KNN3-14d, KNN3-15d, KNN3-16d,
	KNN3-17d, KNN3-18d, KNN3-19b, KNN4-1b*, KNN4-2e, KNN4-3b, KNN4-4a;
	KNN5-1a*, KNN5-2a, KNN5-3c, KNN5-4c, KNN5-5a, KNN5-6a, KNN5-7a, KNN5-8b,
	KNN5-9b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-15b, KNN5-16d, KNN5-17d,
	KNN5-18d, KNN5-19d, KNN5-20d, KNN5-25b, KNN5-28c, KNN5-29b, KNN5-30d,
	KNN5-31e; KNN6-1a*, KNN6-2a, KNN6-3a, KNN6-4a, KNN6-5a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-
	7d, KNN6-8d, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a; KNN8-1b*, KNN8-2b, KNN8-3a,
	KNN8-4b, KNN8-5d, KNN8-6b, KNN8-7a, KNN8-8a, KNN8-9a, KNN8-10c, KNN8-
	11e, KNN9-1a*, KNN9-2e, KNN9-3a, KNN10-1a*, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-
	4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-2a, KNN11-3c, KNN11-4b, KNN11-5a, KNN11-
	6b, KNN14-1f*, KNN14-2c, KNN14-3e, KNN16-1c*, KNN16-2c, KNN17-1c*,
	KNN17-2b; KNN18-1b*, KNN18-2c, KNN18-3d, KNN24-1b*, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c,
	KNN24-4c, KNN24-5c, KNN24-6a, KNN24-7c, KNN24-8e, KNN29-1a*, KNN32-1a*,
	KNN32-2b, KNN35-1b*, KNN35-2b; KNN36-1*c, KNN36-2c, KNN36-3c; KNN37-
	1e*, KNN37-2a KNN37-3a, KNN37-4a, KNN37-5a*, KNN38-1b*, KNN38-2d,
	KNN38-3d, KNN38-4a, KNN38-5b, KNN41-1b*, KNN41-2a, KNN48-1c*, KNN48-2a,
	KNN48-3e, KNN48-4e, KNN48-5e, KNN52-1c*, KNN52-2b, KNN52-3b, KNN54-1b*,
	KNN54-2b, KNN58-1b*, KNN58-2c, KNN60-1c*, KNN60-2d, KNN63-1b*, KNN63-

71

2b, KNN63-3b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-5a, KNN63-6b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-8d, KNN63-9d, KNN63-10d, KNN63-11b, KNN63-12b, KNN63-13b, KNN63-14b, KNN63-15b, KNN63-16b, KNN63-17b, KNN63-18b, KNN63-19e, KNN64-1a*, KNN64-2a, KNN64-3a, KNN64-4b, KNN64-5b, KNN64-6b; KNN65-1f*, KNN65-2a, KNN65-3c, KNN65-4c, KNN65-5d, KNN67-1b*, KNN67-2b, KNN67-3b, KNN67-4b, KNN68-1b*, KNN68-2b, KNN68-3b, KNN68-4b, KNN69-1e*, KNN69-2a, KNN69-3a, KNN71-1a*, KNN71-2a, KNN73-1a*, KNN73-2a, KNN73-3d, KNN74-1c*, KNN74-2c, KNN75-1c*, KNN75-2b, KNN75-3b, KNN75-4b, KNN78-1e*, KNN78-2e, KNN79-1b*, KNN79-2b, KNN79-3d; KNN80-1c*, KNN80-2d, KNN81-1c*, KNN81-2b, KNN81-3d, KNN82-1a*, KNN82-2c, KNN85-1f*, KNN85-2b, KNN85-3b, KNN85-4c, KNN85-5c, KNN85-6c, KNN85-7c, KNN85-8a

Single-memberedKNN25c*, KNN26b* KNN27a*, KNN28a*, KNN30a*, KNN31d*, KNN33a*,colour groupsKNN39c*, KNN43b*, KNN51b*, KNN56a*, KNN59e*, KNN62b*, KNN66*,
KNN70b*, KNN72a*, KNN76b*, KNN83e*, KNN84c*, KNN87b*, KNN94e*

Presumptive non-streptomycetes:

Multi-membered	KNN49-1f*, KNN49-2e, KNN49-3e, KNN49-4e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-7c,
colour-groups	KNN49-8c, KNN49-9c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-
	14b, KNN49-15b, KNN49-16c, KNN49-17b, KNN49-18b, KNN49-19a, KNN49-20b,
	KNN49-21c, KNN49-22d, KNN49-23d, KNN49-24d, KNN49-25d, KNN49-26a,
	KNN49-27a, KNN49-28a, KNN49-29a, KNN49-30b, KNN49-31b, KNN49-32b,
	KNN50-1a*, KNN50-2e, KNN50-3c, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d,
	KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-
	14d, KNN50-15d, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d KNN50-8d, KNN53-1a*, KNN53-2a,
	KNN53-3a, KNN54-1a*, KNN54-2b, KNN57-1b*, KNN57-2b, KNN61-1e*, KNN61-
	2a, KNN61-3e, KNN61-4e, KNN61-5e, KNN61-6b

Single-membered KNN34a*, KNN77b*

colour-groups

Codes exemplified by strain KNN2-1b, this organism was isolated by Kanungnid Busarakam (KNN), assigned to colour-group 2 as the first member of group and was isolated on a humic acid-vitamin agar isolation plate. The C-coded isolates represent a colour-group delineated by Okoro *et al.* (2009).

Codes for selective isolation media : (a), Gause No.1 agar; (b), HVA, humic acid-vitamin agar; (c), Oligotrophic agar; (d), minimal medium agar; (e), SM1 agar; (h), SCAV agar

*Representatives of colour-groups used to detect isomers of diaminopimelic acid in whole-organism hydrolysates.

The C-coded strains are known to contain LL-A2pm in whole-organism hydrolysates (Okoro et al., 2009).

Table 3.3. Actinobacteria isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental sample and assigned to single- and multi-membered colour-groups.

1 0			
Actinobacteria	Codes		
Presumptive streptomycete	S:		
Multi-membered colour- groups	KNN12-1a*, KNN12-2a, KNN15-1a*, KNN15-2a, KNN16-2c, KNN19-1b*, KNN19-2c, KNN23-1b*, KNN23-2a, KNN29-2a, KNN29-3a, KNN48-7d, KNN48- 8d, KNN48-9d, KNN48-10d, KNN48-11b, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-14a, KNN48-15a, KNN48-16c, KNN48-17c, KNN48-18c, KNN48-19c, KNN48-20c, KNN77-1a*, KNN77-2a, KNN77-3a, KNN77-4a, KNN77-5a, KNN77-6a, KNN86- 1b*, KNN86-2b, KNN86-3b, KNN86-4b, KNN86-5c, KNN86-6a, KNN88-1a*, KNN88-2b, KNN88-3b, KNN88-4a, KNN91-1a*, KNN91-2b, KNN91-3b, KNN91- 4a, KNN91-5a, KNN91-6a, KNN92-1b*, KNN92-2b, KNN92-3b, KNN92-4a, KNN92-5a, KNN92-6a, KNN92-7a, KNN93-1a*, KNN93-2a, KNN93-4a, KNN 93- 5a, KNN95-1f*, KNN95-2f, KNN95-3f, KNN95-4f, KNN95-5f, KNN95-6f, KNN95-7f		
Single-membered colour- groups	KNN13a*; KNN20c*, KNN21a*; KNN22a*; KNN40a*; KNN42a*, KNN51b*; KNN89b*, KNN90b*; KNN96b*; KNN97b*; KNN98b*		
Presumptive non-streptomy	/cetes:		
Multi-membered colour-gro	oups		
Geodermatophilaceae	KNN44-1b*, KNN44-2a, KNN44-3a, KNN44-4c, KNN45-1b, KNN45-2a, KNN45- 3b*, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b*, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5a, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7g, KNN46-8c, KNN46-9, KNN46-10, KNN46-11		
Others	KNN7-1b*, KNN7-2b, KNN7-3b, KNN7-4b, KNN23-1a*, KNN23-2a, KNN55-1b*, KNN55-2b		
Single-membered colour- group	KNN47*		

KNN and media codes as for Table 3.2.; Additional codes (f) *Geodermatophilus obscurus* agar; (g) Luedemann's agar.

Detection of diaminopimelic acid isomers. Ninety eight strains representing each of the colour-groups (Tables 3.2 and 3.3) were examined for diaminopimelic acid (A_2pm) isomers using the procedure described by Hasegawa *et al.* (1983) and biomass scraped from strains grown on ISP2 agar plates (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1960) incubated at 28°C for 14 days.

3. 3. 5. Classification of representative actinobacteria from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples to generic rank

Phylogenetic analyses. Ninety eight isolates were taken to represent 64 multi- and 34 single-membered colour-groups (Table 3.4). Genomic DNA of the selected isolates was extracted from biomass scrapped from yeast-extract malt-extract plates (ISP2 medium, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) that had been incubated for 14 days at 28°C. PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA purified gene products of the isolates was carried out, as described by Kim & Goodfellow (2002). The resultant almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences (~1300 to 1450 nucleotide [nt]) were submitted to the EzTaxon server (http://eztaxon-e.ezbiocloud.net/; Kim et al. (2012) and aligned with corresponding 16S rRNA gene sequences of closely related type strains of the appropriate genus (Table 3.5) using CLUSTAL W version 1.8 software (Thompson et al., 1994). Individual phylogenetic trees were generated from the aligned sequences using the maximumlikelihood (Felsenstein, 1981), maximum-parsimony (Fitch, 1971) and neighbourjoining (Saitou & Nei, 1987) tree-making algorithms drawn from the MEGA and PHYML software packages (Guindon & Gascuel, 2003; Tamura et al., 2011; evolutionary matrices for the neighbour-joining analyses were prepared using the Jukes and Cantor (1969) model. The topology of the inferred evolutionary trees were evaluated by bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985) based on 1000 resamplings of the neighbour-joining datasets using MEGA 5 software.

Table 3.4. Representative actinobacteria taken to represent multi-membered and singlemembered colour-groups examined in the comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence studies.

A. Representative isolates from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample

Multi-membered colour-groups:

C34*, C38*, C58*, C59*, C79*, KNN2-4c, KNN2-6c, KNN4-1b, KNN4-4a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a, KNN9-1a, KNN9-2c, KNN10-4a, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-5a, KNN24-1b, KNN32-1a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b, KNN41-1b, KNN48-1e, KNN48-3e, KNN48-6d, KNN49-1h, KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-26a, KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14a, KNN50-15a, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d, KNN50-18d, KNN53-1a, KNN53-3a, KNN54-1a, KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b, KNN61-1a, KNN64-5b, KNN82-2c,

KNN83e, KNN88-1c

Single-membered colour groups:

KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN34c, KNN56a, KNN70b, KNN87b, KNN94e

B. Representative isolates from the Yungay environmental sample

Multi-membered colour-groups:

KNN7-2b, KNN23-1b, KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b, KNN44-4b, KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c, KNN46-10g, KNN46-11f, KNN55-1b, KNN55-2b

Single-membered colour-groups:

KNN13a, KNN22a, KNN42f, KNN47b, KNN51b, KNN70b, KNN89a, KNN90a

*Strains isolated by Okoro et al. (2009).

Chemotaxonomy. Wet biomass of 21 representative isolates was prepared by harvesting from shake flasks of yeast extract malt-extract broth (ISP medium 2, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after 14 days at 28° C. The resultant preparations, which represented the 12 genera detected in the 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies (Table 3.5). Standard procedures used to establish the predominant menaquinones (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984) and polar lipids (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984). Similarly, standard procedures were examined for the presence of diagnostic sugars using procedure described by Hasegawa *et al.* (1983), the sugar paterns of the strains were identified by comparison against on in house standard solution. (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984)

	1			5
Codes			Source	Genera
KNN53-1a, KN	IN53-2a		Salar de Atacama	Actinomadura
KNN49-5e, KNN50-11c	KNN49-26a,	KNN50-8b,	Salar de Atacama	Amycolatopsis
KNN47b			Yungay	Blastococcus
KNN7-2b			Yungay	Cochioplanes
KNN44-1b			Yungay	Geodermatophilus

Table 3.5. Representative actinobacteria included in the chemotaxonomic analyses.

KNN56a	Salar de Atacama	Kribbella
KNN94e	Salar de Atacama	Lechevalieria
KNN45-2b, KNN46-3b	Yungay	Modestobacter
KNN57-1b	Salar de Atacama	Nonomuraea
KNN55-1b	Yungay	Pseudonocardia
KNN10-4d	Salar de Atacama	Saccharothrix
C34, C38, C58, C59, C79	Salar de Atacama	Streptomyces

Morphology. Selected *Actinomadura, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia, Saccharothrix* and *Streptomyces* isolates (Table 3.6) were grown on oatmeal agar at 28°C for 21 days prior to detecting spore chain arrangement and spore surface ornamentation using gold-coated dehydrated specimens under a scanning electron microscope (Cambridge Stereoscan 240 instrument), as described by O'Donnell *et al.* (1993).

Table 3.6. Actinomadura, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia, Saccharothrix andStreptomyces strains examined for spore chain arrangement and spore surfaceornamentation using scanning electron microscopy.

Genera	Codes		
Actinomadura	KNN34c, KNN53-1a		
Nonomuraea	KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b		
Pseudonocardia	KNN55-1b		
Saccharothrix	KNN10-4d, KNN54-1a		
Streptomyces	C34, C38, C58, C59, C79, KNN2-6c, KNN13a,		
	KNN17-2b, KNN21a, KNN23-1b, KNN24-1b,		
	KNN26b, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b,		
	KNN42f, KNN48-1c, KNN51b, KNN66b,		
	KNN83e, KNN87b and KNN90a		

3. 3. 6. Screening for bioactivity

Plug assays. One hundred and thirty four isolates, 106 from the Salar de Atacama and 28 from the Yungay environmental sample (Table 3.7) taken to represent multimembered and single-membered colour-groups were screened for antimicrobial activity against a panel of wild type microorganisms using a standard agar plug assay (Fiedler, 2004), as detailed on page 61 in the Materials and Methods section. **Table 3.7.** Representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay

 environmental samples examined against the panel of wild type microorganisms in plug

assays.

Salar de Atacama	Yungay
Multi-membered colour-groups:	Multi-membered colour groups:
KNN1-2c, KNN1-5f, KNN2-2c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-6c, KNN2- 10d, KNN2-11d, KNN3-1b, KNN3-2b, KNN3-11d, KNN3-17d, KNN4-1b, KNN4-3b, KNN4-4a, KNN5-24b, KNN5-25d, KNN6- 2a, KNN6-5a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a, KNN8-3a, KNN8-5b, KNN8-8a, KNN8-9c, KNN8-10e, KNN9-1a, KNN9- 2c, KNN10-3b, KNN10-4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN11-5a, KNN11-6a, KNN14-3e, KNN11-2a, KNN11-4b, KNN18-3d, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-7e, KNN24-8e, KNN24-9e, KNN32-1a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN36-1c, KNN36-3c, KNN37-1e, KNN37-5a, KNN38-1b, KNN14-3c, KNN14-3c, KNN37-5a, KNN38-1b,	KNN7-2b, KNN13a, KNN21a, KNN23-1b, KNN44-2a, KNN44-4b, KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN55-1b, KNN86-1b, KNN88- 1a, KNN91-1a
KNN50-8b, KNN50-11c, KNN52-2b, KNN53-1a, KNN53-2a, KNN53-3a KNN54-1a KNN57-1b KNN58-1b KNN61-1a	Single-membered colour groups:
KNN63-2b, KNN63-15b, KNN64-3a, KNN64-5b, KNN65-1f, KNN65-5d, KNN67-4b, KNN68-2b, KNN68-4b, KNN69-1a, KNN69-2, KNN69-3a, KNN71-2a, KNN73-2a, KNN74-2c, KNN75-4b, KNN81-2b, KNN82-1a, KNN85-1f	KNN47b, KNN51b, KNN89a, KNN90a, KNN96a, KNN97a
Single-membered colour groups:	
KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN27a, KNN28a, KNN29a, KNN30a, KNN31d, KNN33a, KNN34c, KNN39c, KNN43b, KNN56a, KNN66b, KNN72a, KNN76b, KNN83e, KNN87b, KNN94es	

Reporter strains. The 92 isolates which showed activity in the plug assays were examined against five *B. subtilis* reporter strains designed to detect specific modes of action on the target cells (Table 3.8), as details on pages 61 and 63 in the Materials and Methods section.

Disk diffusion assays. The mycelial extracts of the 92 representative isolates tested in the plug assays were examined against the *E. coli* and *S. cerevisiae* strains and against the 5 *B. subtilis* reporter strains. Each isolate was grown on ISP medium 2 (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), prepared with 0.8% agar, and incubated for 7 days at 30°C. Cultures growing on the ISP medium were crushed using a sterile syringe, kept overnight at -20° C, the supernatants (extracts) collected using wide bore pipette tips and transferred to 10 ml Falcon tubes. The media used for the disk diffusion assays were prepared as for the plug assays. The resultant media were poured into the corresponding Petri dishes and allowed to solidify. Twenty sterile Whatman filter paper disks (6 mm diameter) impregnated with 10 µl of extracts were placed on the agar surface of each Petri dish,

the plates incubated overnight at 30°C and the extent of zones of inhibition measured.

3. 3. 7. Preliminary characterisation of bioactive compounds

Selection of strains. Six strains belonging to the genera *Amycolatopsis* (isolates KNN50-8b and KNN50-16d) and *Streptomyces* (isolates KNN26b, KNN38-1b, KNN64-5b and KNN90a) were chosen because they produced extensive inhibition zones in the plug assays and were distinct from their closest phylogenetic neighbours in the corresponding *Amycolatopsis* and *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene trees.

Production media and growth conditions. Each of the selected strains was shaken at 180 rpm at 28°C for 14 days in 50 ml of each of the production media, namely yeast-extract malt-extract broth (ISP medium 2, Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), medium 19 and medium 410 broths (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010); each formulation contained 1 gram Amberlite (Sigma-Aldrich, Gillingham, Dorset, UK) per 50 ml of production medium for secondary metabolite adsorption. The inoculated media were shaken at 180 rpm for 14 days at 28°C.

Preparation of extracts. The Amberlite beads were separated from production media biomass by centrifugation at 2,000 rpm for 5 minutes then washed 4-5 times with sterile distilled water. The Amberlite bead preparations were then shaken in 50 ml of methanol overnight prior to centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes and the Amberlite discarded. The resultant supernatants were dried under a nitrogen gas stream and the dried preparations sent to Professor Marcel Jaspars at Aberdeen University for chemical analyses.

Chemical analyses. Each preparation was dissolved in methanol to give a final concentration of 0.5mg/mL, filtered and submitted for liquid chromatographic/mass spectrometric (LCMS) analysis. High resolution mass spectral data were obtained from a Thermo Instruments MS system (LTQ XL/ LTQ Orbitrap Discovery) coupled to a Thermo Instruments HPLC system (Accela PDA detector, Accela PDA autosampler and Accela Pump using the following conditions: capillary voltage 45 V, capillary temperature 260°C, auxilliary gas flow rate 10-20 arbitrary units, sheath gas flow rate 40-50 arbitrary units, spray voltage 4.5 kV. mass range 100–2000 amu (maximum resolution 30000). An Agilent Poroshell 120, EC-C18, 2.1x100 mm, 2.7um UPLC

column was used for LC/MS with a mobile phase of 0-100% MeCN over 30 minutes at 0.5 ml/min flow rate. The results were presented as mass spectrophotometric (MS), and ultraviolet (UV) traces.

3.4. Results

3. 4. 1. Physico-chemical properties of environmental samples

The pH, moisture and organic matter contents of the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples are shown in Table 3.9. The pH values recorded for the two samples were similar, but the Salar de Atacama environmental sample contained a little more moisture and organic matter when compared with that from the Yungay sample.

Table 3.8.	Physico-	-chemical	properties	of the	environme	ntal samples.
	2		1 1			1

Environmental	pH	Moisture content (%)	Organic matter content	
sample			(%)	
Salar de Atacama	7.7 <u>+</u> 0.2*	0.007	0.03	
Yungay region	7.5 <u>+</u> 0.2*	0.004	0.01	
*Standard deviation				

*Standard deviation.

3. 4. 2. Enumuration, detection of isomers of diaminopimelic acid and colourgrouping

Number of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples. Small numbers of actinobacteria, but very few unwanted bacteria, were detected on the isolation media inoculated with suspensions of the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples (Table 3.10). The highest counts were recorded on the humic acid vitamin agar plates for both the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples, namely 1.3×10^4 and 5×10^3 cfu/gram weight of environmental sample, respectively.

Assignment to colour-groups. The 420 strains isolated from the two environmental samples were assigned to 63 multi- and 35 single-membered colour-groups based on aerial spore mass, substrate mycelial and diffusible pigment colours after growth on the oatmeal agar at 28°C for 14 days, (melanin pigments were only produced by members

of colour-groups KNN16, KNN29 and KNN44; see Appendix 1). Eighty three of the 98 representatives of the colour-groups, namely 92 *Streptomyces* and a single *Kribbella* strain, contained *LL*-A₂pm in whole-cell hydrolysates and hence were considered belong to the genus *Streptomyces*. The remaining isolates contained *meso*-A₂pm in whole-organism hydrolysates and hence were considered to be non-streptomycetes. The balance of isolates in the multi-membered colour-groups were assigned to the same taxa as the corresponding representative strain (see Table 3.24).

Table 3.9. Number of actinobacteria (cfu/g dry weight environmental sample) growing on selective media inoculated with suspensions of the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples and incubated at 28°C for 3 weeks.

]	Media					
Sample	Gause's No.1	Geodermatophilus obscurus agar	Glucose-yeast extract agar	Humic acid vitamin agar	Luedemann's agar	Microlunatus agar	Minimal medium agar	Oligotrophic agar	R 2A agar	Starch-casein agar	SM1 agar
Salar de Atacama	1.1x10 ⁴	None	None	1.3x10 ⁴	None	None	$1.3 x 10^2$	$0.3 x 10^2$	None	0.1×10^2	0.3x10 ²
Yungay	3x10 ²	2.3x10 ²	2.4x10 ²	5x10 ³	1x10 ²	3x10 ²	$0.2 \text{ x} 10^2$	1.3x10 ²	2.4x10 ²	2.3x10 ²	4.7x10 ²

The 315 strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample were assigned to 49 multi- and 23 single-membered colour-groups (Table 3.2; Appendix 1); these strains were comprised of 250 streptomycetes and 65 non-streptomycetes, that is 79% and 21% of the total number of isolates, respectively. The streptomycetes were assigned to 43 multi-membered colour-groups and the latter to the remaining 6 colour-groups. Similarly, 13 out of the 23 single-membered colour-groups were composed of streptomycetes, the remaining ones were considered to be non-streptomycetes.

Over half of the streptomycetes were recovered in colour-groups KNN2, KNN5 and KNN63. The largest of these taxa, colour-group KNN5, contained 25 isolates (7.9% of the total number of isolates); these strains produced a medium gray aerial spore mass, a gray greenish yellow substrate mycelium and a pale gray greenish yellow diffusible pigment. The next largest taxon, colour-group KNN2, included 23 strains (7.3% of the total number of isolates); these strains formed a medium gray aerial spore mass, an olivaceous black substrate mycelium and a light olivaceous gray diffusible pigment. Similarly, colour-group KNN63, encompassed 19 strains (6% of the total number of isolates); these strains formed a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a yellowish white substrate mycelium but did not produce a diffusible pigment.

The 65 non-streptomycete strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample were assigned to 6 multi-membered (63 isolates) and 2 singlemembered colour-groups. The largest multi-membered colour-group, KNN49, contained 32 strains (10.2% of the total number of isolates); these organisms produced a white aerial spore mass, a yellowish substrate mycelium but did not form a diffusible pigment. The next largest taxon, colour-group KNN 50, encompassed 18 isolates (5.7% of the total number of isolates); these organisms produced a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a yellowish substrate mycelium but no diffusible pigment.

The 105 strains isolated from the Yungay environmental sample were assigned to 20 multi-membered and 13 single-membered colour groups (Table 3.3; Appendix 1). Seventy-seven of the isolates were assigned to the genus *Streptomyces* (73% of the total), the remaining 28 to non-streptomycete taxa (27%). The largest taxon, colour-group KNN48, included 14 isolates (13.3% of total number of isolates); these strains produced a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a yellowish substrate mycelium but did not produce diffusible pigments. Colour-groups KNN92 and KNN95 each contained 7 isolates (6.7% of the total number of isolates). Members of colour-group KNN92 formed a dark pale gray aerial spore mass, a blackish purple and a light reddish brown diffusible pigment and those assigned to colour-group KNN95 produced a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a middle orange yellow substrate mycelium and a gray yellow diffusible pigment.

The isolates assigned to the family *Geodermatophilaceae* fell into 3 colourgroups, all of which encompassed isolates that formed black shiny colonies. The largest of these taxa, colour-group KNN46, contained 12 isolates (11.4% of the total number of isolates) which exhibited shiny black colonies, did not form diffusible pigments or an aerial spore mass. Similarly, colour-group KNN 45 contained 4 isolates (3.8%) which formed shiny orange-black colonies. The final colour-group, KNN44 contained 4 isolates (3.8%) which produced shiny black colonies and a light yellowish brown diffusible pigment.

81

Forty three of the multi-membered colour-groups were comprised of streptomycetes isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample, and a further 14 streptomycetes isolated from the Yungay environmental sample. In contrast, colour-groups KNN16, KNN29 and KNN48 encompassed streptomycetes isolated from each of the environmental samples. Colour-group KNN16 contained 2 strains, a single isolate from each of the environmental samples; these organisms produced a pale yellow aerial spore mass, a yellowish white substrate mycelium, but did not form a diffusible pigment. Similarly, colour-group KNN29 contained 3 isolates, one from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and two from the Yungay environmental sample; these isolates formed a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a yellowish white substrate mycelium, and a yellowish white diffusible pigment. The final colour-group, KNN48, contained 5 isolates from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and 15 from the corresponding Yungay environmental sample; these organisms formed a yellowish white aerial spore mass, a yellowish white substrate mycelium and a light orange yellow diffusible pigment.

3. 4. 3. Classification of representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples based on chemotaxonomic, morphological and phylogenetic data

Phylogenetic analyses. Eighty three out of the 98 representatives of the multi-and single-membered colour-groups contained *LL*-A₂pm in whole-organism hydrolysates, formed streptomycetes-like colonies and were recovered within the evolutionary radiation encompassed by the genus *Streptomyces* based on 16S rRNA gene sequence data. The remaining 15 isolates, which contained *meso*-A₂pm in whole-organism hydrolysates, were found to belong to 10 taxa based on 16S rRNA gene sequence data, namely the genera Actinomadura, Amycolatopsis, Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Lechevalieria, Modestobacter, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia and Saccharothrix.

The genus *Actinomadura*. Three isolates from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample were recovered within the *Actinomadura* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.1). Isolates KNN53-1a and KNN53-3a, representatives of a colour-group which containing three isolates, were found to share a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.9%, a value shown to correspond to 2 nucleotide (nt) differences at 1332 sites (Table 1;

Appendix 4). These isolates formed a distinct branch in the Actinomadura 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of Actinomadura apis and Actinomadura *rifamycini*; this taxon was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 96% bootstrap value. Strains KNN53-1a and KNN53-3a were most closely related to A. apis IMI 17.1^T sharing a 99.7% 16S rRNA gene similarity with the latter, a value that corresponded to 6 and 4 nt differences, respectively at 1351 locations. Similarly, isolate KNN34c, the representative of a single membered colour-group, formed a well delineated branch in the Actinomadura 16S rRNA gene sequence tree together with the type strains of Actinomadura flavalba, Actinomadura rugatobispora and Actinomadura vinacea; the taxonomic integrity of this subclade was supported by all of the treemaking algorithms and by a 65% bootstrap value. Isolate KNN34c was found to be most closely related to A. rugatobispora NBRC 14382^T, the two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.8%, a value found to be equivalent to 16 nt differences at 1336 locations (Appendix 4, Table 1). This isolate was also loosely related to A. vinacea ICM 3325^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.5%, a value corresponding to 20 nt differences at 1338 locations.

The genus Amycolatopsis. Twenty six strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample were recovered within the Amycolatopsis methanolica 16S rRNA subclade (Figure 3.2). Thirteen of the isolates had identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene sequences to that of the type strain Amycolatopsis ruanii, as association that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 99% bootstrap value. Similarly, 13 isolates had identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene sequences to that of the type strain of Amycolatopsis thermalba, a relationship that was underpinned by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 99% bootstrap value. In contrast, strains GY024 and GY142, which were isolated from an arid Australian environmental sample formed a distinct branch in the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade. These isolates shared a 16S rRNA gene similarity of 99.7%, a value shown to correspond to 4 nt differences at 1366 sites (Appendix 4, Table 2), the taxonomic integrity of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap values. Isolates GY024 and GY142 were found to be most closely related to A. ruanii NGM112^T sharing 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities with the latter of 98.9 and 98.7%, respectively, values corresponding to 15 and 14 nt differences at 1395 and 1410 locations (Table 2, Appendix 4). The results obtained for the Amycolatopsis strains will be considered in detail in Chapter 4.



Figure 3.1. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and relationships between them and type strains of the most closely related *Actinomadura* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony treemaking methods. ML indicates a branch of the tree that was supported by the maximum-likelihood tree-making method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.



Figure 3.2. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and relationships between them and the type strains of the most closely related *Amycolatopsis* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony treemaking methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position. Blue and green coloured subclades signified strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil and from the composite Australian soil, respectively.

The family *Geodermatophilaceae*. Sixteen isolates from the Yungay environmental sample were assigned to the *Geodermatophilaceae* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.3). The single strain assigned to the genus *Blastococcus*, isolate KNN47b, the representative of a single-membered group, formed a well delineated phyletic line with *Blastococcus saxobidens* BC448^T, this taxon was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by 99% bootstrap value. The two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.0%, a value shown to correspond to 14 nt differences at 1422 sites. Isolate KNN47b was also closely related to *Blastococcus endophytica* YIM68236^T, these organisms shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.2 %, a

value equivalent to 15 nt differences at 1422 sites (Appendix 4, Table 3).



Figure 3.3. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the Yungay environmental sample and relationships between them and the type strains of the most closely related *Blastococcus, Geodermatophilus* and *Modestobacter* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates a branch of the tree that was supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets;

only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Three strains, isolates KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b and KNN44-4b, representatives of a colour-group that contained 4 isolates, formed a well delineated branch in the Geodermatophilus 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of Geodermatophilus obscurus, Geodermatophilus ruber and Geodermatophilus siccatus; the taxonomic status of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 95% bootstrap value. Isolate KNN44-3b shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to isolate KNN44-4b of 99.9%, a value equivalent to a single nt difference at 1324 sites. Isolates KNN44-1b and KNN44-3b shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence of 99.7%, a value corresponding to 4 nt differences at 1300 sites. Isolate KNN44-1b was also found to share a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to isolate KNN44-4 of 99.9%, a value that corresponded to a single nt difference at 1288 sites. Isolates KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b and KNN44-4b were most closely related to Geodermatophillus obscurus DSM 43160^T sharing 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities with the latter of 99.9, 98.6 and 99.9%, respectively, values equivalent to 13, 20 and 13 nt differences at 1300, 1428 and 1324 locations. These isolates were also closely related to Geodermatophilus siccatus CF6^T sharing 16S rRNA sequences similarities with the latter within the range of 98.5 to 98.9%.

The 12 *Modestobacter* isolates were assigned to 2 subclades in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree that were related to the type strains of *Modestobacter marinus* and *Modestobacter versicolor*, respectively (Figure 3.5). The 4 isolates that were most closely related to *M. marinus* 42H12-1^T were from colour-group KNN45, the remaining 8 isolates that were most closely related to *M. versicolor* CP153-2^T, all of these isolates belonged to colour-group KNN46. The results obtained for the *Modestobacter* isolates will be considered in detail in Chapter 5.

The genus *Couchioplanes*. Isolate KNN7-2b, a representative of a colour-group KNN7 containing 4 isolates, formed a distinct phyletic branch in the *Couchioplanes* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.4). This isolate was most closely related to the type strain of *Couchioplanes caeruleus* subsp. *azureus*, a relationship that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms, but not by a high bootstrap value. The two strains shared a 16S

rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.6%, a value shown to correspond to 20 nt differences at 1386 locations (Table 3.11). Isolate KNN7-2b was also closely related to *Pseudosporangium ferrugineum* 3-4-a-19^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.5%, a value equivalated to 25 nt differences at 1381 locations (Table 3.11).



Figure 3.4. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN7-2b isolated from the Yungay environmental sample and closely related members of the genera *Couchioplanes* and *Pseudosporangium*. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered using the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parisimony tree-making methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.10. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN7-2b isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental sample and its nearest phylogenetic neighbours.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Isolate KNN7-2b		20/1386	25/1381	21/1385	41/1375	30/1378	50/1382
2. C. caeruleus subsp.							
azureus	98.6		15/1445	15/1449	31/1436	28/1442	40/1446
3. C. caeruleus subsp.							
caeruleus	98.2	99.0		17/1451	33/1440	29/1438	47/1447
4. Pseudosporangium							
ferrugineum	98.5	99.0	98.8		31/1442	26/1442	43/1469
5. Actinoplanes							
missouriensis	97.0	97.8	97.7	97.9		34/1430	50/1441
6. Actinoplanes braziliensis	97.8	98.1	98.0	98.2	97.6		30/1438
7. Micromonospora							
wenchangensis	96.4	97.2	96.8	97.1	96.5	97.9	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.4.

The genus *Kribbella*. Strain KNN56a, which was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample, represented a single-membered colour-group. It formed a well delineated branch in the *Kribbella* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.5) together with the type strain of *Kribbella antibiotica*, the taxonomic status of which was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 56% bootstrap value. The two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.3%, a value found to correspond to 10 nt differences at 1417 sites. Isolate KNN56a was closely related to *Kribbella albertanoniae* BC640^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.2%, a value corresponding to 11 nt differences at 1421 sites (Table 3.12).



Figure 3.5. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN56a isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Kribbella* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.11. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences between strain KNN56a isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Kribbella* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. KNN56 a		10/	11/	11/	12/	13/	14/	15/	17/	17/	17/	29/

		1417	1421	1344	1379	1408	1419	1374	1420	1419	1382	1419
			13/	19/	20/	17/	21/	20/	19/	23/	16/	35/
2. K. antibiotica	99.3		1417	1342	1377	1406	1417	1372	1416	1417	1380	1417
				11/	12/	4/	12/	17/	6/	17/	19/	27/
3. K. albertanoniae	99.2	99.1		1344	1379	1408	1419	1374	1420	1419	1382	1419
					3/	13/	13/	18/	17/	16/	22/	26
4. K. swartbergensis	99.2	98.6	99.2		1304	1333	1344	1299	1343	1344	1307	/1344
						12/	14/	19/	18/1	17/	23/	27/
5. K. karoonensis	99.1	98.6	99.1	99.8		1376	1379	1372	378	1379	1379	1379
							14/	19/	8/	19/	21/	29/
6. K. sandramycini	99.1	98.8	99.7	99.0	99.1		1408	1371	1407	1408	1379	1408
								13/	18/	13/	18/	30/
7. K. flavida	99.0	98.5	99.2	99.0	99.0	99.0		1374	1418	1419	1382	1419
									23/	18/	19/	35/
8. K. sancticallist	98.9	98.5	98.8	98.6	98.6	98.6	99.1		1373	1374	1374	1374
										23/	25/	33/
9. K. yunnanensis	98.8	98.7	99.6	98.7	98.7	99.4	98.7	98.3		1418	1381	1418
											15/	32/
10. K. alba	98.8	98.4	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.7	99.1	98.7	98.4		1382	1419
												39/
11. K. endophytica	98.8	98.8	98.6	98.3	98.3	98.5	98.7	98.6	98.2	98.9		1382
12. K. jejuensis	98.0	97.5	98.1	98.1	98.0	97.9	97.9	97.5	97.7	97.7	97.2	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.5.

The genus *Lechevalieria.* Strain KNN94e, the representative of a single-membered colour-group, was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample. This isolate formed a well delineated branch in the *Lechevalieria* 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of *Lechevalieria atacamensis*, *Lechervalieria deserti* and *Lechevalieria roselyniae*; the taxonomic status of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap value (Figure 3.6). The isolate shared a 100% 16S rRNA gene sequence with *L. atacamensis* C61^T. It was also closely related to *L. roselyniae* C81^T; these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.8%, a value that corresponed to 2 nt differences at 1375 locations (Table 3.13).



Figure 3.6. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN94e isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and closely related type strains of *Lechevalieria* and *Lentzea* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms. ML and MP indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets. Only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.12. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences between isolate KNN94e from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of *Lechevalieria* and closely related *Lentzea* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		20/	14/	0/	4/	2/	21/	19/	16/	19/
1. Isolate KNN94e		1375	1375	1375	1375	1375	1375	1375	1373	1373
			17/	20/	25/	23/	20/	24/	32/	25/
2. L. flava	98.5		1377	1377	1377	1377	1377	1377	1375	1375
				14/	19/	17/	17/	29/	30/	25/
3. L. xinjiangensis	99	98.8		1377	1377	1377	1377	1377	1375	1375
					5/	3/	21/	19/	16/	19/
4. L. atacamensis	100	98.5	99		1377	1377	1377	1377	1375	1375
						2/	26/	24/	21/	24/
5. L. deserti	99.7	98.2	98.6	99.6		1377	1377	1377	1375	1375
							24/	22/	19/	22/
6. L. roselyniae	99.8	98.3	98.8	99.8	99.8		1377	1377	1375	1375
								17/	25/	17/
7. L. aerocolonigenes	98.5	98.5	98.8	98.5	98.1	98.3		1377	1375	1375
									21/	19/
8. L. fradiae	98.6	98.3	97.9	98.6	98.3	98.4	98.8		1375	1375
										12/
9. Lentzea albida	98.8	97.7	97.8	98.8	98.5	98.6	98.2	98.5		1373
10. Lentzea kentuckvensis	98.6	98.2	98.2	98.6	98.2	98.4	98.8	98.6	99.1	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.6.

The genus *Nonomuraea*. Strain KNN57-2b, a representative of a colour-group KNN57 which contained 2 isolates, was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and shown to belong to the *Nonomuraea* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.7). It formed a distinct branch in the tree and was most closely related to *Nonomuraea candida* HMC10^T; these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.8%, a value shown to correspond to 7 nt differences at 1368 locations. The isolate was also closely related to *Nonomuraea jabiensis* A4036^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence at 1403

locations (Table 3.14).



Figure 3.7. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN57-2b isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Nonomuraea* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.01 substitutions per nucleotide nucleotide position.

Table 3.13. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN57-2b from the hyperarid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Nonomuraea* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
		7/	14/	19/	17/	17/	19/	19/	19/	22/	23/	38/	41/
1. KNN57-2b		1368	1403	1405	1399	1405	1399	1405	1404	1404	1397	1405	1401
			17/	20/	24/	14/	21/	18/	11/	23/	18/	35/	46/
2. N. candida	99.8		1370	1370	1364	1370	1366	1370	1369	1370	1363	1370	1368
				27/	14/	28/	25/	22/	23/	23/	25/	36/	41/
3. N. jabiensis	99.0	98.8		1406	1399	1405	1401	1405	1404	1404	1398	1406	1403
					28/	23/	29/	31/	22/	32/	30/	43/	52/
4. N. endophytica	98.7	98.5	98.1		1401	1407	1402	1407	1408	1406	1400	1408	1405
						31/	16/	29/	27/	26/	31/	46/	32/
5. N. agiospora	98.8	98.2	99.0	98.0		1401	1398	1401	1401	1400	1393	1401	1399
							31/	22/	23/	23/	28/	46/	55/
6. N. salmonea	98.8	99.0	98.0	98.4	97.8		1401	1407	1406	1406	1398	1407	1403
								26/	27/	27/	27/	43/	40/
7. N. helvata	98.6	98.5	99.2	97.9	98.9	97.8		1401	1401	1400	1396	1402	1400
									21/	8/	29/	41/	53/
8. N. kuesteri	98.7	98.7	98.4	97.8	97.9	98.4	98.1		1406	1407	1398	1408	1403

9. N. turkmeniaca	98.7	99.2	98.4	98.4	98.1	98.4	98.1	98.5		26 /1405	24/ 1399	35/ 1406	50/ 1405
10. N. maheshkhaliensis	98.4	98.3	98.4	97.7	98.1	98.4	98.1	99.4	98.2		34/ 1397	44/ 1407	48/ 1402
11. N. rubra	98.4	98.7	98.2	97.9	97.8	98	98.1	97.9	98.3	97.6		45/ 1399	56/ 1397
12. N. rhizophila	97.3	97.5	97.4	97.0	96.7	96.7	96.9	97.1	97.5	96.9	96.8		71/ 1403

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.7.

The genus Pseudonocardia. Two isolates, strains KNN55-1b and KNN55-2b, from the Yungay environmental sample were recovered in the Pseudonocardia 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.8). The two strains, which formed colour-group KNN55, were found to share a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 96.9%, a value shown to correspond to 41 nucleotide (nt) differences at 1318 sites (Table 3.15). The strains formed distinct branches in the Pseudonocardia 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of Pseudonocardia petroleophila and Pseudonocardia seraimata; a taxon that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms, but not by high bootstrap values. Strain KNN55-1b was most closely related to *P. petroleophila* ATCC 15777^T sharing a 99.0% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with the latter, a value corresponding to 14 nt differences at 1363. It was also loosely associated with *P. serranimata* YIM 63233^T; these strains shared a 96.3% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value equivalent to 14 nt differences at 1310 sites. In turn, isolate KNN55-2b was most closely related to P. petroleophila ATCC 15777^T; these strains shared a 99.0% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value corresponding to 14 nt differences at 1370 locations. It was also closely related to *P. serranimata* YIM 63233^T; these organisms shared a 96.1% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value corresponding to 51 nt differences 1317 sites.



Figure 3.8. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN55-1b and KNN55-2b isolated from the Yungay environmental sample and relationships between them and the type strains of the most closely related *Pseudonocardia* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were also supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.14. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental sample and between them and the type strains of closely related *Pseudonocardia* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
		41/	48/	51/	50/	62/	54/	64/	65/	67/	60/	69/	84/
1. KNN55-2b		1318	1310	1317	1303	1314	1318	1314	1308	1316	1315	1316	1316
			14/	14/	19/	24/	25/	26/	28/13	29/	31/	33/	70/
2. KNN55-1 b	96.9		1363	1370	1325	1365	1371	1367	61	1369	1368	1369	1369
				5/	26/	22/	34/	24/	28/	27/	29/	30/	76/
3. P. petroleophila	96.3	99.0		1364	1317	1357	1365	1360	1354	1362	1361	1362	1362
					29/	25/	31/	27/	27/	30/	30/	33/	75/
4. P. seranimata	96.1	99.0	99.6		1324	1364	1372	1367	1361	1369	1368	1369	1369
						25/	26/	27/	18/	26/	27/	34/	60/
5. P. xinjiangensis	96.2	98.6	98.0	97.8		1322	1325	1322	1316	1323	1323	1323	1323
							33/	2/	22/	17/	23/	13/	67/
6. P. kunmingensis	95.3	98.2	98.4	98.2	98.1		1365	1364	1358	1365	1365	1365	1365
								35/	36/	42/13	43/13	40/	63/
7. P. saturnea	95.9	98.2	97.5	97.7	98.0	97.6		1368	1362	70	69	1370	1370
									24/	19/	25/	15/	69/
8. P. sichuanensis	95.1	98.1	98.2	98.0	98.0	99.9	97.4		1361	1368	1368	1368	1368
										21/	21/	31/	61/
9. P. aurantiaca	95.0	97.9	97.9	98.0	98.6	98.4	97.4	98.2		1362	1362	1362	1362
											28/	16/	63/
P zijingensis	94.9	97.9	98.0	97.8	98.0	98.8	96.9	98.6	98.5		1369	1370	1370
												34/13	60/
11. P. alaniniphila	95.4	97.7	97.9	97.8	98.0	98.3	96.9	98.2	98.5	98.0		69	1369
													72/
12. P. aselaidensis	94.8	97.6	97.8	97.6	97.4	99.1	97.1	98.9	97.7	98.8	97.5		1370
13. P. autotrophica	93.6	94.9	94.4	94.5	95.5	95.1	95.4	95.0	95.5	95.4	95.6	94.7	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.8.

The genus *Saccharothrix*. Two isolates, KNN10-4d and KNN54-1a, which represented colour-groups containing 5 and 2 strains, respectively, were isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and recovered in the *Saccharothrix* 16S rRNA gene sequence tree (Figure 3.9). The isolates shared a 16S rRNA gene similarity of 99.1%, a value shown to correspond to 12 nt differences at 1346 sites (Table 3.16). Isolate KNN10-4d formed a well delineated branch in the *Saccharothrix* 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of *Saccharothrix espanaensis, Saccharothrix texaensis* and *Saccharothrix variisporea*; the taxonomic integrity of this subclade was supported

by all of the tree-making algorithm but not by a high bootstrap value. The isolate was found to be most closely related to *S. texasensis* NRRL B-16107^T sharing a 98.9% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with the latter, a value corresponding to 15 nt differences at 1346 locations. Isolate KNN10-4d was also closely related to *S. espanaensis* DSM 44229^T; these strains shared a 98.8% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value equivalent to 15 nt differences at 1346 locations. Similarly, isolate KNN54-1a formed a well delineated branch in the *Saccharothrix* 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strains of *Saccharothrix hoggarensis*, *Saccharothrix longispora* and *Saccharothrix saharensis*, the taxonomic status of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a low bootstrap value of 51%. The isolate was most closely related to *S. saharensis* SA152^T; these organisms shared a 99.6% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value corresponding to 12 nt differences at 1346 locations. Isolate KNN54-1a was also closely related to *Saccharothrix xinjiangensis* NBRC 101911^T; these strains shared a 99.3% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value equivalent to 6 nt differences at 1346 locations.



Figure 3.9. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN10-4d and KNN54-1a isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and relationships between them and the type strains of closely related *Saccharothix* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML and MP indicate branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of

1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.15. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the hyperarid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and between them and the type strains of closely related *Saccharothix* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
		12/	6/	10/	16/	15/	20/	22/	18/	17/	19/	19/	21/
1. KNN54-1a		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
			17/	21/	24/	18/	15/	20/	15/	29/	30/	23/	29/
2. KNN10-4d	99.1		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
				6/	19/	20/	15/	25/	22/	19/	15/	19/	23/
3. S. saharensis	99.6	98.7		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
					15/	16/	21/	21/	18/	23/	21/	13/	19/
4. S. xinjiangensis	99.3	98.4	99.6		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
						17/	30/	21/	15/	28/	32/	19/	11/
5. S. autraliensis	98.8	98.2	98.6	98.9		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
							27/	25/	21/	32/	33/	16/	24/
6. S. coeruleofusca	98.9	98.7	98.5	98.8	98.7		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
								24/	18/	33/	22/	28/	32/
7. S. texasensis	98.5	98.9	98.9	98.4	97.8	98.0		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
									11/	33/	38/	22/	26/
8. S. variisporea	98.4	98.5	98.1	98.4	98.4	98.1	98.2		1346	1346	1346	1346	1346
										31/	35/	21/	18/
9. S. espanaensis	98.7	98.9	98.4	98.7	98.9	98.4	98.7	99.2		1346	1346	1346	1346
											14/	33/	32/
10. S. longispora	98.7	97.9	98.6	98.3	97.9	97.6	97.6	97.6	97.7		1347	1346	1346
												31/	36/
11. S. hoggarensis	98.6	97.8	98.9	98.4	97.6	97.6	98.4	97.2	97.4	99.0		1346	1346
													25/
12. S. xinjiangensis	98.6	98.3	98.6	99.0	98.6	98.8	97.9	98.4	98.4	97.6	97.7		1346
13. S. syringae	98.4	97.9	98.3	98.6	99.2	98.2	97.6	98.1	98.7	97.6	97.3	98.1	

Codes, as given in Figure 3.9

The genus *Streptomyces*. The 37 representative *Streptomyces* strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples (Table 3.4) were recovered within the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.10). Five of the 16S rRNA subclades contained one or more type strains of *Streptomyces* species, the remaining two, labelled *Streptomyces* new subclades 1 and 2, encompassed strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and the Yungay environmental samples, respectively (Table 3.4). The taxonomic status of the 15 isolates in *Streptomyces* new subclade 1 was supported by all of the tree-making methods through the bootstrap value was low at 53%. Seven isolates were assigned to *Streptomyces* new subclade 2, the taxonomic status of which was underpinned by all of the tree-making algorithms, but not by a high bootstrap value. The detailed taxonomic relationships between the isolates assigned to these taxa and between them and their closest phylogenetic neighbours will be considered in detail in Chapter 6, as will relationships between the 5 isolates assigned to the *Streptomyces fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene clade. Members of these taxa are of interest as they contain

strains known or likely to produce novel natural products. The 9 remaining *Streptomyces* were assigned to the subclades six of *Streptomyces* subclade, namely *Streptomyces albogriseolus* (1 isolate), *Streptomyces althioticus* (2 isolates), *Streptomyces anulatus* (1 isolate), *Streptomyces fragilis* (1 isolate), *Streptomyces glaucosporus* (3 isolates) and *Streptomyces rochei* (2 isolates) all which were named after the earliest described type strains, as shown in Figure 3.10.

Figure 3.10. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing the assignment of *Streptomyces* strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama and the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental samples to subclades containing one or more the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. The number of isolates in each subclade is shown; subclades containing one or more *Streptomyces* type strains were named after the earliest validly named species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML and MP indicate branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.



Streptomyces albogriseolus sublade. Strain KNN4-1b, a representative of the four isolates assigned to colour-group KNN4, was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and recovered in the *S. albogriseolus* 16S rRNA subclade (Figure 3.11). The isolate formed a well delineated phyletic line together with the type strain of *Streptomyces arovirens*; the taxonomic status of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 96% bootstrap value. Isolate KNN4-1b was most closely related to *Streptomyces atrovirens* NRRL B-16357^T and *Streptomyces albogriseolus* NRRL B-1305^T, the isolate shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with these strains of 99.9% and 99.4%, respectively, values corresponding to a single and 9 nt differences at 1397 locations (Table 3.17).



Figure 3.11. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between *Streptomyces* strain KNN4-1b isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and between it and the type strains of the most closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.001 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.16. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between isolate KNN4-1b from the hyperarid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and between it and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Isolate KNN4-1b		1/1397	9/1397	9/1389	12/1380	12/1388
2. S. atrovirens	99.9		11/1484	10/1463	13/1454	13/1462

3. S. albogriseolus	99.4	99.3		0/1463	17/1454	17/1462
4. S. viridodiastaticus	99.4	99.3	100		17/1454	17/1462
5. S. pilosus	99.1	99.1	98.8	98.8		0/1454
6. S. flavoviridis	99.1	99.1	98.8	98.8	100	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.11.

Streptomyces althioticus **subclade.** Strains KNN2-4c and KNN5-25d, representatives of the twenty three and twenty five isolates assigned to colour-groups KNN2 and KNN5, respectively, were isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and recovered in *S. althioticus* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 3.12). These two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.2%, a value corresponding to 23 nt differences at 1305 locations. Isolate KNN2-4c formed a well delineated phyletic line together with the type strains of *Streptomyces griseoincarnatus*, *Streptomyces labedae* and *Streptomyces variabilis*; the taxonomic status of this subclade was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 67% bootstrap value. The isolate shared a 99.3% a 16S rRNA gene similarity with these strains, a value corresponding to 10 nt differences at 1355 locations. In turn, isolate KNN5-25c formed a distinct phyletic line in the *S. althioticus* 16S rRNA subclade. It was most closely related to *S. althioticus* NRRL B-3981^T and *Streptomyces matensis* NBRC 12889^T, sharing 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities with the later equivalent to 99.1%, a value corresponding to in each case to 12 nt differences at 1283 locations (Table 3.18).



Figure 3.12. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN2-4c and KNN5-25d isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and between them and the type strains of the most closely related *Streptomyces* species. The asterisk indicates a branch of the tree that was also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values
above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.001 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.17. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN2-4c and KNN5-25d isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and between them and type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Isolate KNN2-4c		23/1305	12/1346	13/1346	10/1355	10/1355	10/1355
2. Isolate KNN5-25c	98.2		17/1300	17/1300	20/1309	20/1309	20/1309
3. S. althioticus	99.1	98.7		0/1350	7/1351	7/1351	7/1351
4. S. matensis	99.0	98.7	100.0		8/1351	8/1351	8/1351
5. S. griseocarnatus	99.3	98.5	99.5	99.4		0/1360	0/1360
6. S. labedae	99.3	98.5	99.5	99.4	100.0		0/1360
7. S. variabilis	99.3	98.5	99.5	99.4	100.0	100.0	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.12.

Streptomyces anulatus subclade. Isolate KNN23-1b, a representative of two isolates assigned to colour-group KNN23, was isolated from the Yungay environmental sample and assigned to the S. anulatus 16S rRNA subclade (Figure 3.13). It formed a well delineated phyletic line at the periphery of a subclade which contained the type strains of **Streptomyces** albidochromogenes, *Streptomyces* chryseus, *Streptomyces* flavidovirens and Streptomyces helvaticus; the taxonomic integrity of this subclade was supported by the maximum-likelihood tree-making algorithm and by a 63% bootstrap value. The isolate was most closely related to S. albidochromogenes NBRC 101003^T and S. flavidovirens NBRC 13039^T; sharing 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities with these organisms of 99.5%, a value corresponding in each case to 7 nt differences at 1378 locations (Table 3.19).



Figure 3.13. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN23-1b isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.18. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN23-1b isolated from the extreme hyper-arid environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Isolate KNN23-1h		7/	7/	8/ 1378	8/ 1378	17/	23/	27/	27/	27/	27/
1. Isolate IXI(1/25-10		13/0	1378	1370	13/0	13/0	1391	13/0	13/0	1370	13/0
2 S. Amildaniana			0/	1/	1/	12/	12/	23/	21/	24/	24/
2. S. flavlaovirens	99.5		1379	1379	1379	1379	1378	1379	1379	1379	1379
				1/	1/	12/	12/	23/	21/	24/	24/
3. S. albidochromogenes	99.5	100		1379	1379	1379	1378	1379	1379	1379	1379
					0/	13/	11/	22/	20/	23/	23/
4. S. chryseus	99.4	99.9	99.9		1379	1379	1378	1379	1379	1379	1379
·						13/	11/	22/	20/	23/	23/
5. S. helvaticus	99.4	99.9	99.9	100		1379	1378	1379	1379	1379	1379
							21/	29/	21/	29/	29/
6. S. enssocaesilis	98.8	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.1		1378	1379	1379	1379	1379
								20/	21/	21/	21/
7. S. hypolithicus	98.4	99.1	99.1	99.2	99.2	98.5		1378	1378	1378	1378
									16/	17/	17/
8. S. anulatus	98.0	98.3	98.3	98.4	98.4	97.9	98.6		1379	1379	1379
										16/	16/
9. S. sannanensis	98.0	98.5	98.5	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.5	98.8		1379	1379
											0/
10. S. michiganensis	98.0	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	97.9	98.5	98.8	98.8		1379
11. S. xanthochromogenes	98.0	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	97.9	98.5	98.8	98.8	100	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.13.

Streptomyces fragilis subclade. Strain KNN87b, the representative of a singlemembered colour-group, was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and recovered in the *S. fragilis* 16S rRNA subclade (Figure 3.14). It shared an identical 16S rRNA gene sequence with the type strain of *Streptomyces bullii* (Table 3.20), these strains were most closely related to *Streptomyces chromofuscus* NBRC 12851^T sharing a 99.4% 16S rRNA gene similarity with the latter, a value corresponding 12 nt differences at 1388 sites (Table 3.20).



Figure 3.14. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN87b isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of the most closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML and MP indicate branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.001 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.19. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strain KNN87b isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		0/	12/	15/	16/	17/	17/	17/	17/	19/
1. Isolate KNN87b		1388	1388	1388	1388	1388	1388	1388	1387	1386
			12/	15/	16/	17/	17/	17/	17/	19/
2.S. bullii	100		1390	1390	1390	1390	1390	1390	1389	1388
				21/	19/	13/	10/	15/	18/	15/
3. S. chromofuscus	99.1	99.1		1390	1390	1390	1390	1390	1389	1388
					24/	23/	20/	24/	21/	26/
4. S. fragilis	98.9	98.9	98.5		1390	1390	1390	1390	1389	1388
						22/	24/	19/	17/	19/
5. S. thermocarboxydovorans	98.9	98.9	98.6	98.3		1390	1390	1391	1389	1388
							9/	19/	24/	24/
6. S. cinereospinus	98.8	98.8	99.1	98.4	98.4		1390	1390	1389	1388
								20/	20/	19/
7. S. coeruleofuscus	98.8	98.9	99.3	98.6	98.3	99.4		1390	1389	1388
									15/	29/
8. S. deserti	98.8	98.8	98.9	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.6		1389	1388
										18/
9. S. lomodensis	98.8	98.8	98.7	98.5	98.8	98.3	98.6	98.9		1387
10. S. chiangmaiensis	98.6	98.6	98.9	98.1	98.6	98.3	98.6	97.9	98.7	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.14.

Streptomyces radiopugnans subclade. Isolates KNN51b and KNN89a, representatives of single-membered colour-groups, encompassed strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample and isolate KNN70b, a representative of a single-membered colour-group from the Yungay environmental sample, were recovered in the *S. radiopugnans* 16S rRNA subclade (Figure 3.15). Isolates KNN51b and KNN70b were shown to have a 98.6% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value corresponding to 20 nt differences at 1394 locations (Table 3.21). Isolate KNN51b shared a 98.1% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to isolate KNN89a, a value corresponding to 26 nt differences at 1383 locations. Similarly, isolates KNN70b and KNN89a shared a 97.0% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value equivalent to 42 nt differences at 1385 locations.

Isolates KNN51b and KNN70b formed a well circumscribed branch in the 16S rRNA gene tree together with *Streptomyces atacamensis* C60^T, a taxon that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a bootstrap value of 96%. Strain KNN51 shared a 99.2% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with the *S. atacamensis* strain, a value equivalent to 12 nt differences at 1406 locations; the corresponding value between isolate KNN70b and *S. atacamensis* C60^T was 98.6%, a value corresponding to 19 nt differences at 1396 locations. Strain KNN51b was also closely related to *Streptomyces radiopugnans* R97^T; these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 98.7%, a value corresponding to 19 nt differences at 1403 locations. Isolate KNN70b was also closely reated to *S. radiopugnans* R97^T; the two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of a 98.1%, a value corresponding to 26 nt differences at 1396 locations.

Isolate KNN89a was recovered at the periphery of a taxon that contained isolates KNN51b and KNN70b and the type strains of *S. atacamensis, Streptomyces fenghuangensis, Streptomyces nanheiensis* and *S. radiopugnans*, together with isolate KNN89a; this taxon was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a bootstrap value 69%. Isolate KNN89a shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity to isolates KNN51 and KNN70b of 98.1% and 97.0 %, respectively, values corresponding to 26 and 42 nt differences at 1383 and 1385 locations. Isolate KNN89a was most closely related to *S. radiopugnans* R97^T; these strains shared a 98.4% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity, a value equivalent to 22 nt differences at 1383 locations. It was also closely related *S. nanhaiensis* SCSIO01248^T; these organisms shared a 98.3% 16S rRNA gene similarity, a value corresponding to 23 nt differences at 1386 locations.



Figure 3.15. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN51b, KNN70b and KNN89a isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples and between them and the type strains of the most closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates a branch of the tree that was supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.20. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between isolates KNN51b, KNN70b and KNN89a and between them and closely related type strains of the *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Isolate		20/	26/	12/	19/	26/	26/	45/	43/	57/	52/	47/
KNN51b		1394	1383	1406	1403	1403	1404	1404	1405	1402	1401	1405
2. Isolate			42/	19/	26/	35/	35/	53/	52/	64/	61/	58/
KNN70b	98.6		1385	1396	1396	1397	1398	1397	1398	1396	1395	1397
3. Isolate				28/	22/	25/	23/	50/	41/	48/	53/	51/
KNN89a	98.1	97.0		1384	1383	1385	1386	1385	1386	1383	1383	1387
4. <i>S</i> .					9/	17/	18/	35/	33/	48/	45/	42/
atacamensis	99.2	98.6	98.0		1409	1409	1410	1410	1411	1409	1406	1411
5. <i>S</i> .						12/	13/	39/	31/	42/	41/	41/
radioplugnans	98.7	98.1	98.4	99.4		1408	1409	1408	1409	1408	1406	1408
6. <i>S</i> .							10/	43/	32/	45/	42/	38/
fenghuangensis	98.2	97.5	98.2	98.8	99.2		1411	1410	1411	1408	1408	1410
								43/	35/	47/	48/	38/
7. S. nanhaiensis	98.2	97.5	98.3	98.7	99.1	99.3		1411	1412	1409	1408	1411
8. <i>S</i> .									39/	51/	70/	49/
glaucosporus	96.8	96.2	96.4	97.5	97.2	97.0	97.0		1412	1408	1407	1413
9. <i>S</i> .										50/	57/	30/
macrosporus	96.9	96.3	97.0	97.7	97.8	97.7	97.5	97.2		1409	1408	1412
10. <i>S</i> .	95.9	95.4	96.5	96.6	97.0	96.8	96.7	96.4	96.5		43/	64/

xinghaiensis											1406	1408
11. <i>S</i> .												70/
lactiproducens	96.3	95.6	96.2	96.8	97.1	97.0	96.6	95.0	96.0	96.9		1408
12. <i>S</i> .												
megaspores	96.7	95.9	96.3	97.0	97.1	97.3	97.3	96.5	97.9	95.5	95.0	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.15.

Streptomyces rochei subclade. Isolate KNN22a, a representative of a single-membered colour-group, was isolated from the Yungay environmental sample and isolate KNN32-1a, a representative of colour-group KNN32 which contianed two strains, was isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample. Both isolates formed distinct phyletic lines in the S. rochei 16S rRNA gene subclade (Figure 3.16). These isolates shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of a 99.6%, a value corresponding to 5 nt differences at 1331 locations. They formed a distinct branch in the S. rochei subclade with Streptomyces mutabilis; a taxon supported by all the tree-making algorithms but not by a high bootstrap value. Strain KNN22a was most closely related to Streptomyces ghanaensis KCTC9882^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.3%, a value equivalent to 10 nt differences at 1398 locations (Table 3.22). The isolate was also closely related to S. rochei NBRC12908^T, these strains shared a16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.1%, a value equivalent to 13 nt differences at 1405 locations. In turn, isolate KNN32-1a was most closely related to Streptomyces *mutabilis* NBRC12800^T, these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.6%, a value corresponding to 5 nt differences at 1334 locations. Isolate KNN32-1a was also closely related to S. rochei NBRC12908^T, these organisms were found to have a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity of 99.6%, a value equivalent to 5 nt differences at 1332 lacations.



Figure 3.16. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN32-1a and KNN22a isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples, respectively and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. ML indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-likelihood method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 re-sampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.001 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 3.21. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN22a and KNN32-1a isolated from the Atacama Desert environmental samples and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Isolate		5/	13/	13/	13/	10/	15/	14/	15/	20/	21/	27/
KNN22a		1331	1405	1405	1405	1398	1405	1405	1400	1405	1405	1404
2. Isolate			5/	5/	5/	6/	5/	6/	7/	10/	8/	17/
KNN32-1a	99.6		1332	1332	1332	1332	1334	1332	1327	1332	1332	1331
3. <i>S</i> .				0/	0/	1/	4/	1/	2/	7/	8/	14/
enissocaesilis	99.1	99.6		1461	1463	1420	1458	1463	1468	1435	1454	1463
					0/	1/	4/	1/	2/	7/	8/	14/
4. S. rochei	99.1	99.6	100		1461	1418	1456	1461	1456	1433	1452	1460
						1/	4/	1/	2/	7/	8/	14/
5. S. plicatus	99.1	99.6	100	100		1420	1458	1463	1458	1435	1454	1462
6. <i>S</i> .							5/	0/	3/	6/	7/	13/
ghanaensis	99.3	99.6	99.3	99.9	99.9		1420	1420	1415	1420	1420	1419
								5/	6/	9/	8/	16/
7. S. mutabilis	98.9	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7		1458	1453	1435	1454	1457
8. <i>S</i> .									3/	6/	7/	13/
geysiriensis	99.0	99.6	99.9	99.9	99.9	100	99.7		1458	1435	1454	1462
9. <i>S</i> .										9/	10/	16/
vinceusdrappus	98.9	99.5	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.6	99.8		1430	1449	1458
10. <i>S</i> .											7/	15/
djakartensis	98.6	99.3	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.4	99.6	99.4		1435	1434
11. S. tuirus	98.5	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.5		
												14/
												1453
12. <i>S</i> .												
aurantiogriseus	98.1	98.7	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.1	98.9	99.1	98.9	99.0	99.0	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.16.

3.4.4. Chemotaxonomy

The chemotaxonomic properties of the representative isolates included in the phylogenetic analyses are show in Table 3.23. The Actinomadura, Amycolatopsis, Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Lechevalieria, Modestobacter,

Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia and Saccharothrix strains contained meso-A₂pm in whole-organism hydrolysates whereas those assigned to the genera Kribbella and Streptomyces had hydrolysates rich in the corresponding LL-isomer. Nearly half of the isolates contained menaquinones with nine isoprene units though the number of hydrogenated units tended to differ. The representatives of the genera Amycolatopsis, Blastococcus and Pseudonocardia contained arabinose and galactose as diagnostic whole-organism sugars whereas the Actinomadura, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Kribbella, Lechevalieria, Modestobacter, Nonomuraea and Streptomyces strains showed a range of whole-cell sugars patterns. Similarly, considerable variation was found in the polar lipid patterns between the tested isolates.

Table 3.22. Chemotaxonimic properties of isolates assigned to genera circumscribed in

 the comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence analyses*.

Isolate code	Chemotaxonomic i	markers		
	Diaminopimelic acid isomer ²	Predominant Menaquinones ³	Major polar lipid ⁴	Diagnostic whole-cell sugars ⁵
Actinomadura: KNN34c	Meso-A ₂ pm	DPG, PG, PI	DPG, PG, PI	Gal, Glu, Mad, Man, Rib
KNN49-26a	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H6)		Gal, Glu, Mad, Man, Rib
Amycolatopsis: KNN49-5e	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H2) , MK9 _(H4) , MK- 9 _(H6) , MK-9 _(H8)	DPG, PE, PME	Ara, Gal
KNN49-26a	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK9 _(H4) , MK- 9 _(H6) , MK-9 _(H8)	DPG, PE, PME	Ara, Gal
KNN50-8b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK8 _(H4) , MK- 9 _(H4) , MK-9 _(H6)	DPG, PE, PG, PI, PME	Ara, Gal
KNN50-11c	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-8 _(H4) , MK- 9 _(H4)	DPG, PE, PG, PI, PME	Ara, Gal
<i>Blastococcus:</i> KNN47b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PC, PG, PI, PE	Ara, Gal
Couchioplanes: KNN7-2	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	PG, PE, PI	Ara, Glu, Gal, Xyl
Geodermatophilus: KNN44-1b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4) , MK9 _(H0)	DPG, PC, PI	Rib, Glu
Kribbella: KNN56a	<i>LL</i> -A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PCPG, PI	Glu, Gal
Lechevalieria: KNN94e	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PE, PG, PI	Gal, Glu, Man, Rib, Rha
Modestobacter:				

KNN45-2b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PG, PE, PI	Gal, Glu, Xyl
KNN46-4b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PG, PE, PI	Gal, Glu, Xyl
Nonomuraea:				
KNN57-2b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4)	DPG, PE	Mad, Man
Pseudonocardia:				
KNN55-1b	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-8 _(H4)	PC, PE	Ara, Gal
Saccharothrix:				
KNN10-4d	Meso-A ₂ pm	MK-9 _(H4) , MK-10	DPG, PE, PIMS	Gal, Rha, Man
	-	(H4)		

*Data on *Streptomyces* isolates can be found in Chapter 6.

¹ND, not determined..

²Diaminopimelic acid isomers: *meso-*A₂pm, *meso-*diaminopimelic acid; *LL-*A₂pm, *LL-*diaminopimelic acid.

³Menaquinone:exemplified by MK-9_(H4), tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units.

⁴Polar lipids: DPG, diphosphatidylglycerol; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, posphatidylglycerol; PI, phosphatidylinositol, PIMS, phosphatidylinositol manosides (PIMs) and PME, phosphatidylmethylethanolamine.

⁵Whole-cell sugars: Ara, arabinose; Gal, Galactose; Glu, glucose, Man, mannose; Mad, maduros; Rha, rhamnose; Rib, ribose and Xyl, xylose.

3.4.5. Morphology

The arrangement of aerial hyphae and spores of the 20 representative isolates included in the scaning electron microscopy studies are shown in Figures 3.17 and 3.18. The two *Saccharothrix* strains produced straight chains of rough ornamented spores, the *Pseudonocrdia* strain formed straight chains of smooth surfaced spores whereas the *Actinomadura, Nonomuraea* and *Streptomyces* strains showed variation in spore chain arrangement and spore surface ornamentation.

Figure 3.17. Scanning electron micrographs of isolates grown on glucose yeast-extract malt-extract agar for 14 days at 28°C, (A) *Actinomadura* strain KNN34c showing smooth ornamented spores in straight chains; (B) *Actinomadura* strain KNN53-1a showing spiral chains of rough ornamented spores; (C) *Actinomadura* strain KNN53-3a showing a straight chain of smooth surfaced spores; (D) *Nonomuraea* strain KNN57-1b showing spiral chains of rough ornamented spores; (E) *Nonomuraea* KNN 57-2b showing straight chains of smooth surfaced spores; (F) *Pseudonocardia* strain KNN55-1b showing straight chains of smooth ornamented spores; (G, H) *Saccharothrix* strains KNN10-4d and KNN 54-1a (H) showing straight chains of smooth ornamented spores. Scale bars : 1µm.



Figure 3.18. Scanning electron micrographs of streptomycetes isolates grown on oatmeal agar after 14 days at 28° C. (A), $C34^{T}$ showing smooth ornamented spore in open spiral chains; (B), isolate C38 showing spiral chains of smooth surfaced spores; (C), isolate KNN35-2b showing loose spiral chains of smooth surfaced spores; (D, E and F) isolates KNN17-2b, KNN24-1b and KNN26b showing loose spiral chains of smooth surfaced spores; (G, H and I), isolates C59 KNN40b and KNN48-1c showing spiral chains of hairy ornamented spores; (J, K and L) isolates KNN51b, KNN89a and KNN90a showing straight chains of smooth surfaced spores. Scale bars : 1µm.



3. 4. 6. Selectivity of selection media

Most of the strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples were assigned to the genus *Streptomyces* (79.4% and 73.3%, respectively) as shown in Table 3.24. In contrast, relatively high numbers of *Amycolatopsis* strains were isolated from the hyper–arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample (13.1%). The corresponding Yungay environmental sample was found to contain a relatively high number of isolates (5%) belonging to the family *Geodermatophilaceae*. Isolates recovered in the same multi-membered colour-groups as the representative isolates were assumed to belong to the same genus as the studied strains (Table 3.24).

Table 3.23. Assignment of strains assigned to colour-groups containing isolates from the Salar de Atcama and Yungay environmental samples to genera based on 16S rRNA sequencing data of representative strains.

Genera	Tested strains	Additional strains in colour-groups
Actinomadura	KNN34c,	None
	KNN53-1a, KNN53-3a	KNN53-2a
Amycolatopsis	KNN49-1f, KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6q, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-26a,	KNN49-2e, KNN49-4e, KNN49-7c, KNN49-8c, KNN49-9c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-14b, KNN49-15b, KNN49-16c, KNN49-47b, KNN49-18b, KNN49-19a, KNN49-20b, KNN49-21c, KNN49-22d, KNN49-23d, KNN49-24d, KNN49-25d, KNN49-27a, KNN49-28a, KNN49-29a, KNN49-30b, KNN49-31b
	KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14d, KNN50-15d, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d,	KNN50-3c
	KNN61-1e	KNN61-2a, KNN61-3e, KNN61-4e, KNN61-5b, KNN61-6c
Blastococcus	KNN47b	None
Couchioplanes	KNN7-2b	KNN7-1b, KNN7-3b, KNN7-4b
Geodermatophilus	KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b, KNN44-4b	KNN44-2a
Kribbella	KNN56a	None

Lechevalieria	KNN94e	None
Modestobacter	KNN45-1b, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b	None
	KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5a, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8c, KNN46-9c, KNN46-10c, KNN46-11a	KNN46-12a
Nonomuraea	KNN57-1b, KNN57-2b	None
Pseudonocardia	KNN55-1b	KNN55-2b
Saccharothrix	KNN10-4d	KNN10-1a, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-5a,
	KNN54-1a	KNN54-2b
Streptomyces	KNN2-4c, KNN2-6c	KNN2-1b, KNN2-2c, KNN2-3c, KNN2-5c, KNN2- 7d, KNN2-8b, KNN2-9d, KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN2-12d, KNN2-13a, KNN2-14c, KNN2-15a, KNN2-16c, KNN2-17d, KNN2-18c, C34, C38, C58, C59, C79,
	KNN4-1b, KNN4-4a,	KNN4-2e and KNN4-3b
	KNN5-4, KNN5-5	KNN5-1a, KNN5-2a, KNN5-3c, KNN5-4c, KNN5- 5a, KNN5-6a, KNN5-7a, KNN5-8b, KNN5-9b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-15b, KNN5-16d, KNN5-17d, KNN5-18d, KNN5-19d, KNN5-20d, KNN5-25b
	KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b, KNN6-11a	KNN6-1a, KNN6-2a, KNN6-3a, KNN6-4a, KNN6- 5a, KNN6-7d, KNN6-8d
	KNN9-3a	KNN9-1a, KNN9-2e
	KNN11-1a, KNN11-5a	KNN11-2a, KNN11-3c, KNN11-4b, KNN11-6b,
	KNN13a	None
	KNN22a	None
	KNN23-1b	KNN23-2a, KNN23-2a
	KNN24-1b	KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-5c, KNN24-6a, KNN24-7c, KNN24-8e
	KNN25c	None
	KNN26b	None
	KNN32-1a	KNN32-2b,
	KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b	None
	KNN38-1b	KNN38-1b, KNN38-2d, KNN38-3d, KNN38-4a, KNN38-5b

KNN41-1b	KNN41-2a
KNN42	None
KNN48-1c, KNN48-3e, KNN48-6e	KNN48-2a, KNN48-4e, KNN48-5e, KNN48-7d, KNN48-8d, KNN48-9d, KNN48-10d, KNN48-11b, KNN48-12d, KNN48-13b, KNN48-14a, KNN48-15a, KNN48-16c, KNN48-17c, KNN48-18c, KNN48-19c, KNN48-20c
KNN51b	None
KNN64-5b	KNN64-1a, KNN64-2a, KNN64-3a, KNN64-4b, KNN64-6b
KNN82-2c	KNN82-1a, KNN82-2c
KNN83e	None
KNN87b	None
KNN88-1a	KNN88-2b, KNN88-3b, KNN88-4a
KNN89a	None
KNN90a	None

Codes for isolation media : (a), Gause No.1 agar; (b), HVA, humic acid-vitamin agar; (c), Oligotrophic agar; (d), minimal medium agar; (e), SM1 agar; (f) *Geodermatophilus obscurus* agar; (g) Luedemann's agar. (h), SCAV agar.

The number of actinobacteria isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample on the selective isolation media are shown in Table 3.25. Eighty of the streptomycetes were isolated from humic acid-vitamin agar plates (25.4% of the total number of isolates), 56 on Gause's No. 1 agar (17.8%), 53 on oligotrophic agar (16.8%), 33 on minimal agar (10.5%), 18 on SM 1 agar (5.7%) and 5 on starch caseinvitamin agar (1.6%) plates. In turn, 13 of the Amycolatopsis isolates were recovered from humic acid-vitamin agar and from minimal medium agar (4.1%), 10 from oligotrophic medium agar, 10 from SM1 agar (3.2%), 8 from Gause's No. 1 agar plates (2.5%) and a single isolate from a starch casein-vitamin agar plate (0.3%). Three of Saccharothrix strains were isolated from Gause's No.1 agar plates and the remaining three from a humic acid-vitamin agar plate (1%). Three out of the 4 Actinomadura strains were isolated on Gause's No.1 agar plates (1%) and the remaining one from a minimal medium agar plate (0.3%). The two Nonomuraea strains were isolated from humic acid-vitamin agar plates (0.6%), the single Kribbella from Gause's No.1 agar (0.3%) and the only *Lechevalieria* strain from SM1 agar (0.3%).

Table 3.24. Assignment of representative strains isolated on a range of selective media inoculated with suspensions of the Salar de Atacama environmental sample to genera based on 16S rRNA gene sequences.

		Media									
Genus	Gause's No.1	Humic acid- vitamin agar	Minimal medium agar	Oligitrophic medium agar	SM1 agar	Starch casein- vitamin agar					
Actinomadura	3	-	1	-	-	-					
Amycolatopsis	8	13	13	10	10	1					
Kribbella	1	-	-	-	-	-					
Lechevalieria	-	-	-	-	1	-					
Nonomuraea	-	2	-	-	-	-					
Saccharothrix	3	3	-	1	-	-					
Strreptomyces	56	80	33	53	18	5					
Total	71	98	47	64	29	6					

The corresponding numbers of actinobacteria isolated on the selective media inoculated with suspensions of the Yungay environmental sample are shown in Table 3.26. Thirty six streptomycetes were isolated on Gause's No.1 agar (34.3%), 20 on humic acid-vitamin agar (19%), 8 on oligotrophic medium agar (7.6%), 7 on starch casein-vitamin agar (6.7%) and 6 on minimal medium agar (5.75%) plates. Similarly, 8 of the 12 *Modestobacter* isolates (11.4%) were recovered from humic acid-vitamin agar, 4 from Gause No.1 agar (3.8%), 2 from *Geodermatophilus obscurus* agar plates (1.9%) and the remaining two strains from the Luedemann agar and oligotrophic agar plates (1%). Similarly, 4 out of the 5 *Couchioplanes* isolates were recovered from humic acid-vitamin agar plates and the remaining one from a starch casein-vitamin agar plate (1%). Similarly, 4 out of the 5 *Geodermatophilus* strains were isolated from humic acid-vitamin agar plates (4.8%), the remaining one from a Gause's No.1 agar plate (1%). The 2 *Pseudonocardia* isolates were recovered from humic acid-vitamin agar plates (1.9%) and the single strain of *Blastococcus* from same isolation medium (1%).

Table 3.25. Assignment of representative strains isolated on a range of selective mediainoculated with suspensions of the Yungay environmental sample to genera based on16S rRNA gene sequences.

	Media							
Genus	Gause No.1 agar	Humic acid-vitamin agar	Geodermatophilus obscurus agar	Luedemann's agar	Microlunatus agar	Minimal medium agar	Starch casein- vitamin agar	
Blastococcus	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	
Couchioplanes	-	4	-	-	-	-	1	
Geodermatophilus	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	
Modestobacter	4	8	2	1	-	1	-	
Pseudonocardia	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	
Streptomyces	36	20	-	-	6	8	7	
Total	41	39	2	1	5	9	8	

No actinobacteria were isolated on the SM1 agar plates.

3. 4. 7. Screening for antimicrobial activity

Plug assays. The results obtained for the 136 representative isolates screened for antimicrobial activity in the agar plug assays are shown in Table 3.27. Ninety six isolates showed activity against the *Bacillus subtilis* strain (69.1%), 10 against the *Escherichia coli* strain (7.4%), 11 against the *Pseudomonas fluorescens* strain (8.1%), 75 against *Staphylococcus aureus* strain (56.0%) and 38 against the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain (27.9%). Isolates KNN26b, KNN32-1a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN37-5a, KNN38-1b, KNN63-2b, KNN64-3a, KNN64-5b and KNN90a (7.4% of isolates) gave zones of inhibition against all five wild type strains. In contrast, 43 isolates (31.6%) did not show any activity against the panel of strains, namely 15 isolates from the Salar de Atacama soil (11.0%) and 28 from the Yungay soils (20.6%).

Table 3.26. Inhibition zones (mm) shown by representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples in the plug assays after incubation overnight at 30° C.

	Panel of wild type strains					
Isolates	Bacillus	Escherichia	Pseudomonas	Staphylococcus	Saccharomyces	
	subtilis	coli	fluorescens	aureus	cerevisiae	
Salar de Ataca	ama:					
KNN1-2c	18	-	-	30	-	
KNN1-5f	17	-	-	40	-	
KNN2-2c	18	-	-	35	11	
KNN2-5c	16	-	-	25	-	
KNN2-6c	19	-	-	30	12	
KNN2-10d	18	-	-	-	-	

KNN2-11d	17	-	-	25	11
KNN3-1b	19	-	-	24	-
KNN2 2h	16			20	
KININJ-20	10	-	-	20	-
KNN3-11d	17	-	-	35	-
KNN3-17d	18	-	-	35	-
KNN4-3b	18	-	-	20	-
KNN5-24b	15	-	-	-	-
KNN5-25d	16	-	-	-	-
KNN6-2a	18	-	-	40	-
KNN6-5a	19	-	-	30	-
VNNC Ch	19			50	20
KININO-OD	18	-	-	-	20
KNN6-10b	17	-	-	25	-
KNN6-11a	17	-	-	22	-
KNN8-3a	18	-	-	10	-
KNN8-5b	19	-	-	30	-
KNN8-89	16	_	_	_	12
	10				12
KININ8-9C	10	-	-	-	-
KNN8-10e	17	-	-	-	-
KNN9-1a	18	_	_	20	11
KINDO O	10	-	-	20	11
KININ9-2C	18	-	-	30	11
KNN10-3b	18	_	_	24	_
KNN10 44	10			20	
KININIO-40	19	-	-	50	-
KNN10-5a	18	-	-	20	-
KNN11-2a	18	_	_	20	18
ININITI Zu IZNINITI AL	10			20	10
KININ11-40	18	-	-	28	-
KNN11-5a	18	-	-	20	35
KNN11-6a	18	-	-	15	-
KNN14-3e	18	-	-	20	-
UNINI17 1	10			20	
KININI /-IC	18	-	-	50	-
KNN17-2b	18	-	-	35	-
KNN18-3d	18	-	-	28	20
KNN24-2c	18	-	-	25	_
KNN24.3c	18			15	
IXININ24-30	10	-	-	1.0	-
KNN24-4c	18	-	-	13	-
KNN24-7c	18	-	-	35	18
KNN24-8e	18	_	_	Weak	-
KNN24 0a	10			25	
KININ24-9e	18	-	-	23	-
KNN25c	18	-	-	14	18
KNN26b	18	17	22	24	22
KNN27a	18	-	-	25	-
KNN28a	18	-	-	25	18
KNN29a	18	-	-	-	-

KNN30a	18	-	-	28	-
KNN31d	18	-	-	30	-
KNN32-1a	18	Weak	13	22	18
KNN33a	18	-	-	-	-
KNN35-1b	24	20	20	24	18
KNN35-2b	24	13	18	18	25
KNN36-1c	18	-	-	-	-
KNN36-3c	18	-	-	-	-
KNN37-1e	18	-	-	-	40
KNN37-5a	18	21	20	20	16
KNN38-1b	18	15	20	30	13
KNN38-5b	18	-	-	25	14
KNN43b	18	-	-	35	-
KNN48-3e	18	-	-	18	_
KNN48-6e	18	-	-	22	-
KNN52-2b	18	-	-	-	-
KNN58-1b	19	-	-	30	15
KNN63-2b	18	12	14	10	13
KNN63-15b	16	-	-	15	-
KNN64-3a	18	17	20	20	14
KNN64-5b	20	16	21	30	18
KNN65-1f	18	-	-	20	18
KNN65-5d	19	-	-	22	16
KNN66b	18	-	-	35	18
KNN67-4b	18	-	-	-	-
KNN68-2b	17	-	-	-	45
KNN68-4b	16	-	-	-	15
KNN69-1e	18	-	-	30	18
KNN69-2a	19	-	-	25	18
KNN69-3a	19	-	-	16	-
KNN71-2a	18	-	-	35	18
KNN72a	18	-	-	17	-
KNN73-2a	17	-	-	35	-
KNN74-2c	19	-	-	35	18

KNN75-4b	18	-	-	23	18
KNN76b	-	-	-	Weak	-
KNN81-2b	18	-	-	-	35
KNN82-1a	16	-	-	30	-
KNN83e	19	-	-	22	-
KNN85-1f	18	-	-	25	18
KNN87b	18	-	-	30	-
KNN94e	16	-	-	-	-
Yungay: KNN13a	13	-	-	-	-
KNN21a	19	-	-	12	-
KNN23-1b	13	-	21	-	-
KNN90a	16	16	22	24	24

+: positive, -: negative results.

Strains negative against all five wild type strains: A) isolates from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample: 1) streptomycetes including KNN4-1b, KNN4-4a, KNN39c, KNN50-11c, , KNN61-1a and 2) non-streptomycetes including KNN34c (*Actinomadura*), KNN49-5e (*Amycolatopsis*) , KNN49-26a (*Amycolatopsis*), KNN50-8b* (*Amycolatopsis*), KNN53-1a (*Actinomadura*), KNN53-2a (*Actinomadura*), KNN53-3a (*Actinomadura*), KNN54-1a (*Saccharothrix*), KNN56a (*Kribbella*), and KNN57-1b (*Nonomuraea*); and B) isolates from the Yungay environmental sample: 1) streptomycetes including KNN61-1e, KNN67-4b, KNN86-1b, KNN88-1a, KNN88-2a, KNN89a, KNN91-1a, KNN96a KNN97a and KNN88a ; and 2) non-streptomycetes KNN7-2b (*Couchioplanes*), KNN45-2b (*Modestobacter*), KNN45-3b (*Modestobacter*), KNN45-4b (*Modestobacter*), KNN46-7a (*Modestobacter*), KNN46-5b (*Modestobacter*), KNN46-6a (*Modestobacter*), KNN46-7a (*Modestobacter*), KNN46-8a (*Modestobacter*), KNN47b (*Blastococcus*), KNN51b (*Pseudonocardia*) and KNN55-1b (*Pseudonocardia*).

*Isolate KNN50-8b did not shown any activity against the five wild type strains but was included in the preliminary study of bioactive compounds, as a non-creative strain.

Plug assays with Bacillus subtilis reporter strains. The results obtained for the 94 isolates included in the plug assays based on the *B. subtilis* reporter strains are shown in Table 3.28. Twenty two strains (23.4%) gave blue halos against the $yvqI^{ER}$, $yjaX^{ER}$, $ypuA^{ER}$ and $yvgS^{ER}$ reporter strains, six (6.4%) against the $yjaX^{ER}$, $ypuA^{ER}$ and $yvgS^{ER}$ reporter strains, and three (3.2%) against the $yvqI^{ER}$, $ypuA^{ER}$ and $yvgS^{ER}$ reporter strains. Three strains (3.2%) were shown to inhibit DNA synthesis, twenty eight (29.8%) cell envelope synthesis, thirty four (36.2%) fatty acid synthesis, thirty two (34.0%) cell wall synthesis and a further thirty two (34%) against RNA synthesis, as shown in Table 3.28, and as exemplified in Figure 3.19. In contrast, 40 isolates (42.6%) showed bioactivity but did not form blue halos.

Table 3.27. Diameter of zones of inhibition (mm) produced by strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample against the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains after incubating overnight at 30°C. Isolates found to give blue halos are shown in blue.

Isolates		Reporter genes					
	phi105 ^{CH}	$yvqI^{ER}$	$y j a \mathbf{X}^{ER}$	уриА ^{ER}	$yvgS^{ER}$		
Multi-member	ed colour-groups:						
KNN1-2c	23	20	23	22	22		
KNN1-5f	20	18	15	16	17		
KNN2-2c	15	17	15	15	13		
KNN2-5c	16	14	15	15	16		
KNN2-6c	17	18	18	18	20		
KNN2-10d	25	17	25	22	21		
KNN2-11d	15	15	20	15	16		
KNN3-1b	20	20	28	23	23		
KNN3-2b	22	18	23	22	23		
KNN3-11d	13	12	10	11	14		
KNN3-17d	24	21	23	22	23		
KNN4-1b	-	-	-	-	-		
KNN4-3b	20	20	22	23	22		
KNN4-4 a	-	-	-	-	-		
KNN5-25d	21	17	19	18	19		
KNN6-2a	20	19	20	20	20		
KNN6-5a	14	15	14	13	15		
KNN6-6b	Weak	Weak	13	13	13		
KNN6-10b	24	16	25	23	23		
KNN6-11a	22	22	25	24	23		
	20	16	20	10	20		
KNN8-3a	20	16	20	18	20		
KNN8-5b	25	25	25	25	25		
KININÖ-ÖÄ	weak	weak	weak	weak	weak		
KNN8-9a	23	1/	25	20	20		
KNN8-10a	Weak	Weak	Weak	Weak	Weak		
KNN9-1a	Weak	13	Weak	Weak	Weak		
KNN9-2c	22	19	22	20	22		
111117-20		17	<i>LL</i>	20			

*KNN10-3b	23	18	20	20	20
*KNN10-4d	18	18	20	17	21
*KNN10-5a	20	16	20	20	19
KNN11-2a	13	12	10	13	14
KNN11-4b	Weak	13	13	12	10
KNN11-5a	Weak	Weak	14	10	19
KNN11-6a	24	12	15	18	19
KNN14-3e	15	14	18	15	15
KNN17-1c	30	19	35	28	35
KNN17-2b	23	30	28	28	30
KNN18-3d	16	15	20	18	17
KNN24-2c	21	20	24	21	22
KNN24-3c	15	19	17	13	15
KNN24-4c	_	-	-	-	-
KNN24-7c	24	25	25	20	25
KNN24 80	15	13	14	15	14
KNN24 00	19	19	10	17	14
KININ24-9e	10	18	19	17	10
KNN32-1a	16	21	18	19	18
KNN35-2b	20	21	20	21	21
KNN36-1c	Weak	Weak	Weak	10	10
KNN36-3c	12	14	Weak	11	12
KNN37-1e	20	20	20	20	17
KNN37-5a	20	19	18	16	18
Kining/-Sa	20	17	10	10	10
KNN38-1b	27	18	18	22	15
KNN38-5b	20	18	22	20	22
KNN48 30	20	10	22	22	22
VNN40-5C	20	19	22	22	22
KININ48-00	21	25	27	24	24
KNN52-2b	15	Weak	12	16	15
KNN57-1b	-	-	-	-	-
KNN58-1b	24	16	25	23	22
KNN63-2b	15	16	18	18	18
KNN63-5b	Weak	20	Weak	Weak	Weak
KNN64-3h	28	17	21	21	23
KNN64-5h	20	20	21	20	23
KNNOF -50	21	20	22	20	21
KNN65-1f	23	18	25	25	24
KNN65-5d	25	19	22	25	25
KNN67-4b	11	Weak	15	17	16
KNN68-2 b	Weak	Weak	10	Weak	13
KNN68-4 b	Weak	Weak	Weak	11	10
				**	10
KNN69-1e	21	15	23	21	21
KNN69-2a	22	25	25	23	23
		-	-	-	

KNN69-3a	13	Weak	12	13	15
KNN71-2a	21	17	23	21	21
KNN73-2a	18	17	18	17	18
KNN74-2c	23	18	23	20	22
KNN75-4b	15	13	15	15	15
KNN81-2b	Weak	12	11	11	14
KNN82-1a	15	12	Weak	Weak	12
KNN85-1f	20	18	21	20	22
Single-member	ed colour-groups	:			
KNN25c	15	15	15	12	15
KNN26b	25	19	19	28	25
KNN27a	25	21	20	21	20
KNN28a	12	22	14	12	14
KNN29a	Weak	Weak	12	12	12
KNN30a	13	Weak	17	16	16
KNN31d	10	Weak	13	Weak	11
KNN33a	14	12	12	11	10
KNN39c	-	-	-	-	-
KNN43b	25	18	25	23	25
KNN56a	-	-	-	-	-
KNN66a	25	18	22	22	22
KNN72a	16	15	17	16	17
KNN76b	-	-	-	-	-
KNN83e	20	19	20	20	22
KNN87b	20	23	24	27	25
KNN94e	Weak	10	Weak	Weak	Weak

- : negative result. * Saccharothrix strains.

Disc diffusion assays. The results obtained with the mycelial extracts of the 94 strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample are shown in Table 3.29, and illustrated in Figure 3.20. Twenty four of the isolates (25.5%) gave strong positive results with the *B. subtilis* reporter strains, whereas 28 (29.8%) showed very weak or weak activity. In contrast, negative results were obtained against all of the *B. subtilis*

reporter strains with 31 of the extracts (33.0%). The mycelial extracts of three strains inhibited cell wall synthesis (3.2%), three inhibited fatty acid synthesis (3.2%), seventeen cell envelope synthesis (18.1%) and a further sixteen RNA synthesis (17.0%), none of the extracts showed activity against DNA synthesis. The mycelial extracts of eight strains (8.5%) showed activity against to all of *B. subtilis* reporter strains but did not produced blue halos. Seventy four strains presented strong activity against the *B. subtilis* reporter strains in the plug assays, but only thirteen of the corresponding mycelial extracts showed strong activity against to the *B. subtilis* reporter strains.

Figure 3.19. Zones of inhibition produced by representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample against the *Escherichia coli* strain and against the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains (Table 2.16, page 63) in agar plug assays after incubating overnight at 30° C.



Table 3.28. Inhibition zones (mm) produced by mycelial extracts obtained from strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample against the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains after incubating overnight at 30°C. Strains which gave blue halos are shown in blue.

Isolates			Reporter genes		
	phi105 ^{CH}	$yvqI^{ER}$	vjaX ^{ER}	<i>ypuA</i> ^{ER}	$yvgS^{ER}$
Multi-membered	colour-groups:	· 1	20	~ 1	
Streptomycetes					
KNN1-2c	23	20	23	22	22
KNN1-5f	20	18	15	16	17
KNN2-2c	15	17	15	15	13
KNN2-5c	16	14	15	15	16
KNN2-6c	17	18	18	18	20
KNN2-10d	25	17	25	22	21
KNN2-11d	15	15	20	15	16
KNN3-1b	20	20	28	23	23
KNN3-2b	22	18	23	22	23
KNN3-11d	13	12	10	11	14
KNN3-17d	24	21	23	22	23
KNN4-1b	-	-	-	-	-
KNN4-3b	20	20	22	23	22
KNN4-4 a	-	-	-	-	-
KNN5-25d	21	17	19	18	19
KNN6-2a	20	19	20	20	20
KNN6-5a	14	15	14	13	15
KNN6-6b	Weak	Weak	13	13	13
KNN6-10b	24	16	25	23	23
KNN6-11a	22	22	25	24	23
VALUE 2	20	16	20	10	20
KININÖ-JA	20	10	20	18	20
KININO-JU KNINO 90	23 Waalt	25 Waalt	23 Waala	23 Waala	23 Waala
KININO-OA	weak 22	weak	weak	weak	weak
KINNO-9a KNN8 10a	25 Week	1/ Week	25 Week	20 Week	20 Weak
KININO-10a	W Cak	WEak	W Cak	WEak	vv cak
KNN9-1a	Weak	13	Weak	Weak	Weak
KNN9-2c	22	19	22	20	22
KNN11-2a	13	12	10	13	14
KNN11-4b	Weak	13	13	12	10
KNN11-5a	Weak	Weak	14	10	19
KNN11-6a	24	12	15	18	19
KNN14-3e	15	14	18	15	15
KNN17-1c	30	19	35	28	35
KNN17-2b	23	30	28	28	30
WNN10 21	16	15	20	10	17
KNN18-3d	16	15	20	18	1/
KNINDA 20	21	20	24	21	22
KNN24-20	∠1 15	20 10	2 4 17	²¹ 13	15
KNN24-3C	-	17	1/	-	-
1111127 TU					

KNN24-7c	24	25	25	20	25
KNN24-8e	15	13	14	15	14
KNN24-9e	18	18	19	17	16
KNN32-1a	16	21	18	19	18
KNN35-2b	20	21	20	21	21
KNN36-1c	Weak	Weak	Weak	10	10
KNN36-3c	12	14	Weak	11	12
KNN37-1e	20	20	20	20	17
KNN37-5a	20	19	18	16	18
KNN38-1b	27	18	18	22	15
KNN38-5b	20	18	22	20	22
KNN48-3e	20	19	22	22	22
KNN48-6d	20 21	25	27	24	24
KNN52-2b	15	Weak	12	16	15
KNN58-1b	24	16	25	23	22
KNING2 2h	15	16	10	10	10
KNN63-5b	Weak	20	Weak	Weak	Weak
KNN64-3b	28	17	21	21	23
KNN64-5b	27	20	22	20	21
KNN65-1f	23	18	25	25	24
KNN65-5d	25	19	22	25	25
KNN67-4b	11	Weak	15	17	16
KNN68-2 h	Weak	Weak	10	Weak	13
KNN68-4 b	Weak	Weak	Weak	11	10
KNN60 10	21	15	23	21	21
KNN60 20	21	15	25	21	21
KININO9-2a	12	23	23	23	25
KNN69-3a	13	Weak	12	13	15
KNN71-2a	21	17	23	21	21
KNN73-2a	18	17	18	17	18
KNN74-2c	23	18	23	20	22
KNN75-4b	15	13	15	15	15
KNN81-2b	Weak	12	11	11	14
KNN82-1a	15	12	Weak	Weak	12
KNN85-1f	20	18	21	20	22
Non-streptomyce	etes				
Saccharothrix					
KNN10-3b	23	18	20	20	20
KNN10-4d	18	18	20	17	21

KNN10-5a	20	16	20	20	19
KNN54-1a	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Nonomuraea</i> KNN57-1b	-	-	-	-	-
Single-membered KNN25c	colour-groups: 15	15	15	12	15
KNN26b	25	19	19	28	25
KNN27a	25	21	20	21	20
KNN28a	12	22	14	12	14
KNN29a	Weak	Weak	12	12	12
KNN30a	13	Weak	17	16	16
KNN31d	10	Weak	13	Weak	11
KNN33a	14	12	12	11	10
KNN39c	-	-	-	-	-
KNN43b	25	18	25	23	25
KNN66a	25	18	22	22	22
KNN72a	16	15	17	16	17
KNN76b	-	-	-	-	-
KNN83e	20	19	20	20	22
KNN87b	20	23	24	27	25
KNN94e	Weak	10	Weak	Weak	Weak
Non-streptomyce Kribbella	etes				
KNN56a	-	-	-	-	-

- : negative result.

Strains negative against all of the *B. subtilis* reporter strains: KNN5-25d, KNN9-1a, KNN9-2c, KNN25c, KNN26b, KNN27a, KNN28a, KNN29a, KNN32-1a, KNN33a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN37-5a, KNN39c, KNN52-2b, KNN56a, KNN57-1b, KNN64-3a, KNN64-5b, KNN67-4b, KNN68-2b, KNN68-4b, KNN72a, KNN75-4b, KNN81-2b, KNN82-1a and KNN94e.

3. 4. 8. Preliminary characterisation of some bioactive compounds

Three out of the 6 tested strains, namely *Amycolatopsis* strain KNN50-8b and *Streptomyces* strains KNN26b and KNN64-5b were found to produce interesting

specialised metabolites. The results obtained for isolate KNN26b, a member of *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene clade, are shown in Figure 3.21. Extracts of this organism showed HPLC peaks between 10-15 minutes (molecular weight between 220-590), which suggested the presence of novel metabolites or peptides as these peaks that did not correspond with compounds contained in the Dictionary of Natural Products (Buckingham, 2013), the Reaxys online (http://www.reaxys.com) or the AntiBase 2012 (Laatsch, 2013) databases. Isolate KNN50-8b, a member of *A. ruanii* 16S rRNA gene subclade, produced one major and several minor compounds as shown in Figure 3.22, that did not feature in the databases mentioned above. Isolate KNN64-5b, another member of the *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene clade, produced 5-6 derivatives of prospective novel aromatic polyene compounds, as shown in Figure 3.23, that did not correspond to entries in any of the three databases. The remaining strains, *Amycolatopsis* isolate KNN50-16d and *Streptomyces* isolates KNN38-1b and KNN90a, did not yield any specialised compounds of interest.

Figure 3.20. Zones of inhibition produced by mycelial extracts of representative strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama environmental sample against the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter strains after incubating overnight at 30°C. Strains which gave blue halos are highlighted.





Figure 3.21. HPLC and UV traces obtained in liquid chromatographic analyses for *Streptomyces fimbriatus*-like strain KNN26b extracts prepared from medium 19. The red circle highlights the peaks of prospective novel major and minor novel specialised compounds.



Figure 3.22. HPLC and UV traces obtained in liquid chromatographic analyses for *Amycolatopsis ruanii*-like isolate KNN50-8b extracts prepared from medium 19. The red circle highlights the peaks of major and minor specialised metabolites of interest compounds.



Figure 3.23. HPLC and UV traces obtained in liquid chromatographic analyses for *Streptomyces fimbriatus*-like strain KNN64-5b extracts prepared from glucose yeast-extract malt-extract broth. The individual arrows highlight peak of presumptive novel compounds.

3.5. Discussion

The outcomes of the present investigation confirm and extend those reported in the pioneering biosystematic studies on cultivable Atacama Desert actinobacteria (Okoro *et al.*, 2009; Bull & Asenjo, 2012). Once again, small numbers of taxonomically diverse filamentous actinobacteria with the capacity to produce bioactive compounds were isolated from hyperand extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils. Low numbers of actinobacteria were isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples, counts ranging from 0.1×10^2 to 1.3×10^4 and 1.0×10^2 to 5×10^3 colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, respectively with the highest number in each case recorded from humic acid-vitamin agar plates. In general, these counts are similar to those recorded for comparable soils by Okoro *et al.*, (2009). These results together with those from previous culture-dependent (Cameron *et al.*, 1966; Opfel & Zerbal, 1967) and culture-independent studies (Wintzingerode *et al.*, 1997; Navarro-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2003; Drees *et al.*, 2006; DiRuggiero *et al.*, 2013) show that actinobacteria are present in arid Atacama Desert soils, sometimes in high abundance (Connon *et al.*, 2007; Neilson *et al.*, 2012).

Nearly all of the colonies growing on the selective isolation plates were identified as actinobacteria based on characteristic morphological features, notably the ability to form extensively branched substrate mycelia, and in many cases, aerial hyphae. Indeed, on this basis most of the representative isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama and extreme hyper-arid Yungay soils were assigned to the genus Streptomyces, namely 79.3 and 73.3%, respectively. The 250 representative streptomycetes from the Salar de Atacama soil were recovered in 43 multi- and 21 single-membered colour-groups and the corresponding 77 representative isolates from the Yungay soil in 14 multi- and 12 single-membered colourgroups. These data show that the streptomycete communities in these soils, while small, are taxonomically diverse as it is known that colour-groups based on the ability of streptomycetes to produce diagnostic pigments on oatmeal and peptone-yeast extract-iron agars are reliable indicators of species diversity (Pathom-aree et al., 2006; Antony-Babu & Goodfellow, 2008; Antony-Babu et al., 2010; Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010). It is evident, therefore, that taxonomically diverse streptomycetes are present in arid Atacama Desert soil, as found in the pilot study of Okoro et al. (2009).

Whole-organism hydrolysates of strains taken to represent the Streptomyces colour-groups

were rich in the diagnostic marker, *LL*-diaminopimelic acid thereby underpinning the generic status of these taxa (Kämpfer, 2012). It was surprising that only 10 out of the 327 streptomycetes formed melanin pigments on peptone-yeast extract-iron agar as melanin and melanin-like pigments have been shown to protect micro-organisms against UV radiation and oxidants (Casadevall *et al.*, 2000; Langfelder *et al.*, 2003; Dharmik & Gomashe, 2013). However, there is evidence that some actinobacteria only produce melanin-like pigments under oligotrophic conditions (Reddy *et al.*, 2007) while other micro-organisms, such as cyanobacteria and fungi, may produce secondary metabolites as sunscreens (Cao & Garcia-Puhel, 2011).

The phylogenetic analyses of the 62 Salar de Atacama strains taken to repesent 21 multi- and 6 single-membered colour-groups fell within the evolutionary radiation occupied by the genera *Actinomadura, Amycolatopsis, Kribbella, Lechevalieria, Nonomuraea, Saccharothrix* and *Streptomyces*. Most of the *Amycolatopsis* and *Streptomyces* isolates represented large multi-membered colour-groups, as exemplified by *Amycolatopsis* colour-groups KNN49 (31 isolates) and KNN50 (18 isolates) and *Streptomyces* colour-groups KNN2 (18 isolates), KNN 5 (21 isolates) and KNN48 (20 isolates). These data together with those reported by Okoro *et al.* (2009) indicate that *Amycolatopsis* and *Streptomyces* are the predominant culturable genera present in hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil. In contrast, the *Actinomadura, Nonomuraea* and all but one of the *Saccharothrix* strains represented colour-groups. All of these isolates represent genera considered to be rare in natural habitats (Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a, b); of these genera only members of the genus *Lechevalieria* had previously been isolated from Salar de Atacama soil (Okoro *et al.*, 2010).

Comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence analyses showed that 25 isolates from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil, which represented 6 multi- and 4 single-membered clusters, belonged to the genera *Blastococcus* (KNN47b), *Couchioplanes* (KNN7-2b), *Geodermatophilus* (KNN44-1b, KNN44-3b and KNN44-4b), *Modestobacter* (KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b, KNN45-4b and KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-6b, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c and KNN49-10f), *Pseudonocardia* (KNN55-1b and KNN55-2b) and *Streptomyces* (KNN22a, KNN23-1b, KNN32-1a, KNN42f, KNN47b and KNN70b); these assignments were underpinned by the results of chemotaxonomic and

132

morphological data from representatives of these taxa as the latter gave results typical of the constituent genera (Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012a). In this case, most of the isolates were assigned to the genera *Modestobacter* and *Streptomyces*, as illustrated by *Modestobacter* colour-group KNN46 (12 isolates) and *Streptomyces* colour-group KNN48 (15 isolates). Isolates representing single-membered colour-groups were assigned to the genera *Blastococcus* and *Streptomyces* whereas the *Couchioplanes*, *Geodermatophilus* and *Pseudonocardia* strains represented colour-groups that contained 4, 4 and 2 isolates, respectively.

While based on a relatively small number of isolates, the phylogenetic data provide evidence that hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils are populated by markedly different actinobacterial communities. It is especially interesting that representatives of the genera Blastococcus, Geodermatophilus and Modestobacter, which together constitute the family Geodermatophilaceae, were only found in the extreme hyper-arid soil, as members of these poorly studied genera are typically inhabitants of exposed surfaces, such as ancient monuments and rocks (Urzì et al., 2004; Reddy et al., 2007; Montero-Calasanz et al., 2013), surface soils (Luedemann, 1968) and regoliths (Mevs et al., 2004). In constrast, Amycolatopsis strains were only isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil; members of this taxon are known to be present in arid Australian soils (Tan et al., 2006). Furthermore, Streptomyces strains, while prevalent in both the Salar de Atacama and Yungay soils, were with very few exception, recovered in site specific colour-groups. Relatively little in known about the abundance and distribution of the remaining genera in natural habitats through Actinomadura, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia and Saccharothrix strains have been isolated from arid soils (Wink et al., 2003; Zitouni et al., 2004; Babulola et al., 2009; Lee & Lee, 2010; Zhang et al., 2010; Kurapova et al., 2012; Camas et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2013).

The results of the phylogenetic analyses based on 16S rRNA gene sequences of representative *Streptomyces* strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil showed that nearly all of them formed distinct phyletic lines or subclades that can be considered as putatively novel *Streptomyces* species. Similar deductions drawn by Okoro *et al.* (2009) for strains isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils were substantiated when three strains forming distinct lineages in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree were validly named as *Streptomyces atacamensis*, *Streptomyces bullii* and *Streptomyces deserti* (Santhaman *et al.*, 2012a, b, 2013). In the present study, isolate KNN87, which formed a single-membered colour-group, was found to have an identical 16S rRNA gene

sequence to the type strain of *S. bullii* thereby providing good grounds for considering it to be a member of this species. However, it was especially interesting that most of the *Streptomyces* strains from the present study belonged to well delineated multi-membered subclades recognised by Okoro *et al.* (2009), notably the *S. fimbriatus* subclade and a large taxonomically distinct taxon which encompassed strains shown to synthesised specialised metabolites (Nachtigall *et al.*, 2011; Rateb *et al.*, 2011a, b; Bull & Asenjo, 2012). The detailed taxonomic relationships within these taxa and their closest phylogenetic neighbours will be considered in Chapter 6, as will relationships between the seven strains which formed a well delineated *Streptomyces* subclade that was most closely related to the type strain of *Streptomyces carpinenis*. Corresponding studies will be reported in Chapter 4 on isolates assigned to the *Amycolatopsis methanolica* 16S rRNA gene clade given their potential biotechnological, ecological and taxonomic significance.

Most of the remaining isolates included in the phylogenetic studies formed distinct phyletic lines within evolutionary space populated by the genera Actinomadura, Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Nonomuraea, Pseudonocardia and Saccharothrix, as did the balance of the Streptomyces strains. Some of these isolates may well form the nuclei of new species as they shared 16S rRNA gene similarities below the 99.0% cut-off point recommended by Meier- Kolthoff et al. (2013) to trigger the need for DNA:DNA pairing studies between potentially novel isolates and very close taxonomic neighbours. Consequently, isolates KNN7-2b, KNN10-4d, KNN34c, KNN44-3b and KNN55-2 probably represent new species in the genera Couchioplanes, Saccharothrix, Actinomadura, Geodermatophilus and Pseudonocardia, respectively. In contrast, more extensive taxonomic studies, including the application of DNA:DNA pairing or whole-genome sequence procedures, are needed to establish the taxonomic status of the remaining isolates recovered in the genera Actinomadura, Geodermatophilus, Pseudonocardia, Saccharothrix and Streptomyces and the strains assigned to the genera Kribbella and Nonomuraea. The relationships between the *Modestobacer* isolates and between them and associated type strains will be considered in Chapter 5.

At the generic level, more extensive actinobacterial diversity was recorded amongst isolates from the hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil when compared with the work of Okoro *et al.* (2009), for in addition to *Amycolatopsis, Lechevalieria* and *Streptomyces* strains a small number of *Actinomadura, Kribbella, Nonomuraea* and *Saccharothrix* strains were isolated.

These differences can be attributed to factors such as sampling error and to the use of different selective media. However, in the present study Amycolatopsis and Streptomyces strain grew on all of the isolation media, not just on those designed for this purpose. Indeed, the humic acid agar plates not only supported the growth of representative strains of Amycolatopsis and Streptomyces, but also that of the two Nonomuraea strains and three out of the six Saccharothrix isolates. Similar results were recorded for the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil, as exemplified by the isolation of more representatives of the family Geodermatophilaceae on humic acid-vitamin agar than on the media designed to isolate members of this taxon. These apparently anomalous results can be attributed to the lack of competition between taxonomically different bacteria, including actinobacteria, on isolation plates, which in turn may reflect the small number of the bacterial propagules in the soil suspensions. Indeed, in light of these results humic acid-vitamin agar can be recommended as the medium of choice for the selective isolation of taxonomically diverse actinobacteria from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils. Nevertheless, additional taxonomic surveys of arid Atacama Desert soils should be based on the use of several selective isolation media, not least ones formulated for the isolation members of the family Conexibacteriaceae, Nitriliruptoraceae, Patulibacteriaceae, Rubrobacteriaceae and Solirubrobacteriaceae all of which have been detected in such soils by pyrosequencing community DNA samples (Neilson *et al.*, 2012).

Ninety two out of 136 representative strains (67.6%) isolated from the hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils showed activity against one or more of the five strains used in the standard plug assays thereby providing further evidence that the use of dereplicated strains results in high hit rates (Qin *et al.*, 2009; Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010; Yuan *et al.*, 2014). Most of the isolates showed activity against the *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* strains, a third against *S. cerevisiae*, but few inhibited the growth of the *E. coli* and *P. fluorescens* strains; these results are in line with those of previous studies on filamentous actinobacteria (Eccleston *et al.*, 2008; Qin *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, 15 of the isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil (11.0%) and 28 of those from the Yungay (20.6%) did not show any activity against the panel of wild type micro-organisms, most of these isolates belonged to non-streptomycete taxa.

Nine out of the ten strains that inhibited the growth of all of the wild type strains in the plug assays were isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil and the remaining one,

isolate KNN90a, from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil. These strains are of particular interest as they may produce one or more novel broad spectrum antibiotics (or a range of specialised metabolites) and hence are prime candidates in the search for such compounds (Fishbach & Walsh, 2009). The ten isolates, which represented eight colour-groups, were all assigned to be the genus *Streptomyces*: strains KNN26b, KNN38-1b, KNN64-3a, KNN64-5b to the S. *fimbriatus* 16S rRNA subclade, strains KNN35-1b and KNN35-2b to *Streptomyces* news ubclade 2, while strain KNN32-1a formed a distinct phyletic line in the *S. rochei* 16S rRNA subclade; the remaining three strains, isolates KNN37-5a, KNN63-2b and KNN90a, were not included in the 16S rRNA sequence analyses. It is also interesting that six of the strains were isolated on humic acid-vitamin agar plates, the remaining four on a Gause's No.1 agar plate. The potential importance of the isolates classified in the *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA subclade was underpinned by results from the preliminary chemical analyses which showed that strains KNN26b and KNN64-5b produced potentially novel bioactive compounds.

Twenty two of the Salar de Atacama isolates (23.4%) were found to inhibit cell envelope, cell wall, fatty acid and RNA synthesis as they produced blue halos with the *B. subtilis* reporter strains $ypuA^{ER}$, $yvqI^{ER}$, $yjaX^{ER}$ and $yvgS^{ER}$, respectively. These isolates belonged to 16 *Streptomyces* colour-groups and hence represent diverse taxa within this genus. Isolate KNN5-25d formed a well distinct phyletic line in the *S. althioticus* 16S rRNA subclade while KNN38-5b was member of *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA subclade (the remaining isolates were not included in the 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies). It was particularly interesting that five of the twenty two isolates, strains KNN6-2a, KNN6-10b, KNN9-2c, KNN10-4d and KNN24-2c, were assigned to *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA new subclade 1 which will be considered in Chapter 6 under the heading *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene subclade. The 40 isolates (42.6%) which did not exhibit blue halos but did show bioactivity against one or more of the *B. subtilis* reporter strains are of interest as the nature of their bioactivity remains to be determined.

It is becoming increasingly apparent that rare actinobacteria from extreme environments are a useful source of novel bioactive compounds (Bredholt *et al.*, 2007, 2008; Genilloud *et al.*, 2011; Tiwari & Gupta, 2012b). However, in the present study only three out of the thirty isolates assigned to the genera *Actinomadura*, *Amycolatopsis*, *Blastococcus*, *Couchioplanes*, *Geodermatophilus*, *Kribbella*, *Modestobacter*, *Nonomuraea*, *Pseudonocardia* and *Saccharothrix* showed activity in the plug assays. The three isolates found to be active,
strains KNN10-3b, KNN10-4d, KNN10-5d, inhibited the growth of the *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* strains and synthesised one or more bioactive compounds that targeted cell envelope, fatty acid and RNA synthesis. It is, however, important to remember that the success or otherwise of screening programmes is not only dependent on the use of novel taxonomically diverse actinobacteria but is also influenced by the composition of media used to cultivate strains. Consequently, strains showing inactivity in screening assays need to be grown on a range of production media as this may have a dramatic effect on the expression of constituent secondary metabolite gene clusters (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010).

The results of the present study provide further evidence that small numbers of taxonomically diverse actinobacteria with the capacity to synthesise a broad range of bioactive compounds are present in highly arid Atacama Desert soils. Indeed, this is the first report describing the isolation of members the genera *Actinomadura, Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Kribbella, Modestobacter, Pseudonocardia* and *Saccharothrix* strains from such soils. However, complementary culture-independent studies of community DNA isolated from Salar de Atacama and Yungay soils are needed to determine whether the taxa isolated in the present study are representative of the actinobacterial communities present in these soils.

Acknowledgements

The chemical screening of extracts was carried out by Dr. Mostafa Rateb under the supervision of Professor Marcel Jaspars at the Biodiversity Centre, Department of Chemistry at the University of Aberdeen. Mr. Ali Kermani (M.Sc. student, School of Biology, Newcastle University) carried out some of the plug assays and all of those involving the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter genes.

Chapter 4. Classification of thermophilic *Amycolatopsis* strains isolated from arid desert soils

4.1. Abstract

The taxonomic position of twenty six filamentous actinobacteria isolated from a hyperarid Atacama Desert soil and two from an arid Australian composite soil were established using a polyphasic approach. All of the isolates gave the diagnostic amplification product using 16S rRNA oligonucleotide primers specific for the genus Amycolatopsis. 16S rRNA gene analyses showed that all of the isolates belonged to the Amycolatopsis methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade. Representative isolates had chemotaxonomic and morphological properties typical of members of the genus Amycolatopsis. The Atacama Desert isolates were assigned to one or other of two recognised species, namely Amycolatopsis ruanii and Amycolatopsis thermalba based on 16S rRNA gene sequence, DNA:DNA relatedness and phenotypic data; emended descriptions are given for these species. In contrast, the two strains from the arid Australian composite soil, isolates GY024 and GY142, formed a distinct branch at the periphery of the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade, a taxon that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap value. Isolate GY024 was distinguished from the type strains of all of species classified in the A. methanoloca 16S rRNA subclade using a broad range of phenotypic properties. The combined genotypic and phenotypic data show that strain GY024 merits recognition as a new species within the A. methanolica group of thermophilic strains. The name proposed for the new species is Amycolatopsis deserti sp. nov.; the type strain is $GY024^{T}$ (=NCIMB.....=NRRL....).

4.2. Introduction

The genus *Amycolatopsis* Lechevalier *et al.* (1986) is classified in the family *Pseudonocardiaceae* (Labeda & Goodfellow, 2012a) of the order *Pseudonocardiales* (Labeda & Goodfellow, 2012b). It can be distinguished from other genera classified in the family by using genus-specific 16S rRNA oligonucleotide primers (Tan *et al.*, 2006) and by a combination of chemotaxonomic and morphological markers (Labeda *et al.*,

2011; Labeda & Goodfellow, 2012a). The genus encompasses 65 validly published species (Euzéby, 2013) most of which have been proposed using polyphasic taxonomic data, as exemplified by descriptions of *Amycolatopsis cihanbeyliensis* (Tatar *et al.*, 2013), *Amycolatopsis jiangsuensis* (Xing *et al.*, 2014), *Amycolatopsis magusensis* (Camas *et al.*, 2013) and *Amycolatopsis umgeniensis* (Everest *et al.*, 2013). Closely related *Amycolatopsis* species can be distinguished by using a combination of phenotypic features (Tan & Goodfellow, 2012; Camas *et al.*, 2013; Everest *et al.*, 2013). Members of genus are widely distributed in natural habitats, especially in geographically diverse soils (Saintpierre-Bonaccio *et al.*, 2005; Tan *et al.*, 2006; Nie *et al.*, 2012; Camas *et al.*, 2013; Everest *et al.*, 2006; Nie *et al.*, 2012; Camas *et al.*, 2013; Huang *et al.*, 2004), marine sediment (Bian *et al.*, 2009), a salt lake (Tang *et al.*, 2010) and plants (Duangmal *et al.*, 2011; Miao *et al.*, 2011).

Amycolatopsis species can be assigned to several multi- and single- membered phyletic lines based on gyrB, recN and 16S rRNA sequence analyses (Everest & Meyers, 2009; Everest et al., 2011; Tan & Goodfellow 2012)., The two most populated phyletic groups, the Amycolatopsis methanolica and Amycolatopsis orientalis 16S rRNA subclades, are difficult to distinguish using phenotypic criteria though members of the former grow well at temperatures up to 45°C (Tan & Goodfellow, 2012; Zucchi et al., 2012a, c) and hence can be considered to be thermophilic actinobacteria (Cross, 1968; Brock, 1986). The A. methanolica 16S rRNA subclade encompasses Amycolatopsis methanolica (De Boer et al., 1990), the earliest described species, Amycolatopsis eurytherma (Kim et al., 2002a), Amycolatopsis granulosa (Zucchi et al., 2012a), Amycolatopsis ruanii (Zucchi et al., 2012c), Amycolatopsis thermoflava (Chun et al., 1999), Amycolatopsis thermophila (Zucchi et al., 2012a), Amycolatopsis thermalba (Zucchi et al., 2012b), Amycolatopsis tucumanensis (Albarraćin et al., 2010) and Amycolatopsis viridis (Zucchi et al., 2012c). These species can be distinguished using a broad range of phenotypic properties (Zucchi et al., 2012b, c) and are of potential value in biotechnology, notably as vehicles for fermentation overproduction of aromatic amino acids (De Boer et al., 1990; Abou-Zeid et al., 1995) and as agents of bioremediation (Albarracín et al., 2008, 2010). Members of the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene clade are rare actinomycetes as all but one of the constituent species, namely A. eurytherma, rest on descriptions of single strains that were mainly isolated from arid soil collected in Australia, China and New Guinea.

The present study was designed to establish the taxonomic provenance of strains isolated from arid Atacama Desert and Australian desert soils and assigned to the *A*. *methanolica* 16S rRNA gene clade based on characteristic colonial features and an ability to grow at 50°C. The isolates were compared with the type strains of species classified in the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene clade using a polyphasic taxonomic approach. The resultant data showed that the twenty six Atacama Desert isolates were *bona fide* members of either *A. ruanii* or *A. thermalba* whereas the two isolates from the Australian soil belong to a new *Amycolatopsis* species for which the name *Amycolatopsis taniae* sp. nov. is proposed.

4.3. Materials and Methods

4. 3. 1. Isolation of Amycolatopsis strains

Filamentous actinobacteria were sought from a hyper-arid soil sample collected from the Chaxa de Laguna of the Salar de Atacama in the Atacama Desert of Northern Chile $(23^{\circ} 17^{\circ}S, 68^{\circ} 100^{\circ} W)$ using a range of selective isolation media (Table 4.1). The media were incubated at 28°C for 3 weeks following inoculation with a 10⁻¹ soil suspension that had been heated at 55°C for 6 minutes, as described by Okoro *et al.* (2009). Counts of *Amycolatopsis* strains growing on each of the isolation media were expressed as the number of colony forming units per gram dry weight soil. Strains GY024 and GY142 were isolated on SM1 agar plates that had been inoculated with tenfold dilutions of an arid Australian composite soil and incubated at 28°C for 3 weeks, as described by Tan *et al.* (2006).

4. 3. 2. Test strains, maintenance and cultural conditions

Twenty-six isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil with the typical colonial appearance of *Amycolatopsis* strains were taken from the selective isolation plates and subcultured onto modified Bennett's agar plates (Jones, 1949), incubated at 28°C for 14 days and checked for purity by microscopic examination of Gram-stained smears. These Atacama strains together with isolates GY024^T and GY142 and the type strains of *Amycolatopsis* species classified in the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene subclade were maintained on modified Bennett's agar slopes (Jones, 1949) and in 20%, v/v glycerol -20 and -80°C. Biomass for the chemotaxonomic studies carried out on representative

isolates and the type strains of *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba* was prepared in shake flasks (200 revolutions per minute) of yeast extract-malt extract broth (International Streptomyces Project [ISP] medium 2; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) for 14 days at 28°C, washed twice in distilled water and freeze-dried. Biomass for the molecular systematic studies was prepared in the same way but was stored as washed preparations at -20°C.

4. 3. 3. PCR amplification using genus-specific primers

Genomic DNA was extracted from the twenty six representatives of the Salar de Atcama soil and from the 2 isolates from the Australian composite soil and the DNA preparations examined to determine whether they produced the diagnostic amplification product with the genus-specific *Amycolatopsis* 16S rRNA oligonucleotide primers AMY2 amd ATOP, as described by Tan *et al.* (2006).

4.3.4. Phylogeny

Genomic DNA was extracted from all of the isolates and PCR amplification and 16S rRNA gene sequencing achieved after Kim and Goodfellow (2002). 16S rRNA gene sequences of the strains [1310-1350 nucleotides (nt)] were aligned manually, using MEGA version 5 software (Tamura et al., 2011), against corresponding sequences of the type strains of Amycolatopsis species retrieved from the GenBank database using the EzTaxon-e server (Kim et al., 2012) and phylogenetic trees generated using the maximum-likelihood (Felsenstein, 1981), maximum-parsimony (Fitch, 1971) and neighbour-joining (Saitou & Nei, 1987) tree-making algorithms drawn from MEGA 5software programme. The same procedure was used to examine relationships between the isolates and closely related *Amycolatopsis*. The appropriate nucleotide substitutions for the maximum-likelihood analyses were selected by the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) using MEGA 5 software and found to follow the Tamura 3-parameter (T92+G+I) model (Tamura, 1992). The topologies of all of the evolutionary trees were evaluated by bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985) of the neighbour-joining dataset based on 1,000 replicates using MEGA 5 software. The root position of the neighbourjoining trees were inferred by using Actinokineospora riparia DSM 44259^T (GenBank AF114802) as the outgroup.

4.3.5. Chemotaxonomy

All of the isolates were examined for the presence of isomers of diaminopimelic acid (A₂pm) using the procedure described by Staneck and Robert (1974). In addition, six strains from the Salar de Atacama soil (isolates KNN49-5e, KNN49-26a, KNN50-8b, KNN50-2e, KNN50-11c and KNN50-16d) and isolates GY024 and GY142 from the Australian composite soil were examined for additional chemotaxonomic markers considered to be typical of members of the genus Amycolatopsis (Tan & Goodfellow, Standard procedures were used to determine the predominant isoprenoid 2012). quinones (Minnikin et al., 1984), muramic acid type (Uchida et al., 1999), sugars (Schaal, 1985), and polar lipids (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984), using A. *ruanii* NMG112^T and A. thermalba SF45^T as controls; mycolic acids were sought from these isolates using the acid methanolysis procedure described by Minnikin et al. (1980). Fatty acids extracted from the representative isolates and type strains of A. ruanii and A. thermalba were methylated and analysed using the standard Sherlock Microbial Identification (MIDI) system, ACTINO version 5. The G+C mol% of the DNA of the representatives from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil isolates and isolates GY024^T and GY142 from the Australian composite soil were determined, in triplicate, following the procedure described by Gonzalez and Saiz-Jimenez (2002).

4.3.6. Phenotypic tests

All of the isolates were examined for cultural properties following growth on oatmeal and peptone-yeast extract-iron agars (ISP media 3 and 6; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after incubation for 14 and 4 days, respectively. The isolates and the type strains of species classified in the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene subclade were also examined for phenotypic properties known to be of value in *Amycolatopsis* systematics (De Boer *et al.*, 1990; Kim *et al.*, 2002; Tan & Goodfellow, 2012) following incubation at 28°C for 3 weeks. Additional biochemical features were obtained by using API ZYM test strips (BioMérieux), following the manufacturer's protocol. A standard inoculum equivalent to 5.0 on the McFarland scale (Murray *et al.*, 1999) was used to inoculate the test media. All of the tests were carried out in duplicate.

4.3.7. DNA-DNA relatedness

DNA:DNA relatedness experiments were carried out, in triplicate, between six selected pairs of strains (Table 4.3) by measuring the divergence between the thermal denaturation midpoint of homoduplex DNA and heteroduplex DNA (ΔT m) preparations using the fluorimetric method, as described by Gonzalez & Sait-Jimenez (2005). The optimal temperature for renaturation (T_m) was calculated using the equation T_{or}-0.51 (GC%) + 47.

4.4. Results

Selective isolation, enumeration and initial classification of isolates. Low numbers of strains growing on the isolation media were assigned to the genus *Amycolatopsis* (Table 4.1) as they formed characteristic flat to slightly raised, round colonies covered by a powdery white aerial mycelia. The highest count, $6.0x10^2$ cfu/g dry weight soil, was recorded from the humic acid-vitamin agar plates. The twenty six isolates taken to represent the strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama soil and the two representatives from the Australian composite soil produced the genus-specific amplification product with the AMY2 and ATOP 16S rRNA primers and formed yellowish white aerial hyphae, yellowish white substrate mycelia but no diffusible pigments on oatmeal agar; melanin pigments were not produced on peptone-yeast extract-iron agar.

Selective media	Target organisms	Number of <i>Amycolatopsis</i> isolates (cfu/g dry weight soil)	Reprresentative isolates
Gause's No.1 agar supplemented	Rare or	4.3×10^2	KNN49-6a, KNN49-26a,
with nalidixic acid (10 μ g/ml)	uncommon		KNN50-1a
(Zakharova et al., 2003)	actinobateria		
Humic acid-vitamin agar	Streptosporangi	6.0×10^2	KNN49-10b, KNN49-
(Hayakawa & Nonomura, 1987)	aceae spp.		12b, KNN50-8b,
			KNN50-9b
Minimal medium agar (Johnson et	Rare or	4.7×10^2	KNN49-11, KNN50-4,
al., 1981)	uncommon		KNN50-5, KNN50-11,
	actinobateria		KNN50-12, KNN50-13

Table 4.1. Numbers and representatives of *Amycolatopsis* isolates growing on the selective isolation media after incubation for 21 days at 28°C.

Oligotrophic agar (Senechkin et al.,	Rare or	5.7×10^2	KNN50-7, KNN50-15,
2010)	uncommon		KNN50-14, KNN50-16,
	actinobateria		KNN50-17, KNN50-18
Starch-casein agar (Küster &	Streptomyces	$0.3 x 10^2$	KNN49-1
Williams, 1964)	spp.		
SM1 agar supplemented with	Amycolatopsis	$4.7 \text{x} 10^2$	KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e,
neomycin (1 µg/ml) (Tan et al.,	spp.		KNN49-32e, KNN50-2e,
2006)			KNN50-6e, KNN50-10e

All of the media were supplemented with cycloheximide and nystatin, each at 25 µg ml⁻¹.

Phylogeny. All of the isolates fell within the evolutionary radiation encompassed by the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade, which, in turn, was sharply separated from all of the remaining Amycolatopsis strains (Figure S1). The recovery of the isolates within the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade in the more detailed 16S rRNA gene sequence analyses was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap value (Figure 4.1). The isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were closely related either to the type strain of A. ruanii or to the corresponding A. thermalba strain, results underpinned by all of the tree-making methods and in each case by a 99% bootstrap value. Indeed, four strains (isolates KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN50-5c and KNN50-13c) had identical 16S rRNA gene similarities with A. ruanii NMG112^T, the remainder shared similarities with the latter within the similarity range 99.7 to 99.9 %, values corresponding to 1 to 4 nt diffences at 1313 to 1403 locations (Table S1). Similarly, four strains, isolates KNN49-6a, KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e and KNN50-12c, had identical 16S rRNA gene sequences with A. thermalba SF45^T, the remaining nine isolates were found to have similarities with the latter within the 16S rRNA similarity range 99.8 to 99.9%, a value equivalent to 1 to 3 nt differences at 1315 to 1361 locations.

The Australian strains, isolates $GY024^{T}$ and GY142, formed a distinct branch at the periphery of the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene subclade, the integrity of this taxon was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap value (Figure 4.1). The two isolates shared a 16S rRNA gene similarity of 99.7%, which corresponded to 4 nt differences at 1366 locations. Strain $GY024^{T}$ was most closely related to the type strain of *A. ruanii* having a 98.9% 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with the latter, a value equivalent to 15 nt differences at 1328 sites. Similarly, isolate GY142 was marginally more closely related to *A. thermalba* $SF45^{T}$ than to *A.*

ruanii NMG112^T sharing a 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity with the former of 98.8%, a value equivalent to 17 nt differences at 1369 sites.



Figure 4.1. Neighbour-joining tree based on nearly complete 16S rRNA gene sequences (~1350 bp) showing relationships between the isolates and and between them and the type strains of closely related *Amycolatopsis* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets;only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position. Blue and green characters indicated the strains were isolated from Salar de Atacama, Atacama Desert, Chile and the composite Australia soil, respectively.

Chemotaxonomy. Whole organism hydrolysates of all of the isolates contained *meso*-A₂pm. The six representative isolates from the Salar de Atacama soil, the two from the Australian composite soil and the type strains of A. ruanii and A. thermalba contained arabinose and galactose in whole-organism hydrolysates, N-acetylated muramic acid, tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units as the predominant amounts of isoprenologue, and major diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylmethylethanolamine, phosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol, as exemplified in Figure 4.2, but lacked mycolic acids. All of the isolates contained major proportions (>10%) of *iso*- $C_{16:0}$ (23.5-30.6%), $C_{16:0}$ (12-15.4%) and *anteiso*- $C_{17:0}$ (12.2-13.1%), small amounts (<10%) of *iso*- $C_{15:0}$ (3.3-4.4%), $C_{16:1}\omega_{6c}/C_{16:1}$ (2.6-6.0%), *iso*- $C_{17:0}$ (5.8-7.1%), $C_{17:1}\omega_{6c}$ (5.6-9.7%) and $C_{18:0}$ (6.7-8.5) and trace to small amounts of several components, some of which were discontinuously distributed (Table 4.2). The DNA G+C contents of isolates KNN49-5e, KNN49-26e and KNN50-8b, representatives of the A. ruanii 16S rRNA gene subclade, were 76.18+1%, 75.18+1% and $77.18\pm1\%$, respectively whereas those for the representatives of the A. thermalba 16S rRNA gene subclade, namely isolates KNN50-2e, KNN50-11c and KNN50-16d were $78.17\pm1\%$, $79\pm1\%$ and $78.28\pm1\%$, respectively and those for isolate GY024^T and GY142 were 70.1+1% and 70.4+1%, respectively.



Figure 4.2. Two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography of polar lipids of isolates (A) KNN49-26a, (B) KNN50-2e, (C) KNN50-8b, (D) KNN50-11c, (E) GY024 and (F)

GY142 stained with molybdenum blue spray (Sigma). Chloroform:methanol:water (32.5:12.5:2.0, v/v) was used in the first direction, followed by chloroform : acetic acid : methanol : water (40.0:7.5:6.0:2.0, v/v) in the second direction. Abbrevations: DPG, diphosphatidylglycerol; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PG, phosphatidylglycerol; PI, phosphatidyl inositol; PME, phosphatidylmethylethanolamine.

Table 4.2 Fatty acid composition (%) of *Amycolatopsis* isolates and the type strains of their closest phylogenetic neighbours.

					Strains	5		
Fatty acids	KNN49-	KNN49-	KNN50-	KNN50-	KNN50-	KNN50-	A. ruanii	A.thermalba
	5e	26a	8b	2e	11c	16d	NMG112 ^T	SF45 ^T
<i>iso</i> -C _{11:0}	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{12:0}	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	-
C _{12:0}	-	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3
C _{11:0} 2OH	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{13:0}	-	0.1	-	-	0.1	-	0.5	-
anteiso-C _{13:0}	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	-
C _{13:0}	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{14:0}	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	3.8	0.6
anteiso-C _{14:0}	iso-C _{14:0}		-	-	0.2	-		
C _{14:0}	0.6 0.7 0.6 0.7 0		0.9	0.6	0.8	0.6		
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:0}	3.3 4.5 4.2 4.2		4.1	4.4	23.7	47.1		
anteiso-C _{15:0}	5:0 1.0 1.2 1		1.0	1.0 1.5		1.0	6.3	1.1
C _{15:1} w6c	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
iso-C _{16:1} H	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.8	-	0.9
C16:0 N alcohol	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{16:0}	30.6	28.5	29.3	29.4	28.6	30.1	12.8	35.7
anteiso-C _{16:0}	0.4	0.9	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.5
$C_{16:1}$ $\omega 6c/C_{16:1}$	6.0	5.5	3.2	3.3	2.6	5.4	6.7	7.2
ω7c								
C _{16:0}	15.4	12.8	14.2	13.6	14.2	12.0	14.4	9.8
<i>iso</i> -C _{17:1}	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
$\omega 9c/C_{16:0} 10$								
methyl								
anteiso-C _{17:1}	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-	-
ω9 c								
<i>iso</i> -C _{17:0}	5.8	6.7	7.1	6.8	6.9	6.7	3.9	8.1
anteiso-C _{17:0}	12.2	15.0	16.2	16.6	18.1	13.9	5.5	12.8
$C_{17:1} \omega 8c$	1.4	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.4	1.2	3.5	0.7
C _{17:1} ω6c	5.6	9.4	8.3	9.0	9.3	8.3	1.3	7.4
C _{17:0}	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.7	8.9	0.8
C _{17:0} 10 methyl	0.2	0.1	-	-	-	0.1	0.3	-
C _{16:0} 3OH	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	-

$C_{18:3} \ \omega 6c \ (6, 9, 12)$	-	-	-	0.2	-	0.2	-	-
	0.0		0.1					
$C_{17:0}$ 10-metnyl	0.2	-	0.1	-	-	-	-	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{18:0}	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3
$C_{18:1} \omega 9c$	4.7	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.0	2.8	1.5	1.5
$C_{18:1}$ $\omega 6c/C_{18:1}$	0.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ω7c								
C _{18:0}	8.5	6.8	6.5	7.0	6.7	7.3	3.7	4.1
$C_{17:0}2OH$	-	-	-	-	0.1	-	-	-
C _{17:0} 3OH	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	-
cyclo-C _{19:0}	0.6	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.0	-	0.3
ω10c/19ω6								

DNA:DNA relatedness. It is apparent from Table 4.3 that without exception, the DNA:DNA relatedness studies carried out by thermal denaturation of homologous DNA and associated heterologous DNA hybrid preparations between members of the *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba* 16S rRNA gene subclades revealed ΔT m values below the cut-off point recommended for the recognition of genomic species (ΔT m >5.0°C) and hence above the DNA:DNA relatedness threshold of 70% (Wayne *et al.*, 1987). In contrast, the corresponding assays between the type strains of *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba* were above these recommended thresholds, these strains shared a ΔT m value of $13\pm1^{\circ}$ C and a DNA:DNA relatedness value of $30\pm0.1\%$. The results of these experiments are exemplified in Figure 4.3.

Table 4.3. Relationships between representative isolates and between them and their most closely related type strain based on ΔT m (°C) values together with corresponding figures expressed as percentage DNA:DNA relatedness values.

Strains	Mean ΔTm* (°C)	DNA:DNA relatedness values <u>+</u> standard deviations	Nucleotide base differences / total number of 16S rRNA nucleotides
Amycolatopsis ruanii subclade:			
Isolate KNN49-5e versus isolate KNN49-26a	2.1 <u>+</u> 0.1	82+0.1	1/1382
Isolate KNN49-5e versus isolate KNN50-8b	4.2 <u>+</u> 0.1	72 <u>+</u> 0.1	2/1314
Isolate KNN49-26e versus isolate KNN50-8b	4.2 <u>+</u> 0.1	72 <u>+</u> 0.1	3/1316
Isolate KNN49-5e versus A. ruanii NMG112 ^T	3.2 <u>+</u> 0.1	75 <u>+</u> 0.1	0/1382
Isolate KNN49-26e versus A. ruanii NMG112 ^T	4.0 <u>+</u> 0.1	76+0.1	4/1402
Isolate KNN50-8b versus A. ruanii NMG112 ^T	3.9 <u>+</u> 0.1	76 <u>+</u> 0.1	4/1359

Amycolatopsis thermalba subclade:			
Isolate KNN50-2e versus isolate KNN50-16d	2.7 <u>+</u> 0.1	80 <u>+</u> 0.1	1/1311
Isolate KNN50-11c versus isolate KNN50-16d	3.1 <u>+</u> 0.1	76 <u>+</u> 0.1	2/1321
Isolate KNN50-2e versus A. thermalba SF45 ^T	2.9 <u>+</u> 0.1	80 <u>+</u> 0.1	0/1357
Isolate KNN50-16d versus A. thermalba SF45 ^T	2.7 <u>+</u> 0.1	80 <u>+</u> 0.1	1/1315
<i>A. ruanii</i> NMG112 ^T versus <i>A. thermalba</i> SF45 ^T	13.0 <u>+</u> 0.1	30 <u>+</u> 0.1	13/1392

* Based on triplicate analyses.



Figure 4.3. DNA:DNA relatedness studies between (A), isolate KNN49-5e gDNA and isolate KNN49-5e : KNN50-8b hybrid DNA; (B), isolate KNN50-8b gDNA and isolate KNN50-8b : *A. ruanii* NMG112^T hybrid DNA; (C), isolate KNN50-2e gDNA and isolate KNN50-2e : isolate KNN50-16d hybrid DNA; (D), isolate KNN50-2e gDNA and isolate isolate KNN50-2e: *A. thermalba* SF45^T hybrid and (E), *A. ruanii* NMG112^T gDNA and *A. ruanii* NMG112T: *A. thermalba* SF45^T hybrid DNA.

Phenotypic properties. Identical results were obtained between the duplicated cultures for all of the phenotypic tests. The isolates and the type strains of *Amycolatopsis* species classified in the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene cluster grew from pH 6.0 to 10, from 30 to 50°C, in the presence of 2.5% NaCl, degraded arbutin, casein, cellulose, gelatin, Tween 40 and 60, produced α -chymotrypsin, acid phosphatase and α -fucosidase (API ZYM tests) and formed acid from L-fructose and L-fucose. In contrast, the isolates and marker strains did not grow at 4°C, in the presence of 10% NaCl, did not degraded chitin, guanine, Tween 20 or 80, did not produce acid from D-glucose, D-glycogen, did not grow on butanol, ergosterol, propan-1-ol; propan-2-ol, sodium hippurate or sodium malate as sole carbon sources (at 1%, w/v), did not produce α -galactosidase (API ZYM tests) and were sensitive to lysozyme (0.005%, w/v), but resistant to vancomycin hydrochloride (10 µg/ml).

It can be seen from Table 4.4 that all of the isolates assigned to the A. ruanii or A. thermalba 16S rRNA gene subclades gave identical results to those recorded for the respective type strain. The members of these taxa can be distinguished from one another and from the type strains of the remaining Amycolatopsis species classified in the A. methanolica 16S rRNA gene subclade using a combination of phenotypic properties. The A. ruanii strains, unlike the A. thermalba strains, degraded hypoxanthine, used D-arabinose and D-galactose as sole carbon sources, grew in the presence of 7.5% NaCl (w/v) and produced N-acetyl- β -glucosamidase. In contrast, the A. thermalba strains, unlike the A. ruanii counterparts, hydrolysed allantoin, produced acid from xylose (1%, w/v), and used methanol (1%, v/v) as a sole carbon source, produced α - and β -glucosidases and naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase (API ZYM tests) and grew at 20° C and 55° C. Similarly, isolates GY024^T and GY142 can be distinguished from one another and from all of the *Amycolatopsis* type strains belonging to species classified in the A. methanolica 16S rRNA subclade using a range of phenotypic properties (Table 4.4). Isolate GY024^T, unlike isolate GY142, degraded adenine and guanine and produced acid from D-adonitol, conversely only isolate GY142 formed acid from D-galactose, D-melibiose, D-melezitose, D-ribose, D-sucrose and D-turanose and grew in the presence of 7.5% NaCl (w/v).

	U										
Phenotypic tests	A. methanolica 239 ^T	A. eurytherma NT 202 ^T	A. granulosa GY 037^{T}	<i>A. ruanü</i> NGM 112 ^T + 13 Salar de Atacama isolates*	A. thermoflava NRRL1433 ^T	<i>A. thermalba</i> SF 45 ^T + 13 Salar de Atacama isolates*	A. thermophila GY088 ^T	A. tucumanensis ABO ^T	A. viridis GY115 ^T	Isolate GY024	Isolate GY142
Acid production from (1%, w/v):											
D-adonitol	+	+	_	+	+	_	+	+	-	+	_
D-Amyodalin	+	+	_	+	+	+	_	+	-	_	+
L-arabinose	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	_	_
D-arabinose	+	+	_	+	+	_	-	_	_	_	_
D-arabitol	+	+	-	+	+	_	+	+	+	-	-
L-arabitol	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	_	+	+
Meso-erythritol	_	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	_	_
D-galactose	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+
Meso-inositol	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
D-lactose	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
D-maltose	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	_	-
D-mannitol	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
D-melezitose	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	_	+
D-melibiose	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
D-ribose	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
D-sorbitol	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
D-sucrose	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
D-trehalose	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
D-turanose	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+
D-xylose	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
D-xylitol	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
API ZYM tests:											
N-acetyl-β-glucosamidase	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
Alkaline phosphatase	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+
Cysteine arylamidase	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+
Esterase (C4)	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-
Esterase (C8)	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
β-galactosidase	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
α-glucoside	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
β-glucosidase	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
β-glucuronidase	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Leucine arylamidase	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Lipase (C14)	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
Naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-
Trypsin	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Valine arylamidase	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Degradation tests (%, w/v):	1	Ι.									
Allantoin $(0,1)$	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	[-	-	-
Adenine (0.4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
Elastin (0.3)	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
$\begin{array}{c} \text{Guannie} (0.4) \\ \text{Hypersenthing} (0.4) \end{array}$	-	[-	-	-	-	-	-	Γ.	+	-
riypoxantinne (0.4)	+	+	+	+	+	-	1 -	1 -	+	-	-

Table 4.4. Phenotypic characteristics distinguishing between *Amycolatopsis* isolates and between them and validly named *Amycolatopsis* species classified in the *Amycolatopsis methanolica* 16S rRNA gene clade.

Starch (0.1)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
Tyrosine (0.4)	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
Xanthine (0.4)	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
Xylan (0.4)	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Growth in the presence of (%w/v):											
5% NaCl	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
7.5% NaCl	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Growth on sole carbon sources (1%,											
w/v or 1%, v/v):											
Ethanol	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
Methanol	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
Sodium acetate	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium benzoate	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium butyrate	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium citrate	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium fumarate	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium malonate	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium propionate	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium pyruvate	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+
Sodium succinate	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+
Sodium tartrate	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
Growth at:											
pH5	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+
10° C	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
20° C	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
50°C	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
55°C	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+
Resistant to:											
Novobiocin (10 µg/ml)	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
Streptomycin sulphate (10 µg/ml)	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+
Lysozyme resistance (0.005%, w/v)	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-

*Codes for these isolates are given in Figure 4.1.

4.5. Discussion

All of the isolates gave the amplification products characteristic of the genus *Amycolatopsis* with the 16S rRNA oligonucleotide primers AMY2 and ATOP, formed complex mixtures of *iso*-branched, straight chain saturated and unsaturated fatty acids typical of the genus, and were recovered in the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene subclade. The representative isolates from the *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba* 16S rRNA subclades and isolates GY024^T and GY142 gave chemotaxonomic and morphological features typical of the genus *Amycolatopsis* (Tan & Goodfellow, 2012). All of the isolates formed a branched substrate mycelium that fragmented into rod-shaped elements (0.3-0.4 μ m x 1.2-1.8 μ m), formed colonies covered with powdery white aerial hyphae, produced whole-organism hydrolysates rich in *meso*-A₂pm, arabinose and galactose (wall chemotype IV after Lechevalier & Lechevalier, 1970), contained tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units as the predominant isoprenologue, and major amounts of DPG, PE, PG, PI and PME (phospholipid type II

sensu Lechevalier *et al.*, 1977, 1986). All of these properties are consistent with the classification of the isolates in the genus *Amycolatopsis* (Tan & Goodfellow, 2012).

The 26 strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were assigned to either the A. ruanii or A. thermalba phyletic lines and found to have identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene similarity values with their respective type strain. DNA:DNA gene relatedness values between representative isolates from the A. ruanii 16S rRNA subclade and between them and A. ruanii NMG112^T were within the range 72-82+0.1%, values well above the cut-off point recommended for the assignment of strains to the same genomic species (Wayne et al., 1987). In turn, isolates representing those belonging to the A. thermalba 16S rRNA subclade were shown to belong to the same genomic species as the type strain of A. thermalba as the corresponding DNA:DNA relatedness values were within the range 76-80%. Members of each of these species had many phenotypic features in common but can be separated from one another and from the type strains of the remaining Amycolatopsis species classified in the A. methanolica 16S rRNA subclade using a broad range of phenotypic features. Since the original descriptions of A. ruanii and A. thermalba were based on single isolates it is proposed that the descriptions of these species be emended in light of the current data.

Isolates GY024^T and GY142 from the Australian arid composite soil formed a distinct branch towards the periphery of the *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene tree. They shared a high 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity but were readily distinguished using a combination of phenotypic properties. The two strains need to be the subject of DNA:DNA pairing assays to establish whether belong to the same or different novel *Amycolatopsis* species.

The results of the present study confirm and extend those from previous investigations in showing that thermophilic *Amycolatopsis* strains constitute a distinct phyletic branch within the evolutionary radiation occupied by the genus *Amycolatopsis* (Tan *et al.*, 2006; Everest & Myers, 2009; Everest *et al.*, 2011; Tan & Goodfellow, 2012; Zucchi *et al.*, 2012a, b, c). There is evidence that this taxon is underspeciated and more distantly related to *Amycolatopsis orientalis*, the type species of the genus, than to members of some other genera classified in the family *Pseudonocardiaceae* (Tan *et al.*, 2006; Ludwig *et al.*, 2012; Guoping Zhou *et al.*, *pers. com.*). Indeed, it seems likely that *A. methanolica* and the closely related thermophilic species should be classified in a new genus though further comparative taxonomic studies are need to confirm this.

Almost nothing is known about the distribution, numbers, kinds and roles of thermophilic *Amycolatopsis* strains in natural habitats (Tan *et al.*, 2006; Tan & Goodfellow, 2012) though it would seem from the present study that *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba* strains may be major components of the cultivable actinobacterial community in the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil. Similarly, *A. taniae* strains may be common in Australian arid soils as isolates GY024^T and GY142 were representatives of the largest colour-group recovered in the survey undertaken by Tan *et al.* (2006). However, additional biosystematic studies are needed to build upon these preliminary findings, not least by establishing the ecological roles that thermophilic *Amycolatopsis* strains play in arid desert soils.

Description of Amycolatopsis deserti sp. nov.

Amycolatopsis deserti (dè.ser.t. L. gen.gem.n. deserti of desert, pertaining to the socree of the isolates.

The description is based on data from this and an ealier study (Tan et al., 2006).

Aerobic, Gram-positive, non-acid-alcohol-fast, non-motile, catalase-positive actinobacterium that forms an extensively branched substrate mycelium that fragments into granular ornamented cylindrical elements (0.3-0.4 x 1.1-1.7 μ m). Produces abundant white aerial hyphae, a pale yellow substrate mycelium and a yellow diffusible pigment on oatmeal agar. Grows from pH 6-10, from 25-50°C, optimum temperature is 45°C and in the presence of NaCl (5%, w/v). Additional phenotypic test results are cited either in the main text or in Table 4.3. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus.

The type strain GY024^T (=DSMZ......) was isolated from an Australian arid composite soil.

Emended description of Amycolatopsis ruanii Zucchi et al. 2012b

The description is based on this and the earlier study of Zuchii et al. (2012b).

Aerobic, Gram-positive, non-acid-alcohol-fast, non-motile, catalase-positive actinobacteria that form an extensively branched substrate mycelium that fragments into granular ornamented cylindrical elements (0.3-0.35 x 1.2-1.7 μ m) on modified Bennett's agar supplemented with mannitol and soybean flour, but does not form diffusible pigment on this medium. Abundant yellowish white aerial hyphae, a yellowish white substrate mycelium, but no diffusible pigments are produced on

oatmeal agar. Grows from 20-50°C, optimum temperature is 45° C, from pH 5.0-10.0 and in the presence of NaCl (2.5%, w/v). Additional phenotypic properties are cited in the main text and in Table 4.3. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus.

The type strain $NMG112^{T}$ (=NCIMB14711^T=NRRL B-24848^T) was isolated from an Australian arid composite soil and additional members of the taxon from a hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil.

Emended description of Amycolatopsis thermalba Zucchi et al. 2012b

The description is based on this and the earlier study Zucchi et al (2012b).

Aerobic, Gram-positive, non-acid-alcohol-fast, non-motile, catalase-positive actinobacteria that form an extensively branched substrate mycelium that fragments into granular ornamented cylindrical elements (0.3-0.4 x 1.5-1.8 μ m). Abundant, white aerial hyphae, a yellow substrate mycelium and a medium yellow olive brown diffusible pigment are produced on modified Bennett's agar supplemented with mannitol and soybean flour. Melanin pigments are not formed on peptone-yeast extract-iron agar. Grows from 20-55°C, optimum temperature is 45°C, from pH 6-10.0 and in the presence of NaCl (2.5%, w/v). Additional phenotypic properties are cited in the main text and in Table 4.3. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus. Common in a hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil of the Atacama Desert.

The type strain, $SF45^{T}$ (=NCIMB 14705^{T} =NRRL B-24845^T) was isolated from an arid Australian composite soil and the remaining members of the taxon from a hyperarid Atacama Desert soil.

Acknowledgement

The fatty acid analyses and some of the chemotaxonomic data were generated by Dr. Tiago Zucchi (Microbiology Laboratory, EMBRAPA, Jaguariu´na, Brazil).

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
		17/	21/	16/	2/	2/	16/	2/	3/	16/	16/	17/	2/	16/	7/	19/	17/	3/	2/	16/	19/	7/
1. Isoalte KNN50-8b		1285	1315	1314	1314	1312	1315	1317	1316	1317	1317	1312	1313	1314	1314	1313	1316	1313	1314	1314	1317	1317
			4/	25/	15	15/	26/	15/	16/	26/	26/	40/	15/	28/	18/	16/	30/	16/	15/	26/	24/	16/
2. Isolate GY024	98.7		1366	1353	/1353	1354	1369	1371	1370	1370	1370	1372	1281	1374	1282	1282	1338	1370	1347	1369	1351	1371
				27/	17/	18/	31/	21/	22/	31/	30/	39/	19/	29/	20/	18/	34/	19/	17/	28/	26/	26/
3. Isolate GY142	98.4	99.7		1378	1378	1378	1395	1398	1397	1397	1396	1392	1311	1392	1314	1313	1365	1393	1372	1393	1380	1397
	00.0	00.0	00.0		24	24/	0/	24/	25/	0/	0/	7/	14/	1/	17/	1/	14/	25/	19/	0/	1/	29/
4. Isolate KNN49-6a	98.8	98.2	98.0		/1382	1380	1381	1382	1381	1383	1383	1381	1310	1382	1311	1311	1367	1381	13/6	1383	1381	1382
5 Jaclata KNN40 5a	00.0	08.0	00.0	09.2		0/	24/	0/	1/	1282	1282	23/	0/ 1210	25/	3/	15/	29/	1/	0/ 1276	24/	23/	5/
5. Isolate KINN49-5e	99.9	90.9	90.0	90.5		1300	1560	1362	1501	1564	1562	1500	1510	1561	1511	1511	1300	1361	13/0	1562	1380	1362
6 Isolata KNN40 3a	00.0	08.0	08.7	08.2	100.0		25/ 1270	U/ 1282	1/	25/ 1381	25/ 1281	25/ 1281	1208	20/	3/ 1300	15/	29/	U/ 1282	0/ 1374	25/ 1391	23/ 1378	4/
0. Isolate KNN43-3e	<i>.</i> ,,	30.3	30.7	70.5	100.0		13/3	1562	26/	1301	0/	21/	1300	1300	20/	1303	1304	1565	13/4	1301	1378	1362
7 Jeolata KNN50-10a	08.8	08.1	07.8	100.0	08.3	08.2		23/ 1401	1300	1402	1/01	1306	14/	1/	1313	4/	14/	1305	1374	1307	4/	1400
7. Isolate KivivS0-10e	70.0	70.1	77.0	100.0	70.5	70.2		1401	1/	25/	25/	38/	0/	26/	6/	1312	29/	1/	0/	25/	26/	6/
8. Isolate KNN50-4c	99.9	98.9	98.5	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.2		1402	1403	1402	1398	1313	1398	1315	1314	1369	1398	1376	1398	1384	1403
		,01,	2010	1010	10010	10010			1102	26/	26/	38/	1/	27/	7/	19/	30/	2/	1/	26/	27/	7/
9. Isolate KNN49-26a	99.8	98.8	98.4	98.2	99.9	99.9	98.1	99.9		1401	1400	1396	1312	1396	1314	1313	1369	1397	1375	1397	1383	1401
											0/	21/	14/	1/	20/	4/	14/	26/	19/	0/		31/
10. Isolate KNN49-12b	98.8	98.1	97.8	100.0	98.3	98.2	100.0	98.2	98.1		1403	1398	1313	1399	1315	1314	1370	1397	1376	1399	4/1385	1402
												21/	14/	1/	19/	3/	14/	26/	19/	0/	3/	31/
11. Isolate KNN49-11c	98.8	98.1	97.9	100.0	98.3	98.2	100.0	98.2	98.1	100.0		1398	1313	1399	1314	1313	1370	1397	1376	1399	1384	1402
													15/	23/	18/	2/	15/	38/	19/	20/	6/	41/
12. Isolate KNN49-32e	98.7	97.1	97.2	99.5	98.3	98.2	98.5	97.3	97.3	98.5	98.5		1308	1398	1309	1309	1365	1397	1374	1397	1379	1398
														14/	5/	17/	15/	1/	0/	14/	17/	5/
13. Isolate KNN50-18d	99.9	98.8	98.6	98.9	100.0	100.0	98.9	100.0	99.92	98.9	98.9	98.9		1310	1312	1312	1312	1309	1310	1310	1313	1313
						00.4		00.4	00.4						17/	1/	15/	27/	20/	1/	2/	32/
14. Isolate KNN50-17d	98.8	98.0	97.9	99.9	98.2	98.1	99.9	98.1	98.1	99.9	99.9	98.4	98.9		1311	1311	1366	1396	1375	1398	1380	1398
15. Isolate KNN50-15d	99.5	98.0	98.5	98.7	99.8	99.8	98.5	99.5	99.5	98.5	98.0	98.6	99.6	98.7		18/1314	20/1313	4/1310	3/1311	1//1311	18/1315	10/1314
16. Isolate KNN50-16d	98.6	98.8	98.6	99.9	98.9	98.9	99.7	98.6	98.0	99.7	99.8	99.9	98.7	99.9	98.6		2/1312	16/1310	15/1311	1/1311	2/1314	22/1313
17. Isolate KNN50-11c	98.7	97.8	97.5	99.0	97.88	97.9	99.0	97.9	97.8	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.5	99.9		30/1365	29/1366	14/1367	17/13/0	34/1369
19 Japlata KNN50 14d	00.8	00.0	08.6	08.2	00.0	100.0	09.1	00.0	00.0	09.1	09.1	07.2	00.0	0.9.1	00.7	00.0	07.9		1/1275	26/1207	24/1270	0/
10. Isolate KINN50-140	99.0	90.0	90.0	90.2	99.9	100.0	90.1	99.9	99.9	90.1	90.1	97.5	99.9 100.0	90.1	99.7	90.0	97.0		1/13/5	20/1397	24/13/9	5/1276
20. Isolate KINN50-130	99.9	90.9	90.0	90.0	100.0	08.2	90.0	100.0	99.9	96.0	90.0	90.0	08.0	90.0	99.0	98.9	97.9	99.9	08.6	19/13/0	20/13/0	3/13/0
20. Isolate KNN50-12C	70.0 09.6	20.1 08.2	90.0 08 1	100.0	70.J 09.2	70.2 08.2	100.0	90.4 09.1	90.1 09.1	00.7	100.0	90.0 00.6	20.7 09.7	99.9 00.0	90.7 08.6	99.9 00.0	99.0 09.9	90.1 08.2	90.0 08.6	00.0	1/1301	31/1370
22. Isolate KNN50-7d	90.0	90.2 08.8	90.1 08 1	97.9	90.5	90.5	97.1	90.1	90.1 00.5	97.7	97.9	99.0 07.1	90.7 00.6	97.7	90.0	99.9 08 2	90.0	90.5	90.0	99.9 07.8	07.8	30/1303
22. Isolate KINN50-70	99.5	20.0 08.0	20.1 08.6	08.3	100.0	22.7 100.0	97.0	100.0	99.5 00.0	97.0	97.0	97.1	22.0 100.0	97.7	97.4 00.6	90.5	97.0	99.0	100.0	97.0	97.0	99.6
24 Isolate KNN50 5c	00.0	08.0	08.8	98.6	100.0	100.0	98.6	100.0	00.0	98.6	98.6	98.6	100.0	08.5	00.8	08.0	07.0	00.0	100.0	98.6	08.5	99.6
25. Isolate KNN50 20	08.8	97.8	97.0	100.0	08.3	08.1	100.0	08.1	99.9	100.0	100.0	98.0	08.0	90.6	08.7	00.0	90.0	08.1	98.6	100.0	00.0	97.0
26. Isolate KNN50 1a	90.0 08.6	97.0	97.9	100.0	08.2	08.2	100.0	08.0	90.1	00.9	00.0	08.5	20.7 08.0	00.0	20.7 08 7	00.0	08.8	70.1 09.1	70.0 08.6	100.0	<i>))))))))))</i>	97.7
20. ISOlate KININGU-Ta 27. Isolate KNNAQ 10b	90.0	08.0	98.6	08.3	100.0	100.0	08.3	100.0	91.9	08.3	08.3	08.3	70.7 100.0	08.2	90.6	087	97.0	00.0	100.0	08.3	08.2	99.6
27. ISOlate KININ49-100 28. Isolate KININ49-10	99.9 00.0	90.9	90.0	90.3	100.0	100.0	90.3	100.0	99.9	90.3	90.5	90.5	100.0	90.4	99.0 00.8	20./ 08.0	97.9	79.9 00 0	100.0	90.5	70.2 08 3	99.0 00.7
20. ISUIAIC KININ49-III	77.9	20.0	20.0	70.3	100.0	100.0	20.1	<u>,,,</u>	<i>,,,</i> ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	70.1	70.1	7/.4	100.0	70.1	77.0	70.7	71.7	77.7	100.0	70.1	70.0	77. 1

Supplemented Table. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from a hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil or from an arid Australian composite and between them and the type strains of closely related *Amycolatopsis* species.

Supplemented Table (cont.)

Isolate	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43
	2/																				
1.Isolate KNN50-8b	1317	2/1314	16/1314	18/1317	2/1316	2/1312	0/1317	18/1317	16/1316	18/1317	19/1317	19/1316	20/1317	23/1316	26/1316	24/1313	68/1315	67/1317	66/1315	84/1313	87/1314
2 Isolate GV024	1370	15/1348	31/1375	26/1370	15/1352	16/1369	15/1395	15/1328	26/1394	17/1380	19/1394	17/1394	18/1395	35/1351	39/1353	20/1390	72/1412	63/1411	62/1429	68/1395	85/1394
2. Isolate 01024	20/	10, 10.10	01/10/0	20, 2070	10,1001	10, 1005	10, 1000	10, 1010	20, 2004	17/1000	10, 1004	17/1004	10/ 1000	00,1001	03/1000	20, 1050	72/2122	00/1111	02/1125	00, 2000	00,2001
3. Isolate GY142	1397	17/1373	29/1394	28/1397	19/1380	19/1392	18/1410	17/1369	29/1409	20/1409	22/1409	21/1409	22/1410	40/1392	47/1381	29/1396	80/1408	70/1409	68/1407	74/1406	95/1407
	24/																				
4. Isolate KNN49-6a	1382	20/1377	0/1383	0/1383	24/1381	24/1380	24/1382	0/1357	28/1382	26/1382	18/1382	22/1382	23/1383	26/1381	25/1380	32/1378	83/1381	79/1382	76/1380	86/1378	98/1379
5. Isolate KNN49-5e	1382	0/1377	24/1382	24/1382	0/1381	0/1380	0/1382	14/1357	16/1381	18/1381	19/1381	19/1381	20/1382	31/1380	33/1379	24/1377	70/1380	65/1381	64/1379	83/1378	86/1379
	0/																				
6. Isolate KNN49-3e	1382	0/1375	26/1382	25/1381	0/1380	0/1383	0/1382	14/1355	16/1381	18/1381	19/1381	19/1381	20/1382	31/1378	35/1379	24/1377	70/1380	65/1381	64/1379	83/1378	86/1379
7 1 1 4 1/200/20 10	25/	20/1275	0/1200	2/1402	24/1202	20/1204	20/1401	2/1250	22/1401	20/1401	22/1401	20/1401	27/1402	20/1202	27/1202	26/1207	07/1400	02/1401	00/1200	00/1207	101/1200
7. Isolate KNN50-10e	1399	20/13/5	0/1398	3/1402	24/1382	26/1394	28/1401	3/1359	32/1401	30/1401	22/1401	26/1401	27/1402	29/1383	27/1383	36/139/	87/1400	83/1401	80/1399	90/1397	101/1398
8. Isolate KNN50-4c	1402	0/1377	26/1400	28/1403	0/1384	1/1397	3/1404	17/1361	19/1403	21/1403	22/1403	22/1403	23/1404	34/1384	37/1385	27/1399	73/1402	68/1403	67/1401	86/1400	89/1401
	1/																				
9. Isolate KNN49-26a	1401	1/1376	27/1398	29/1401	1/1383	2/1396	4/1402	18/1360	20/1401	22/1401	23/1401	23/1401	24/1402	35/1383	38/1384	28/1397	74/1400	69/1401	68/1399	87/1398	89/1399
10. Isolate KNN49-	25/	20/1377	0/1400	3/1404	24/1384	26/1396	28/1403	3/1361	32/1403	30/1403	22/1403	26/1403	27/1404	29/1385	27/1385	36/1399	87/1402	83/1403	80/1401	90/1399	102/1400
120	25/	20,1377	0/1400	3, 1404	24/1304	20/1350	20/ 1403	3/1301	52/1405	30/ 1403	22/1403	20/1403	27/1404	25/1505	27/1303	30/1333	07/1402	03/1403	00/1401	50/1555	102/1400
11.Isolate KNN49-11c	1401	20/1377	0/1400	2/1403	24/1384	26/1396	27/1402	2/1360	31/1402	29/1402	21/1402	25/1402	26/1403	28/1384	27/1385	35/1398	86/1401	82/1402	79/1400	89/1398	101/1399
	37/																				
12. Isolate KNN49-32e	1397	19/1375	22/1400	21/1398	23/1379	37/1396	39/1399	1/1355	43/1399	41/1399	33/1399	37/1399	38/1400	33/1381	34/1383	47/1395	99/1400	94/1401	92/1399	101/1395	113/1397
13. Isolate KNN50- 18d	0/ 1313	0/1310	14/1310	16/1313	0/1312	0/1308	2/1313	16/1313	14/1312	16/1313	17/1313	17/1312	18/1313	21/1312	24/1312	22/1309	66/1311	65/1313	64/1311	82/1309	85/1310
14. Isolate KNN50-	26/	-,	,		-,	-,	_,		,							,				,	
17d	1397	21/1376	5/1403	1/1399	25/1380	27/1395	27/1403	1/1356	31/1403	29/1403	21/1403	25/1403	26/1404	27/1380	26/1381	35/1399	85/1402	82/1403	79/1401	89/1399	101/1400
15. Isolate KNN50-	5/	2/1211	17/1011	17/1015	F/1212	2/1200	2/1210	1/1210	15/1015	17/1010	10/1210	10/1215	10/1210	22/1215	25/1212	22/1212	cc/1214	cc/1221C	CE /1214	02/1212	00/1212
150 16 Isolata - KNN50	1314	3/1311	1//1311	1//1315	5/1313	3/1309	3/1316	1/1316	15/1315	1//1316	18/1316	18/1315	19/1316	22/1315	25/1313	23/1312	66/1314	66/1316	65/1314	83/1312	86/1313
16d	1313	15/1311	1/1311	1/1314	17/1312	15/1309	15/1315	1/1315	18/1314	17/1315	9/1315	12/1314	13/1315	21/1314	22/1312	22/1311	69/1313	72/1315	69/1313	77/1311	88/1312
	29/																				
17. Isolate KNN50-11c	1369	29/1366	14/1367	16/1370	29/1368	29/1364	31/1369	1/1359	33/1369	32/1370	24/1370	27/1369	28/1370	38/1368	38/1368	37/1365	87/1368	88/1370	85/1368	92/1365	103/1366
18. Isolate KNN50-	1/	1/1276	27/1209	26/1207	1/1291	1/1209	1/1209	15/1256	17/1207	10/1207	20/1207	20/1207	21/1209	22/1270	26/1291	25/1202	71/1206	66/1207	65/1205	84/1204	97/1205
140	0/	1/13/0	27/1350	20,1357	1/1301	1/1350	1/1350	13,1330	17,1357	15/1557	20/1357	20/1357	21/1350	32/13/3	50/1501	23/1333	71/1350	00,1337	03,1333	04/1334	07/1355
19. Isolate KNN50-13c	1376	0/1376	19/1376	19/1376	0/1375	0/1374	0/1376	14/1357	16/1375	18/1375	19/1375	19/1375	20/1376	26/1374	28/1373	24/1371	70/1374	65/1375	64/1373	83/1372	86/1373
	25/																				
20.Isolate KNN50-12c	1398	20/1377	0/1399	0/1399	24/1381	26/1396	25/1398	0/1357	29/1398	27/1398	19/1398	23/1398	24/1399	26/1381	25/1382	33/1394	84/1397	80/1398	77/1396	87/1394	99/1395
21. Isolate KNN50-9b	1383	21/1377	1/1381	1/1385	25/1382	23/1378	23/1384	1/1361	27/1384	25/1384	17/1384	21/1384	22/1385	27/1383	26/1381	31/1380	82/1383	78/1384	75/1382	85/1380	97/1381
	6/																				
22. Isolate KNN50-7d	1402	5/1377	32/1400	33/1402	5/1384	4/1397	8/1403	21/1360	24/1402	26/1402	27/1402	27/1402	28/1403	38/1383	42/1385	32/1398	78/1401	73/1402	72/1400	91/1399	94/1400
23.Isolate KNN50-6e		0/1377	26/1399	27/1401	0/1384	1/1397	2/1402	16/1360	18/1401	20/1401	21/1401	21/1401	22/1402	33/1383	37/1385	26/1397	72/1400	67/1401	66/1399	85/1398	88/1399
24. Isolate KNN50-5c 25. Isolate KNN50-2-	100.0		20/1377	20/1377	0/1376	0/1375	0/1377	14/1357	16/1376	18/1376	19/1376	19/1376	20/1377 29/140F	27/1375	29/1374	24/1372	/0/1375	65/1376 85/1404	64/1374 92/1402	83/1373	86/1374
25. Isolate KNN50-2e 26. Isolate KNN50-1a	98.1	98.6	100.0		26/1384	26/1396	25/1403	0/1361	29/1403	27/1404	19/1403	23/1404	24/1404	26/1385	25/1385	33/1399	84/1402	80/1403	77/1401	87/1399	99/1400
27. Isolate KNN49-			100.0		10, 1004	10, 2000		5, 2002	10, 2100		10, 1100			10, 1000	10, 1000	30, 2005	5., 2.02	50, 2105		5.72000	20,2100
10b	100.0	100.0	98.3	98.1		0/1380	2/1384	16/1359	18/1383	20/1383	21/1383	21/1383	22/1384	33/1382	35/1381	26/1379	71/1382	66/1383	65/1381	84/1380	88/1381
28. Isolate KNN49-1h	99.93	100.0	98.1	98.1	100.0		1/1397	14/1355	17/1396	19/1396	20/1396	20/1396	21/1397	31/1378	35/1380	25/1392	71/1395	66/1396	65/1394	84/1393	87/1394

Supplemented Table	(cont.)
--------------------	---------

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
29. A_ruanii_	100.0	98.9	98.7	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.0	99.9	99.7	98.0	98.1	97.2	99.9	98.1	99.8	98.9	97.7	99.9	100.0	98.2	98.3	99.4	99.9
30. A_thermalba	98.6	98.9	98.8	100.0	99.0	99.0	99.8	98.8	98.7	99.9	99.9	99.9	98.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	98.9	99.0	100.0	99.9	98.5	98.8
31. A_thermoflava	98.8	98.1	97.9	98.0	98.8	98.8	97.7	98.7	98.6	97.7	97.8	96.9	98.9	97.8	98.9	98.6	97.6	98.8	98.8	97.9	98.1	98.3	98.7
32. A_endophytica	98.6	98.8	98.6	98.1	98.7	98.7	97.9	98.5	98.4	97.9	97.9	97.1	98.8	97.9	98.7	98.7	97.7	98.6	98.7	98.1	98.2	98.2	98.6
33. A_methanolica	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.5	97.6	98.7	98.5	98.6	99.3	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.8	98.1	98.5
34. A_eurytherma	98.6	98.8	98.5	98.4	98.6	98.6	98.1	98.4	98.4	98.2	98.2	97.4	98.7	98.2	98.6	99.1	98.0	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.5	98.1	98.5
35. A_tucumanensis	98.5	98.7	98.4	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.1	98.4	98.3	98.1	98.2	97.3	98.6	98.2	98.6	99.0	98.0	98.5	98.6	98.3	98.4	98.0	98.4
36. A_granulosa	98.3	97.4	97.1	98.1	97.8	97.8	97.9	97.5	97.5	97.9	98.0	97.6	98.4	98.0	98.3	98.4	97.2	97.7	98.1	98.1	98.1	97.3	97.6
37. A_viridis	98.0	97.1	96.6	98.2	97.6	97.5	98.1	97.3	97.3	98.1	98.1	97.5	98.2	98.1	98.1	98.3	97.2	97.4	98.0	98.2	98.1	97.0	97.3
38. A_thermophila	98.2	98.6	97.9	97.7	98.3	98.3	97.4	98.1	98.0	97.4	97.5	96.6	98.3	97.5	98.3	98.3	97.3	98.2	98.3	97.6	97.6	97.7	98.1
39. A_pigmentata	94.8	94.9	94.3	94.0	94.9	94.9	93.8	94.8	94.7	93.8	93.9	92.9	95.0	93.9	95.0	94.7	93.6	94.9	94.9	94.0	94.1	94.4	94.9
40. A_helveola	94.9	95.5	95.0	94.3	95.3	95.3	94.1	95.2	95.1	94.1	94.2	93.3	95.1	94.2	95.0	94.5	93.6	95.3	95.3	94.3	94.4	94.8	95.2
41. A_taiwanensis	95.0	95.7	95.8	94.5	95.4	95.4	94.3	95.2	95.1	94.3	94.4	93.4	95.1	94.4	95.1	94.7	93.8	95.3	95.3	94.5	94.6	94.9	95.3
42. A_orientalis	93.6	95.1	94.7	93.8	94.0	94.0	93.6	93.9	93.8	93.6	93.6	92.8	93.7	93.6	93.8	94.1	93.3	94.0	94.0	93.8	93.8	93.5	93.9
43. Actinokineospora																							
riparia	93.4	93.9	93.3	92.9	93.8	93.8	92.8	93.7	93.6	92.7	92.8	91.9	93.5	92.8	93.5	93.3	92.5	93.76	93.7	92.9	93.0	93.3	93.7

Isolate	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43
							14/	16/												
29. A_ruanii_	100.0	97.9	98.2	99.9	99.9		1392	1456	18/1441	19/1460	19/1456	20/1461	31/1414	35/1385	24/1426	70/1455	65/1456	64/1458	83/1453	87/1457
								17/												
30. A_thermalba	99.0	100.0	100.0	98.8	99.0	99.0		1389	16/1389	8/1392	11/1389	12/1392	20/1390	21/1359	21/1360	70/1388	71/1390	68/1390	77/1386	88/1389
31. A_thermoflava	98.8	97.6	97.9	98.7	98.8	98.9	98.8		20/1442	13/1457	16/1459	17/1460	34/1416	41/1388	24/1429	79/1455	74/1456	71/1454	86/1452	94/1452
32. A_endophytica	98.7	97.7	98.1	98.6	98.6	98.8	98.9	98.6		12/1443	16/1442	17/1443	37/1413	44/1386	23/1413	76/1440	72/1441	70/1439	82/1437	97/1438
33. A_methanolica	98.6	98.3	98.7	98.5	98.6	98.7	99.4	99.1	99.2		10/1457	11/1478	31/1415	38/1386	22/1427	77/1455	78/1456	73/1468	80/1452	93/1471
34. A_eurytherma	98.6	98.0	98.4	98.5	98.6	98.7	99.2	98.9	98.9	99.3		1/1460	36/1416	43/1388	26/1429	75/1455	78/1456	75/1454	80/1452	96/1452
35. A_tucumanensis	98.6	97.9	98.3	98.4	98.5	98.6	99.1	98.8	98.8	99.3	99.9		37/1418	44/1389	27/1430	76/1456	79/1457	76/1469	81/1453	97/1472
36. A_granulosa	98.0	98.1	98.1	97.6	97.8	97.8	98.6	97.6	97.4	97.8	97.5	97.4		11/1387	39/1386	77/1414	69/1415	72/1414	92/1409	101/1412
37. A_viridis	97.9	98.1	98.2	97.5	97.5	97.5	98.5	97.1	96.8	97.8	96.9	96.8	99.2		44/1384	80/1386	74/1387	79/1385	100/1381	102/1383
38. A_thermophila	98.3	97.3	97.6	98.1	98.2	98.3	98.5	98.3	98.4	98.5	98.2	98.1	97.2	96.8		77/1425	75/1426	71/1424	86/1422	100/1422
39. A_pigmentata	94.9	93.7	94.0	94.9	94.9	95.2	95.0	94.6	94.7	94.7	94.9	94.8	94.6	94.2	94.6		46/1475	44/1475	110/1451	110/1453
40. A_helveola	95.3	94.0	94.3	95.2	95.3	95.5	94.9	94.9	95.0	94.6	94.6	94.6	95.1	94.7	94.7	96.9		17/1475	91/1452	111/1454
41. A_taiwanensis	95.3	94.2	94.5	95.3	95.3	95.6	95.1	95.1	95.1	95.0	94.8	94.8	94.9	94.3	95.0	97.0	98.		94/1450	113/1466
42. A_orientalis	94.0	93.4	93.8	93.9	94.0	94.3	94.4	94.1	94.3	94.5	94.5	94.4	93.5	92.8	94.0	92.4	93.73	93.5		97/1452
43. Actinokineospora																				
riparia	93.7	92.6	92.9	93.6	93.8	94.0	93.66	93.53	93.25	93.68	93.39	93.41	92.85	92.62	92.97	92.43	92.37	92.29	93.32	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 4.1.



Supplemented figure. Neighbour-joining tree based on nearly complete 16S rRNA gene sequences (~1350 bp) showing relationships between the *Amycolatopsis* isolates and and between them and the all type strains of *Amycolatopsis* species. The symbol "o" indicates branches of the tree that were recovered with the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making methods, the symbols " \diamond " and the symbol " \bullet " branches that were recovered with maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms, repectively. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets;only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Chapter 5. Biosystematic studies on *Modestobacter* strains isolated from extreme hyper-arid desert soil and from historic buildings

5.1. Abstract

A polyphasic study was undertaken to establish the taxonomic status of 17 Modestobacter strains isolated either from an extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil or from deteriorated sandstone from historic buildings in Salamanaca, Spain. The isolates were shown to have chemotaxonomic and morphological properties consistent with their classification in the genus Modestobacter. Three of the isolates from the Atacama Desert soil and four from deteriorated sandstone formed a distinct 16S rRNA gene subclade. These isolates had chemotaxonomic and many common phenotypic properties, were most closely related to the type strain of Modestobacter marinus, but were readily distinguished from the latter using genotypic and phenotypic data and hence may represent one or more novel *Modestobacter* species. The majority of the isolates from the extreme hyper-arid soil formed a well delineated subclade in the Modestobacter 16S rRNA gene tree, shared many phenotypic features and may form one or more new centres of taxonomic variation in the genus Modestobacter. The two remaining strains, isolates MDVD 1 and MON 3.1, from deteriorated sandstone, constituted well defined lineages in the Modestobacter 16S rRNA gene tree and were readily distinguished from one another and from all of the type strains using a broad range of phenotypic properties. On the basis of these data, it is proposed that these isolates be classified in the genus Modestobacter as Modestobacter lapidis sp. nov. and Modestobacter muralis sp. nov. with isolates MDVD1 (=DSM.....= NCIMB.....= NRRL....) and MON 3.1 (=DSM....=NCIMB.....=NRRL....) as the respective type strains.

5.2. Introduction

The genus *Modestobacter* (Mevs *et al.*, 2000) and the genera *Blastococcus* (Ahrens & Moll, 1970) and *Geodermatophilus* (Luedemann, 1968) comprise the family

Geodermatophilaceae (Normand, 2006; Normand & Benson, 2012a) which belongs to the order *Frankiales* (Normand & Benson, 2012b). *Geodermatophilaceae* strains have a characteristic 16S rRNA gene signature pattern, may form rudimentary hyphae, have modest growth requirements and have been isolated frequently from extreme habitats characterised by dry conditions, such as those associated with desert and high altitude soils and with the surfaces of rocks and ancient monuments (Eppard *et al.*, 1996; Urzì *et al.*, 2001; Nie *et al.*, 2012). *Modestobacter* strains form a distinct clade in the *Geodermatophilus* 16S rRNA gene tree (Qin *et al.*, 2013) and can also be distinguished from the genera *Blastococcus* and *Geodermatophilus* using 16S rRNA targeted oligonucleotide primers (Urzì *et al.*, 2004), by phenotypic and physiological properties (Normand & Benson, 2012b), and notably by how they have adapted to resisting stress in extreme habitats (Essoussi *et al.*, 2010; Gtari *et al.*, 2012). The presence of *Geodermatophilaceae* strains on rock and building surfaces is often associated with black, grey and orange patinas and spots and with additional phenomena, such as biopitting, crumbling and powdering (Urzì & Realini, 1998; Urzì *et al.*, 2004).

The genus currently encompasses four species, *Modestobacter multiseptatus* (Mevs *et al.*, 2000), the type species, *Modestobacter marinus* (Xiao *et al.*, 2011), *Modestobacter roseus* (Qin *et al.*, 2013) and *Modestobacter versicolor* (Reddy *et al.*, 2007), which were isolated from regolithic soil from the Linnaeus Terrace of the Asgard Range in the Transantarctic Mountains, a deep-sea sediment sample from the Atlantic Ocean, from surface-sterilised roots of the coastal halophyte *Salicornia europaea* and from a biological soil crust sample from the Colorado Plateau of the USA, respectively.

Modestobacter strains are Gram-positive, non-spore-forming actinobacteria which form rod and coccoid-shaped elements, and have a tendency to form short multiseptate filaments and to grow on oligotrophic media; the wall peptidoglycan contains meso-diaminopimelic acid (meso-A2pm), major fatty acids include C18:1, iso-C_{16:0} and anteiso-C_{17:0}, the predominant respiratory quinone is tetrahydrogenated with nine uints $(MK_9[H4])$ and the major lipids isoprene polar include diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylinositol, phosphatidylinositol mannosides, uncharactrised aminophospholipids and an unknown uncharacterised phospholipid (Xiao et al., 2011; Qin et al., 2013).

The primary aim of the present study was to establish the taxonomic status of *Modestobacter* strains isolated from an extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil and from deteriorated sandstone scrapped from the surfaces of historic buildings. The isolates were compared with one another and with the type strains of *M. multiseptatus*,

M. marinus, M. roseus and *M. versicolor* using a polyphasic taxonomic approach. Most of the isolates were assigned to two distinct subclades in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA but two strains from the deteriorated sandstone, namely isolates MON 3.1 and MDVD 1, formed the nuclei of two new *Modestobacter* species for which the names *Modestobacter lapidis* sp. nov. and *Modestobacter muralis* sp. nov. are proposed.

5.3. Materials and Methods

5. 3. 1. Isolation of *Modestobacter* strains

Modestobacter strains were sought from an extreme hyper-arid soil sample collected from the Yungay region of the Atacama Desert (24° 06' 18.6" S / 70° 01' 55.6" W) using a range of selective media (Table 5.1). The media were incubated at 28°C for 21 days following inoculation with a 10^{-1} suspension of the soil. The number of *Modestobacter* strains growing on the isolation plates were counted as colony forming units (cfu) per gram dry weight soil. In contrast, isolates CAT N4, MON1.1, MON3.1, MDVD1 and MDVD4 were isolated on Luedemann's agar (Luedemann, 1971) and isolate CMB2 from *Microlunatus* agar (Nakamura *et al.*, 1995), these media were inoculated with 10^{-3} and 10^{-4} suspensions of deteriorated sandstone scrapped from the surfaces of historic buildings in Salamanca, Spain (40° 57' 45" N) and incubated at 28° C for 5 weeks.

5. 3. 2. Test strains, maintenance and cultural conditions

Eleven representative isolates from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil with the typical appearance of *Modestobacter* colonies were taken from the isolation plates, subcultured onto modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949), incubated at 28°C for 3 weeks and checked for purity by examination of Gram-stained smears. These strains, the six isolates from the biodeteriorated sandstone and the type strains of *M. multiseptatus, M. marinus, M. roseus* and *M. versicolor* were maintained on modified Bennett's agar slopes at room temperature and in 20% glycerol (v/v) at -20°C and -80°C. Biomass for most of the chemotaxonomic analyses was prepared in shake flasks (200 resolutions per minute) of yeast extract-malt extract broth (International *Streptomyces* Project [ISP] medium 2; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after incubation for 14 days at 28°C, whereas those for the fatty acid analyses were harvested after 3 to 5 days or until good growth was obtained

from the third quadrant (Sasser *et al.*, 1990). Biomass for the molecular systematic studies was prepared in the same way, but was stored at -20° C as washed preparations.

5.3.3. Phylogeny

Genomic DNA was extracted from eleven representative strains isolated from the Yungay soil and from the six isolates recovered from the deteriorated sandstone. PCR amplification and 16S rRNA gene sequencing was carried out following the procedure of Kim & Goodfellow (2002). 16S rRNA gene sequences of the isolates (1386-1394 nucleotides [nt]) were aligned using MEGA version 5 software (Tamura et al., 2011) against corresponding sequences of the *Modestobacter* type strains taken from the GenBank database using the EzTaxon-e server (Kim et al., 2012). Phylogenetic trees were inferred using the maximum-likelihood (Felsenstein, 1981), maximum-parsimony (Fitch, 1971) and neighnour-joining (Saitou & Nei, 1987) tree-making algorithms drawn from the MEGA 5 software; an evolutionary distance matrix for the neighbourjoining analysis was constructed after Jukes and Cantor (1969). The topologies of the inferred evolutionary trees were evaluated in bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985) based on a 1000 resamplings of the neighbour-joining dataset using MEGA 5 software. The root positions of the unrooted trees were estimated using the sequence of Geodermatophilus obscurus DSM 43160^T (GenBank accession number CP 001807) as the outgroup. The 16S rRNA gene sequences of all of the isolates were examined for the present of 16S rRNA nucleotide signatures found to be characteristic for Geodermatophilaceae strains (Normand & Benson, 2012a).

5.3.4. Chemotaxonomy

All of the isolates were examined for the presence of isomers of diaminopimelic acid (A_2pm) using the procedure described by Hasegawa *et al.* (1983). In addition, two representatives from the Yungay soil, isolates KNN45-2b, KNN46-4b, and isolates MDVD1 and MON3.1 from deteriorated sandstone were examined for other chemotaxonomic properties considered to be characteristic for *Modestobacter* strains (Normand & Benson, 2012b). Standard procedures were used to determine the menaquinone (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984a), muramic acid type (Uchida *et al.*, 1999), diagnostic whole-cell sugars (Schaal, 1985) and polar lipids (Minnikin *et al.*, 1984). Mycolic acids were sought from the isolates using the acid methanolysis procedure

described by Minnikin *et al.* (1980). Fatty acids were extracted, methylated and analysed according to the standard protocol of the Sherlock Microbial Identification System (MIDI) and peaks were named using the database SACTIN6. The G+C mol% of the DNA of isolate KNN45-2b was determined following the procedure described by Gonzalez and Saiz-Jimenez (2002).

5. 3. 5. DNA:DNA relatedness

DNA:DNA relatedness values between isolate KNN45-2b and *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T were determined, using triplicate samples, by applying the fluorimetric method of Gonzalez & Saiz-Jimenez (2005); the optimal temperature for reassociation (Tm) was calculated by using the equation T_{or} - 0.51 (GC%) + 41. The melting temperature (Tm) at which 50% of the initial double-stranded DNA denatured into single stranded DNA for isolate KNN45-2b and for the isolate KNN45-2b : *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T hybrid DNA were compared and the differences (ΔT m) determined.

5. 3. 6. Cultural and micromorphological properties

The micromorphological properties of all of the isolates were observed from methylene blue stained smears prepared from growth taken from ISP 2 agar plates (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966), that had been incubated at 28°C for 7-10 days, and examined under the light microscope. The isolates were examined for cultural properties following growth on glucose-yeast extract malt-extract, glycerol-asparagine , inorganic salts-starch, oatmeal, peptone-yeast extract-iron, tryptone-yeast extract and tyrosine agars (ISP media 2, 5, 4, 3, 6, 1 and 7; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after incubation at 28°C for 14 days. A modified hanging drop method was used to determine whether the isolates were motile (Rohde, 2011).

5. 3. 7. Phenotypic tests

The seventeen isolates and the type strains of the four *Modestobacter* species were examined for a broad range of phenotypic properties. The enzyme profiles of the strains were determined using API ZYM strips (BioMerieux) and biochemical, carbon utilisation and inhibitory properties using Biolog GENIII microplates, in each case following the manufacturer's instructions; a standard inoculum equivalent to 5.0 on the McFarland scale (Murray *et al.*, 1999) was used to inoculate the BIOLOG microplates

and the API-ZYM kits. The strains were examined for their ability to grow over a range of pH and temperatures following growth on ISP2 for 21 days and for their ability to grow in the presence of 5% carbon dioxide as a sole carbon source using a Thermo Forma Series II Water Jacket CO₂ incubator and carbon utilisation agar plates (ISP medium 9; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) that were incubated at 28°C for 14 days.

5. 3. 8. Generation of whole-genome sequence of isolate KNN45-2b and genomic analysis

Isolate KNN45-2b (neé ASC16) was grown on tryptone soya broth supplemented with 10% sucrose-yeast extract-malt extract medium (1:1, v/v) with 5 mM MgCl₂ and 0.5 % glycine at 30°C for 48 hours. Cells were resuspended in 10 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA and incubated with lysozyme at 37°C for 1 to 30 minutes until they were lysed. Sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.5 %, w/v final concentration) and proteinase K (40 μ g) were added and the cell extract incubated at 50°C for 6 hours when a standard phenol/chloroform extraction was performed on the lysate. The extract was adjusted to 0.3 M sodium acetate (pH 5.5) and the DNA was spooled with a glass rod upon addition of 2 volumes of 96 % ethanol. After washing and drying, the DNA was dissolved in TE buffer. DNA quality was verified by Sall digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis. Illumina/Solexa sequencing on Genome Analyzer IIx was outsourced (ServiceSX, Leiden, The Netherlands) and 100-nt paired-end-reads were obtained. The quality of the short reads was verified using FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.bbsrc.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and, depending on the quality, reads were trimmed at both ends. Processed raw reads were used as input for the Velvet assembly algorithm version 1.206 (Zerbino & Birney 2008). The genome was annotated using the RAST server (Aziz et al., 2008) with default options. Predictions of gene clusters for natural products were performed using antiSMASH (Medema et al., 2011). The genome sequence has been deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the accession number JPMX0000000.

5.4. Results

Selective isolation, enumeration and initial classification. Small numbers of strains growing on the isolation plates were assigned to the genus *Modestobacter* as they formed characteristic round, slightly mucoid colonies that were initially orange to beige

in colour but later turned black (Table 5.1). The highest count, 6.0 x 10^1 cfu/g dry weight soil, was recorded from the humic acid-vitamin agar plates.

Media	Target organism(s)	Number of <i>Modestobacter</i> isolates (cfu/g dry weight soil)	Selected isolates
Gause's No.1 agar supplemented with nalidixic acid (10 µg/ml) (Zakharova <i>et al.</i> ,2003)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria	4x10 ¹	KNN45-1a*, KNN46-6a,* KNN46-7a*, KNN46-8a*
Geodermatophilus obscurus agar supplemented with nystatin (25 µg/ml) (Uchida &Seino, 1997)	Geodermatophilus spp.	1.5x10 ¹	KNN46-11f, KNN46-12f
Humic acid-vitamin agar (Hayakawa & Nonomura, 1987)	Streptosporangiaceae spp.	6 x10 ¹	KNN45-2b*, KNN45-3b*, KNN45-4b, KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b*, KNN46-5b
Luedemann's agar supplemented with nystatin (25 µg/ml) (Luedemann, 1971)	Modestobacter spp.	1x10 ¹	KNN46-10g*
Microlunatus agar supplemented with nystatin (25 µg/ml) (Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Modestobacter spp.	1x10 ¹	KNN46-4b*
Minimal medium agar (Johnson <i>et al.</i> , 1981)	Rare and uncommon actinobacteria	$1x10^{1}$	KNN46-9c*
R2A agar supplemented with nystatin (25 µg/ml) (Reasoner & Geldreich, 1985)	Modestobacter spp.	1x10 ¹	KNN46-3b*

Table 5.1. *Modestobacter* strains taken to represent those growing on the selective isolation media after incubation for 21 days at 28°C.

All of the media were supplemented with cycloheximide ($25 \ \mu g \ ml^{-1}$).

*Strains included in 16S rRNA gene sequence study.

Phylogeny. The assignment of the seventeen isolates to the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 100% bootstrap value (Figure 5.1). Fifteen of the isolates were recovered in two 16S rRNA phyletic lines, subclades 1 and 2, the taxonomic integrity of which was underpinned by all of the tree-making algorithms and by high bootstrap values. Strains MDVD 1 and MON 3.1, organisms isolated from deteriorated sandstone, formed distinct lineages in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree. All of the isolates were found to have the 16S rRNA gene signatures characteristic of members of the family *Geodermatophilaceae* (Normand & Benson, 2012a).

Eight out of the eleven strains isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil were assigned to 16S rRNA subclade 1(Figure 5.1). These strains shared 16S rRNA gene similarities within the range 99.1 to 99.5 %, values that corresponded to 7 to 12 nt differences at 1385 to 1392 locations (Table 5.2); three of the strains, isolates KNN46-

4b, KNN46-7a and KNN46-8a, had identical 16S rRNA gene sequences. The isolates in this subclade were most closely related to the type strain of *M. versicolor* sharing 16S rRNA gene similarities with the latter within the range 99.1 to 99.5%, values that corresponded to between 7 and 9 nt differences at between 1386 and 1392 locations.



Figure 5.1. Neighbour-joining tree based on nearly complete 16S rRNA gene sequences (~1390 bp) showing relationships between strains isolated from the extreme-hyper-arid Yungay soil and deteriorated sandstone and between them and the type strains of *Modestobacter* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were recovered using the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms. MP indicates branches of the tree that were supported by the maximum-parsimony method. Numbers at the nodes indicate levels of bootstrap support based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1000 resampled datasets; only values above 50% are shown. The scale bar indicates 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position. Blue and yellow coloured indicated strains isolated from the Yungay soil and from deteriorated sandstone, respectively.

16S rRNA subclade 2 encompassed the three remaining isolates from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil and isolates CAT N4, CMB 2, MDVD 4 and MON 1.1 from deteriorated sandstone. All of these isolates, apart from strain CMB 2, had identical 16S rRNA gene sequences and were most closely related to the type strain of *M. marinus* sharing similarities with the latter of 99.6%, values equivalent to 5-6 nt differences at between 1390 and 1393 sites. The isolates were also closely related to *M. roseus* KCBMP 1279^T sharing 16S rRNA gene similarities with the latter of 99.4-99.5% values equivalent to 7-8 nt differences at between 1385-1391 locations. All of these strains formed a distinct 16S rRNA gene subclade, the taxonomic integrity of which was supported the three tree-making algorithms and by a 85% bootstrap value (Table 5.1).

The two remaining strains, isolates MDVD 1 and MON 3.1, were sharply separated from one another and from most of the other strains in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 5.1). Isolate MON 3.1 and the type strain of *M. multiseptatus* formed a 16S rRNA gene subclade that was underpinned by all of the tree-making algorithms though the bootstrap value was only 53%. The two strains shared a 16S rRNA gene similarity of 98.9%, which corresponds to 16 nt differences at 1392 locations. The final isolate, strain MDVD 1, was most closely related to isolates KNN46-4b, KNN46-7a and KNN46-10g, members of subclade 1, sharing 16S rRNA gene similarities with the latter of 99.0%, a value equivalent to 14 nt differences at 1394 sites.

Chemotaxonomy. All of the isolates contained *meso*-A₂pm as the major diamino acid. Isolates KNN45-2b and KNN46-4b were found to contain galactose, glucose and xylose in whole-cell hydrolysates, N-acetyl muramic acid, tetrahydrogenated menaquinones as the sole isoprenologue, but lacked mycolic acids. They also contained major amounts of diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylinositol, as exemplified in Figure 5.2. Fatty acid profiles of most of the isolates and the marker strains are shown tin Tables 5.3 and 5.4. The fatty acid profiles of the strains showed considerable qualitative and quantitative differences but with only two exceptions, *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T and *M. multiseptatus* DSM44406^T, the predominant component was *iso*-C_{16:0}. The isolates related to the type strain of *M. versicolor*, unlike the latter, contained major amounts of C_{17:1} ω 9c.

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
			14/	14/	2/	14/	3/	2/	4/	1/	2/	9/	19/	20/	21/	14/	16/	15/	14/	14/	20/	56/
1.Isolate KNN46-2b		4/1390	1388	1383	1390	1389	1390	1390	1390	1390	1390	1386	1387	1386	1385	1387	1388	1386	1387	1385	1390	1386
			17/	17/	5/	17/	4/	5/	7/	3/	5/	12/	22/	23/	24/	17/	19/	17/	17/	16/	23	60/
2. Isolate KNN46-3b	99.7		1391	1386	1393	1392	1393	1393	1393	1393	1393	1389	1390	1389	1388	1390	1391	1389	1390	1388	/1393	1389
				0/	12/	0/	13/	12/	13/	14/	12	16/	5/	25/	7/	0/	16/	1/	0/	1/	21/	56/
3.Isolate KNN45-1a	99.0	98.8		1388	1394	1394	1394	1394	1394	1394	/1394	1390	1392	1390	1390	1392	1392	1391	1392	1390	1394	1391
					12/	0/	13/	12/	13/	14/	12/	16/	5/	25/	7/	0/	16/	1/	0/	1/	21/	56/
4. Isolate KNN45-2b	99.0	98.8	100.0		1389	1389	1389	1389	1389	1389	1389	1385	1387	1385	1385	1387	1387	1386	1387	1385	1389	1386
						12/	1/	0/	2/	2/	0/	7/	17/	19/	19/	12/	14/	13/	12	12/	18/	55/
5. Isolate KNN46-4b	99.9	99.6	99.1	99.1		1395	1396	1396	1396	1396	1396	1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	/1393	1391	1396	1392
							13	12/	13/	14/	12/	16/	5/	25/	7/	0/	16/	1/	0/	1/	21/	56/
6. isolate KNN45-3b	99.0	98.8	100.0	100.0	99.1		/1395	1395	1395	1395	1395	1391	1393	1391	1391	1393	1393	1392	1393	1391	1395	1392
								1/	3/	3/	1/	8/	18/	20/	20/	13/	15/	13/	13/	12/	19/	56/
7. Isolate KNN46-6a	99.8	99.7	99.1	99.1	99.9	99.1		1396	1396	1396	1396	1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	1393	1391	1396	1392
									2/	2/	0/	7/	17/	19/	19/	12/	14/	13/	12/	12/	18/	55/
8.Isolate KNN46-7a	99.9	99.6	99.1	99.1	100.0	99.1	99.9		1396	1396	1396	1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	1393	1391	1396	1392
										4/	2/	9/	18/	20/	20/	13/	15/	14/	13/	13/	19/	56/
9. Isolate KNN46-8a	99.7	99.5	99.1	99.1	99.9	99.1	99.8	99.9		1396	1396	1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	1393	1391	1396	1392
											2/		19/	21/	21/	14/	16/	15/	14/	14/	20/	57/
10. Isolate KNN46-9c	99.9	99.8	99.0	99.0	99.9	99.0	99.8	99.9	99.7		1396	9/1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	1393	1391	1396	1392
												7/	17/	19/	19/	12/	14/	13/	12/	12/	18/	55/
11. Isolate KNN46-10g	99.9	99.6	99.1	99.1	100.0	99.1	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9		1392	1393	1392	1391	1393	1394	1392	1393	1391	1396	1392
													21/	20/	23/	16/	18/	17/	16/	17/	25/	60/
12. M. versicolor	99.4	99.1	98.9	98.8	99.5	98.9	99.4	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.5		1391	1390	1391	1391	1392	1389	1391	1389	1392	1388
														28/	8/	5/	21/	6/	5/	6/	22/	57/
13. M. marinus	98.6	98.4	99.6	99.6	98.8	99.6	98.7	98.8	98.7	98.6	98.8	98.5		1391	1391	1393	1391	1391	1393	1391	1393	1390
															32/	25/	23/	26/	25/	25/	16/	59/
14. M. multiseptatus	98.6	98.3	98.2	98.2	98.6	98.2	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.6	98.6	98.0		1389	1391	1390	1389	1391	1389	1392	1392
A																7/	23/	8/	7/	8/	28/	51/
15. M. roseus	98.5	98.3	99.5	99.5	98.6	99.5	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.6	98.4	99.4	97.7		1391	1391	1389	1391	1389	1391	1388
																	16/	1/	0/	1/	21/	56/
16. Isolate MDVD4	99.0	98.8	100.0	100.0	99.1	100.0	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.0	99.1	98.9	99.6	98.2	99.5		1391	1391	1393	1391	1393	1390
																		17/	16/	16/	23/	57/
17.Jsolate MDVD1	98.9	98.6	98.9	98.9	99.0	98.9	98.9	99.0	98.9	98.9	99.0	98.7	98.5	98.4	98.4	98.9		1390	1391	1389	1394	1390
																			1/	1/	22/	57/
18. Isolate CMB2	98.9	98.8	99.9	99.9	99.1	99.9	99.1	99.1	99.0	98.9	99.1	98.8	99.6	98.1	99.4	99.9	98.8		1391	1389	1392	1389
																				1/	21/	56/
19. Isolate CATN4	99.0	98.8	100.0	100.0	99.1	100.0	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.0	99.1	98.9	99.6	98.2	99.5	100.0	98.9	99.9		1391	1393	1390
																					21/	56/
20. Isolate MON1.1	99.0	98.9	99.9	99.9	99.1	99.9	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.0	99.1	98.8	99.6	98.2	99.4	99.9	98.9	99.9	99.9		1391	1388
																						51/
21. Isolate MON3.1	98.6	98.4	98.5	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.6	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.7	98.2	98.4	98.9	98.0	98.5	98.4	98.4	98.5	98.5		1392
22 G obscurus	96.0	95.7	96.0	96.0	96.1	96.0	96.0	96.1	96.0	95.9	96.1	95.7	95.9	95.8	96.3	96.0	95.9	95.9	96.0	96.0	96.3	
22. G. Obschrids	2010	2011	2010	2010		2010	20.0	70.1	2010	,	7011	20.1	15.1	75.0	70.5	2010	10.1	10.1	2010	2010	70.0	

Table 5.2. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from the hyper-arid Yungay soil and from deteriorated sandstone and between them and the type-strains of *Modestobacter* species.

Fatty acid	KNN46-2b	KNN46-3b	KNN46-4b	IN46-4b KNN46-6a		KNN46-8a	KNN46-9c	KNN46-10g	<i>M. versicolor</i> DSM 16678 ^T
<i>Iso-</i> C _{12:0}	-	-	-	-	0.3	0.2	-	-	-
C _{12:0}	-	0.5	0.3	0.3	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Iso</i> -C _{14:0}	0.6	0.4	2.0	0.8	2.3	0.9	1.1	0.6	1.0
C _{14:0}	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.3
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:1} G	1.9	1.3	1.5	0.7	1.7	1.4	0.4	0.7	2.8
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:0}	6.2	3.6	3.4	2.3	3.6	3.4	4.3	4.2	19.9
anteiso-C _{15:0}	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.3	0.7	1.1	0.5	2.8
C _{15:1} B	0.2	-	0.4	-	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	-
C _{15:0}	0.6	1.2	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.9	1.1	0.7
<i>iso</i> -C _{16:1} H	4.0	1.8	8.5	3.1	9.9	5.1	2.0	1.7	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{16:0}	22.9	21.1	33.1	23.8	32.8	27.8	23.0	26.2	22.2
$C_{16:1} \omega 9c$	9.8	8.4	13.0	10.0	13.1	10.9	6.4	5.0	1.3
C _{16:0}	4.3	9.4	7.1	9.8	5.8	4.6	9.3	4.6	3.2
9-Methyl C _{16:0}	3.4	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	0.5	1.2	2.0
anteiso-C _{17:1} C	0.8	0.3	0.8	1.3	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
<i>iso</i> -C _{17:0}	4.5	2.5	1.2	2.6	1.2	2.0	2.3	3.5	8.7
anteiso-C _{17:0}	2.3	2.0	1.8	5.8	1.8	1.5	2.5	1.2	4.9
$C_{17:1} \omega 9c$	16.8	14.1	9.5	10.1	11.1	14.8	16.0	16.0	5.5
C _{17:0} cyclo	1.7	0.9	2.2	-	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.8	-

Table 5.3. Fatty aicds (%) of *Modestobacter* subclade 1 isolates and their nearest phylogenetic neighbour, the type strain of *Modestobacter versicolor*.

C _{17:0}	2.2	3.9	1.2	2.9	1.4	2.8	7.4	4.6	4.8
10-Methyl C _{17:0}	1.7	1.0	1.3	1.8	1.3	2.2	0.8	3.6	0.9
C _{18:3} \omega6,12,14c	-	3.1	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.1	-	0.9	1.0
<i>iso</i> -C _{18:0}	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.6	-	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.4
C _{18:1} ω9c	9.7	14.6	4.6	15.9	4.1	12.6	10.0	15.5	9.8
C _{18:0}	0.9	2.5	0.4	2.3	0.4	1.1	3.5	1.8	3.9
C _{17:0} <i>iso</i> -2OH	1.4	2.2	1.7	-	1.1	1.5	2.5	2.3	0.9
Summed feature 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Summed feature 7	1.4	0.9	0.3	1.0	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.6	-
Summed feature 9	1.0	-	0.9	-	0.4	-	1.4	1.9	1.3

Summed feature 3: C16:1 ω 7c , summed feature 7: C_{18:1} ω 7c/C_{18:1} ω 9t/C_{18:1} ω 12t. and summed feature 9: *iso*-C₁₇ ω 9c and/or 10-methyl C_{16:0}.
			Modes	<i>tobacter</i> su	bclade 2			M marinus	M roseus	М.		
Fatty acid		CATNA	MON1 1	CMB2	KNN45-	KNN45-	KNN45-	$DSM 45201^{T}$	$DSM 45764^{T}$	multiseptatus	MON3.1	MDVD1
	NID V D4	CAIN4	WON1.1	CMD2	1a	2b	3b	DSWI 45201	DSWI 45704	DSM 44406 ^T		
<i>iso</i> -C _{12:0}	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
C _{12:0}	0.2	-	-	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.2	-	-	-	-	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{13:0}	-	-	-	0.0	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	0.10	-
C _{13:0}	0.2	0.3	-	0.1	-	-	-	0.4	-	-	-	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{14:0}	2.5	1.3	0.7	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.3	2.4	1.1	2.1	1.4
C _{14:0}	0.5	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.3	1.0	0.8	0.4	2.1	0.9
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:1} G	0.6	0.4	1.3	1.2	0.7	0.8	1.5	0.7	-	1.7	5.3	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:0}	3.6	3.6	5.1	4.4	7.4	7.1	2.9	9.7	11.0	21.5	17.4	8.2
anteiso-C _{15:0}	0.9	1.3	2.6	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.6	4.2	4.5	3.7	2.5	1.5
C _{15:1} B	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.7	-	-	1.2	-
C _{15:0}	4.3	4.9	0.8	2.0	1.7	1.5	0.6	5.6	1.3	1.3	2.3	3.9
<i>iso</i> -C _{16:1} H	1.7	1.2	2.1	4.3	1.6	1.3	9.4	0.3	5.3	0.5	3.6	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{16:0}	34.6	16.4	24.6	28.1	22.6	23.4	39.1	10.3	21.9	19.7	21.8	16.1
C _{16:1} ω9c	4.1	5.6	8.1	9.6	8.0	7.3	11.1	3.2	-	1.0	10.0	3.6
C _{16:0}	6.9	11.5	8.1	6.9	8.8	8.9	5.7	11.2	7.2	3.8	7.6	8.3
9-Methyl-C _{16:0}	0.2	-	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.3	-	1.2	0.5	-
anteiso-C _{17:1} C	0.1	-	1.0	0.3	-	0.2	0.4	0.2	-	0.2	0.5	-

Table 5.4. Fatty acids (%) of *Modestobacter* subclade 2 isolates and strains MDVD 1 and MON 3.1 and their nearest phylogenetic neighbours, the type strains of *M. marinus*, *M. multiseptatus* and *M. roseus*.

<i>iso</i> -C _{17:0}	0.8	1.3	2.8	1.3	2.8	3.1	0.9	2.8	3.1	8.8	1.0	3.2
anteiso-C _{17:0}	0.8	1.5	6.5	0.9	1.4	1.4	0.7	3.7	2.1	5.99	1.6	2.3
C _{17:1} w8c	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15.0		-	-
C _{17:1} ω9c	17.3	14.3	11.6	15.5	13.8	13.5	8.5	13.7	-	4.81	6.9	19.4
C _{17:0} cyclo	0.7	1.5	1.6	2.8	0.7	1.0	2.5	0.2	1.0	-	2.3	-
C _{17:0}	10.3	16.4	4.1	4.7	5.3	5.2	1.2	20.0	9.6	8.6	1.5	17.2
10-Methyl-	0.7	0.4	1.1	1.3	0.8	0.8	2.0	_	1.0	0.4	0.2	0.5
C _{17:0}												
$C_{18:3}$ ω 6,12,14c	0.9	2.1	0.4	0.5	4.1	2.0	1.2	1.3	-	0.9	-	1.0
<i>iso</i> -C _{18:0}	1.3	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	-	-	0.5	-	-
$C_{18:1} \omega 9c$	2.4	5.1	9.3	4.9	9.8	10.2	4.4	2.1	2.1	5.5	3.9	5.4
C _{18:0}	2.3	3.8	2.2	0.8	3.0	3.2	0.6	3.7	0.6	6.6	0.8	2.8
C _{17:0} <i>iso</i> -2OH	1.5	3.7	1.9	3.7	1.8	2.1	1.6	2.6	-	0.7	2.7	3.2
Summed feature 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.4	-	-	-
Summed feature 7	-	0.4	0.4	0.7	-	0.5	0.2	-	0.4	-	0.1	-
Summed feature 9	0.3	1.3	1.5	1.4	-	1.5	0.9	0.4	1.5	0.8	1.6	1.0

Summed feature 3: $C_{16:1} \omega 7c$ and/or $C_{17:1} \omega 6c$; summed feature 7: $C_{18:1} \omega 7c / C_{18:1} \omega 9t / C_{18:1} \omega 12c$ and summed feature 9: *iso*- $C_{17} \omega 9c$ and/or 10-methyl-

C_{16:0}.

and with two exceptions, isolates KNN46-4b and KNN46-7a, had similar proportions of $C_{18:1}$ ω 9c (Table 5.3). In general, the isolates belonging to 16S rRNA gene subclade 1 showed similar fatty acid profiles to one another and to a lesser extent with *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T. In contrast, isolate MON 3.1 and *M. multiseptatus* DSM 44406^T exhibited markedly different qualitative and quantitative fatty acid profiles. The type strain of *M. roseus* was readily distinguished from those of the other strains as it lacked $C_{17:1}\omega$ 8c but contained a major amount of *iso*- $C_{16:0}$. The G+C content of the DNA of isolate KNN45-2b was 72.5 \pm 1%.

DNA:DNA relatedness. The ΔT m between isolate KNN45-2b g DNA and isolate KNN45-2b : *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T hybrid DNA was 4.9±0.3%, a result which can be equated with a DNA:DNA similarity of 70.2±0.1% (Gonzalez & Saiz-Jimenez, 2005), a value very close to the cut-off point for assigning strains to the same genomic species (Figure 5.3).







Figure 5.3. Thermal denaturation of genomic DNA from isolate KNN45-2b and isolate KNN45-2b : *M. marinus* DSM 45201^T hybrid DNA. The calculated ΔT m is 4.9°C±0.3.

Cultural and morphological properties. All of the strains grew well on ISP media 1, 2, 3, 6 and 7, moderately on ISP medium 5 and poorly on ISP medium 4 (Table 5.5). Colony colours ranged from yellowish white to black; strains assigned to the *M*. *versicolor* 16S rRNA subclade produced diffusible pigments on ISP media 2 and 7. All of the isolates formed entire, flat, round, mucoid colonies with entire margins.

Table 5.5. Growth and cultural characteristics of isolates and *Modestobacter* type strains on ISP media after incubation for 14 days at 28°C.

Media	Growth	Substrate mycelium colour	Diffusible pigment
Glycerol-asparagine agar (ISP 5)	++	Olivaceous black	None
Inorganic salts-starch agar (ISP 4)	+	Yellowish white	None
Oatmeal agar (ISP 3)	+++	Olivaceous black	None
Peptone-yeast extract-iron agar (ISP 6)	+++	Black / orange*	None/ Light yellow*
Tryptone-yeast extract agar (ISP 1)	+++	Yellowish white	None
Tyrosine agar (ISP 7)	+++	Yellowish white	None / Light yellow*
Yeast extract-malt extract agar (ISP 2)	+++++	Black	None / Light yellow*

++++ abundant growth; +++ very good growth; ++ good growth; + poor growth.

* Results for members of the *M. versicolor* DSM 16678^{T} and associated isolates from the Yungay soil(see Figure 5.1).

Phenotypic properties. Identical results were obtained for the duplicated strains in all of the phenotypic tests. The seventeen isolates and the *Modestobacter* type strains grew at 20 and 28°C, at pH 7 and 8, produced acid phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), leucine arylamidase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase and valine aryamidase (API ZYM tests), reduced nitrate to nitrite, hydrolysed urea, and used acetoacetic acid and dextrin as sole carbon sources, grew in the presence of minocycline, potassium tellurite and 1%, w/v sodium chloride (Biolog Gen III microplates) and showed scant growth in the presence of 5% carbon dioxide as a sole carbon source. In contrast, none of strains grew at 10 or 40°C, at pH 4, 5, 9, 10 or 11, produced α -fucosidase, α - or β -galactosidases, N-acetyl- β -glucosamidase, or grew on α -amino-butyric acid, formic acid, α -methyl-D-glucoside, glycyl-proline or methyl pyruvate as sole carbon sources (Biolog GEN III microplates).

It can be seen from Table 5.6 that the *Modestobacter* type strains can be distinguished from one another using a broad range of phenotypic properties. With few exceptions the subclade 1 isolates from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil shared the same phenotypic profile, ones that readily distinguished them from all of other isolates and from the *Modestobacter* type strain (Table 5.6). Unlike *M. versicolor* DSM 16678^T, their nearest phylogenetic neighbour, these isolates produced alkaline phosphatase, cysteine arylamidase and trypsin, conversely only the *M. versicolor* type strain used D-aspartic acid, D-cellobiose, D-fructose-6-PO₄, D-galacturonic acid, gelatin, gentobiose, D-gluconic acid, 3-methyl glucose, α -D-glucose, L-glutaric acid, D- & L-lactic acid, D-malic acid and D-pectin as sole carbon sources.

The subclade 2 isolates had many phenotypic properties in common some of which distinguish them from the type strain of *M. marinus*, their closet phylogenetic neighbour (Table 5.6). The isolates, unlike *M. marinus* DSM 45201^{T} , grew at pH 5 and 6, in the presence of guadinine hydrochloride, conversely only the *M. marinus* strains used inosine and D-serine as sole carbon sources. In contrast, only the type strain of *M. marinus* used D-galactose, D-glycerol, D-mannose, stachyose and D-turanose, as sole carbon sources. These isolates can also be distinguished from the type strain of *M. roseus* by their ability to grow in the presence of azetreonam, gusanidine hydrochloride, lithium chloride, niaproof 4, at pH5 and used L-alanine and sodium butyrate as sole carbon compounds though the *M. roseus* strain showed a much greater ability to assimilate carbon compounds (Table 5.6).

Isolates MON3.1 and MDVD1, which formed distinct branches in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree, had phenotypic properties that readily distinguished them from one another and from all of the remaining strains (Table 5.6), including their nearest neighbours. Thus, isolate MON 3.1 produced cysteine arylamidase, and lipase (C14) and used acetic acid, D-cellobiose, α -ketoglutaric acid, D-trehalose and Tween 40 as sole carbon sources through, in general, the *M. multiseptatus* strain showed a much greater capacity to grow and to metabolise carbon compounds and grow in the presence of inhibitory agents. Similarly, isolate MDVD1 and the type strain of *M. multiseptatus* were readily distinguished, only the former produced alkaline phosphatase and cysteine arylamidase and only the latter α -chymotrypsin and α - and β -glucosidases. In addition, *M. multiseptatus* DSM 44406^T assimilated a much broader range of carbon compounds, as exemplified by its ability to use D-cellobiose, 3-methyl-glucose, D- and L-lactic acid, methyl ether, L-malic acid and D-salicin as sole carbon sources.

Characteristics	<i>M. multiseptatus</i> DSM 44406 ^T	M. marinus DSM 45201 ^T	M. roseus DSM 45764 ^T	M. versicolor DSM 16678 ^T	Modestobacter subclade 1 isolates	<i>Modestobacter</i> subclade 2 isolates	Isolate MDVD1	Isolate MON 3.1
API ZYM tests:								
Alkaline phosphatase	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-
α-Chymotrypsin	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
Cysteine arylamidase	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Esterase lipase (C8)	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
α -glucosidase	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+
β-glucosidase	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Trypsin	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
Micromorphology:								
Motility	Motile	Non- motile	Motile	Motile	Motile	Non- motile	Motile	Motile
Colony properties:	Mucoid	Round ,	Flat.	Flat,	Mucoid	Round ,	Mucoid	Flat,
		mucoid	mucoid	mucoid		mucoid		mucoid
Diffusible pigments:								
Glucose-yeast	-	+/-	-	+	+	+/-	-	-
extract-malt extract								
agar								
Peptone-yeast	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
extract-iron agar								
Tyrosine agar	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-

Table 5.6. Phenotypic properties that distinguish the *Modestobacter* isolates from one another and from the type strains of *Modestobacter*.

Resistance to inhibitory								
compounds:								
Azetreonam	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
Fusidic acid	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Guanidine HCl	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Lincomycin	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-
Lithium chloride	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	+
Nalidixic acid	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	_
Niaproof4	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	_
Rifamycim SV	, 上	-	_	- -	· -	-	- -	Т
Tetrazoliun blue	, 上		- -	- -	· -		, т	-
Tetrazoliun violet	- -	1	- -	- -	- -	-	- -	
Troloandomycin	т 1	Т	т 1	т 1		т	т 1	-
Vancomycin	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-
Crowth at:	т	-	т	т	т	т	т	-
рнэ	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-
рно	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
pH8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
pH9	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Growth in the present of:								
4%, (w/v) NaCl	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
8%, (w/v) NaCl	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+
Sole carbon sources:								
Acetic acid ¹	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+
N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
N-Acetyl-β-D-mannose	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
N-Acetyl-neuramic acid	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
L-Alanine	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
D-Arabitol	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
L-Arginine	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D-Aspartic acid	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
L-Aspartic acid	+	-	+	-	_	-	-	+
α -keto-butyric acid	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
a-hydroxy butyric acid	+	-	-	+	+	_	_	_
ß hydroxy DL hutyric	_		_	_	_	_	_	Т
p-inydroxy-D,L-butyric	ļ	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
D Callabiasa						1		
Citric acid	-	Ŧ	+	Ŧ	-	Ŧ	-	Ŧ
D Emistaça	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
D-Fluctose	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
D-FILCIOSE-OP O_4	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	-	-	+	-		-	-	-
D. Calastas	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
D-Galactose	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
D-Galacturonic acid	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-
L-Galacturonic acid	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
lactone						2		
Gelatin	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Gentiobiose	-	+	+	+	-	+ 3	-	-
D-Gluconic acid	+	-	-	+	-	- 4	+	+
D-Glucuronic acid	+	-	-	-	-	- 5	+	-
Glucuronamide	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
3-Methyl glucose	-	-	-	+	-	- 7	-	-
α-D-Glucose	+	+	+	+	-	+'	-	-
D-Glucose-6-PO ₄	+	+	+	-	-	$+^{8}$	-	+
α- <i>keto</i> -Glutaric acid	-	-	+	-	-	-9	+	+
L-Glutamic acid	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
Glycerol	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
L-Histidiine	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Inosine	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
Myo-Inositol	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D-Lactose	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
	•							

L-Lactic acid	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
D- & L- Lactic acid	+	+	-	+	-	$+^{10}$	-	-
methyl ether								
D-Malic acid	+	-	+	+	-	-11	+	-
L-Malic acid	+	-	+	+	+	-12	-	+
D-Maltose	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+
D-Mannose	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
L-Mannose	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
D-Melibiose	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
Mucic acid	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+
D-pectin	+	+	+	+	-	$+^{13}$	-	-
ρ-Hydroxy-phenylacetic	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
acid								
Propionic acid	+	-	+	+	-	-14	-	-
L-pyroglutamic acid	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Quinic acid	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+
D-Raffinose	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
L-Rhamnose	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
D-Saccharic acid	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
D-Salicin	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
D-Serine	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
L-Serine	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+
Stachyose	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sodium butyrate	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-
Sodium bromide	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+
1% sodium lactate	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
D. Sorbitol	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
Bromo-succinic acid	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
D-Sucrose	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+
D-Trehalose	-	+	-	-	-	$+^{15}$	-	+
D-Turanose	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
Tween 40	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ : positive; -: negative; +/- variable. *Codes for these isolates are shown in Figure 5.1.

Positive results were recorded for :¹isolates KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a and KNN46-10g; ²isolates KNN46-3b and KNN46-6a; ³isolates KNN46-6a and KNN46-10g; ⁴isolates KNN46-6a; KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c; ⁵isolates KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-6a and KNN46-10g; ⁸isolates KNN46-4b; KNN46-6a and KNN46-10g; ⁷isolates KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c and KNN46-10g; ⁸isolates KNN46-4b; KNN46-6a and KNN46-8a; ⁹isolates KNN46-4b, KNN46-6a and KNN46-8a; ¹⁰isolates KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-7a and KNN46-8a; ¹¹isolates KNN46-4b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-8a; ¹²isolates KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-9c; ¹³isolates KNN46-3b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-8a and KNN46-10g; ¹⁴isolates KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-7a and ¹⁵isolates KNN46-9c and KNN46-10g.

Analysis of whole genome sequence of isolate KNN45-2b. Full genome sequencing of strain KNN45-2b (GenBank accession number JPMX0000000) using Illumina methods led to an assembly of 140 contigs for a total genome size of ~4.96 Mb, predicted to encode 4,683 proteins (Figure 5.4). The functions of the genes were catalogued into different functional classes. The relative distribution of the different classes is similar to that of the model strains "*Streptomyces coelicolor*" A3(2) (Bentley *et al.*, 2002) and "*Streptomyces lividans*" (Cruz-Morales *et al.*, 2013). RAST is a widely used annotation tool that allows good initial prediction of gene functions. However, for a more detailed prediction regarding the specific functions of secondary metabolism-

related genes, a dedicated algorithm was required such as antiSMASH (Medema *et al.*, 2011). Only a handful of natural product clusters were predicted (two terpene-, one siderophore-, two polyketide synthase-type clusters and one of unknown type). This can be explained by the relatively small size of this genome when compared to those other actinomycetes (~ 5 Mb *vs.* 8-10 Mb).

5.5. Discussion

All of the isolates were Gram-positive, formed rod- and coccoid-shaped cells that tended to be aggregated together, produced beige to orange colonies which on prolonged incubation turned black, and had whole cell hydrolysates rich in *meso*-A₂pm, arabinose and galactose (wall chemotype IV sensu Lechevalier & Lechevalier, 1974). The representative isolates were found to contain tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units as sole isoprenologues, and diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine (diagnostic phospholipid) and phosphatidylinositol as major polar lipids (phospholipid type 2; Lechevalier et al., 1977, 1981), but lacked mycolic acids, and with two exceptions contained iso- $C_{16:0}$ as the predominant fatty acid. The G+C content of the DNA of isolate KNN45-2b was 72.5+1% All of these properties are consistent with the classification of the isolates in the genus Modestobacter (Mevs et al., 2000; Normand & Benson, 2012b; Qin et al., 2013).

Three out of the eleven representatives of the *Modestobacter* strains isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil and four out of the six strains from deteriorated sandstone shared high 16S rRNA gene similarities, had similar fatty acid profiles and many phenotypic properties in common. They were most closely related to *M. marinus* DSM 45201^{T} but can be distinguished from the latter on the basis of their fatty acid profile and by a broad range of phenotypic properties. Further comparative taxonomic studies are needed to clarify relationships between the subclade 2 isolates to determine whether they represent one or more *Modestobacter* species.

The remaining isolates from the Yungay soil showed high 16S rRNA gene similarities (99.1 to 99.5%) and were found to have many phenotypic properties in common. These isolates were readily distinguished from all of the remaining *Modestobacter* strains, including *M. versicolor*, their nearest phylogenetic neighbour, using a combination of phenotypic properties. Further studies need to be carried out on

181

these strains to establish whether they belong to one or more novel *Modestobacter* species.

The two remaining isolates, strains MON 3.1^{T} and MDVD 1^{T} , merit recognition as novel *Modestobacter* species as they formed well delineated branches in the *Modestobacter* 16S rRNA gene tree and can be distinguished from all of the remaining strains, including their nearest phylogenetic neighbours, using a battery of phenotypic properties. It is, therefore, proposed that isolates MON 3.1 and MDVD 1 be recognised as new *Modestobacter* species, namely as *Modestobacter lapidis* sp. nov. and *Modestobacter muralis* sp. nov.



Figure 5.4. Overview of *Modestobacter* strain KNN45-2b subsystem gene functions as generated by analysis on the RAST server at (http://rast.nmpdr.org).

Relatively little is known about the distribution, numbers, kinds and activities of *Modestobacter* strains in natural habitats. However, members of this taxon, like *Blastococcus* and *Geodermatophilus* strains, tend to be associated with extreme habitats characterised by dryness, low nutrient availability and high UV radiation (Eppard *et al.*, 1996; Urzì & Realini, 1998; Urzì, *et al.*, 2001; Salazar *et al.*, 2006). In the present study the isolation of small numbers of *Modestobacter* strains from the extreme hyperarid Yungay soil is further evidence that these organisms are present in dry, nutrient poor habitats subject to high UV radiation. To the best of our knowledge this is the first report on the isolation of *Modestobacter* strains from arid desert soils. Furthermore, the circumscription of two novel *Modestobacter* strains from deteriorated sandstone is in

line with the view that isolates associated with the family *Geodermatophilacea*e show a relatively marked genotypic and phenotypic diversity on exposed and arid rock-surfaces (Eppard *et al.*, 1996; Urzì, *et al.*, 2001;Essoussi *et al.*, 2010).

The ability of *Modestobacter* strains to survive under harsh conditions such as those outlined above, may be associated with their pleomorphic morphology, thick walls and ability to synthesise melanin-like pigments (Essoussi *et al.*, 2010). The observation that *Geodermatophilus* strains can be transported over long distances, and resist radiation and desiccation while in the high atmosphere (Chuvochina *et al.*, 2011), similarly may account for the isolation of the subclade 2 isolates from environmental samples collected as far apart as Chile and Spain. However, additional research is needed to build upon these pioneering studies, notably by establishing the ecological roles that *Modestobacter* strains play in harsh environments. Detailed annotation of the KNN45-2b genome, particularly of the stress response genes, followed by appropriate physiological studies should enable the chemical ecology of these and other members of the family *Geodermatophilaceae* recovered from the Atacama Desert to be defined.

Description of Modestobacter lapidis sp. nov.

Modestobacter lapidis sp. nov. (la.pi'dis). L. gen. n. lapidis of a stone.

Aerobic, Gram-positive, motile, non-spore forming actinobacterium which forms short rods and cocci (1.5-2.8 x 1.7-3.0 μ m). Grows well on ISP medium 2 producing black mucoid colonies. Grows from 20 to 37°C, optimum temperature is 28°C, from pH 6-9 and in the presence of 8% NaCl (w/v). Additional phenotypic test results are cited in the text and in Tables 5.3 and 5.4. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus.

The type strain MON 3.1^{T} (= DSM....., = NCIMB....., = NRRL.....) was isolated from a deteriorated sandstone historic building in Salamanaca, Spain. The description is based on a single strain and hence serves as the description of the type strain. The GenBank accession number for the 16S rRNA gene sequence of strain MON 3.1^{T} is

Description of Modestobacter muralis sp. nov.

Modestobacter muralis sp. nov. (mu.ra'lis. L. adj. muralis pertaining or belonging to walls.

Aerobic, Gram-positive, non-spore forming actinobacterium that forms slightly curved, short rods (0.5-1.2 x 1.0-3.0 μ m). Grows well on ISP medium 2 producing flat, black mucoid, colonies. Grows from 20 to 37°C, optimal temperature is 28°C, from pH 6-9

and in the presence of 8%, w/v NaCl. Additional phenotypic test results are cited in the text and in Tables 5.3 and 5.4. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus.

The type strain MDVD 1^{T} (= DSM....., = NCIMB....., = NRRL.....) was isolated from deteriorated sandstone from a historic building in Salamanaca, Spain. The description is based on a single strain and hence serves as a description of the type strain. The GenBank accession number for the 16S rRNA gene sequence of strain MDVD 1^{T} is

Acknowledgements

The fatty acid data and the 16S rRNA gene sequence data on isolates MDVD1, MDVD4, CAT N4, CMB2, MON1.1 and MON3.1 were provided by Professor Martha Trujillo (University of Salamanca, Spain). The full genome sequence data on isolate KNN45-2b was generated by Dr. Geneviève Girard and Professor Gilles van Wezel (Institute of Biology, University of Leiden, Leiden, The Netherlands).

Chapter 6. Polyphasic Studies on Presumptive *Streptomyces* Strains isolated from Hyper-arid and Extreme Hyper-arid Atacama Desert Soils

6.1. Abstract

Twenty-five presumptive novel streptomycetes isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils were the subject of polyphasic studies designed to establish their taxonomic status. All of the isolates were found to exhibit chemotaxonomic, cultural and morphological properties consistent with their classification in the genus Streptomyces. Five of the isolates formed a well supported subclade in the Streptomyces 16S rRNA gene tree together with the type strain of Streptomyces fimbriatus. Three of these isolates were considered to be membere of this species based on genotypic and phenotypic criteria; an emended description of S. fimbriatus is given. Seven of the isolates formed a well delineated subclade in the Streptomyces pseudogriseolus 16S rRNA gene subclade, but further studies are needed to establish whether they merit species status. The remaining strains, including isolate C34, formed a distinct subclade in the Streptomyces 16S rRNA gene tree and shared a wealth of phenotypic features. Multilocus sequence analyses (MLSA) based on five house-keeping gene alleles underpinned the separation of isolate $C34^{T}$ and related strains from all of their nearest neighbours, apart from the type strains of Streptomyces chiangmaiensis and Streptomyces hyderabadensis which are not currently in the MLSA database. Strain $C34^{T}$ and the other members of the subclade were distinguished readily from the S. chiangmaiensis and S. hyderabadensis strains using a combination of cultural and morphological data. Consequently, strain C34^T and the other fourteen members of the well-delineated 16S rRNA subclade are considered to form a new species of the genus Streptomyces for which the name Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii sp. nov. is proposed. The type strain is $C34^{T}$ (=DSM 42122^{T} = NRRL B-24963^T). Analysis of the whole-genome sequence of *S. leeuwenhoekii* C34^T, with 6,780 predicted open reading frames and total genome size of around 7.86 Mb, revealed a high potential for natural product biosynthesis.

6.2. Introduction

A major attraction of strains assigned to the genus *Streptomyces* is their unique capacity to synthesise new specialised metabolites, notably antibiotics, that can be developed as resources for healthcare (Hopwood, 2007; Bérdy, 2012). Streptomycetes account for about 40% of all known natural products and have genomes that typically contain over twenty biosynthetic gene clusters that encode for known or predicted specialised metabolites (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010; Becerril-Espinosa *et al.*, 2013). It is, however, difficult to find new chemical entities from know *Streptomyces* species as screening them tends to lead to the costly rediscovery of known bioactive compounds (Busti *et al.*, 2006; Williams, 2008) Consequently, innovative strategies are needed to selectively isolate, dereplicate and identify new *Streptomyces* species for pharmaceutical screening programmes, as illustrated by the taxonomic approach to drug discovery recommended by Goodfellow and Fiedler (2010).

The taxonomic approach to drug discovery has been shown to be particularly effective in the isolation of novel streptomycetes from extreme habitats, as exemplified by the discovery of caboxamycin, a new bensoxazole antibiotic from extracts of a *Streptomyces* strain isolated from an Atlantic Ocean deep sea sediment (Hohmann *et al.*, 2009) and warkmycin, a novel angucycline antibiotic, produced by a *Streptomyces* strain isolated from an embryonic sand dune (Helaly *et al.*, 2013). This strategy has recently been applied in studies of actinobacterial communities in Atacama Desert soils in Northern Chile (Bull & Asenjo, 2013). This, the oldest and driest desert on the planet has evolved over several million years of aridity and hyper-aridity (Gomez-Silva *et al.*, 2008).

Despite, the extreme conditions of the Atacama Desert, phylogenetically novel actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, have been isolated from soils taken from hyperarid extreme hyper-arid regions of the desert (Okoro *et al.*, 2009; Bull & Asenjo, 2013). Three of the putatively novel streptomycetes have been validly named as *Streptomyces atacamensis, Streptomyces bullii* and *Streptomyces deserti* (Santhanam *et al.*, 2012a, b, 2013). In addition, *Streptomyces* isolates C34, C58 and C79, representatives of a large, well delineated 16S rRNA gene subclade (Okoro *et al.*, 2009) are the source of novel antibiotics, namely the chaxalactins and chaxamycins from the former (Rateb *et al.*, 2011a, b), four new specialised metabolites from the latter (Fiedler *et al.*, unpublished) and a novel lasso peptide from isolate C58 (Jaspars *et al.*, unpublished). Another putatively novel *Streptomyces* strain from high altitude Atacama Desert soil produces novel aminobenzoquinones, the abenquines, which show inhibitory activity against bacteria and dermatophilic fungi (Schulz *et al.*, 2011).

The primary aim of the present study was to establish the taxonomic status of isolates C34, C58 and C79 and additional putatively novel *Streptomyces*, strains isolated from extreme hyper-arid and hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils using a polyphasic approach. Most of the isolates, including strains C34, C58 and C79, were shown to form a new centre of taxonomic variation in the genus *Streptomyces*, this taxon was designated *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* with isolate C34 as the type strain. The remaining isolates formed a putatively novel *Streptomyces* species or belonged to, or were closely related, to *Streptomyces fimbriatus*.

6.3. Materials and Methods

6. 3. 1. Selective isolation, maintenance and cultural conditions

All but two of the 28 putatively novel *Streptomyces* strains, including isolates C34, C38, C58 and C79, were recovered from a hyper-arid soil collected from the Chaxa de Laguna, Salar de Atacama of the Atacama Desert (23° 170/S, 68° 100N), near Tacanao. The fresh strains were taken from a range of selective isolation media (Table 6.1) following inoculation with a 10^{-1} soil suspension that had been held at 55°C for 6 minutes, as described by Okoro et al. (2009). Similarly, the two remaining isolates, strains KNN13a and KNN42f, were isolated from an extreme hyper-arid soil sample taken from Yungay region of the Atacama Desert (24° 06' 18.6"S, 70°01'55.6"W) on Gause's No.1 agar (Gause et al., 1957) and Microlunatus agar (Nakamura et al., 1995), respectively. All of the strains were maintained on modified Bennett's agar slopes (Jones, 1949) and as suspensions of hyphal fragments and spores in 20% glycerol (v/v) at -80°C. Biomass for the molecular systematic and most of the chemotaxonomic studies was scapped from 14 day-old modified Bennett's agar plates incubated at 28°C and washed twice in distilled water; biomass for most of the chemotaxonomic analyses was freeze-dried and that for the molecular systematic studies stored at -20°C. Cells for the fatty acid analyses were harvested from yeat extract-malt extract broth (International *Streptomyces* Project [ISP] medium 2; Shirling & Gottlieb (1966) after 3 days at 25°C.

Media	Selective agents (µg ml ⁻¹)	Target organism(s)	Selected isolates
Gause's No.1 agar (Gause <i>et al.</i> 1957; Zakharova <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	Nalidixic acid (10)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria	KNN2-6a, KNN6-9a, KNN6-11a, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN13a,
<i>Geodermatophilus obscurus</i> agar (Uchida &Seino, 1997)	Nystatin (25)	Geodermatophilus spp.	KNN42f
Glucose-yeast extract agar (Athalye <i>et al.</i> , 1981)	Rifampicin (20)	Actinomadura spp.	
HV agar (Hayakawa & Nonomura , 1987)	Humic acid (1g L ⁻¹)	Streptosporangiaceae spp.	KNN6-6b, KNN24-1b, KNN26b, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN38-1b, KNN64-5b
Luedemann's agar (Luedemann, 1971)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.	
<i>Microlunatus</i> agar (Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.	
Minimal medium agar (Johnson <i>et al.</i> , 1981)	Nystatin (25)	Rare or uncommon actinobacteria	KNN48-6d
Oligotrophic agar (Senechkin et al., 2010)	Low carbon and nitrogen content	Rare and uncommon actinobacteria	
R2A (Reasoner & Geldreich, 1985)	Nystatin (25)	Modestobacter spp.	
Starch-casein agar (Küster &Williams, 1964)	Nystatin (25)	Streptomyces spp.	
SM1 (Tan et al., 2006)	Neomycin (1) and nystatin (25)	Amycolatopsis spp.	KNN48-3e, KNN83e

Table 6.1. Media used for the selective isolation of actinobacteria from Atacama

 Desert environmental samples.

All of the media were supplemented with cycloheximide (25 μ g ml⁻¹).

6.3.2. Chemotaxonomy and morphology

All of the isolates were examined for the presence of isomers of diaminopimelic acid (A₂pm) following the procedure described by Hasegawa *et al.* (1983). Strains KNN24-1b, KNN26b, KNN35-2b and KNN48-1c were also examined for diagnostic

menaquinones and whole organism sugars using standard procedures (Hasegawas *et al.*, 1983; Collins *et al.*, 1985). Cellular fatty acids extracted from isolates C34^T, C38, C58, C59 and C79 were methylated and analysed by gas chromatography (Hewlett Packard model 6890) following the recommended procedure of the Sherlock Microbial Identification System (MIDI, Sasser 1990). The resultant fatty acid methyl esters were identified and quantified using the MIDI ACTINO1 database (version 6.10).

The micromorphology of all of the isolates were observed on oatmeal agar plates (ISP medium 3; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after 14 days at 28°C, using the coverslip technique described by Kawato and Shinobu (1959). Spore chain morphology and spore surface ornamentation of isolates C34, C38, C59 and KNN35-2b were detected by examining gold coated, dehydrated specimens taken from the oatmeal agar plates , using an electron microscope (Cambridge Stereoscan 240 instrument) and the procedure described by O'Donnell *et al.* (1993). Cultural characteristics of all of the isolates were determined using ISP media (Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966) after incubation at 28°C for 14 days.

6.3.3. Phylogenetic analyses

Genomic DNA was extracted from biomass of all the isolates and PCR-mediated amplification of 16S rRNA purified gene products realised, as described by Kim and Goodfellow (2002). The resultant almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences were submitted to the EzTAXON server (http://eztaxon-e.ezbiocloud.net/; Kim et al. (2012) and aligned with corresponding 16S rRNA gene sequences of the type strains of the most closely related Streptomyces species using CLUSTAL W version 1.8 software (Thompson et al., 1994). Phylogenetic trees were generated from each set of aligned sequences using the maximum-likelihood (Felsenstein 1981), maximum-parsimony (Fitch 1971) and neighbour-joining algorithms (Saitou & Nei, 1987) drawn from the MEGA 5 and PHYML software packages (Guindon & Gascuel, 2003; Tamura et al., 2011); evolutionary distance matrices for the neighbour-joining analyses were prepared using the Jukes and Cantor (1969) model. The topology of the inferred evolutionary trees were evaluated by bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985) based on 1000 resamplings of the neighbour-joining dataset using MEGA 5 software. The root positions of the unrooted trees were estaminted using the sequence of *Streptomyces* albus subspecies albus DSM 40313^T (GenBank accession number AJ 621602) as the out group.

189

6.3.4. Phenotypic tests

All of isolates assigned to the *S. fimbriatus* and *S. leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene trees (Figures 6.1 and 6.2) were examined for an extensive range of biochemical, degradative and physiological properties of value in streptomycete systematics (Kämpfer, 2012). The enzyme profiles of the strains were determined using API ZYM strips (BioMerieux) and their ability to use a broad range of carbon sources determined using Biolog GEN III Microplates, in each case following the manufacturer's instructions; a standard inoculum equivalent to 5.0 on the McFarland scale (Murray *et al.*, 1999) was used to inoculate both the microplates and the API ZYM strips. All of the tests were carried out in duplicate.

6. 3. 5. Generation of whole-genome sequence of isolate C34^T and genome analysis

Isolate C34^T was grown on TSBS-YEME (1:1, v/v) with 5 mM MgCl₂ and 0.5% glycine at 30°C for 48 hours. Cells were resuspended in 10 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA and incubated with lyzozyme at 37°C for 1 to 30 minutes until they were lysed. Sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.5% final concentration) and proteinase K (40 μ g) were added and the cell extract incubated at 50°C for 6 hours when a standard phenol/chloroform extraction was performed on the lysate. The extract was adjusted to 0.3 M NaOAC (pH 5.5) and DNA was spooled with a glass rod upon addition of 2 volumes of 96% ethanol. After washing and drying, the DNA was dissolved in TE buffer. DNA quality was verified by Sall digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis.

Illumina/Solexa sequencing on Genome Analyzer IIx was outsourced (ServiceSX, Leiden, The Netherlands) and 100-nt paired-end-reads were obtained. The quality of the short reads verified using FastQC was (http://www.bioinformatics.bbsrc.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), and depending on the quality, reads were trimmed at both ends. Processed raw reads were then used as input for the Velvet assembly algorithm (Zerbino & Birney, 2008). The genome was annotated using the RAST server (Aziz et al., 2008) with default options. Predictions of gene clusters for natural products were performed using antiSMASH (Medema et al., 2011). The genome sequence has been deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under the accession number AZSD000000.

6. 3. 6. Multilocus Sequence Analysis

Multilocus sequence analysis was based on previously described methods (Guo et al., 2008; Rong et al., 2009; Labeda, 201; Rong & Huang, 2010, 2012). Genomic DNA was extracted isolates C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 and from the strains listed in Table 6.2 using UltraClean® microbial DNA isolation kits (MoBio Labs, Carlsbad, CA) following the instructions of the manufacturer. Partial sequences of the house-keeping genes *atpD* (ATP synthase F1, β subunit), gyrB (DNA gyrase β subunit) and rpoB (RNA polymerase β subunit) were amplified and sequenced using the primers and protocols described previously (Guo et al., 2008; Rong et al., 2009), as well as modified primers designed to optimise amplification and sequencing of the house-keeping genes recA (recombinase A) and *trpB* (tryptophan synthetase, β subunit) for a broader range of Streptomyces species (Labeda et al., 2014). Amplified products were purified using ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA) and sequenced using BigDye 3.1 on an ABI model 3730 sequencer in the NCAUR core sequencing facility. Sequence data for the five house-keeping loci for each strain were deposited in Genbank with the accession numbers shown in Table 6.2. House-keeping gene sequences for species of the genus Streptomyces were organized using Bacterial Isolate Genomic Sequence Database (BIGSdb) version 1.6.3 (Jolley & Maiden, 2010) on the ARS Microbial Genomic Sequence Database server at <u>http://199.133.98.43</u>. The alleles of the house-keeping loci for strain C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 were found within the draft genome using the genome sequence scan function in BIGSdb. The alleles were tagged within the genome sequence and added to the sequence database. The sequences of the loci for each strain were concatenated head to tail and exported in FASTA format, providing a dataset of 152 strains and 2575 positions. Sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) and phylogenetic relationships constructed in MEGA 5.2 (Tamura et al., 2011) using maximum-likelihood based on the General Time Reversible model (Nei & Kumar, 2000), determined to be the optimal model for these data using imodeltest2 (Darriba et al., 2012; Guindon & Gascuel, 2003). The phylogenetic relationships of the strains were also determined using maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining analyses. MLSA evolutionary distances were determined using MEGA 5.2 to calculate the Kimura 2parameter distance (Kimura, 1980).

Species	Strain	atpD	gyrB	recA	гроВ	<i>trpB</i>
S. leeuwenhoekii	NRRL $B-24963^{T}$ (= DSM 42122 ^T)	KJ137029	KJ137046	KJ137063	KJ137080	KJ137097
S. chryseus	NRRL B-12347 ^T	KJ137020	KJ137037	KJ137054	KJ137071	KJ137088
S. daghestanicus	NRRL B-5418 ^T	KJ137021	KJ137038	KJ137055	KJ137072	KJ137089
S. fimbriatus	NRRL B-3175 ^T	KJ137022	KJ137039	KJ137056	KJ137073	KJ137090
S. fumanus	NRRL B-3898 ^T	KJ137023	KJ137040	KJ137057	KJ137074	KJ137091
S. fumigatiscleroticus	NRRL B-3856 ^T	KJ137024	KJ137041	KJ137058	KJ137075	KJ137092
S. ghanaensis	NRRL B-12104 ^T	KJ137025	KJ137042	KJ137060	KJ137076	KJ137093
S. glaucus	NRRL B-16368 ^T	KJ137026	KJ137043	KJ137059	KJ137077	KJ137094
S. griseomycini	NRRL B-5421 ^T	KJ137027	KJ137044	KJ137061	KJ137078	KJ137095
S. hirsutus	NRRL B-2713 ^T	KJ137028	KJ137045	KJ137062	KJ137079	KJ137096
S. lusitanus	NRRL B-5637 ^T	KJ196366	KJ196368	KJ196370	KJ196372	KJ196374
S. mexicanus	NRRL B-24196 ^T	KJ137030	KJ137047	KJ137064	KJ137081	KJ137098
S. parvulus	NRRL B-1628 ^T	KJ196367	KJ196369	KJ196371	KJ196373	KJ196374
S. recifensis	NRRL B-3811 ^T	KJ137031	KJ137048	KJ137065	KJ137082	KJ137099
S. seoulensis	NRRL B-24310 ^T	KJ137032	KJ137049	KJ137066	KJ137083	KJ137100
S. thermocoprophilus	NRRL B-24314 ^T	KJ137033	KJ137050	KJ137067	KJ137084	KJ137101
S. thermodiastaticus	NRRL B-5316 ^T	KJ137034	KJ137051	KJ137068	KJ137085	KJ137102
S. thermovulgaris	NRRL B-12375 ^T	KJ137035	KJ137052	KJ137069	KJ137086	KJ137103
S. thermovulgaris	NRRL B-12375 ^T	KJ137036	KJ137053	KJ137070	KJ137087	KJ137104

Table 6.2. *Streptomyces* strains house-keeping gene sequences deposited for the present study.

6.4. Results

All of the strains isolated from the hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils produced an extensively branched mycelium which carried aerial hyphae that differentiated into chains of spores, and produced whole-organism hydrolysates rich in *LL*-A₂pm, glucose and xylose and contained octahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units as the predominant isoprenologue. Representative strains, isolates C34^T, C38, C58, C59 and C79 contained major amounts of saturated, *iso-* and *anteiso-*fatty acids (Table 6.3). In addition, all of the isolates assigned to *S. leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA subclade grew well on the ISP media producing a variety of pigments responsible for the colour of the substrate and aerial mycelial; none of the isolates formed melanin pigments on peptone-yeast extract-iron agar (Tables 6.7, 6.10 and 6.13). All of these properties are consistent with the classification of the isolates in the genus *Streptomyces* (Kämpfer, 2012).

Fotty agid		S. leeuv	venhoekii		S. fimbriatus
Tatty actu	C34 ^T	C38	C58	C79	C59
<i>iso</i> - C _{11:0}	-	0.1	-	-	-
C _{12:0}	0.2	-	-	-	0.5
<i>iso</i> - C _{12:0}	-	0.2	0.1	0.2	-
<i>iso</i> - C _{13:0}	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.29
<i>anteiso</i> - C _{13:0}	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.23
C _{13:0}	-	-	-	0.1	-
C _{13:0} 2OH	-	-	-	-	0.26
<i>iso</i> - C _{14:0}	4.3	5.6	4.1	4.0	2.09
C _{14:0}	1.1	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.45
<i>iso</i> - C _{15:0}	5.5	7.4	8.0	7.5	6.83
anteiso- C _{15:0}	29.2	30.0	25.9	30.4	10.07
C _{15:0} 20H	0.2	-	-	0.2	-
<i>iso</i> -C _{15:1} H/13:0 3OH	-	-	-	-	0.31
<i>iso</i> - C _{16:1} H	0.4	2.0	2.4	0.6	6.32
<i>iso</i> - C _{16:0}	12.5	24.9	21.0	15.4	18.33
C _{16:0}	19.1	4.1	5.4	10.4	5.47
anteiso- $C_{17:1} \omega 9c$	1.1	1.3	3.7	1.4	5.4
<i>iso</i> - C _{17:0}	4.4	5.3	5.0	6.0	7.41
anteiso- C _{17:0}	13.8	15.1	14.5	14.5	12.05
$C_{17:1} \omega 8c$	0.2	-	0.5	0.3	1.62
<i>cyclo</i> - C _{17:0}	-	0.5	0.6	0.3	1.11
C _{17:0}	3.5	0.6	0.9	2.2	1.55
C _{17:0} OH	-	-	0.1	-	-
C _{17:0} 10-methyl	-	-	0.4	-	0.91
<i>iso</i> - C _{18:0}	0.5	0.6	-	0.5	0.64
C _{18:0}	0.9	0.2	-	0.8	2.39
$C_{18:1} \omega 7c$	-	-	-	-	0.5
$C_{18:1} \omega 9c$	-	-	0.9	0.5	0.92
<i>iso</i> - C _{18:1} H	-	-	0.9	0.5	1.24
Summed features:					
$C_{16:1}\omega 7c\;/\;C_{16:1}\omega 6c$	1.5	0.6	1.5	1.1	4.19
iso-C _{17:1} ω 9c/10-methyl C _{16:0}	1.0	0.7	4.0	1.6	0.5
$C_{16:0}$ / <i>iso</i> - $C_{17:1}$ ω 9c	-	-	0.1	0.4	7.92

Table 6.3. Fatty acid profile (%) of representatives of the *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii*and *Streptomyces fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene subclade.

$C_{18:1} \omega 7c / C_{18:1} \omega 6c$	-	-	0.1	1.6	-

Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii **16S rRNA gene subclade.** Fifteen of the isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil, including isolate C34^T, formed a well delineated subclade in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree, a taxon that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by an 82% bootstrap value. The isolates shared 16S rRNA gene sequence similarities within the range 99.5-99.9%, values corresponding to between 2 to 6 nt differences at between 1313-1372 sites (Table 6.4). These isolates were most closely related to *Streptomyces mexicanus* CH-M-1035^T sharing 16S rRNA gene similarities within the range 98.7-99.0%, values equivalent to 14-17 nt differences at between 1308-1367 sites. The isolates were also closely related to the type strains of *Streptomyces althioticus* (98.7-98.9%, 15-20 nt differences), *Streptomyces chiangmaiensis* (98.5-98.9%, 15-20 nt differences), *Streptomyces lusitanus* (98.7-99.0%, 13-18 nt differences), *Streptomyces parvulus* (98.6-99.0%, 14-19 nt differences) and *Streptomyces speibonae* (98.6-99.0%, 14-18 nt differences).



Figure 6.1. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences (1313-1372) showing relationships between *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* C34^T, and related strains isolated from hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also found using the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms. Numbers at the nodes are percentage bootstrap values based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1,000 sampled datasets, only values above 50% are given. The root position of the tree was determined using *Streptomyces albus* subsp. *albus* DSM 40313^T. Bar, 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

The phylogenetic relationships of isolates C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 to one another and to other *Streptomyces* species based on an analysis of the sequence alignments resulting from concatenation of the house-keeping genes head to tail is shown in Figure 6.2 and in the expanded version of this tree (Figure S1a-1c). It is apparent that isolates C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 gave identical results but were not phylogenetically closely rrelated to any Streptomyces type strains for which sequences of the house-keeping loci are available, but appear to be most closely related to Streptomyces thermocoprophilus NRRL B-24314^T based on the present analysis. This relationship is not supported by significant bootstrap values nor by the stability of the relationship when different phylogenetic algorithms are used, as in the maximumparsimony and neighbour-joining analyses. MLSA evolutionary distances were determined using MEGA 5.2 to calculate Kimura 2-parameter distances (Kimura, 1980), as shown in Table 6.5. Isolates C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 were found to have an MLSA distance greater than 0.007 with all of the phylogenetically near species therby supporting the proposal that these strains represent a new species since the cut-off point empirically determined by Rong and Huang (2012) stated that this distance corresponds to 70% DNA:DNA relatedness.

Table6.4.	Nucleotide	similarities	s (%) and	differences	based o	on almost	complete	16S	rRNA	gene	sequences	showing	relationships	between
Streptomyce	es leeuwenhoe	<i>ekii</i> C34 ^T an	nd related s	strain isolated	d from th	e hyper-ai	rid Salr de	Ataca	ama soi	l and l	between the	em and the	e type strains	of closely

related Streptomyces species.

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Isolate C38		1/1362	1/1370	1/1362	4/1365	1/1331	3/1334	0/1324	0/1353	3/1330	0/1313	2/1372	1/1362
2. Isolate C58	99.9		0/1362	1/1352	4/1355	1/1321	4/1325	0/1314	0/1343	3/1320	0/1303	3/1362	1/1352
3. Isolate C79	99.9	100.0		1/1360	4/1363	1/1329	3/1332	0/1322	0/1351	3/1328	0/1311	3/1370	1/1360
4. Isolate KNN1-5a	99.9	99.9	99.9		2/1362	2/1331	4/1334	1/1324	1/1353	2/1330	1/1313	1/1362	0/1362
5. Isolate KNN2-6a	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.9		2/1331	4/1334	1/1324	1/1353	4/1330	1/1313	3/1365	2/1362
6. Isolate KNN6-6b	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9		4/1331	1/1324	1/1331	4/1330	1/1313	1/1331	2/1331
7. Isolate KNN6-9a	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.7	99.7	99. 7		3/1324	3/1334	6/1330	3/1313	3/1334	4/1334
8. Isolate KNN10-4d	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8		0/1324	1/1324	0/1312	0/1324	1/1324
9. Isolate KNN10-5a	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0		3/1330	0/1313	0/1353	1/1353
10. Isolate KNN11-1a	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.7	99. 7	99.6	99.9	99.8		1/1313	3/1330	2/1330
11. Isolate KNN24-1b	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.9		0/1313	1/1313
12. Isolate KNN25c	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.8	100.0		1/1362
13. Isolate KNN41-1c	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.7	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	
14. Isolate KNN48-1c	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.9
15. S. leeuwenhoekii	99.7	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.6	99.8	99.6	99.7
16. S. mexicanus	98.9	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.7	98.9	99.0	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.9
17. S. hyderabadensis	98.4	98.5	98.5	98.4	98.2	98.3	98.2	98.4	98.5	98.2	98.4	98.3	98.4
18. S. parvulus	98.8	99.0	98.9	99.0	98.6	98.8	98.7	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.7	99.0
19. S. lusitanus	98.9	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.7	98.9	98.7	98.9	99.0	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.9
20. S. speibonae	98.8	99.0	98.9	98.8	98.6	98.8	98.7	98.9	98.9	98.7	98.9	98.7	98.8
21. S. chiangmaiensis	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7
22. S. coerulescens	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.8
23. S. althioticus	98.8	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.5	98.7	98.6	98.8	98.8	98.7	98.8	98.6	98.9
24. S. matensis	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.6	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.5	98.8
25. S. variabilis	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.8
26. S. albus subsp. albus	96.9	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.6	96.8	96.9	96.6	96.8	96.7	96.8

Type strain codes, as given in Figure 6.1.

Table 6.4. (2)	6.4. (ble	Tal
----------------	--------	-----	-----

Isolates	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. Isolate C38	0/1335	4/1372	15/1367	22/1370	16/1371	15/1371	16/1371	18/1369	18/1371	17/1364	18/1364	18/1371
2. Isolate C58	0/1325	2/1363	14/1357	20/1360	14/1361	13/1361	14/1361	15/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	17/1361
3. Isolate C79	0/1333	3/1370	14/1365	21/1368	15/1369	14/1369	15/1369	17/1367	17/1369	16/1362	17/1362	17/1369
4. Isolate KNN1-5a	1/1335	4/1362	15/1357	22/1360	14/1361	15/1361	16/1361	18/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	16/1361
5. Isolate KNN2-6a	1/1335	5/1365	16/1360	25/1363	19/1364	18/1364	19/1364	19/1362	21/1364	20/1357	21/1357	21/1364
6. Isolate KNN6-6b	1/1331	4/1331	15/1326	22/1329	16/1330	15/1330	16/1330	18/1330	18/1330	17/1323	18/1323	18/1330
7. Isolate KNN6-9a	3/1334	7/1335	17/1329	24/1332	18/1333	17/1333	18/1333	20/1333	20/1333	19/1326	20/1326	20/1333
8. Isolate KNN10-4d	0/1324	3/1324	14/1319	21/1322	15/1323	14/1323	15/1323	17/1323	17/1323	16/1316	17/1316	17/1323
9. Isolate KNN10-5a	0/1335	3/1353	14/1348	21/1351	15/1352	14/1352	15/1352	17/1351	17/1352	16/1345	17/1345	17/1352
10. Isolate KNN11-1a	3/1330	6/1330	17/1325	24/1328	16/1329	17/1329	18/1329	20/1329	18/1329	17/1322	18/1322	18/1329
11. Isolate KNN24-1b	0/1313	3/1313	14/1308	21/1311	15/1312	14/1312	15/1312	17/1312	17/1312	16/1305	17/1305	17/1312
12. Isolate KNN25c	0/1335	6/1372	17/1367	24/1370	18/1371	17/1371	18/1371	20/1369	20/1371	19/1364	20/1364	20/1371
13. Isolate KNN41-1c	1/1335	4/1362	15/1357	22/1360	14/1361	15/1361	16/1361	18/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	16/1361
14. Isolate KNN48-1c		3/1335	14/1330	21/1333	15/1334	14/1334	15/1334	17/1334	17/1334	16/1327	17/1327	17/1334
15. S. leeuwenhoekii	99.8		15/1367	23/1370	17/1371	16/1371	17/1371	16/1369	19/1371	18/1364	19/1364	20/1371
16. S. mexicanus	99.0	98.9		23/1365	19/1366	21/1366	18/1366	15/1364	19/1366	23/1359	24/1360	24/1366
17. S. hyderabadensis	98.4	98.3	98.3		15/1371	24/1371	25/1371	26/1368	24/1371	27/1364	27/1364	32/1371
18. S. parvulus	98.9	98.8	98.6	98.9		14/1372	19/1372	18/1369	12/1372	15/1365	16/1365	22/1372
19. S. lusitanus	99.0	98.8	98.5	98.3	99.0		14/1372	21/1369	8/1372	9/1365	9/1365	17/1372
20. S. speibonae	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.2	98.6	99.0		19/1369	15/1372	15/1365	16/1365	15/1372
21. S. chiangmaiensis	98.7	98.8	98.9	98.1	98.7	98.5	98.6		20/1369	22/1362	23/1362	26/1369
22. S. coerulescens	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.3	99.1	99.4	98.9	98.5		12/1365	12/1365	14/1372
23. S. althioticus	98.8	98.7	98.3	98.0	98.9	99.3	98.9	98.4	99.1		0/1364	4/1365
24. S. matensis	98.7	98.6	98.2	98.0	98.8	99.3	98.8	98.3	99.1	100.0		5/1365
25. S. variabilis	98.7	98.5	98.2	97.7	98.4	98.8	98.9	98.1	99.0	99.7	99.6	
26. S. albus subsp. albus	96.8	96.8	96.7	96.3	96.2	96.5	96.4	96.3	96.3	96.9	96.8	96.7

Type strain codes, as given in Figure 6.1.



Figure 6.2. Subtree from the phylogenetic tree inferred from concatenated partial sequences of the house-keeping genes *atpD*, *gyrB*, *recA*, *rpoB* and *trpB* in MEGA 5.2 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) using the maximum-likelihood method based on the General Time Reversible model (Nei & Kumar, 2000). There were 2575 positions and 152 strains in the final dataset. Trees were also inferred using the Tamura-Nei evolutionary distance method (Tamura & Nei, 1993) with the neighbour-joining algorithm of Saitou & Nei (1987), neighbour-joining and maximum parsimony models in MEGA 5.2, correspond with branches in all methods are marked with an asterisk. Percentages at the nodes represent levels of bootstrap support from 1000 re-sampled datasets (Felsenstein, 1985) with values less than 60% not shown. The proposed new species, *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* DSM 42122^T is indicated with a bold node label. Bar marker equals number of substitutions per site.

Table 6.5. MLSA distances for strains phylogenetically near to *S. leeuwenhoekii* $C34^{T}$ and related isolates (values in bold text). The distances between the isolates and the type strains are greater than 0.007 which was defined by Rong and Huang (2012) as equivalent to 70% genomic DNA similarity.

Strain				ML	SA (Kin	ura 2-p	arameter) Distan	ce			
S. albus NRRL B-1811 ^T	-											
S. thermocarboxydovorans	0.141											
NRRL B-24317 ^T												
S. thermocoprophilus	0.136	0.073										
NRRL B-24314 ^T												
S. thermodiastaticus	0.148	0.063	0.074									
NRRL B-5316 ^T												
S. thermogriseus	0.137	0.071	0.073	0.073								
NRRL B-24322 ^T												
S. thermovulgaris	0.138	0.075	0.075	0.069	0.020							
NRRL B-12375 ^T												
S. sclerotialus DSM	0.145	0.086	0.084	0.089	0.096	0.098						
43032 ^T												
S. globosus CGMCC	0.145	0.070	0.053	0.066	0.071	0.075	0.078					
4.0320^{T}												
S. roseodiastaticus	0.140	0.069	0.063	0.065	0.076	0.069	0.088	0.037				
CGMCC 4.1788 ^T												
S. alanosinicus	0.139	0.088	0.073	0.095	0.089	0.092	0.090	0.065	0.068			
NRRL B-3627 ^T												
S. leeuwenhoekii	0.146	0.062	0.054	0.073	0.076	0.082	0.071	0.061	0.069	0.070		
C34 ^T , C38, C58 and C79												
S. chryseus NRRL B-	0.141	0.066	0.078	0.032	0.077	0.072	0.086	0.076	0.070	0.095	0.076	
12347 ^T												
S. daghestanicus	0.129	0.063	0.060	0.068	0.078	0.080	0.081	0.063	0.065	0.074	0.053	0.071
NRRL B-5418 ¹												
S., fimbriatus NRRL B-	0.141	0.060	0.047	0.067	0.075	0.075	0.076	0.054	0.065	0.076	0.042	0.069
31751		0.050	0.0.001.0		0.00 -		0.000	0.045	0.050	0.000	0.044	
S. fumanus NRRL B-	0.134	0.072	0.069\8	0.070	0.087	0.088	0.080	0.065	0.072	0.080	0.061	0.078
3898	0.124	0.000	0.062	0.072	0.076	0.077	0.070	0.055	0.065	0.070	0.056	0.075
S. jumiganscieroncus	0.134	0.069	0.062	0.075	0.076	0.077	0.070	0.055	0.065	0.070	0.056	0.075
NKKL D-3630	0.142	0.062	0.065	0.072	0.090	0.000	0.077	0.050	0.070	0.075	0.060	0.079
S. gnanuensis NPPL B 12104^{T}	0.145	0.005	0.005	0.075	0.080	0.080	0.077	0.039	0.070	0.075	0.000	0.078
S alaucus NPPL B	0 1 3 8	0.062	0.060	0.066	0.076	0.070	0.082	0.064	0.054	0.083	0.055	0.067
16368 ^T	0.150	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.070	0.070	0.002	0.004	0.054	0.005	0.055	0.007
S griseomycini	0.144	0.056	0.055	0.064	0.075	0.077	0.069	0.058	0.063	0.074	0.041	0.071
NRRL B-5421 ^T	01111	0102.0	0.000	01001	01070	01077	01007	0102.0	01000	0.07.	01011	01071
S. hirsutus NRRL B-2713 ^{T}	0.152	0.072	0.069	0.083	0.084	0.085	0.076	0.072	0.072	0.085	0.064	0.082
S. lusitanus NRRL B-	0.135	0.070	0.069	0.081	0.083	0.087	0.069	0.068	0.077	0.147	0.065	0.084
5637 ^T												
S. mexicanus	0.147	0.065	0.068	0.042	0.077	0.074	0.083	0.059	0.055	0.086	0.066	0.060
NRRL B-24196 ^T												
S. parvulus NRRL B-1628 ^T	0.134	0.079	0.075	0.083	0.085	0.088	0.077	0.083	0.085	0.083	0.072	0.085
S. recifensis NRRL B-	0.146	0.078	0.066	0.073	0.083	0.087	0.085	0.058	0.066	0.087	0.073	0.080
3811 ^T												

S. seoulensis NRRL B-	0.146	0.078	0.064	0.073	0.083	0.086	0.082	0.061	0.068	0.087	0.069	0.079
24310 ^T												
S. daghestanicus	-											
NRRL B-5418 ^T												
S fimbriatus NRRL B-	0.058											
3175 ^T												
S. fumanus NRRL B-	0.034	0.058										
3898 ^T												
S. fumigatiscleroticus	0.058	0.044	0.055									
NRRL B-3856 ^T												
S. ghanaensis	0.052	0.040	0.052	0.053								
NRRL B-12104 ^T												
S. glaucus NRRL B-	0.060	0.047	0.064	0.061	0.060							
16368 ^T												
S. griseomycini	0.056	0.027	0.059	0.050	0.042	0.057						
NRRL B-5421 ^T												
S. hirsutus NRRL B-2713 ^T	0.060	0.051	0.062	0.063	0.052	0.068	0.053					
S. lusitanus NRRL B-	0.058	0.060	0.060	0.057	0.054	0.072	0.059	0.065				
5637 ^T												
S. mexicanus	0.067	0.058	0.070	0.064	0.066	0.064	0.061	0.076	0.071			
NRRL B-24196 ^T												
S. parvulus NRRL B-1628 ^{T}	0.054	0.066	0.061	0.070	0.064	0.066	0.066	0.063	0.060	0.079		
S. recifensis NRRL B-	0.069	0.067	0.070	0.066	0.075	0.073	0.069	0.070	0.066	0.071	0.070	
3811 ^T												
S. seoulensis NRRL B-	0.069	0.063	0.069	0.062	0.072	0.068	0.069	0.071	0.064	0.069	0.066	0.019
24310 ^T												

The distance between the isolates and all of the *Streptomyces* type strains is greater than 0.007 which was defined by Rong & Huang (2012) as equivalent to 70 % genomic DNA similarity.

Identical results were obtained between the duplicated cultures of each of the fifteen isolates for all of the phenotypic tests. The isolates were found to have many phenotypic properties in common, showing pronounced enzymatic activity and an ability to assimilate a broad range of carbon sources (Table 6.6). All of the isolates grew well on ISP media, notably on oatmeal and yeast extract-malt extract agar (Table 6.7). In general, they formed yellowish white substrate mycelia, an olivaceous gray green aerial spore mass and, when formed, yellowish diffusible pigments. The three representative strains, isolates C34^T, C58 and C79, produced spiral chains of smooth surfaced spores borne on aerial mycelia (Figure 6.3).

Table 6.6. Phenotypic properties of isolate $C34^{T}$ and other isolates assigned to *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene cluster.

Test type	Results							
All strains giving positive results								
API ZYM tests:	Acid phosphatase, N-acetyl- β -glucosamidase, alkaline phosphatase, α -							
	chymotrypsin, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), α -fucosidase, α -							

	galactosidase, β -glucosidase, lipase, leucine amylamidase, naphthol-AS-BI- phosphohydrolase, trypsin and valine amylamidase
Bio-chemical	NO ₃ reductase and urease
tests:	
Growth on	Acetoacetic acid, α -keto-butyric acid, Dextrin, D-fructose , D-fructose-6-
carbon sources:	PO ₄ , D-galacturonic acid , D-gluconic acid, α -D-glucose , α -keto-glutaric
	acid, D-mannose, pectine, quicnic acid, L-rhamnose and Tween 40
Growth at or in	pH5, pH6, pH10, 1% NaCl and 7% NaCl
the presence of:	
	All strains giving negative results
API ZYM tests:	β -galactosidase, β -glucuronidase, α -glucosidase and α -mannosidase
Bio-chemical	NO ₂ reductase and oxidase
tests:	
Growth on	N-acetyl-B-D-mannosamine, N-acetyl neuraminic acid, D-arabitol, L-
carbon sources:	arginine, γ -aminobutyric acid, β -hydroxy butyric acid, citric acid, D-
	fucose, L-fucose formic acid, D-galacturonic acid lactone, gelatin,
	glycyl-L-proline, glucoronamide, β-methyl-D-glucoside , D-glucose-6-
	PO4, glycerol, L-pyroglutamic acid, L-glutamic acid, inosine , myo-
	inositol , L-lactic acid, $\alpha\text{-}D\text{-}lactose$, D-maltose , D-malic acid , L-malic
	acid, D-mannitol, D-melibiose, mucic acid, p-hydroxyphenyl acetic acid,
	methyl pyruvate, D-raffinose, D-sorbitol, D-saccharic acid, D-salicin, D-
	serine, L-serine, D-stachyose, bromo-succinic acid, D-sucrose, D-trehalose
	and D-turanose
*Strains	growing variable results (see details in supplemented Table S1)
Growth on sole	Acetic acid, N-acetyl-β-D-mannosamine, N-acetyl-D-glucosamine, L-
carbon sources:	alanine, L-aspartic acid, α -hydroxy butyric acid, α -hydroxy butyric acid, D-
	cellobiose, D-galactose, formic acid, gentiobose, gelatin, D-gluconic acid,
	Glucoronamide, 3-methyl-glucose, L-histidine, D-lactic acid methyl ether,
	D-maltose and propionic acid

*The detailed results are given in Table S1.

Table 6.7. Growth and cultural characteristics of strains assigned to the *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene subclade on ISP media after incubation for 14 days at 28°C.

Media	Growth	Substrate mycelial colour	Aerial spore mass colour	Diffusible pigment
Glycerol-asparagine agar	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	None
(ISP 5)			green	
Inorganic salts-starch agar	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	Yellowish
(ISP 4)			green	
Oatmeal agar (ISP 3)	++++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	Yellowish
			green	
Peptone-yeast extract-iron	+++	Gray yellow	Olivaceous gray	Gray yellow
agar (ISP 6)			green	
Tryptone-yeast extract agar	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	None
(ISP 1)			green	
Tyrosine agar (ISP 7)	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	Yellowish
			green	
Yeast extract-malt extract	++++	Gray yellow	Gray yellowish	Pale yellow
agar (ISP 2)			green	

++++ abundant growth; +++ very good growth.

Figure 6.3. Scanning electron micrographs of representative streptomycetes grown on oatmeal agar after 14 days at 28°C. (A, B, C), *Streptomyces* isolates C34^T, C58 and KNN35-2b showing smooth ornamented spores in spiral spore chains, (D) isolate C59 showing spiral chains of hairy ornamented spores. Scale bars : 1µm.



Full genome sequencing of strain $C34^{T}$ (GenBank accession number AZSD0000000) using Illumina led to an assembly of 658 contigs for a total genome size of 7.86 Mb, predicted to encode 77 RNAs and 6,780 proteins. The functions of the genes were catalogued into different functional classes (Figure 6.4). The relative distribution of the different classes is similar to that of the model strains *S. coelicolor* A3(2) (Bentley *et al.*, 2002) and "*S. lividans* 66" (Cruz-Morales *et al.*, 2013). RAST is a widely used annotation tool that allows good initial prediction of gene functions. However, for a more detailed prediction regarding the specific functions of secondary metabolism-related genes, a dedicated algorithm is required such as antiSMASH (Medema *et al.*, 2011). In particular, the AHBA gene linked to chaxamycin synthesis in strain C34^T (Rateb *et al.*, 2011a) was found by BLAST search among several polyketide synthase (PKS) type 1 genes in a cluster of genes with similarity to genes of the

rifamycin biosynthetic pathway (sequence 0641). However, many more PKS gene clusters were identified by antiSMASH (Table 6.8), including the genes that seem likely to be responsible for the biosynthesis of chaxamycin and chaxalactin.



Figure 6.4. Overview of *Streptomyces* isolate $C34^{T}$ subsystem gene functions as generated by analysis on the RAST server at (http://rast.nmpdr.org).

Contig	gene cluster type	compound with gene
		cluster of highest homology
c34_sequence_116	"t1pks-nrps"	
c34_sequence_124	"transatpks-nrps"	"leinamycin"
c34_sequence_141	"terpene"	"albaflavenone"
c34_sequence_142	"t1pks"	"oxazolomycin"
c34_sequence_143	"butyrolactone"	"lactonamycin"
c34_sequence_155	"t1pks"	
c34_sequence_17	"nrps"	"daptomycin"
c34_sequence_201	"amglyccycl"	"cetoniacytone A"
c34_sequence_23	"t1pks"	
c34_sequence_241	"t1pks"	
c34_sequence_246	"terpene"	
c34_sequence_326	"terpene"	
c34_sequence_347	"siderophore"	"geosmin"
c34_sequence_364	"other"	
c34_sequence_37	"t3pks"	
c34_sequence_368	"melanin"	"melanin"
c34_sequence_396	"other"	"melanin"
c34_sequence_418	"t1pks"	"macbecin"
c34_sequence_457	"t3pks"	
c34_sequence_541	"nrps"	
c34_sequence_542	"other"	"kirromycin"

Table 6.8. Predicted natural products gene clusters in strain C	C34 ^T	•
---	------------------	---

c34_sequence_552	"terpene"	
c34_sequence_60	"transatpks-t2pks"	"leinamycin"
c34_sequence_6	"t1pks-siderophore"	"geosmin"
c34_sequence_70	"ectoine"	
c34_sequence_640	"terpene"	
c34_sequence_642	"t1pks"	"rubradirin"
c34_sequence_78	"other"	
c34_sequence_7	"siderophore"	
c34_sequence_84	"siderophore"	"desferrioxamine"

Streptomyces fimbriatus 16S rRNA gene subclade. Five strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil, a single isolate from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil and S. fimbriatus NBRC 15411^T formed a subclade in the Streptomyces 16S rRNA gene tree, the taxonomic status of which was underpinned by all of the treemaking algorithms and by a 99% bootstrap value (Figure 6.5). Similarly, isolates C59, KNN13a, KNN26b and the S. *fimbriatus* strain formed a well supported branch in the S. fimbriatus 16S rRNA gene subclade; these strains shared identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene similarities (Table 6.9). Isolate C59 was also found to be closely related to the type strain of S. fimbriatus based upon the analyses of the sequence alignments resulting from the concatenation of house-keeping genes head to tail is shown in Figure 6.2. The two remaining isolates, strains KNN38-1b and KNN64-5b, formed a second branch in the S. fimbriatus 16S rRNA gene clade that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 99% bootstrap value. However, these isolates shared a relatively low 16S rRNA gene similarity, namely 98.2%, a value corresponding to 25 nt differences at 1352 locations. Indeed, isolate KNN64-5b was most closely related to isolate KNN26b; these strains shared a 16S rRNA gene similarity of 98.9%, a value equivalent to 15 nt differences at 1352 locations.

The strains assigned to the *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene subclade were most closely, albeit quite distinctly related to the type strain of *Streptomyces werraensis*, sharing 16S rRNA gene similarities with the latter within the range 97.0 to 98.9%, values that corresponded to between 15 and 40 nt differences at between 1352-1353 locations. It is also interesting that the type strains of *Streptomyce griseomycini* and *Streptomyces griseostramineus* were found to have identical 16S rRNA gene sequences; these strains formed a well delineated branch in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree (Figure 6.5).

All of the strains assigned to the *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene subclade grew well on the ISP media producing a range of aerial and substrate mycelial pigments and, when formed, yellowish diffusible pigments (Table 6.10). These organisms also had a

broad range of phenotypic properties in common with identical results recorded for each set of duplicated strains. All of the strains produced acid and alkaline phosphatases, Nacetyl-glucosamidase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), β -glucosidase and leucine arylamidase (API-ZYM tests), nitrate reductase and urease, and assimilated acetoacetic acid, citric acid, D-galacturonic acid and α -D-glucose, grew from pH 5.0-11.0 and in the presence of 1% NaCl (w/v) (Biolog GEN III Microplates). In contrast, none of strains produced α -chymotrypsin, α -fucosidase, β -glucoronidase, α -mannosidase or trypsin (API-ZYM tests), nitrate reductase or oxidase, nor did they assimilate dextrin, L-histidine, L-lactic acid, D-lactic acid methyl ether, N-acetyl-galactosamine, Lpyrogalacturonic acid, quinic acid, raffinose, D-salicin, D-serine, sodium bromide, sodium butyrate, sodium lactate or D-stachyose or grew in the presence of azetreonan, fusidic acid, guanidine hydrochloride, lincomycin, minocycline, niaproof 4, rifampicin SV, 4% NaCl (w/v), troleandomycin or vancomycin (Biolog GEN III Microplates).



Figure 6.5. Neighbour-joining tree based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from ⁺hyper-arid and *extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also found using the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms. ML indicates a branch of the tree that was supported by the maximum-likelihood tree-making method. Numbers at the nodes are percentage bootstrap values based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1,000 sampled datasets, only values above 50% are given. The root position of the tree was determined using *Streptomyces albus* subsp. *albus* DSM 40313^T. Bar, 0.002 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 6.9. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Isolate		1/	0/	34/	15/	0/	15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
C59		1356	1356	1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
2. Isolate			1/	35/	16/	1/	16/	17/	17/	19/	16/	36/
KNN13a	99.9		1356	1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
3. Isolate				34/	15/	0/	15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
KNN26b	100.0	99.9		1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
4. Isolate					25/	34/	40/	41/	41/	43/	46/	64/
KNN38-1b	97.5	97.4	97.5		1352	1353	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1347
5. Isolate						15/	30/	31/	31/	33/	30/	50/
KNN64-5b	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.2		1355	1351	1352	1352	1351	1351	1349
6. <i>S</i> .							15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
fimbriatus	100.0	99.9	100.0	97.5	98.9		1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
7. <i>S</i> .								19/	19/	11/	10/	41/
werraensis	98.9	98.8	98.9	97.0	97.8	98.9		1352	1352	1352	1352	1346
8. <i>S</i> .												
griseostrami									0/	14/	21/	37/
neus	98.8	98.7	98.8	97.0	97.7	98.8	98.6		1353	1352	1352	1347
9. <i>S</i> .										14/	21/	37/
griseomycini	98.8	98.7	98.8	97.0	97.7	98.8	98.6	100.0		1352	1352	1347
10. <i>S</i> .												
viridiviolace											15/	41/
us	98.7	98.6	98.7	96.8	97.6	98.7	99.2	99.0	99.0		1351	1346
11. <i>S</i> .												41/
caelestis	98.9	98.8	98.9	96.6	97.8	98.9	99.3	98.5	98.5	98.9		1346

Type strain codes, as given in Figure 6.5.

Identical results were also obtained between the duplicated set of strains in the balance of the phenotypic tests. *Streptomyces fimbriatus* NRRL B-3175^T and isolates C59, KNN13a and KNN26b have a phenotypic profile that readily distinguishes them from isolates KNN38-1b and KNN64-5b (Table 6.11). It is al so clear that the *S. fimbriatus* type strain and its closest phylogenetic neighbours together with isolate KNN38-1b metabolise a much broader rangeof sole carbon compounds than isolate KNN38-1b. Strain C59, a representative of the isolates found to be most closely related to the type strain of *S. fimbriatus*, produced hairy ornamented spores in tight spiral chains (Figure 6.3) and contained major amounts (>10%) of *anteiso*-C_{15:0}, *iso*-C_{16:0} and *antieso*-C_{17:0} (Table 6.3).

Table 6.10. Growth and cultural characteristics of strains assigned to the *Streptomyces fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene tree on ISP media after incubation for 14 days at 28°C.

Media	Growth	Substrate mycelium colour	Aerial spore mass colour	Diffusible pigment
Glycerol-asparagine agar (ISP 5)	+++	Dark gray	Dark gray	None
Inorganic salts-starch agar (ISP 4)	+++	Dark gray	Dark gray	Light yellowish brown
Oatmeal agar (ISP 3)	++++	Dark gray	Dark gray	Light yellowish

				brown
Peptone-yeast extract-iron	+++	Gray yellow	Olivaceous gray	Gray yellow
agar (ISP 6)			green	
Tryptone-yeast extract agar	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	None
(ISP 1)			green	
Tyrosine agar (ISP 7)	+++	Yellowish white	Olivaceous gray	Yellowish
			green	
Yeast extract-malt extract	++++	Dark gray	Dark gray	Light yellowish
agar (ISP 2)				brown

++++ abundant growth; +++ very good growth.

Table 6.11. Phenotypic tests that distinguish between members of the *Streptomycesfimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene subclade.

Tests	S. fimbriatus	Isolate KNN38-	Isolate KNN64-
	NRRL B-3175 ^T , C59,	1b	5b
	KNN13a and KNN26b		
API-ZYM tests:			
α-galactosidase	-	+	-
α-glucosidase	2+	+	+
Lypase (C14)	1+ (KNN26b)	+	-
Naphthol-AS-BI-	-	+	+
phosphohydrolase			
Valine arylamidase	-	+	+
	Biolog GEN III micropla	te test	
Growth on sole carbon			
sources:			
Acetic acid	+	+	-
ρ-hydroxyphenyl acetic acid	+	+	-
L-alanine	+	+	-
D-arabitol	+	+	-
L-arginine	+	+	-
γ-aminobutyric acid	+	+	-
L-aspartic acid	+	+	-
α -hydroxy butyric acid	+	+	-
β-hydroxy butyric acid	+	+	-
α-keto-butyric acid	+	+	-
D-cellobiose	+	+	-
Formic acid	-	+	-
D-fructose-6-PO ₄	+	+	-
D-fucose	-	+	+
L-fucose	+	+	-
D-fructose	+	+	-
D-galactose	-	+	+
D-galacturonic acid	+	+	-
D-galacturonic acid lactone	-	+	-
Gentiobose	+	+	-
Gelatin	+	+	-
Glycyl-L-proline	+	+	-
Glucoronamide	+	+	-
β-methyl-D-glucoside	+	+	-
D-glucose-6-PO ₄	2+	+	-
3-methyl-glucose	+	+	-
Glycerol	+	+	-

N-acetyl-D-glucosamine	+	+	-
α- <i>keto</i> -glutaric acid	-	+	-
L-glutamic acid	+	+	-
Inosine	+	+	-
Myo-inositol	+	+	-
α-D-lactose	+	+	-
D-maltose	+	+	-
D-malic acid	+	+	-
L-malic acid	1+ (KNN26b)	+	-
D-mannitol	+	+	-
D-mannose	+	+	-
N-acetyl-β-D-mannosamine	-	+	-
D-melibiose	-	+	-
Mucic acid	+	+	-
N-acetyl neuraminic acid	-	+	-
Pectine	+	+	-
Propionic acid	+	+	-
Methyl pyruvate	-	+	-
L-rhamnose	+	+	-
D-sorbitol	-	+	-
D-turanose	-	+	-
D-saccharic acid	2+	+	-
L-serine	2+	+	-
D-sucrose	-	+	-
Bromo-succinic acid	2+	+	-
D-trehalose	+	+	-
Tween 40	+	+	-
A .			

+, positive; - negative;; ²⁺, *S. fimbriatus* NRRL B-3175^T and isolate C59 positive

Streptomyces pseudogriseolus **16S rRNA gene subclade.** Seven strains isolated from either hyper-arid or extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils formed a distinct branch in the *Streptomyces pseudogriseolus* **16S** rRNA gene subclade, an association that was supported by all of the tree-making algorithms and by a 90% bootstrap value (Figure 6.6). The isolates exhibited identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene similarities (Table 6.12) and were most closely related to a second branch in the *S. pseudogriseolus* **16S** rRNA gene tree composed of the type strains of *Streptomyces capillispiralis*, *Streptomyces gancidicus* and *S. pseudogriseolus*, sharing **16S** rRNA gene similarities with the latter with in the range 99.4-99.6%, values that corresponded to between 5 and 7 nt differences at between 1369 and 1381 locations. In turn, the *S. capillispiralis*, *S. gancidicus* and *S. pseudogriseolus* strains were found to have identical or almost identical or almost identical or almost


Figure 6.6. Neighbour-joining tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from ⁺hyper-arid and *extreme hyper-arid and Atacama Desert soils and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species. Asterisks indicate branches of the tree that were also found using the maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony tree-making algorithms. Numbers at the nodes are percentage bootstrap values based on a neighbour-joining analysis of 1,000 sampled datasets, only values above 50% are given. The root position of the tree was determined using *Streptomyces albus* subsp. *albus* DSM 40313^T. Bar, 0.005 substitutions per nucleotide position.

Table 6.12. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Isolate		2/	1/	1/	0/	0/	0/	5/	5/	6/	7/	8/
KNN6-1a		1381	1381	1373	1370	1381	1381	1381	1380	1381	1381	1381
2. Isolate			1/	3/	2/	2/	2/	7/	7/	8/	9/	10/
KNN35-1b	99.9		1381	1373	1370	1381	1381	1381	1380	1381	1381	1381
3. Isolate				2/	1/	1/	1/	6/	6/	7/	8/	9/
KNN35-2b	99.9	99.9		1373	1370	1381	1381	1381	1380	1381	1381	1381
4. Isolate					1/	1/	1/	6/	6/	7/	8/	9/
KNN42f	99.9	99.8	99.9		1363	1373	1373	1373	1372	1373	1373	1373
5. Isolate						0/	0/	5/	5/	6/	7/	8/
KNN48-3e	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9		1370	1370	1370	1369	1370	1370	1370
6. Isolate							0/	5/	5/	6/	7/	8/
KNN48-6d	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0		1381	1381	1380	1381	1381	1381
7. Isolate								5/	5/	6/	7/	8/
KNN83e	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0		1381	1380	1381	1381	1381
8. <i>S</i> .	99.6	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6		0	1/	10/	9/

pseudogriseolus									/1381	1382	1381	1381
										1/	10/	9/
9. S. gancidicus	99.6	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	100.0		1381	1380	1380
10. S.											11/	8/
capillispiralis	99.6	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.9	99.9		1381	1381
11. S.												7/
carpinensis	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.3	99.2		1381
12. S. levis	99.4	99.3	99.4	99.3	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.5	

Type strain codes, as given in Figure 6.6.

All of the isolates grew well on the ISP media, especially on oatmeal and yeastextract malt-extract agar (Table 6.13). In general, the substrate mycelia were gray to yellowish white and the aerial spore mass grayish yellow or light orange yellow, as were the diffusible pigments when produced.

Table 6.13. Growth and cultural characteristics isolates forming a branch in the *Streptomyces pseudogriseolus* 16S rRNA gene tree on ISP media after incubation for 14 days at 28°C.

Media	Growth	Substrate mycelium colour	Aerial spore mass colour	Diffusible pigment
Glycerol-asparagine agar (ISP 5)	+++	Dark gray	Dark gray	None
Inorganic salts-starch agar (ISP 4)	+++	Yellowish white	Light orange yellow	Llight orange yellow
Oatmeal agar (ISP 3)	++++	Yellowish white	Light orange yellow	Llight orange yellow
Peptone-yeast extract-iron agar (ISP 6)	+++	Gray yellow	Olivaceous gray green	Gray yellow
Tryptone-yeast extract agar (ISP 1)	+++	Yellowish white	Light orange yellow	Llight orange yellow
Tyrosine agar (ISP 7)	+++	Yellowish white	Light orange yellow	Llight orange yellow
Yeast extract-malt extract agar (ISP 2)	++++	White	Dark orange yellow	Yellowish gray

++++ abundant growth; +++ very good growth.

6.5. Discussion

Although the natural product chemistry of Atacama Desert streptomycetes is still at a pioneering stage, it is encouraging that strains isolated from hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil and recovered in a taxonomically distinct subclade in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree by Okoro *et al.*, (2009) have been found to be a source of novel antibiotics (Bull & Asenjo, 2013). To date, it has been shown that four representatives

of this taxon produce novel specialised metabolites; *Streptomyces* isolate C34^T synthesise new bioactive ansamycin type polyketides, the chaxamycins, and rare 22membered macrolactone polyketides, the chaxalactins (Rateb *et al.*, 2011a, 2011b), *Streptomyces* isolate C38, antitumour macrolactones (Nachtigall *et al.*, 2011), *Streptomyces* isolate C58, a novel lasso peptide (Jaspars *et al.*, unpublished) and *Streptomyces* isolate C79, four new but uncharacterised, bioactive metabolites (Fiedler *et al.*, unpublished). It is important to establish the taxonomic provenance of such potentially useful streptomycetes as part of an integrated approach to exploitable microbiology and with this in mind to isolate additional representatives of such creative taxa.

In the present study additional strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were recovered in the well delineated 16S rRNA gene subclade recognised by Okoro et al. (2009), a result that suggests that members of this taxon are common in hyper-arid soils from this region of the Atacama Desert. Indeed, the distinctness of this taxon was underpinned by the results of the MLSA analysis based on concatenated sequences of five house-keeping genes as the MLST distances between C34^T, C38, C58 and C79 and their nearest phylogenetic neighbours was greater that the 0.007 cut-off point that is considered to be equivalent 70% DNA:DNA homology (Rong & Huang, 2012). In addition, all of the representatives of the 16S rRNA gene subclade shared many phenotypic features in common while representative strains were found to produce smooth surfaced spores in spiral chains. Some of these properties can be weighted to distinguish between members of the subclade and the type strains of closely related Streptomyces species, including Streptomyces chiangmaiensis JCM 16578^T and Streptomyces hyderabadensis CCTCC-A 209024^T that are not represented in the MLSA database. Members of the S. leeuwenhoekii 16S rRNA gene subclade, unlike the latter, produce diffusible pigments on inorganic salts-starch, oatmeal and tyrosine agars (Reddy et al., 2011; Promnuan et al., 2013). They can also be separated from the S. hyderabadensis strain by their ability to form spiral, as opposed to, straight chains of spores. Properties such as these have been considered to be of particular value in distinguishing between Streptomyces species (Labeda et al., 2012).

It can be concluded from this combination of genotypic and phenotypic data that the representatives of the *S. leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene subclade can be distinguished readily from phylogenetically related species that are validly named. It is, therefore proposed that members of the subclade be recognised as a new *Streptomyces* species, *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* sp. nov. It is clear from the whole genome sequence that type strain, isolate C34^T, contains a large number of gene clusters involved in natural product synthesis.

Streptomyces fimbriatus (Millard & Burr, 1926) Waksman and Lechevalier 1953 is an excellent example of a rare actinomycete as the species description is based on a single strain (Kämpfer, 2012). Millard and Burr's original single isolate, which is no longer extant, was obtained from a case of common potato scrab. The neotype strain, which forms a distinct branch in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree, produces septacidin, an antitumour and antifungal antibiotic (Dutcher *et al.*, 1964; van Saltza & Pansy, 1964). Given this pedigree, it is especially interesting that five strains isolated from the Atacama Desert soils formed well-delineated subclade in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree.

Three out of the five Atacama Desert strains assigned to the *S. fimbriatus* 16S rRNA gene clade not only had identical or almost identical 16S rRNA gene sequences to *S. fimbriatus* NBRC 15411^{T} but also shared many phenotypic properties with the latter and hence can be considered to be *bona fide* members of this species. One of these strains, isolate C59, clustered with the type strain of *S. fimbriatus* in the phylogenetic tree based on the concatenated gene sequences of the five house-keeping geness. In light, of these results, an emended description of *S. fimbriatus* is given here. The two remaining strains, isolates KNN38-1b and KNN64-5b may represent new *Streptomyces* species but further comparative studies are need to confirm their taxonomic status.

Further comparative studies are also needed to resolve the taxonomic status of the seven Atacama Desert strains that formed a well supported branch in the *Streptomyces pseudogriseolus* 16S rRNA gene subclade. Unscrambling the relationships between members of this taxon and the type strain of *Streptomyces capillispiralis* (Mertz & Higgens, 1982), *Streptomyces ganidicus* (Suzuki, 1957) and *Streptomyces pseudogriseolus* is compounded by the fact that these strains also need to be studied further as they have identical 16S rRNA gene sequences a point highlighted in this study but made earlier by Kämpfer (2012).

Description of Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii sp. nov.

Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii (le.e.u.wen'ho.e.ki.i. of Leeuwenhoek, named after Antonie van Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723), the father of microbiology).

Aerobic, Gram-positive, catalase-positive actinomycete which forms an extensively branched substrate mycelium that carries aerial hyphae which differentiate

into spiral chains of smooth surfaced spores (0.7-0.9 x 0.8-1.0 μ m) on oatmeal agar. Light yellowish brown diffusible pigments are formed on inorganic salts-starch, oatmeal, tyrosine and yeast extract-malt extract agars. Grows from 4 to 50°C, optimally ~ 30°C, from pH 6.0 to 11, optimally ~7.0, and in the presence of 10%, w/v sodium chloride. Additional phenotypic properties are cited in the text and in Tables 6.7 and 6.9. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus. Produces novel bioactive secondary metabolites, the chaxalactins and chaxamycins. The DNA G+C composition is 72.6 mol%.

The type strain $C34^{T}$ (=DSM 42122^T; NRRL B-24963^T) together with additional strains was isolated from a hyper-arid soil collected from the Chaxa de Laguna, of the Salar de Atacama of the Atacama Desert, near Tocanao, Chile. The species description is based on all of these strains. The GenBank accession number for the 16S rRNA gene sequence of the type strain is KF 733382.

Emended description of *Streptomyces fimbriatus* (Millard & Burr, 1936) Waksman 1953.

The species description is based on the present study and on the earlier work of Kämpfer (2012).

Aerobic, Gram-positive, catalase-positive actinomycetes which form an extremely branched substrate mycelium that bear aerial hyphae that differentiate into spiral chains of hairly ornamented spores (0.8-1.2 x 1.5-1.8 μ m) on oatmeal agar. Dark gray substrate and aerial mycelia are formed on oatmeal agar, as is a light yellowish brown diffusible pigment. Grow from 20-40°C, optimum temperature ~ 30°C, from pH 5-11 and in presences of 4% , w/v of NaCl. Additional phenotypic properties are cited in the text and in Tables 6.10 and 6.11. Chemotaxonomic properties are typical of the genus. Produces septacidin, an antitumour and antifungal purine antibiotic

The source of the type strains DSM 40942^{T} (=NBRC 15411^{T} = NRRL B- 3175^{T}) is not known. The additional of the species isolated from hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils.

Acknowledgements

Thanks are due to Dr. Geneviève Girard and Professor Gilles van Wezel (Institute of Biology, Leiden University, Leiden, The Netherlands) for the whole-genome sequence data, Dr. Byung-Yong Kim (Department of Agricultural Microbiology, Natural Academy of Agricultural Science, Suwon, Republic of Korea) for the fatty acid data and D.P. Labeda (National Center for Agriculture Utilization Research, Peoria, USA) for undertaking the MLSA analyses.

Supplemental Table. Phenotypic properties of *Streptomyces leeuenhoekii* C34^T and related strains (isolates C38, C58, C79, KNN1-5a, KNN2-6a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN10-4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN24-1b, KNN25c, KNN33a, KNN41-1c and KNN48-1c).

								Stra	ains							
Tests	KNN1-5a	KNN2-6a	KNN6-6b	KNN6-9a	KNN10-4d	KNN10-5a	KNN11-1a	KNN24-1b	KNN25c	KNN33a	KNN41-1c	KNN48-1c	$C34^{T}$	C38	C58	C79
Sole Carbon																
Acetic acid	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
N-acetyl-β-D-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
mannosamine																
N-acetyl-D-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
glucosamine																
L-alanine	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
L-aspartic acid	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
α-hydroxy	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
butyric acid																
D-cellobiose	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
D-galactose	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
Formic acid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gentiobose	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gelatin	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
D-gluconic acid	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Glucoronamide	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3-methyl-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
glucose																
L-histidine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
D-lactic acid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+
methyl ether																
D-maltose	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Propionic acid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-

Supplemental Figure1a-c Phylogenetic tree inferred from concatenated partial sequences of the house-keeping genes *atpD*, *gyrB*, *recA*, *rpoB* and *trpB* in MEGA 5.2 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) using the maximum-likelihood method based on the General Time Reversible model (Nei & Kumar 2000). There were 2575 positions and 152 strains in the final dataset. Trees were also inferred using the Tamura-Nei evolutionary distance method (1993) with the neighbour-joining algorithm of Saitou & Nei (1987) neighbour-joining and maximum-parsimony models in MEGA 5.2 and conserved branches in all methods are marked with an asterisk. Percentages at the nodes represent levels of bootstrap support from 1000 re-sampled datasets (Felsenstein 1985) with values less than 60% not shown. The proposed new species *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* DSM 42122^{T} is indicated with a bold node label. Bar marker equals number of substitutions per site.

Suppl. Fig 1a.



Suppl. Fig 1b.



Suppl. Fig 1c.



0.1

Chapter 7. General Discussion and Prospectives for Future Works

7.1. General discussion

The primary aims of the project were realiased as (a), a high quality library of taxonomically diverse filamentous actinobacteria with the capacity to synthesise a broad range of bioactive compounds isolated from two contrasting locations in the Atacama Desert, namely hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid soils collected from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay regions, respectively and (b), selected isolates of interest from bioprospecting and ecological perspectives were shown to belong to novel or presumptively novel actinobacterial species using polyphasic taxonomic precedures and 16S rRNA gene sequence data. These results provide further evidence that novel and rare actinobacteria can be isolated from arid Atacama Desert soils using a combination of selective isolation, dereplication and characterisation procedures.

The results of the present study confirm and extend those reported by Okoro and her colleagues in their pioneering studies on cultivable actinobacteria isolated hyperarid extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils (Okoro *et al.*, 2009, 2010). Once again, most isolates were assigned to new centres of taxonomic variation in the *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene tree. It was particularly interesting that additional isolates from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were recovered in the deep-rooted *Streptomyces* 16S rRNA gene subclade discovered by Okoro *et al.* (2009), especially since some members of this taxon now know to synthesise novel antibiotics, notably the atacamycins (Nachtigall *et al.*, 2011) and chaxalactins and chaxamycins (Rateb *et al.*, 2011a, 2011b; Bull & Asenjo, 2013). Indeed, it was conclusively shown from the results of a wideranging polyphasic study that members of this taxon merited recognition as a new species, *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* sp. nov. The whole-genome sequence of the type strain of this species was found to contain many polyketide synthase genes, including those that seem likely to be responsible for the biosynthesis of the chaxalactins and chaxamycins.

Other polyphasic studies on selected isolates yielded interesting results. Representative *Amycolatopsis* strains isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil were found to belong to two known, albeit rare species, namely *A. ruanii* and *A. thermalba*, taxa based on single strains isolated from Australian desert soils (Zucchi *et al.*, 2012b). In contrast, representative *Modestobacter* strains isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil were shown to belong to at least two novel species though additional comparative taxonomic studies are needed to confirm this. It was also interesting that the full genome sequence of a representative of one of these taxa, unlike the *S. leeuwenhoekii* type strain, contained few natural product gene clusters. These contrasting results suggest that Atacama Desert actinobacteria may have developed, through evolutionary processes, different strategies for surviving the harsh environmental conditions that prevail in the desert.

The comparative 16S rRNA gene sequence analyses showed that the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil contained representatives of taxa other than the genera *Amycolatopsis, Lechavalieria* and *Streptomyces* that were detected by Okoro *et al.* (2009). In the present study the selective isolation strategies led to the recovery from Salar de Atacama soil of representatives of the genera *Actinomadura, Kribbella, Nonomuraea* and *Saccharothrix*, rare taxa known to be the source of novel specialised (secondary) metabolites (Tiwari & Gupta, 2012a, b). Similarly, members of the genera *Blastococcus, Couchioplanes, Geodermatophilus, Modestobacter* and *Pseudonocardia,* as well as *Streptomyces* strains, were recovered from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil. It was interesting that members of all but one of these genera contain as putatively new species as they shared relatively low 16S rRNA gene similarities with the type strains of their nearest neighbours. The exception, the genus *Amycolatopsis,* was of interest as the strains assigned to this taxon belonged to the thermophilic and poorly studied *A. methanolica* 16S rRNA gene subclade.

It is evident from the phylogenetic, and from the more comprehensive polyphasic studies, that hyper- and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils contain many novel actinobacteria, notably streptomycetes, that can be isolated using appropriate selective isolation, dereplication strategies and recognised using a combination of genotypic and phenotypic procedures. It is apparent from the plug assays, especially the one based on *B. subtilis* reporter genes, that representative novel and putatively novel actinobacteria are the source of a broad range of interesting bioactive compounds with the potential to be developed into drug leads. So, once again, the premise that extreme habitats are a rich source of novel actinobacterial taxa with the capacity to produce novel specilaised metabolites has been realised.

However, it has to be conceded that both polyphasic taxonomic studies and comparative 16S rRNA gene analyses have serious limitations. The former by their very nature cannot be applied to large number of strains, as exemplified by the fact that only four novel *Streptomyces* species and three novel *Lechevalieria* species have been

proposed for strains isolated from hyper- and extreme hyper-arid Atacama Desert soils (Okoro *et al.*, 2009; Santhanam *et al.*, 2012a, b, 2013; Busarakam *et al.*, 2014). At the present rate of progress it would take several decades to formally name all of putatively novel taxa highlighted in the present study.

16S rRNA gene sequencing studies have greatly enhanced our understanding of actinobacterial diversity (Goodfellow *et al.*, 2012) and can be expected to do so in the near future (Kim & Chun, 2014; Yarza & Munoz, 2014). Nevertheless, this approach to unravelling prokaryotic diversity does have drawbacks, notably by providing insufficient resolution for distinguishing between closely related species and for detecting the closest neighbours of deep seated lineages in taxonomically complex genera, both phenomena were appaarent in the present study with particular respect to relationships within the genus *Streptomyces*. Thus, in the present investigation, the analysis of sequence alignments derived from concatenation of five conserved house-keeping genes showed that isolates assigned to the *S. leeuwenhoekii* 16S rRNA gene subclade formed a distinct branch in *Streptomyces* gene trees (Busarakam *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, multi-locus sequence analyses based on such conserved genes are clarifying relationships between closely related *Streptomyces* species, including ones with identical 16S rRNA gene sequences (Rong & Huang, 2008, 2010; Rong *et al.*, 2009, 2010, 2014).

It seems likely that colossal taxonomic bottlenecks such as these touched upon above will increasingly be resolved now that whole-genome sequences are increasingly being used in prokaryotic systematics (Zhi *et al.*, 2012), as exemplified in the present study with respect to the type strain of *S. leeuwenhoekii*. This logical extension of the polyphasic taxonomic concept will not only provide a wealth of high quality taxonomic data (Klenk & Göker, 2010; Sutcliffe *et al.*, 2012; Sentausa & Fournier, 2013) but will provide an insight into the ecology, evolution, physiology and biotechnological potential of prokaryotic species (Gao & Gupta, 2012; Chandra & Chater, 2014; Girard *et al.*, 2014). However, while systematists should "embrace the genome" it is important that future developments should build upon sound taxonomic practice, notably the nomenclatural type concept (Goodfellow & Fiedler, 2010; Jensen, 2010, Whitman, 2014).

At present, the widespread use of whole-genome sequence is restricted as such data are only available for 1,725 out of nearly 11,000 archaeal and bacterial type strains (Chun & Rainey, 2014) whereas; in contrast nearly a full complement of 16s rRNA gene sequences are available (Kim & Chun, 2014; Yarza & Munoz, 2014). However,

the relative lack of whole-genome sequence data is being addressed by the one thousand microbial genomes (KMG-1) project (Genomic Encycopedia of Type Strains, Phase 1, Kyrpides *et al.*, 2014). Once whole genome sequences are available for all type strains, there will be an opportunity for them to serve as a companion to all further isolates thereby dispensing with the need to maintain costly service collections, a vision promulgated by Whitman (2014), who also pointed out that this approach was in line with the principles of the Bacteriological Code (Lapage *et al.*, 1990), which only requires that species be unique and completely identified prior to naming.

7.2. Pospectives for future work

Ecology:

- Culture-independent studies will be carried out to establish the key genera present in the hyper-arid and extreme hyper-arid soils used in the present study.
- Inovative and effective taxonomic approaches will be used to isolate members of dominant members of actinobacterial communities detected in the culture-independent studies.
- Emphasis will also be placed on the selective isolation of rare genera, such as *Modestobacter* which predominate in extreme hyper-arid surface soils and on rock surfaces given their ability to produce melanin-like pigments.
- Biogeographical studies will be undertaken on selected genera found to be discontinuously distributed in the Salar de Atacama and Yungay soils.
- Whole genome sequencing studies of representative novel isolates will be generated to gain an insight into how such taxa cope with the harsh environmental conditions that prevail in arid Atacama Desert soils.

Systematics:

- Formal naming of putatively novel *Modestobacter* strains isolated from the extreme hyper-arid Yungay soil following the completion of a polyphasic taxonomic study.
- Completion of the taxonomic studies on representatives of the *S. fimbriatus, S. leeuwenhoekii* and *S. radiopugnans* 16S rRNA gene subclades with the aim of formally naming new species.

• Comprehensive genotypic and phenotypic studies on representatives of rare genera recovered from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil in order to formally name them as new species.

Bioprospecting:

- The *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* C34 gene clusters responsible for the biosynthesis of the chaxamycins and chaxalactins will be identified, and expressed heterologously in "*Streptomyces coelicolor*" A(3)2. Similarly approaches will be taken to express and characterise other novel specilaised metabolite gene clusters identified in the *S. leeuwenhoekii* C34 genome sequence.
- Screening of representatives of rare genera isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama soil for putatively novel bioactive compounds using the *Bacillus subtilis* reporter genes with interesting leads pursued using chemical screens.
- Genome scanning of selected representatives of rare novel genera isolated from the hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil to identify novel pathways.
- Selective isolation, dereplication and screening of additional rare actinobacterial genera highlighted in the culture-independent studies on the Salar de Atacama and Yungay soils.

References

- Abdel-Mageeb, W.M., Miline, B.F., Wagner, M., Schumacher, M., Sander, P., Pathom-aree, W., Goodfellow, M., Bull, A.T., Horikoshi, K., Ebel, R., Diederich, M., Fiedler, H.-P. & Jaspars, M. (2010). Dermacozines, a new phenazine family from deep-sea dermacocci isolated from Mariana Trench sediment. Organic and Biomolecular Chemistry 8, 2352-2362.
- Abou-Zeid, A., Euverink, G., Hessels, G.I., Jensen, R.A. & Dijkhuizen, L. (1995). Biosynthesis of i-phenylalanine and i-tyrosine in the actinomycete *Amycolatopsis methanolica*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 61, 1298-1302.
- Adékambi, T., Butler, R. W., Hanrahan, F., Delcher, A. L., Drancourt, M. & Shinnick, T. M. (2011). Core gene set as the basis of multilocus sequence analysis of subclass of *Actinobacteria*. *Plos One* 6, 10.
- Adiri, R. S., Gophna, U. & Ron, E. Z. (2003). Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) of Escherichia coli O78 strains. FEMS Microbiology Letters 222, 199-203.
- Ahmed, L. Jensen, P.R., Freel, K.K., Brown, R., Jones, A,L., Kim, B. & Goodfellow, M. (2013). Salinispora pacifica sp. nov., an actinomycete froom marine sediments. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 103, 1069-1078.
- Ahrens, R. & Moll, G. (1970). Ein neues knospendes Bakterium aus der Ostsee. Archives of Microbiology 70, 243-265.
- Alam, M. T., Merlo, M. E., Takano, E. & Breitling, R. (2010). Genome-based phylogenetic analysis of *Streptomyces* and its relatives. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 54, 763-772.
- Albarracín, V. H., Winik, B., Kothe, E., Amoroso, M. J. & Abate, C. M. (2008). Copper bioaccumulation by the actinobacterium *Amycolatopsis* sp. ABO. *Journal of Basic Microbiology* 48, 323–330.
- Albarracín, V.H., Alonso-Vega, P., Trujillo, M.E., Amoroso, M.J. & Abate, C.M. (2010). Amycolatopsis tucumanensis sp. nov., a copper-resistant actinobacterum isolated from polluted sediments. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 60, 397-401.
- Antony-Babu, S. & Goodfellow, M. (2008). Biosystematics of alkaliphilic streptomycetes isolated from seven locations across a beach and dune sand system. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 94, 581-591.

- Antony-Babu, S., Stach, J. E. M. & Goodfellow, M. (2008). Genetic and phenotypic evidence for *Streptomyces griseus* ecovars isolated from a beach and dune sand system. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 94, 63-74.
- Antony-Babu, S., Stach, J. & Goodfellow, M. (2010). Computer-assisted numerical analysis of colour-group data for dereplication of streptomycetes for bioprospecting and ecological purposes. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 97, 231-239.
- Anzai, Y., Okuda, T. & Watanabe, J. (1993). Application of the random amplified polymorphic DNA using the polymerase chain reaction for efficient elimination of duplicate strains in microbial screening. *Journal of Antibiotics* 47, 183 193.
- Atalan, E., Manfio, G.P., Ward, A.C., Kroppenstedt, R.M. & Goodfellow, M. (2000). Biosystematic studies on novel streptomycetes from soil. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 77, 337–353.
- Athalye, M., Lacey, J. & Goodfellow, M. (1981). Selective isolation and enumeration of actinomycetes using rifampicin. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 51, 289-297.
- Ayuso, A., Clark, D., González, I., Salazar, O., Anderson, A. & Genilloud, O. (2005). A novel actinomycete strain de-replication approach based on the diversity of polyketide synthase and nonribosomal peptide synthetase biosynthetic pathways. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 67, 795-806.
- Aziz RK, Bartels D, Best AA, DeJongh M, Disz T, Edwards RA, Formsma K, Gerdes S, Glass EM, Kubal M, Meyer F, Olsen GJ, Olson R, Osterman AL, Overbeek RA, McNeil LK, Paarmann D, Paczian T, Parrello B, Pusch GD, Reich C, Stevens R, Vassieva O, Vonstein V, Wilke A, Zagnitko O (2008). The RAST Server: rapid annotations using subsystems technology. *BMC Genomics* 9, 75
- Azura-Bustos, A. Urrejola, C. & Vicuña, R. (2012). Life at the edge: microorganisms of the Atacama Desert. *FEMS Letters* 586, 2939-2945.
- Babakola, O.O., Kirby, B.M., Roes-Hill, M.L., Cook, A.E., Craig-Carry, S., Burton,
 S.G. & Cowan, D.A. (2009). Phylogenetic analysis of actnobacteria populations associated with Antarctic Dry Valley mineral soils. *Environmental Microbiology* 11, 566-576.
- Baltz, R. H. (2008). Renaissance in antibacterial discovery from actinomycetes. *Current Opinion in Pharmacology* 8, 557-563.

- Becerril-Espinosa, A. Freel, K.C., Jensen, P.R. & Soria-Mercado, I.E. (2013). Marine actinobacteria from the gulf California: diversity, abundance and secondary metabolite biosynthetic potential. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 103, 809-819.
- Benson, D. A., Karsch-Mizrachi, I., Lipman, D. J., Ostell, J. & Sayers, E. W. (2011). GenBank. *Nucleic Acids Research*. **39**, D32-D37.
- Bentley, S. D., Chater, K.F., Cerdeno-Tarraga, A.-M., Challis, G.L., Thomson, N.R., James, K. D., Harris, D. E., Quail, M. A., Kieser, H., Harper, D., Bateman, A., Brown, S., Chandra, G., Chen, C. W., Collins, M., Cronin, A., Fraser, A., Goble, A., Hidalgo, J., Hornsby, T., Howarth, S., Huang, C.-H., Kieser, T., Larke, L., Murphy, L., Oliver, K., O'Neil, S., Rabbinowitsch, E., Rajandream, M.-A., Rutherford, K., Rutter, S., Seeger, K., Saunders, D., Sharp, S., Squares, R., Squares, S., Taylor, K., Warren, T., Wietzorrek, A., Woodward, J., Barrell, B. G., Parkhill, J. & Hopwood, D. A. (2002). Complete genome sequence of the model actinomycete *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2). *Nature* 417, 141-147.
- Bérdy, J. (1995). Are actinomycetes exhausted as a source of secondary metabolites? *Biotechnologia* 7, 13–34.
- Bérdy, J. (2005). Bioactive microbial metabolites. Journal of Antibiotics 58, 1-26.
- Bérdy, J. (2012). Thoughts and facts about antibiotics: Where we are now and where we are heading. *Journal of Antibiotics* 65, 385-395.
- Betina, V. (1983). *The Chemistry and Biology of Antibiotics*. Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company, Amsterdam.
- Bhatnagar, A. & Bhatnagar, M. (2005). Microbial diversity in desert ecosystems. *Current Science* 89, 91-100.
- Bian, J., Li, Y., Wang, J., Song, F.-H., Lui, M., Dai, H.-Qi, Ren, B., Goa, H., Hu, A., Lui, Z.-H., Li, W.-J. & Zhang, L.-X. (2009). Amycolatopsis marina sp. nov., an actinomycete isolated from an ocean sediment. International journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 59, 477-481.
- Bister, B., Bischoff, D., Ströbele, M., Riedlinger, J., Reicke, A., Wolter, F., Bull, A. T., Zähner, H., Fiedler, H. P. & Süssmuth, R. D. (2004). Abyssomicin C-a polycyclic antibiotic from a marine *Verrucosispora* strain as an inhibitor of the *p*-aminobenzoic acid/tetrahydrofolate biosynthesis pathway. *Angewandte Chemie Internatioal Edition* 43, 2574-2576.

- Black, J. G. (2008). Microbiology, Principles and Explorations. 7th edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc, USA.
- Blunt, J.W., Copp, B.R., Keyzers, R.A., Munro, M.H.G. & Prinsep, M.R. (2012). Marine natural products. *Natural Product Reports* 29, 144-222.
- Bochner, B. R. (2003). New technologies to assess genotype-phenotype relationships. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **4**, 309-314.
- Bochner, B. R., Giovannetti, L. & Viti, C. (2008). Important discoveries from analysing bacterial phenotypes. *Molecular Microbiology* 70, 274-280.
- Boer, L.D., Dijkhuizen, L., Grobben, G., Goodfellow, M., Stackebrandt, E., Parlett,
 J.H., Whitehead, D. & Witt, D. (1990). Amycolatopsis methanolica sp. nov.,
 a facultatively methylotrophic actinomycete. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 40, 194-204.
- Böröczky, K., Laatsch, H., Wagner-Döbler, I., Strizke, K. & Schulz, S. (2006). Cluster analysis as selection and dereplication tool for the identification of new natural compounds from large sample set. *Chemistry & Biodiversity* 3, 622-634.
- Brandão, P.F.B., Torimura, M., Kurane, R. & Bull, A.T. (2002). Dereplication for biotechnology screening: PyMS analysis and PCR-RFLP-SSCP (PRS) profiling of 16S rRNA genes of marine and terrestrial actinomycetes. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 58, 77-83.
- Bredholt, H., Galatenko, O.A., Engelhard, K., Fjaervick, E., Terekhova, L.P. & Zotchev, S.B. (2007). Rare actinobacteria from shollow water sediments of the Trondheim fjord, Norway: isolation, diversity and biological activity. *Environmental Microbiology* 9, 2756-2764.
- Bredholt, H., Fjaervick, E., Johnsen, G., & Zotchev, S.B. (2008). Actinomycetes from sediments in the Trondheim Fjord, Norway: Diversity and biological acitivity. *Marine Drugs* 6, 12-24.
- Brocchieri, L. (2001). Phylogenetic inferences from molecular sequences: review and critique. *Theoretical Population Biology* 59, 27-40.
- Brock, T. D. (1986). Introduction: an overview of the thermophiles. In *Thermophiles: General, Molecular and Applied Microbiology*, pp. 1-17. Edited by T. D. Brock. New York: Wiley.
- Brunstein, J. (2010). Methods in molecular biology and genetic engineering. In Lewin's Genes X, pp. 42-78. Edited by J. Krebs, S.T. Kilpatrick & E.S. Goldstein. Massachusette: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

- Bulina, T. I., Alferova, I. V. & Terekhova, L. P. (1997). A new method for the isolation of actinomycetes with the use of microwave irradiation of soil samples. *Mikrobiologiya* 66, 278-282.
- Bull, A.T. (ed.) 2004. Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting. ASM Press, Washington, DC, pp. 1–496.
- Bull, A.T. (2011). Actinobacteria of the extremobiosophere. In: *Extremeophiles Handbook*, pp. 2103-2014. Edited by K. Horikoshi, G. Anthranikian, A.T. Bull, F. Robb and K. Stetter. Springer-Verlag Gmbh, Berlin.
- Bull, A.T. & Asenjo, J.A. (2013). Microbiology of hyper-arid environments: recent insights from the Atacama Desert, Chile. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 103, 1173-1179.
- Bull, A. T. & Stach, J.E.M. (2004). An overview of biodiversity-estimating the scale. In *Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting*, pp. 15-28. Edited by A. T. Bull. ASM Press, Washington, D.C.
- Bull, A.T. & Stach, J.E.M. (2007). Marine actinobacteria: new opportunities for natural products search and discovery. *Trends in Microbiology* 15, 491-499.
- Bull, A.T., Goodfellow, M. & Slater, J.H. (1992). Biodiversity as a source of innovation in biotechnology. *Annual Review of Micrbiology* 46, 219-252.
- Bull, A.T., Ward, A.C. & Goodfellow, M. (2000). Search and discovery strategies for biotechnology: paradigm shift. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 64, 573-606.
- Bull, A.T., Stach, J.E.M., Ward, A.C. & Goodfellow, M. (2005). Marine actinobacteria: perspectives, challenges, future directions. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 87, 259-276.
- Busarakam, K., Bull, A.T., Girard, G., Labeda, D.P., van Wezel, G.P. & Goodfellow, M. (2014). Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii sp. nov., the producer of chaxalactins and chaxamycins, forms a distinct branch in Streptomyces gene trees. Antonie van Leewenhoek. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 105, 849-861.
- Buskingham, J. (2013). *Dictionary of Natural Products on DVA*. Champan and Hall CRC, ISBN-13: 978-0412491504.
- Busti, E., Monciardini, P., Cavaletti, L., Bamonte, R., Lazzarini, A., Sosio, M. & Donadio, S. (2006). Antibiotic-producing ability by representatives of a newly discovered lineage of actinomycetes. *Microbiology* 152, 675-683.
- Butler, M.S. & Cooper, M. (2011). Antibiotics in the clinical pipeline in 2011. Journal of Antibiotics 64, 413-425.

- Camas, M., Sahin, N., Sazak, A., Sproer, C. & Klenk, H.P. (2013). Amycolatopsis magusensis sp. nov. isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 6, 1254-1260.
- Cameron, R.E., Gensel, D.R. & Blank, G.B. (1966). Soil studies-desert microflora XII, Abundance of microflora in soil samples from the Chile Atacama Desert. Space Programs Summary, Jet Propulsion Laboratory IV, 37–38.
- Chandra, G. & Chater, K.F. (2014). Developmental biology of *Streptomyces* from the perspective of 100 actinobacterial gene sequences. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews* 38, 345-379.
- Cho, S.-H., Han, J.-H., Seong, C.-N. & Kim, S.-B. (2006). Phylogenetic diversity of acidophilic sporoactinobacteria isolated from various soils. *The Journal of Microbiology* 44, 600-606.
- Chouaia, B., Crotti, E., Brusetti, L., Daffonchio, D., Essoussi, I., Nouioui, I., Sbssi,
 I., Ghodbane-Gatari, F., Gtari, M., Vacherie, B., Barbe, V., Médigue, C.,
 Pujic, P. & Mormand, P. (2012). Genome sequence of *Blastococcus* saxobsidens DD2, a stone-inhabiting bacterium. Journal of Bacteriology 194, 2752-2753.
- Chun, J. & Goodfellow, M. (1995). A phylogenetic analysis of the genus Nocardia with 16S rRNA gene sequences. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 45, 240-245.
- Chun, J., Kim, S.B., Oh, Y.K., Seong, C.-N., Lee, D.-H., Bae, K.S., Kang, S.-O., Hah, Y.C. & Goodfellow, M. (1999). Amycolatopsis thermoflava ap. nov., a novel soil actinomecete from Hainan Island, China. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 49, 1369-1373.
- Chuvochina, M.S., Marie, D., Chevaillier, S., Petit, J.R., Normand, P., Alekhina I.A. & Bulat S.A. (2011). Community variability of bacteria in alpine snow (Mont Blanc) containing saharan dust deposition and their snow colonisation potential. *Microbes Environments.*, 26: 237-247.
- Clemons, P. A. (2004). Complex phenotypic assays in high-throughput screening. *Current Opinion in Chemical Biology* **8**, 334-338.
- Cochrane, G., Akhtar, R., Bonfield, J., Bower, L., Demiralp, F., Faruque, N., Gibson, R., Hoad, G., Hubbard, T., Hunter, C., Jang, M., Juhos, S., Leinonen, L., Leonard, S., Lin, Q., Lopez, R., Lorenc, D., McWilliam, H., Mukherjee, G., Plaister, S., Radhakrishnan, R., Robinson, S., Sobhany, S., Hoopen, P. T., Vaughan, R., Zalunin, V. & Birney, E. (2008). Petabyte-

scale innovations at the European Nucleotide Archive. *Nucleic Acids Research*. 37, D19-D25.

- Cody, A.J., Bennett, J.S. & Maiden, C.J. (2014). Multi-locus sequence typing and the gene-by-gene approach to bacterial classification and analysis of population variation. *Methods in Microbiology* 43 (*in press*).
- Cole, J. R., Wang, Q., Cardenas, E., Fish, J., Chai, B., Farris, R. J., Kulam-Syed-Mohideen, A. S., McGarrell, D. M., Marsh, T., Garrity, G. M. & Tiedje, J. M. (2009). The Ribosomal Database Project: improved alignments and new tools for rRNA analysis. *Nucleic Acids Research* 37, D141-D145.
- Collins, M.D., Goodfellow, M., Minnikin, D.E. & Alderson, G. (1985). Menaquinone composition of mycolic acid-containing actinomycetes and some sporoactinomycetes. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 58, 77-86.
- Colquhoun, J. A., Mexson, J., Goodfellow, M., Ward, A. C., Horikoshi, K. & Bull, A.T. (1998). Novel rhodococci and other mycolate actinomycetes from the deep sea. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 74, 27-40.
- Colwell, R.R. (1970). Polyphasic taxonomy of bacteria. In Culture Collections of Microorganisms: Proceedings of the International Conference on Culture Collections, pp. 421-436. Edited by H. Iizuka and T. Hasegawa. Tokyo: University Tokyo Press.
- Connon, S.A., Lester, E.D., Shafaat, H.S., Obenhuber, D.C. & Ponce, A. (2007). Bacterial diversity in hyperarid Atacama Desert soils. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 112, G04S17, doi:10.1029/2006JG00311.
- Costello, E.K., Halloy, S.R.P., Reed, s.C., Sowell, P. & Schmidt, S.K. (2009). Fumarole-supported islands of biodiversity within a hyperarid, high-elevation landscap on socompa volcano, Puna de Atacama, Andes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **75**, 735-747.
- Cragg, G.M. & Newman, D. (2013). Natural products: A continuing source of novel drug leads. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* 1830: 3670-3695.
- Cross, T. (1968). Thermophilic actinomycetes. *The Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 31, 36-53.
- Cross, T. (1982). Actinomycetes: a continuing source of new metabolites. *Development in Industrial Microbiology* 33, 1-18.
- Cruz-Morales, P., Vijgenboom, E., Iruegas-Bocardo, F, Girard, G., Yáñez-Guerra,
 Ramos-Aboites, H.E., Pernodet, J.-L., Anné, Wezel, van G.P. & Barona-Gómez, F. (2013). The genome sequence of *Streptomyces lividans* 66 reveals

a novel tRNA-dependent peptide biosynthetic system within a metal-related genomic island. *Genome Biology and Evolution* **5**, 1165–1175.

- Czaran, T.L., Hoekstra, R.E. & Page, L. (2002). Chemical warfare between microbes promotes biodiversity. *Proceedings of the National Academy Science USA* 99, 786–790.
- Darriba, D., Taboada, G.L., Doallo, R. & Posada, D. (2012). jModelTest 2: more models, new heuristics and parallel computing. *Nature Methods* 9,772.
- Da Costa, M.S., Albuquerque, L., Fermanda Nobre, M. & Wait, R. (2011a). The identification of polar lipids in prokaryotes. *Methods in Microbiology* 38, 165-182.
- Da Costa, M.S., Albuquerque, L., Fermanda Nobre, M. & Wait, R. (2011b). The identification of fatty acids in bacteria. *Methods in Microbiology volume* 38, 183-198.
- Da Costa, M.S., Albuquerque, L., Fermanda Nobre, M. & Wait, R. (2011c). The extraction and identification of respiratory lipoquinones of prokaryotes and their use in taxonomy. *Method in Microbiology* 38, 283-298
- Das, M., Royer, T.V. & Leff. L.G. (2007). Diversity of fungi, bacteria and actinomycetes on leaves decomposing in a stream. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 73: 756-767.
- De Boer, L., Dijkhuizen, L., Grobben, G., Goodfellow, M., Stackebrandt, E., Parlett, J. H., Whitehead, D. & Witt, D. (1990). Amycolatopsis methanolica sp. nov., a facultatively methylotrophic actinomycete. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 40, 194–204.
- De Ley, J., Cattoir, H. & Reynaerts, A. (1970). The quantitative measurement of DNA hybridization from renaturation rates. *European Journal of Biochemistry* 12, 133-142.
- De los Ríos, A., Valea, S., Ascaso, C., Davila, A., Kastovsky, J., McKay, C.P., Gómez-Silva, B & Wierzchos, J. (2010). Comparative analysis of the microbial communities inhibiting halite evaporates of the Atacama Desert. *International Microbiology* 13, 79-89.
- De Santis, T. Z., Hugenholtz, P., Larsen, N., Rojas, M., Brodie, E. L., Keller, K., Huber, T., Dalevi, T., H, P. & Andersen, G. L. (2006). Greengenes, a chimera-checked 16S rRNA gene database and workbench compatible with ARB. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 72, 5069-5072.

- De Vos, P. (2011). Multilocus sequence determination and analysis. *Method in Microbiology* 38, 385-408.
- De Vos, P., Garrity, G. M., Jones, D., Krieg, N. R., Ludwig, W., Rainey, F. A., Schleifer, K. H. & Whitman, W. B. (2009). Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, 2nd edn. Volume 3, The Firmicutes pp. 1-1450, New York: Springer,.
- Demergasso, C., Escudero, L., Casamayor, E.O., Chong, G., Balagué, V. & Pedrós-Alió, C. (2008). Novelty and spatio-temperal heterogeneity in the bacterial diversity of hypersaline Lake Tebenquiche (Salar de Atacama). *Extremophiles* 12, 491-504.
- Dharmik, P. & Gomeshe, A.V. (2013). Isolation and antioxidant activity of melanin from actinomycete (*Streptomyces* species) isolated from garden soil, Nagpur district, India. *International Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences and Technology* 18, 69-72.
- Ding, D., Chen, G., Wang, B., Wang, Q., Lui, D., Peng, M. & Shi, P. (2012). Culturable actinomycetes desert ecosystem in northeast of Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. Annual Review of Microbiology, DOI 10.1007/s13213-012-0469-9.
- DiRuggiero, J., Wierzchos, J., Robinson, C.K., Souterre, T., Ravel, J., Artieda, O.,
 Souza-Egipsy, V. & Ascaso, C. (2013). Microbial colonisation of
 chasmoendolithic habitats in hyper-arid zone of the Atacama Desert.
 Biogeosciences 10, 2439-2450.
- Donadio, S. & Sosio, M. (2010). Cell-based screening methods for anti-infective compound. In *Manual of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, pp. 62-72. Edited by R. H. Baltz, A.L.Demain and J. E. Davies. Washington, DC: ASM Press.
- Donadio, S., Maffioli, S., Monciardini, P., Sosio, M. & Jabes, D. (2010a). Antibiotic discovery in the twenty-first century: current trends and future perspectives. *Journal of Antibiotics* 63, 423-430.
- Doanadio, S., Maffioli, S., Monciardini, P., Sosio, M. & Jabes, D. (2010b). Sources of novel antibiotics-aside the common roads. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 88, 1261-1269.
- Dorador, C., Meneses, D., Urtuvia, V., Demergasso, C., Vila, I., Witzel, K.-P. & Imhoff, J.F. (2009). Diversity of *Bacterioidetes* in high-altitude saline evaporitic basins in northern Chile. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 114, G00D05, doi:10.1029/2008JG000837

- Drees, K.P., Nielson, J.W., Betancourt, L., Quade, J., Henderdon, D.A., Pryor, B.M.
 & Maier, R.M. (2006). Bacterial community structure in the hyperarid core of the Atacama Desert, Chile. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 72, 7902-7908.
- Dridi, B.B. & Drancourt, M. (2011). Characterization of prokaryotes using MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry. *Method in Microbiology* 38, 283-298.
- Duangmal, K., Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2005). Selective isolation of members of the *Streptomyces violaceoruber* clade from soil. *FEMS Microbiology Letter* 245, 321-327.
- Duangmal, K., Mingma, R., Pathom-Aree, W., Thamchaipenet, A., Inahashi, Y., Matsumoto, A. & Takahashi, Y. (2011). Amycolatopsis samaneae sp. nov., isolated from root of Samanea saman (Jacq.) Merr. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61, 951-955.
- Dutcher, J.D., Pansy, F.E. & van Saltza, M.H. (1964). Septacidin and derivatives thereof. United States Patent, 3, 155,647 November 3.
- Eccleston, G.P., Brooks, P.R. & Kurtböke, D.I. (2008). The occurence of bioactive micromonosporae in aquatic habitats of sunshine coast in Austrialia. *Marine Drugs* 6, 243-261.
- Edgar, R.C. (2004). MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput. *Nucleic Acids Research* **32**, 1792–1797.
- Enright, M. C. & Spratt, B. G. (1999). Multilocus sequence typing. Trends in Microbiology 7, 482-487.
- Eppard, M., Krumbein, W. E., Koch, C., Rhiel, E., Staley, J. T. & Stackebrandt, E. (1996). Morphological, physiological and molecular characterization of actinomycetes isolated from dry soil, rocks and monument surfaces. *Archieve* of Microbiology 166, 12-22.
- Essoussi, I., Ghodbane-Gtari, F., Amairi, H., Sghaier, H., Jaouani, A., Brusetti, L., Daffonchio, D., Boudabous, A. & Gtari, M. (2010). Esterase as an enzymatic signature of *Geodermatophilaceae* adaptability to Sahara desert stones and monuments. *Journal of Applied Microbiolology* 108,1723–1732.
- Euzéby, J. P. (2013). List of Bacterial Names with Standing in Nomenclature: a folder available on the Internet. (Last full update: 23 October 2013). http://www.bacterio.cict.fr/.

- Everest, G. J. & Meyers, P. R. (2009). The use of *gyrB* sequence analysis in the phylogeny of the genus *Amycolatopsis*. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **95**, 1–11.
- Everest, G.J., Cook, A.E., Kirby, B.M. & Meyers, P.R. (2011). Evaluation of the use of *recN* sequence analysis in the phylogeny of the genus *Amycolatopsis*. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* 100, 483–496
- Everest, G., Roes-Hill, M., Omorogie, C., Cheung, S.-K., Cook, A., Goodwin, C. & Meyers, P. (2013). *Amycolatopsis umgeniensis* sp. nov., isolated from soil from the banks of the Umgeni river in South Africa. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 103, 673–681.
- Ezaki, T., Hashimoto, Y. & Yabuuchi, E. (1989). Fluorometric deoxyribonucleic acid-deoxyribonucleic acid hybridization in microdilution wells as an alternative to membrane filter hybridization in which radioisotopes are used to determine genetic relatedness among bacterial strains. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 39, 224-229.
- Felis, G.E., Torriani, S., van Hylckama, V.J.T. &Oren, A. (2010). Taxonomic characterization of prokaryotic microorganisms. *In Manual of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology, 3rd edn*. Edited by R.H. Baltz, J. Davies, A.L. Dermain (volume eds), pp 28–42. Section 1: Isolation and screening of secondary metabolites and enzymes. Section edition by A.T. Bull AT and J. Davies. ASM Press, Washington, DC.
- Felsenstein, J. (1981). Evolutionary trees from DNA sequences: a maximum likelihood approach. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* 17, 368-376.
- Felsenstein, J. (1985). Confidence limits on phylogenies: An approach using the bootstrap. *Evolution* 39, 783-791.
- Felsenstein, J. (2004). PHYLIP (Phylogeny Inference Package), version 3.6. Seattle, USA: Department of Genome Science, University of Washington.
- Fenical, W., Jensen, P.R., Palladino, M.A., Lam, K.S., Lloyd, G.K. &Potts, B.C. (2009). Discovery and development of anti-cancer agent salinosporamide A (NPI-0052). *Bioorganic & Medical Chemistry* 17, 2175.
- Fiedler, H.-P. (1994). Biosynthetic capacities of actinomycetes. 2. Juglomycin Z, a new naphthoquinone antibiotic from *Streptomyces tendae*. *Journal of Antibiotics* 47, 1116–1122.
- Fiedler, H.-P. (2004). Screening for bioactivity. In *Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting*, pp. 324-335. Edited by A. T. Bull. Washington, D C: American Society for Microbiology.

- Fiedler, H.P., Bruntner, C., Bull, A.T., Ward, A.C., Goodfellow, M & Mihm, G. (2005). Marine actinomycetes as a source of novel secondary metabolites. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 87, 37-42.
- Fischbach, M. A. & Walsh, C. T. (2009). Antibiotics for emerging pathogens. *Science* 325, 1089-1093.
- Fitch, W. M. (1971). Toward defining the course of evolution: minimum change for a specific tree topology. *Systematic Zoology* 20, 406-416.
- Fitch, W. M. & Margoliash, E. (1967). Construction of phylogenetic trees. *Science* 155, 279-284.
- Fletcher, L., Valdivia-Silva, J.E., Perez-Montaňo, S., Condori-Apaza, R.M., Conley, C.A. & Mckay, P. (2012). Variability of organic material in surface horizons of the hyper-arid Mars-like soils of the Atacama Desert. *Advances in Space Research* 49, 271-279.
- Fox, G. E., Wisotzkey, J. D. & Jurtshuk, J. P. (1992). How close is close: 16S rRNA sequence identity may not be sufficient to guarantee species identity. *International Journal of Systematics Bacteriology* 42, 166-170.
- Freel, C.K., Edlund A. & Jensen , P.P. (2012). Microdiversity and evidence for high dispersal rates in the marine actinomycete genus Salinispora. Environmental Microbiology 14, 480–493.
- Fry, N. R., Warwick, S., Saunders, N. A. & Embley, T. M. (1991). The use of 16S ribosomal RNA analyses to investigate the phylogeny of the family *Legionellaceae. Journal of General Microbiology* 137, 1215-1222.
- Gao, Q. & Garcia-Pichel, F. (2011). Microbial ultraviolet sunscreens. *Microbiology* 9, 791-802.
- Gao, B. & Gupta, R.S. (2012). Phylogenetic framework and molecular signatures for main clades of the phylum Actinobacteria. Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews 77, 66-112.
- Garrity, G.M., Heimbuch, B.K. & Gagliardi, M. (1996). Isolation of zoosporogenous actinomycetes from desert soils. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology* 17, 260-267.
- Gause, G.F., Kochetkovga, V. & Vladimirovag, B. (1957). Biochemical mutants of staphylococci with impaired respiration. *Doklsdy Academy Science USSR*, 117, 720.
- Genilloud, O. (2014). The re-emerging role of microbial natural products in antibiotic discovery. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 106, 173-188.

- Genilloud, O., González, I., Salazar, O., Martín, J., Tormo, J.R. & Vincente, F. (2011). Current approaches to exploit actinomycetes as a source of novel natural products. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 38, 375-389.
- Gevers, D., Dawyndt, P., Vandamme, P., Willems, A., Vancanneyt, M., Swings, J.
 & De Vos, P. (2006). Stepping stones towards a new prokaryotic taxonomy. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Biology* 361, 1911-1916.
- Gillis, M., Vandamme, P., De Vos, P., Swings, J. & Kersters, K. (2005). Polyphasic taxonomy. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*, pp. 43-48. Edited by D. J. Brenner, N. R. Krieg, J. T. Staley & G. M. Garrity. New York: Springer.
- Girard G., Traag B. A., Sangal V., Mascini N., Hoskisson P. A., Goodfellow M., & van Wezel, G. P. (2013). A novel taxonomic marker that discriminates between morphologically complex actinomycetes. *Open Biology* 3, 130073.
- Girard, G., Willemse, J., Zhu, H., Claessen, D., Busarakam, K., Goodfellow & van Wezel, G.P. (2014). Analysis of novel kitasatosporae reveals major evolutionary changes in conserved developmental genes between *Kitasatospora* and *Streptomyces*. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 106, 365-380.
- Golinska, P., Ahmed, L., Wang, D. & Goodfellow, M. (2013a). Streptacidiphilus durhamensis sp. nov., isolated from a spruce forest soil. Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek 104,199–206.
- Golinska, P., Kim, B.-K., Dahm, H. & Goodfellow, M. (2013b). Streptacidiphilus hamsterleyensis sp. nov., isolated from a spruce forest soil. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 104, 965-972.
- Golinska, P., Wang, D. & Goodfellow, M. (2013c). *Norcardia aciditolerans* sp. nov., isolated from a spruce forest soil. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **103**, 1079-1088.
- Gómez-Silva, B., Rainey, F.A., Warren-Rhodes, K.A., McKay, C.P. & Navarro-González, R. (2008). Acatama Desert soil microbiology. Soil Biology 13, 117-132.
- Gontang, E.A., Fenical, W. & Jensen, P.R. (2007). Phylogenetic diversity of Grampositive bacteria cultured from marine sediments. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 73, 3272-3282.
- Gonzalez, J. M. & Saiz-Jimenez, C. (2002). A fluorimetric method for the estimation of G+C mol% content in microorganisms by thermal denaturation temperature. *Environmental Microbiology* 4, 770-773.

- Gonzalez, J. M. & Saiz-Jimenez, C. (2005). A simple fluorimetric method for the estimation of DNA-DNA relatedness between closely related microorganisms by thermal denaturation temperatures. *Extremophiles* 9, 75-79.
- Goodacre, R., Timmins, E.M., Burton, R., Kaderbhi, N., Woodward, A.M., Kell, D.B. & Rooney, P. (1998). Rapid identification of urinary tract infection bacteria using hyperspectral whole-organism fingerprinting and artificial neural networks. *Microbiology* 144, 1157-1170.
- Goodfellow, M. (2000). Microbial systematics: Background and uses. In Applied Microbial Sysematics, pp. 1-18. Edited by F.G. Priest and M. Goodfellow. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Goodfellow, M. (2010). Selective isolation of actinobacteria. In *Manual of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, pp. 13-27. Edited by R. H. Baltz, A.L.Demain and Davies, J. E. Washington, DC: ASM Press.
- Goodfellow, M. (2013). Actinobacterial diversity as a sources of new drugs. *Microbiologist* 14, 8-12.
- Goodfellow, M. & Fiedler, H.P. (2010). A guide to successful bioprospecting: informed by actinobacterial systematics. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 98, 119-142.
- Goodfellow, M. & Haynes, J. A. (1984). Actinomycetes in marine sediments. In Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes, pp. 453– 472. Edited by L. Ortiz-Ortiz, L. F. Bojalil and V. Yakoleff. New York: Academic Press.
- Goodfellow, M. & O'Donnell, A. G. (1994). Chemical Methods, in Prokaryotic Systematics, Chichester, UK, Wiley & Sons.
- Goodfellow, M. & Maldonado, L. A. (2006). The families Dietziaceae, Gordoniaceae, Nocardiaceae and Tsukamurellaceae. In The Prokaryotes, pp. 843-888. Edited by M. Dworkin, S. Falkow, K.H. Schleifer and E. Stackebrandt. New York: Springer.
- Goodfellow, M., Alderson, G. & Lacey, J. (1979). Numerical taxonomy of Actinomadura and related actinomycetes. Journal of General Microbiology 112, 95-111.
- Goodfellow, M., Weaver, C. R. & Minnikin, D. E. (1982). Numerical classification of some rhodococci, corynebacteria and related organisms. *Journal of General Microbiology* 128, 731-745.

- Goodfellow, M., Lacey, J., Athalye, M., Embley, T. M. & Bowen, T. (1989). Saccharopolyspora gregorii and Saccharopolyspora hordei: two new actinomycete species from fodder. Journal of General Microbiology 135, 2125-2139.
- Goodfellow, M., Stanton, L. J., Simpson, K. E. & Minnikin, D. E. (1990). Numerical and chemical classification of *Actinoplanes* and some related actinomycetes. *Journal of Geneneral Microbiology* 136, 19-36.
- Goodfellow, M., Zakrzewska-Czerwinska, J., Thomas, E. G., Mordarski, M., Ward,
 A. C. & James, A. L. (1991). Polyphasic taxonomic study of the genera
 Gordona and *Tsukamurella* including the description of *Tsukamurella wratislaviensis* sp. nov. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie 275, 162-178.
- Goodfellow, M., Davenport, R., Stainsby, F.M. & Curtis, T.P. (1996). Actinomycete diversity associated with foaming in activated sludge plants. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology* 17, 268-280.
- Goodfellow, M., Manfio, G. P. & Chun, J. (1997). Towards a practical species concept for cultivable bacteria. In *The Units of Biodiversity - Species in Practice*, pp. 25-59. Edited by M. F. Claridge, H. A. Dawah & M. R. Wilson. London, Chapman Hall.
- Goodfellow, M., Alderson, G. & Chun, J. (1998). Rhodococcal systematics: problems and developments. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 74, 1-18.
- Goodfellow, M., Kumar, Y., Labeda, D. P. & Sembiring, L. (2007). The *Streptomyces violaceusniger* clade: a home for streptomycetes with rugose ornamented spores. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **92**, 173-199.
- Goodfellow, M., Kämpfer, P., Busse, H.J., Trujillo, M., Suzuki, K.-E., Ludwig, W.
 & Whitman, W.B., eds. (2010). Bergey's Manual of Systemic Bacteriology. Volume 3: The Actinobacteria, 2nd edn., Parts A and B. New York: Springer, pp. 1-2083.
- Goodfellow, M., Brown, R., Ahmed, L., Pathom-aree, W., Bull, A.T., Stach, J.E.M., Zucchi, T.D., Zhang, L. & Wang, J. (2012a). Verrucosispora fiedleri sp. nov., an actinomycete isolated from fjord sediment which syntheses proximicins. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 103, 493-502.
- Goodfellow, M., Stach, J.E.M., Brown, R., Bonda, A.N.V., Jones, A.L., Mexon, J, Fielder, H-P., Zucchi, T.D. & Bull, A.T. (2012b). Verrucosispora maris sp. nov., a novel deep-sea actinomycete isolated from a marine sediment which produces abyssomocins. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 10, 185-193.

- Gordon, R. E. & Mihm, J. M. (1962). The type species of the genus Nocardia. Journal of General Microbiology 27, 1-10.
- Gordon, R. E., Barnett, D. A., Handerhan, J. E. & Pang, C. H. (1974). Nocardia coeliaca, Nocardia autotrophica and the nocardin strain. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 24, 54-63.
- Gregory, P. H. & Lacey, M. E. (1963). Mycological examination of dust from mouldy hay associated with farmer's lung disease. *Journal of General Microbiology* 30, 75-88.
- Gtari, M., Essoussi, Maaoui, R., Sghaier, H., boujmil, R., Gury, J., pujic, P., Brusetti, L., Chouaia, B., Crotti, E., Daffonchio, D., Boudabous, A. & Normand, P. (2012). Contrasted resistance of stone dwelling *Geodermatophilaceae* species to stresses know to give rise to reactive oxygen species. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 80, 566-577.
- Guindon, S. & Gascuel, O. (2003). A simple, fast and accurate algorithm to estimate large phylogenetics by maximum likelihood. *Systematic Biology* **52**, 696–704.
- Guo, Y., Zheng, W., Rong, X. & Huang, Y. (2008). A multilocus phylogeny of the Streptomyces griseus 16S rRNA gene clade: use of multilocus sequence analysis for streptomycete systematics. Internation Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 58, 149-159.
- Gupta, R.S. (1998). Protein phylogenies and signature sequences: a reappraisal of evolutionary relationships among archaea-bacteria, eubacteria and eukaryotes. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 62, 1435-1491.
- **Gupta, R.S. (2000).** The phylogeny of proteobacteria: relationships to other eubacterial phyla and eukaryotes. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews* **24**, 367-402.
- Gupta, R. S. (2009). Protein signatures (molecular synapomorphies) that are distinctive characteristics of the major cyanobacterial clades. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 59, 2510-2526.
- Handelsman, J. (2004). Metagenomics: application of genomics to uncultured microorganisms. *Microbiology Molecular Biology Reviews* 68, 669-685.
- Hanka, L. J. & Schaadt, R. D. (1988). Methods for isolation of streptoverticillia from soil. *Journal of Antibiotics (Tokyo)* 41, 576-578.
- Harayama, S. & Kasai, H. (2006). Bacterial phylogeny reconstruction from molecular sequences. In *Molecular Identification, Systematics and Population Structure* of Prokaryotes, pp. 23-50. Edited by E. Stackebrandt. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

- Harper, J.L. & Hawksworth, D.L. (1994). Biodiversity: Measurement and Estimation. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society London, 1994. pp. 5-12.
- Hartley, A.J., Chong, G., Houston, J. & Mather, A.F. (2005). 150 million years of climatic stability: evidence from the Atacama Desert, northern Chile. *Journal* of Geological Science 162,421–424.
- Harwani, D. (2013). Biodiversity of rare thermophilic actinomycetes in the Great Indian Thar Desert: an overview. Indo American Journal of Phamaceutical Research 11, 9349-9356.
- Hasegawa, T., Takizawa, M. & Tanida, S. (1983). A rapid analysis for chemical grouping of aerobic actinomycetes. *Journal of General and Applied Microbiology* 29: 319-322.
- Hayakawa, M. & Nonomura, H. (1987). Humic acid-vitamin agar, a new medium for the selective isolation of soil actinomycetes. *Journal of Fermentation Technology* 65, 501-509.
- Hayakawa, M., Ishizawa, K. & Nonomura, H. (1988). Distribution of rare actinomycetes in Japanese soils. *Journal of Fermentation Technology* 66, 367-373.
- Hayakawa, M., Momose, Y., Kajiura, T., Yamazaki, T., Tamura, T., Hatano, K. & Nonomura, H. (1995). A selective isolation method for *Actinomadura viridis* in soil. *Journal of Fermentation Bioengineering* 79, 287-289.
- Hayakawa, M., Kajiura, T. & Nonomura, H. (1991a). New methods for the highly selective isolation of *Streptosporangium* and *Dactylosporangium* from soil. *Journal of Fermentation and Bioengineering* 72, 327-333.
- Hayakawa, M., Sadakata, T., Kajiura, T. & Nonomura, H. (1991b). New methods for the highly selective isolation of *Micromonospora* and *Microbispora* from soil. *Journal of Fermentation Bioengineering* 72, 320-326.
- Hayakawa, M., Takeuchi, T. & Yamazaki, T. (1996). Combined use of trimethoprim with nalidixic acid for the selective isolation and enumeration of actinomycetes from soil. *Actinomycetologica* 10, 80-90.
- Hayakawa, M., Otoguro, M., Takeuchi, T., Yamazaki, T. & Iimura, Y. (2000). Application of a method incorporating differential centrifugation for selective isolation of motile actinomycetes in soil and plant litter. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 78, 171-185.

- Head, I. M., Saunders, J. R. & Pickup, R. W. (1998). Microbial evolution, diversity, and ecology: A decade of ribosomal RNA analysis of uncultivated microorganisms. *Microbial Ecology* 35, 1-21.
- Helaly, S.E., Goodfellow, M., Zinecker, H., Imhoff, J., Süssmuth, R.D. & Fiedler,
 H.-P. (2013). Warkmycin, a novel angucycline antibiotic produced by *Streptomyces* sp. Acta 2930. *The Journal of Antibiotics* 66, 669-674.
- Hohmann, C., Schneider, K, Bruntner, C.,Irran, E., Nicholson, G., Bull, A.t., Jones,
 A.L., Brown, R., Stach, J.E.M., Goodfellow, M., Beil, W., Krämer, M.,
 Imhoff, J.F., Süssmuth, R.D. & Fiedler, H.-P. (2009). Caboxamycin, a new antibiotic of the benzoazole family produced by the deep-sea strain *Streptomyces* sp. NTK 937*. *The Journal of Antibiotics* 62, 99-104.
- Hopkins, D. W., Macnaughton, S. J. & O'Donnell, A. G. (1991). A dispersion and differential centrifugation technique for representatively sampling microorganisms from soil. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 23, 217-225.
- Hopwood, D.A. (2007). *Streptomyces in Nature and Medicine: The Antibiotic Markers*. New York, Oxford University Press.
- Houston, J. & Hartley, A.J. (2003). The central Andes west-slope rainshadow and its potential contribution to the origin of hyper-aridity in the Atacama Desert. *International Journal of Climatology* 23, 1453-1464.
- Hozzein, W.N., Li, W.-J., Jiang, C.-L., Ali, M.I., Hammouda, U., Mousa, M.A. & Xu, L.-U. (2004). Nocardiopsis alkaliphila sp. nov., a novel alkaliphilic actinomtcete isolated from desert soil Egypt. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 54, 274-252.
- Hsu, S. C. & Lockwood, J. L. (1975). Powdered chitin agar as a selective medium for enumeration of actinomycetes in water and soil. *Applied Microbiology* 29, 422-426.
- Huang, Y., Pasciak, M., Liu, Z. H., Xie, Q. & Gamian, A. (2004). Amycolatopsis palatopharyngis sp. nov., a potentially pathogenic actinomycete isolated from a human clinical source. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 54, 359–363.
- Hütter, B., Fischer, C., Jacobi, A., Schaab, C. & Loferer, H. (2004). Panel of Bacillus subtilis reporter strains indicative of various modes of action. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 48, 2588-2594.
- Ikeda, H., Ishikawa, J., Hanamoto, A., Shinose, M., Kikuchi, H., Shiba, T., Sakaki,Y., Hattori, M. & Omura, S. (2003). Complete genome sequence and

comparative analysis of the industrial microorganism *Streptomyces avermitilis*. *Nature Biotechnology* **21**, 526-531.

- Imhoff, J.F., Labes, A. & Wiese, J. (2011). Bio-mining the microbial treasures of the ocean: new natural products. *Biotechnology Advances* 29, 468-482.
- Ivanova, N., Sikorski, J., Jando, M., Lapidus, M., Munk, C., Lapidus, A., Rio, Glavina, D.R.T., Copeland, A., Tice, H., Cheng, J.F., Lucas, S., Chen, F., Nolan, M., Bruce, D., Goodwin, L., Pitluck, S., Mavromatis, K., Mikhailova, N., Pari, A., Chen, A., Palaniappan, K., Land, M., Hauser, L., Chang, Y.J., Jeffries, C.D., Meincke, L., Brettin, T., Detter, J.C., Rohde, M., Göker, M., Bristow, J., Elsen, J.A., Markowitz, V., Hugenholtz, P., Kypides, N.C.& Klenk, H.P. (2010). Complete genome sequence of *Geodermatophilus obscurus* type strain (G-20). *Standards in Genomic Sciences* 30, 158-167.
- Ivantiskaya, L.P., Singal, S.M., Bibikova, M.V. & Vostrov, S.N. (1978). Direct isolation of *Micromonospora* on selective media with gentamicin. *Antibiotiki* 23, 690-692.
- Jadambaa, N. (2006). Identification of rare soecies of actinomycetes in soils of Mongolia. 18th World Congress of Soil Science, July 9-15, 2006-Philadelphia, Penncylvania, USA.
- Jahnke, K. D. (1994). A modified method of quantitative colorimetric DNA-DNA hybridization on membrane filters for bacterial identification. *Journal of Microbiology methods* 20, 273-288.
- Janso, J.E. & Carter, G.T. (2010). Biosynthetic potential of phylogenetically unique endophytic actinomycetes from tropical plants. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 76, 4377-4386.
- Jensen, H. L. (1930). Actinomycetes in Danish soils. Soil Science 30, 59-77.
- Jensen, P. R. (2010). Linking species concepts to natural product discovery in the postgenomic era. Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology 37, 219-224.
- Jensen, P.R. & Mafnas, C. (2006). Biogeography of the marine actinomycete Salinispora. Environmental Microbiology 73, 1146-1152.
- Jensen, P. R., Mincer, T. J., Williams, P. G. & Fenical, W. (2005). Marine actinomycete diversity and natural product discovery. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 87, 43-48.

- Jensen, P.R., Williams P.G., Oh, D.C., Zeigler, L. & Fenical, W. (2007). Speciesspecific secondary metabolite production in marine actinomycetes of the genus *Salinispora*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 73: 1146-1152.
- Jin, Z. H., Lin, J. P., Xu, Z. N. & Cen, P. L. (2002). Improvement of industry-applied rifamycin B-producing strain, *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*, by rational screening. *Journal General Applied Microbiology* 48, 329-334.
- Johnson, E.A., Madia, S. & Demain, A. (1981). Chemically defined minimal medium growth of the anaerobic cellulolytic thermophile *Clostidium thermocellum*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 41, 1060-1062.
- Jolley, K. & Maiden, M. (2010). BIGSdb: scalable analysis of bacterial genome variation at the population level. *BMC Bioinformatics* 11,595.
- Jones, K.L. (1949). Fresh isolates of actinomycetes in which the presence of the sporogenous aerial mycelia is a fluctuating characteristic. *Journal of Bacteriology* 57, 141-145.
- Jukes, T. H. & Cantor, C. R. (1969). Evolution of protein molecules. In Mammalian Protein Metabolism, pp. 21-132. Edited by H. N. Munro. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Jung, H. M., Jeya, M., Kim, S. Y., Moon, H. J., Kumar Singh, R., Zhang, Y. W. & Lee, J. K. (2009). Biosynthesis, biotechnological production, and application of teicoplanin: Current state and perspectives. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 84, 417-428.
- Kaminuma, E., Kosuge, T., Kodama, Y., Aono, I., Mashima, J., Gojobori, T.,
 Sugawara, H., Ogasawara, O., Takagi, T., Okubo, K. & Nakamura, Y.
 (2011). DDBJ progress report. *Nucleic Acids Research* 39, D22-D27.
- Kämpfer, P. (2012). Family 1. Streptomycetaceae Waksman and Henrici 1943, 339AL emend. Rainey, Ward-Rainey and Stackebrandt, 1997, 486 emend. Kim, Lonsdale, Seong and Goodfellow 2003b, 113 emend. Zhi, Li and Stackebrandt 2009, 600. In *Bergey's manual of systematic bacteriology, 2nd edn.* pp. 1446–1454. Editied by M. Goodfellow, P. Kämpfer, H.-J. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, K.-I. Suzuki, W Ludwig and W.B. Whitman. New York, NY: Springer.
- Kämpfer, P. & Glaser, S.P. (2012). Prokaryotic taxonomy in the sequencing era-the polyphasic approach revisited. *Environmental Microbiology* 14, 291-317.
- Kämpfer, P., Kroppenstedt, R. M. & Dott, W. (1991). A numerical classification of the genera *Streptomyces* and *Streptoverticillium* using miniaturized physiological tests. *Journal of General Microbiology* 137, 1831-1891.
- Kang, C.-H., Nam, Y.-D., Chung, W.-H., Quan, Z.-X., Park, Y.-H., Park, S.-J., Desmone, R., Wan, X.-F. & Rhee, S.-K. (2007). Relationship between genome similarity and DNA-DNA hybridization among closely related bacteria. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 17, 945-951.
- Kawato, M. & Shinobu, R. (1959). On Streptomyces herbaricolor sp. nov., supplement: a simple technique for microscopical observation. Memories of Osaka University of Liberal Arts and Education Natural Science 8,114–119.
- Kelly, K. L. (1958). Centroid notations for the revised ISCC-NBS color name blocks. Journal of Research of the National Bureau of Standards USA 61, 472.
- Keller, S., Schadt, H. S., Ortel, I. & Süssmuth, R. D. (2007). Action of *atrop*abyssomicin C as an inhibitor of 4-amino-4-deoxychorismate synthase PabB. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 46, 8284-8286.
- Kennedy, J., Flemer, B., Jackson, S.A., Lejon D.P.H., Morrissey, J.P., O'Gara & Dobson, A.D.W. (2010). Marine metagenomics: new tools for the study and exploitation of marine microbial metabolism. *Marine Drugs* 8: 608-628.
- Khan, M.R. & Williams, S.T. (1975). Studies on the ecology of actinomycetes in soil-VII: distribution and characteristics of acidophilic actinomycetes. *Soil biology and Biochemistry* 7, 345-348.
- Kieft, T.L. (2002). Hot Desert Soil Communities. Encyclopedia of Environmental Microbiology. Wiley, New York, pp. 1576–1586.
- Kieser, T., Bibb, M.J., Buttner, Chater, K.F. & Hopwood, D.A. (2000). Practical Streptomyces Genetics. John Innes Foundation, Norwich Research Park, Colney, Norwich NR4 7UH, UK.
- Kim, B.-Y. (2010). Biosystematics of the genus Dactyosporangium and some other filamentous actinomycetes. PhD thesis, Newcastle University.
- Kim, B., Sahin, N. Minnikin, D.E., Zakrzewka-Czerwinska, J., Mordarski, M. & Goodfellow, M. (1999). Classification of thermophilic streptomycetes including description of *Streptomyces thermoakalitolerans*. International Journal of Systematic and Bacteriology 49, 7-17.
- Kim, M. & Chun, J. (2014). 16S rRNA gene based identification of Bacteria and Archaea using the EzTaxon server. *Mothods in Microbiology* 43 (in press).
- Kim, S.-B. & Goodfellow, M. (2002). Streptomyces thermospinisporus sp. nov., a moderately thermophilic carboxydotrophic streptomycete isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 52,1225– 1228.

- Kim, B.-K., Kshertrimayum, J.D. & Goodfellow, M. (2011). Detection, selective isolation and characterisation of *Dactyosporangium* strains from diverse environmental samples. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 34, 606-616.
- Kim, B. J., Lee, S. H., Lyu, M. A., Kim, S. J., Bai, G. H., Kim, S. J., Chae, G. T., Kim, E. C., Cha, C. Y. & Kook, Y. H. (1999). Identification of mycobacterial species by comparative sequence analysis of the RNA polymerase gene (*rpoB*). *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 37, 1714-1720.
- Kim, B.-J., Kim, C.J., Chun, J., Koh, Y.-H., Lee, S.-H., Hyun, J.-W., Cha, C.-Y. & Kook, Y.-H. (2004). Phylogenetic analysis of the genera *Streptomyces* and *Kitatospora* based on partial RNA polymerase β-subunit gene (*rpoB*) sequences. *International Journal of Systematic Evolutionary and Microbiology* 54, 593-598.
- Kim, M., Oh, H.-S., Park, S.-C. & Chun, J. (2014). Toward a taxonomic coherence between average nucleotide identity and 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity for species demarcation of prokaryotes. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 64, 346-351.
- Kim, O.-S., Chi, Y.-J., Lee, K., Yoon, S.-H., Kim, M., Na, H., Park, S.-C., Jeon, Y.S., Lee, J.-K., Yi, H., Won, S. & Chun, J. (2012). Introducing EzTaxon-e: a prokaryotic 16S rRNA gene sequence database with phylotypes that represent uncultured species. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 62, 716-721.
- Kim, S.-B., Tan, G.Y., Zakrzewska-Czerwinska, J. & Goodfellow, M. (2002a). Amycolatopsis eurytherma sp. nov., a thermophilic actinomycete isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 52, 889-894.
- Kim, S.-B., Lonsdale, J., Seong, C.-N. & Goodfellow, M. (2003). Streptacidiphilus gen. nov., acidophilic actinomycetes with wall chemotype I and emendation of the family Streptomycetaceae (Waksman and Henrici (1943)^{AL}) emended. Rainey et al. 1997. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 83, 107-116.
- Kimura, M. (1980). A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* 16, 111–120.
- Klenk, H.-P. & Göker, M. (2010). En route a genome-based classification of Archaea and Bacteria? *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 33, 175-182.

- Kluge, A.G. & Farris, J.S. (1967). Quantitative phyletics and the evolution of *of anurans*. *Systematic Zoology* 18, 1–32.
- Koch, C., Kroppenstedt, R. M., Rainey, F. A. & Stackebrandt, E. (1996). 16S ribosomal DNA analysis of the genera *Micromonospora*, *Actinoplanes*, *Catellatospora*, *Catenuloplanes*, *Couchioplanes*, *Dactylosporangium*, and *Pilimelia* and emendation of the family *Micromonosporaceae*. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 46, 765-768.
- Komagata, K. & Suzuki, K.-I. (1987). Lipid and cell wall analysis in bacterial systematics. *Methods in Microbiology* 19, 161-206.
- Krieg, N. R. (2005). Identification of prokaryotes. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*, pp. 33-38. Edited by D. J. Brenner, N. R. Krieg, J. T. Staley & G. M. Garrity. New York: Springer.
- Krieg, N.R. & Padgett, P.J. (2011). Phenotypic and physiological characterization methods. *Methods in Microbiology* 38, 15-60.
- Kroppenstedt, R. M. (1985). Fatty acid and menaquinone analysis of actinomycetes and related organisms. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics (Society for Applied Bacteriology Technical Series vol 20)*, pp. 173-199. Edited by M. Goodfellow and D. E. Minnikin. New York: Academic Press.
- Kroppenstedt, R. M. & Goodfellow, M. (2006). The Family Thermomonosporaceae: Actinocorallia, Actinomadura, Spirillospora and Thermomonospora. In The Prokaryotes, pp. 682-724. Edited by M. Dworkin, S. Falkow, K. H. Schleifer & E.Stackebrandt. New York: Springer.
- Kudo, T. & Seino, A. (1987). Transfer of Streptosporangium indianense Gupta 1965 to the genus Streptomyces as Streptomyces indiaensis (Gupta 1965) comb. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 37, 241-244.
- Kumar, Y., Aiemsum-ang, P., Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2007). Diversity and geographical distribution of members of the *Streptomyces violaceusniger* 16S rRNA gene clade by clade-specific PCR primers. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 62, 54-63.
- Kumar, Y. & Goodfellow, M. (2008). Five new members of the Streptomyces violaceusniger 16S rRNA gene clade: Streptomyces castelarensis sp. nov., comb. nov., Streptomyces himastatinicus sp. nov., Streptomyces mordarskii sp. nov., Streptomyces rapamycinicus sp. nov. and Streptomyces ruanii sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Evolutionary and Microbiolology 58, 1369-1378.

- Kurapova, A.I., Zenova, G.M., Studnitsyn, I.I., Kizilova, A.K., Manucharova, N.A., Norovsuren, Z. & Zvyagintev, D.G. (2012). Thermotolerant and thermophilic actinomycetes from soils of Mongolia Desert steppe zone. *Microbiology* 81, 98-108.
- Kurtböke, D. I. (2003). Use of bacteriophage for the selective isolation of rare actinomycetes. In *Selective Isolation of Rare Actinomycetes*, pp. 10-54. Edited by I. Kurtböke. Nambour, Queensland, Australia: Queensland Complete Printing Services.
- Küster, E. & Williams, S. T. (1964). Selection of media for isolation of streptomycetes. *Nature* 202, 928-929.
- Kutzner, H. J. (1976). Methoden zur Untersuchung von Streptomyceten und eingen anderen Actinomyceten. Darmstadt: Teilsammlung Darmstadt am Institut fur Microbiologi de Technischen Hochschule.
- Kyrpides, N.C., Woyhe, T., Eisen, J.A., Garrity, G., Lilburn, T.G., Beck, B.J., Whitman, W.B., Hugesholy, P. & Klenk, H.P. (2014). Genomic Encyclopidia of Type Strains Phase 1: the 1000 microbial genomes (KMG-1) project. *Standards in Genomic Sciences* 9, No3.
- Laatsch, H. (2013). Antibase 2012-The natural compound identifier. Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, Germany.
- Labeda, D.P. (2011). Multilocus sequence analysis of phytopathogenic Streptomyces species. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61, 2525–2531.
- Labeda, D.P. & Goodfellow, M. (2012a). Family I. Pseudonocardiaceae Embley, Smida, and Stackebrandt 1989, emend. Labeda, Goodfellow, Chun, Zhi and Li 2010a. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology. 2nd edition, volume 5 pp, 1302-1305. Edited by M. Goodfellow , P. Kämpfer, H. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, K. Suzuki, W. Ludwig and W.B. Whitman. New York, NY: Springer.
- Labeda, D.P. & Goodfellow, M. (2012b). OrderXIII. *Pseudonocardiales* ord. nov. Stackebrandt, Rainey and Ward-Rainey 1997, emend. Zhi, Li and Stackebrandt 2009. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*. 2nd edition, volume 5 p, 1301. Edited by M. Goodfellow , P. Kämpfer, H. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, K. Suzuki, W. Ludwig and W.B. Whitman. New York, NY: Springer.
- Labeda, D. P. & Shearer, M. C. (1990). Isolation of actinomycetes for biotechnological applications. In *Isolation of Biotechnological Organisms from Nature*, pp. 1-19. Edited by D. P. Labeda. London: McGraw-Hill.

- Labeda, D. P., Donahue, J. M., Williams, N. M., Sells, S. F. & Henton, M. M. (2003). Amycolatopsis kentuckyensis sp. nov., Amycolatopsis lexingtonensis sp. nov., and Amycolatopsis pretoriensis sp. nov., isolated from equine placentas. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 53, 1601– 1605.
- Labeda, D. P., Goodfellow, M., Chun, J., Zhi, X.-Y. & Li, W.-J. (2011). Reassessment of the systematics of the suborder *Pseudonocardineae*: transfer of the genera within the family *Actinosynnemataceae* Labeda and Kroppenstedt 2000 emend. Zhi *et al.* 2009 into an emended family *Pseudonocardiaceae* Embley *et al.* 1989 emend. Zhi *et al.* 2009. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 61, 1259-1264.
- Labeda, D.P., Goodfellow, M., Brown, R., Ward, A.C., Lanoot, C., Vanncanneyt, M., Swings, J., Kim, S.-B., Liu, Z., Chun, J., Tamura, T., Oguchi, A., Kikuchi, T., Kikuchi, H., Nishii, T., Tsuji, K., Yamaguchi, Y., Tase, A., Takahashi, M., Sakane, T., Suzuki, K.I. & Hatano, K. (2012). Phylogenetic study of the species within the family *Streptomycetaceae*. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 101, 73–104.
- Labeda, D.P., Doroghazi, J.P., Ju, K.-S. & Metcalf, W.W. (2014). Taxonomic evaluation of *Streptomyces albus* and related species using multilocus sequence analysis and proposals to emend the description of *Streptomyces albus* and describe *Streptomyces pathocidini* sp. nov. *International Journal of Systematic* and Evolutionary Microbiology 64. 894-900.
- Lam, K.S. (2007). New aspects of natural products in drug discovery. Trends in Microbiology 15, 279-289.
- Lanoot, B., Vancanneyt, M., Cleenwerck, I., Wang, L., Li, W., Liu, Z. & Swings, J. (2002). The search for synonyms among streptomycetes by using SDS-PAGE of whole-cell proteins. Emendation of the species *Streptomyces aurantiacus*, *Streptomyces cacaoi* subsp. *cacaoi*, *Streptomyces caeruleus* and *Streptomyces violaceus*. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutinary Microbiolgy* 52, 823-829.
- Lanoot, B., Vancanneyt, M., Hoste, B., Vandemeulebroecke, K., Cnockaert, M. C., Dawyndt, P., Liu, Z., Huang, Y. & Swings, J. (2005). Grouping of streptomycetes using 16S-ITS RFLP fingerprinting. *Research in Microbiology* 156, 755-762.

Lapage, S. P., Sneath, P. H. A., Lessel, E. F., Skerman, V. B. D., Seeliger, H. P. R.

& Clark, W. A. (1975). *International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria*. Washington, DC: ASM Press.

- Lapage, S. P., Sneath, P. H. A., Lessel, E. F., Skerman, V. B. D., Seeliger, H. P. R.
 & Clark, W. A. (1992). International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria (1990 Revision). Bacteriological Code. Washington, DC: ASM Press.
- Lazzarini, A., Cavaletti, L., Toppo, G. & Marinelli, F. (2000). Rare genera of actinomycetes as potential producers of new antibiotics. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 78, 399-405.
- Lechevalier, M. P. (1972). Description of a new species, Oerskovia xanthineolytica and emendation of Oerskovia Prauser et al. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 22, 260-264.
- Lechevalier, M. P. & Lechevalier, H.A. (1970). Chemical composition as a criterion in the classification of aerobic actinomycetes. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 20, 435-443.
- Lechevalier, M. P., De Bièvre, C. & Lechevalier, H. A. (1977). Chemotaxonomy of aerobic actinomycetes: phospholipid composition. *Biochemical Systematics* and Ecology 5, 249-260.
- Lechevalier, M.P., Prauser, H., Labeda, D.P. & Ruan, J.S. (1986). Two new genera of nocardioform actinomycetes-*Amycolata* gen. nov. and *Amycolatopsis* gen. nov. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 36, 29-37.
- Lee, S.D. (2009). Amycolatopsis ultiminotia sp. nov., isolated from rhizosphere soil, and emended description of the genus Amycolatopsis. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 59, 1401–1404.
- Lingappa, B.T. & Lockwood, J.L. (1962). Fungitoxicity of lignin monomers, model substances, amd decomposition products. *Phytopathology* **52**, 295-299.
- Lotz, A., Ferroni, A., Beretti, J. L., Dauphin, B., Carbonnelle, E., Guet-Revillet, H., Veziris, N., Heym, B., Jarlier, V., Gaillard, J. L., Pierre-Audigier, C., Frapy, E., Berche, P., Nassif, X. & Bille, E. (2010). Rapid identification of mycobacterial whole cells in solid and liquid culture media by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 48, 4481-4486.
- Ludwig,W. & Klenk, H.-P. (2001). Overview: a phylogenetic backbone and taxonomic framework for procaryotic systematics. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*, 2nd edn, pp. 49-65. Edited by D. R. Boone, R. W. Castenholz and G. M. Garrity. New York: Springer.

- Ludwig, W. & Klenk, H. P. (2005). Overview: a phylogenetic backbone and taxonomic framework for procaryotic systematics. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*, pp. 49-66. Edited by D. J. Brenner, N. R. Krieg, J. T. Staley and G. M. Garrity. New York: S pringer.
- Ludwig, W., Strunk, O., Westram, R., Richter, L., Meier, H., Yadhukumar, Buchner, A., Lai, T., Steppi, S., Jobb, G., Förster, W., Brettske, I., Gerber, S., Ginhart, A. W., Gross, O., Grumann, S., Hermann, S., Jost, R., König, A., Liss, T., Lu["]Bmann, R., May, M., Nonhoff, B., Reichel, B., Strehlow, R., Stamatakis, A., Stuckmann, N., Vilbig, A., Lenke, M., Ludwig, T., Bode, A. & Schleifer, K. H. (2004). ARB: a software environment for sequence data. Nucleic Acids Research 32, 1363-1371.
- Ludwig, W., Euzéby, J. and Whitman, W. B. (2011a). Road map to the phyla Bacteroidetes, Spirochaetes, Tenericutes (Mollicutes), Acidobacteria, Fibrobacteres, Fusobacteria, Dictyoglomi, Gemmatimonadetes, Lentisphaerae, Verrucomicrobia, Chlamydiae, and Planctomycetes. In: Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, Volume 4, pp. 1-19. Edited by W.B. Whitman. Springer, New York.
- Ludwig, W., Schleifer, K.-H. & Whitman, W. (2012). Road map of Actinobacteria. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, Volume 5 pp. 1-28. Edited by M. Goodfellow, P. Kämpfer, H. J. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, V. Ludwig, K.-I. Suzuki and W.B. Whitman, A. Parte, Springer, New York.
- Ludwig, W., Oliver, F., Glöchner, F.O. & Yilmaz, P. (2011b). The use of rRNA gene sequence data in the classification and identification of prokaryotes. *Method in Microbiology* **38**, 349-384.
- Luedemann, G.M. (1968). *Geodermatophilus*, a new genus of the *Dermatophilaceae* (Actinomycetes). Journal of Bacteriology **96**, 1848-1858.
- Luedemann, G.M. (1971). Micromonospora purpureochromogenes (Waksman and Curtis 1916) comb. nov. (Subjective synonym. Micromonospora fusca Jensen 1932). International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 21, 240-247.
- Luo, X., Wang, J., Zeng, X.-C., Wang, Y., Zhou, L., Nie, Y., Dai, J. & Fang, C. (2012). Mycetocola manganoxydans sp. nov., novel actinobacteria isolated from the Taklamakan Desert. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 2967-2970.

- MacDonald, R. M. (1986). Sampling soil microfloras: dispersion of soil by ion exchange and extraction of specific microorganisms by elutriation. *Soil Biology* and Biochemistry 18, 399-406.
- MacNaughton, S.J. & O'Donnell, A.G. (1994). Tuberculostearic acid as a means of estimating the recovery (using dispersion and differential centrifugation) of actinomycetes from soil. *Journal of Microbiological Methods* 20, 69–77.
- Maiden, M. C. J., Bygraves, J. A., Feil, E., Morelli, G., Russell, J. E., Urwin, R., Zhang, Q., Zhou, J., Zurth, K., Caugant, D. A., Feavers, I. M., Achtman, M. & Spratt, B. G. (1998). Multilocus sequence typing: a portable approach to the identification of clones within populations of pathogenic microorganisms. *Proceedings of the National Academy Sciences U S A* 95, 3140-3145.
- Makkar, N. S. & Cross, T. (1982). Actinoplanetes in soil and on plant litter from freshwater habitats. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 52, 209-218.
- Maldonado, L., Hookey, J. V., Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2000). The Nocardia salmonicida clade, including descriptions of Nocardia cummidelens sp. nov., Nocardia fluminea sp. nov. and Nocardia soli sp. nov. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 78, 367-377.
- Maldonado, L.A., Stach, J.E.M., Pathom-aree, W., Ward, A.C., Bull, A.T. & Goodfellow, M. (2005). Diversity of cultivable actinobacteria in geographically wide spread marine sediments. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 87, 11-18.
- Maldonado, L.A., Stach, J.E.M., Ward, A.C., Bull, A.T. & Goodfellow, M. (2008). Characterisation of micromonosporae from aquatic environments using molecular taxonomic menthds. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 94, 289-298.
- Maldonado, L.A., Frangoso-Yáňez, D., Pérez-Garciä, A., Rosellón- Druker, J., Quintana, E. (2009). Actinobacterial diversity from marine sediments collected in Mexico. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 95, 111–120.
- Manfio, G. P., Zakrzewska-Czerwinska, J., Atalan, E. & Goodfellow, M. (1995). Towards minimal standards for description of *Streptomyces* species. *Biotechnologia* 7, 242 - 283.
- Manfio, G. P., Atalan, E., Zakrzewska-Czerwinska, J., Mordarski, M., Rodriguez, C., Collins, M. D. & Goodfellow, M. (2003). Classification of novel soil streptomycetes as *Streptomyces aureus* sp. nov. *Streptomyces laceyi* sp. nov and *Streptomyces sanglieri* sp. nov. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 83, 245–255.

- Manivasagan, P., Venkatesan, J., Sivakumar, K. & Kim, S.-K. (2013). Marine actinobacterial metabolites: Current status and future perspectives. *Microbiological Research* 168, 311-332.
- Mao, J., Wang, J., Dai, H.-Q., Zhang, A.-D., Tang, Q.-Y., Ren, B., Goodfellow, M., Zhang, L.-X. & Liu, Z.-H. (2010). Yuhushiella deserti gen. nov., sp. nov., a new member of suborder *Pseudonocardineae*. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61, 621-630.
- Martens, M., Dawyndt, P., Coopman, R., Gillis, M., De Vos, P. & Willems, A. Using 10 housekeeping genes in the genus *Ensifer* (including former *Sinorhizobium*). *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 58, 200-214.
- McCarthy, A. J. & Cross, T. (1981). A note on a selective isolation medium for the thermophilic actinomycete *Thermomonospora chromogena*. Journal of Applied Bacteriology 51, 299-302.
- McKay, C.P., Friedmann, E.I., Gómez-Silva, B., Cáceres- Villanueva, L. &Andersen, D.T. (2003). Temperature and moisture conditions for life in the extreme arid region of the Atacama Desert: four years of observations including the El Niño of 1997–998. Astrobiology 3, 393–406.
- Medema, M.H., Blin, K., Cimermancic, P. de J.V., Zakrzewski, P., Fischbach, M.A., Weber, T., Takano, E., Breitling, R. (2011). AntiSMASH: rapid identification, annotation and analysis of secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters in bacterial and fungal genome sequences. *Nucleic Acids Research* 39, W339–W346.
- Mehlen, A., Goeldner, M., Ried, S., Stindl, S., Ludwig, W. & Schleifer, K.-H. (2004). Development of a fast DNA-DNA hybridization method based on melting profiles in microplates. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 27, 689-695.
- Meier-Kolthoff, J.P., Göker, M., Spröer, S. & Klenk, H.P. (2013). When should a DDH experiment be mandatory in microbial taxonomy? Archives of Microbiology 195, 413-418.
- Meklat, A., Sabaou, N., Zitouni, A., Mathieu, F. & Lebrihi, A. (2011). Isolation, taxonomy and antagonistic properties of halophilic actinomycetes in Saharan soils of Algeria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 77, 6710-6714.
- Mertz, F.P. & Higgens, C.E. (1982). Streptomyces capillispiralis sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 32, 116-124.

- Mevs, U., Stackebrandt, E., Schumann, P., Gallikowski, C.A. & Hirsch, P. (2000). Modestobacter sultiseptatus gen. nov., sp. nov., a budding actinomycete from soils of the Asgard Range (Transantarctic Mountains). International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 50, 337-346.
- Miao, Q., Qin, S., Bian, G.-K., Yuan, B., Xing, K., Zhang, Y.-J., Li, Q., Tang, S.-K., Li, W.-J. & Jiang, J.-H. (2011). *Amycolatopsis endophytica* sp. nov., a novel endophytic actinomycete isolated from oil-seed plant *Jatropha curas* L. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 100, 333-339.
- Millard, W.A. & Burr, S. (1926). A study of twenty-four strains of *Actinomyces* and their relation to types of common scab of potatoes. *Annuals of Applied Biology* 13, 580-644.
- Miller, J.H. (1972). *Experiments in molecular genetics*. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory. Cold Spring Harbor.
- Mincer, T.J., Jensen, P.R., Kauffman, C.A. & Fenical, W. (2002). Widespread and persistent populations of a major new marine actinomycete taxon in ocean sediments. *Applied Environmental Microbiology* 68, 5005–5011.
- Minnikin, D. E., Hutchinson, I. G., Caldicott, A. B. & Goodfellow, M. (1980). Thinlayer chromatography of methanolysates of mycolic acid-containing bacteria. *Journal of Chromatography* 188, 221-233.
- Minnikin, D. E., O'Donnell, A. G., Goodfellow, M., Alderson, G., Athalye, M., Schaal, A. & Parlett, J. H. (1984). An integrated procedure for the extraction of bacterial isoprenoid quinones and polar lipids. *Journal of Microbiology Methods* 2, 233-241.
- Mishra, S. K., R. E. Gordon & D. A. Barnett. (1980). Identification of nocardiae and streptomycetes of medical importance. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 11, 728-736.
- Miragaia, M., Thomas, I. C., Couto, I., Enright, M. C. & de Lencastre, H. (2007). Inferring a population structure for *Staphylococcus epidermidis* from multilocus sequence typing data. *Journal of Bacteriology* 189, 2540-2552.
- Montero-Calasans, M.C., Göker, M., Pötter, G., Rohde, M., Spröer, C., Schumann, P., Gorbushina, A.A. & Klenk, H.P. (2013). Geodermatophilus normandii sp. nov., isolated from Saharan desert soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 63, 3437-3443.

- Murray, P. R., Baron, E. J., Pfalter, M. A., Tenover, F. C. & Yolken, R. H. (1999). Manual of Clinical Microbiology, 7th edn. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology.
- Nachtigall, J., Kulik, A., Bull, A.T., Goodfellow, M, Asenjo, J.A., Maier, A., Weise, J., Imhoff, J.F., Süssmuth, R.D. & Fiedler, H.-P. (2011). Atacamycins A-C, 22 membered antitumor macrolactones produced by *Streptomyces* sp. C38. *Journal of Antibiotics* 64, 775-780.
- Nakamura, K., Hiraishi, A., Yoshimi, Y., Kawaharasaki, M., Masuda, K. & Kamagata, Y. (1995). *Microlunatus phosphovorus* gen. nov., sp. nov., a new gram-positive polyphosphate-accumulating bacterium isolated from activated sludge. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 45, 17–22.
- Navarro-Gonzalez, R., Rainey F.A., Molina, P., Bagaley, D.R., Hollen, B.J., De la Rosa, J. Small, S.M., Quinn, R.C., Grunthaner, F.J., Caceres, L., Gómez-Silva, B. & McKay, C.P. (2003). Mars-like soils in the Atacama Desert, Chile, and the dry limit of microbial life. *Science* 302, 1018-1021.
- Nei, M. & Kumar, S. (2000). Molecular evolution and phylogenetics. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Neilson, J.W., Quade, J., Ortiz, M., Nelson, W.M., Legatzki, A., Tian, F., LaComb, M., Betancourt, J.L., Wing, R.A., Soderlund, C.A. & Maier, R.M. (2012). Life at the hyperarid margin: novel bacterial diversity in arid soils of the Atacama Desert, Chile. *Extremeophiles* 16, 553-566.
- Newman, D.J. (2008). Natural products as leads to potential drugs: an old process or the hope for drug discovery? *Journal of Medical Chemistry* **61**, 2589-2599.
- Newman, D.J. & Cragg, G.M. (2013). Natural products as sources of new drugs over the 30 years from 1981-2010. *Journal of Natural Products* 75, 311-335.
- Nei, G.-X., Ming, H., Li, s., Zhou, E.-M., Cheng, J., Tang, W., Feng, H.-G., Tang, S.-K. & Li, W.-J. (2012). Amycolatopsis dongchuanensis sp. nov., an actinobacterium isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 2650-2656.
- Nie G.-X., Ming H., Li S., Zhou E.-M., Cheng J., Yu T.-T., Zhang J., Feng H.-G., Tang S.-K. & Li W.-J. (2012). Geodermatophilus nigrescens sp. nov., isolated from a dry-hot valley. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 101, 811-817.
- Niepold, F., Conrad, R. & Schlegel, H. G. (1979). Evaluation of the efficiency of extract for quantitative estimation of hydrogen bacteria in soil. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 45, 485-497.

- Nolan, R. D. & Cross, T. (1988). Isolation and screening of actinomycetes. In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology, pp. 1-32. Edited by M. Goodfellow, S. T. Williams & M. Mordarski. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Nonomura, H. & Ohara, Y. (1969). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. VII. A culture method effective for both of preferential isolation and enumeration of *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* strains in soil. Part 2 Classification of the isolates. *Journal of Fermentation Technology* 47, 701-709.
- Normand, P. & Benson, D. R. (2012). Genus I. Geodermatophilus Luedemann 1968. 1994. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, 2nd edn, vol 5, The Actinobacteria Part 1, pp. 528-530. Editted by M. Goodfellow, P. Kämpfer, H.J. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, K.I. Suzuki, W. Ludwig, W.B. Whitman. Springer, New York.
- Normand, P., Gury, J., Pujic, P., Chouaia, B., Brusetti, L., Daffonchio, D., Vancherie, B., Barbe, V., Médigue, C., Calteau, A., Ghodhbane-Gtari, F., Essoussi, I., Nouioui, I., Abbassi-Ghozzi, I. & Gtari, M. (2012). Genome sequence of radiation-resistant *Modestobacter marinus* strain BC 501, a representative actinobacterium that thrives on calcareous surfaces. *Journal of Bacteriology* 17, 4773-4774.
- Nonomura, H. & Takagi, S. (1977). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil of Japan. Journal of Fermentation Technology 55, 423-428.
- Norman, P. (2006). Geodermatophilaceae fam. nov., a formal description. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 56, 2277-2278.
- Normand, P., Orso, S., Cournoyer, B., Jeannin, P., Chapelon, C., Dawson, J., Evtushenko, L. & Misra, A. K. (1996). Molecular phylogeny of the genus Frankia and related genera and emendation of the family *Frankiaceae*. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 46, 1–9.
- O'Donnell, A.G. (1988). Recognition of novel actinomycetes. In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology, pp. 69-88. Edited by M. Goodfellow, S.T. Williams & M. Mordarski. London, Academic Press Ltd.
- O'Donnell, A.G., Falconer, C. Goodfellow, M., Ward, A.C. & Williams, E. (1993). Biosystematics and diversity amongst novel carboxydotrophic actinomecetes. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 64, 325-340.

- Okami, Y. & Hotta, K. (1988). Search and discovery of new antibiotics In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology, pp. 33-67. Edited by M. Goodfellow, S. T. Williams & M. Mordarski. London: Academic Press.
- Okoro, C., Brown, R., Jones, A., Andrews, B., Asenjo, J., Goodfellow, M & Bull, A. (2009). Diversity of culturable actinomycetes in hyper-arid soils of the Atacama Desert, Chile. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 95, 121-133.
- Okoro, C., Bull, A., Mutreja, A., Rong, X., Huang, Y. & Goodfellow, M. (2010). Lechevalieria atacamensis sp. nov., Lechevalieria deserti sp. nov. and Lechevalieria roselyniae sp. nov., isolated from hyperarid soils. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 60, 296-300.
- Olano, C., Méndez, C. & Salas, J.A. (2009). Antitumor compounds from marine actinomycetes. *Marine Drugs* 7, 210-248.
- Oliynyk, M., Samborskyy, M., Lester, J. B., Mironenko, T., Scott, N., Dickens, S., Haydock, S. F. & Leadlay, P. F. (2007). Complete genome sequence of the erythromycin-producing bacterium *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* NRRL 23338. *Nature Biotechnology* 25, 447-453.
- **Opell, J.B. & Zebal, G.P. (1967).** Ecological patterns of microorganism in deserts. *Life Science & Space Research* **5**, 187-203.
- Orchard, V. A. & Goodfellow, M. (1974). The selective isolation of *Nocardia* from soil using antibiotics. *Journal of Applied Bacterial Microbial* 85, 160-162.
- Orchard, V. A., Goodfellow, M. & Williams, S. T. (1977). Selective isolation and occurrence of nocardiae in soil. *Soil Biolology and Biochemistry* 9, 233-238.
- Orchard, V. A. & Goodfellow, M. (1980). Numerical classification of some named strains of *Nocardia asteroides* and related isolates from soil. *Journal of General Microbiology* 118, 295-312.
- Oren, A. & Garrity, G.M. (2014). Then and now: a systematic review of the systematics of prokaryotes in the last 80 years. *Antonie van Leeuwenkoek* DOI 10.1007/s10482-013-0084-1.
- Parro, V., de Diego-Castilla, G., Moreno-Paz, M., Blanco-López, Y., Cruz-Gil, P., Rodríguez-Manfredi, .JA., Fernández-Remolar, D., Gómez, F., Gómez, M.J., Echeverría, A., Urtuvia, V., Ruiz-Bermejo, M., Rivas, L.A., García-Villadango, M., Postigo, M., Sánchez-Román, M., Chong, G., Demergasso, C, & Gómez-Elvira J. (2011). A microbial oasis in the hypersaline Atacama subsurface discovered by a life detector chip: implication to the search for life on Mars. Astrobiology 11, 969-996.

- Pathom-aree, W., Nogi, Y., Sutcliffe, I.C., Ward, A.C., Horikoshi, K., Bull, A.T. & Goodfellow, M. (2006) Dermacoccus abyssi sp. nov, a piezzotolerant actinomycete isolated from the Mariana Trench. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 56, 1233-1236.
- Paulino-Lima, I. G., Azua-Bustos A., Vicuña R., Gonzáles-Silva, Salas, L., Tiexeira, L., Rosado, A. da Costa Leitao, A.A. & Lage, C. (2013). Isolation of UVCtolerant bacteria from the hyperarid Atacama Desert, Chile. Microbial Ecology, 65, 325-335.
- Payne, D. J., Gwynn, M. N., Holmes, D. J. & Pompliano, D. L. (2007). Drugs for bad bugs: Confronting the challenges of antibacterial discovery. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery* 6, 29-40.
- Porter, J. N., Wilhelm, J. J. & Tresner, H. D. (1960). Method for preferential isolation of actinomycetes from soils. *Applied Microbiology* 8, 174-178.
- Pridham, T. G. & Gottlieb, D. (1948). The utilization of carbon compounds by some Actinomycetales as an aid for species determination. Journal of Bacteriology 56, 107–114.
- Priest, F. G. (2004). Approaches to identification. In *Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting*, pp. 49-56. Edited by A. T. Bull. Washington, DC: ASM Press.
- Priest, F. G. & Williams, S. T. (1993). Computer-assisted identification. In *Hand book of New Bacterial Systematics*, pp. 361-381. Edited by M. Goodfellow & A. G. O'Donnell. London: Academic Press.
- Priest, F. G. & Goodfellow, M., eds. (2000). Applied Microbial Systematics. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 1-290.
- Promnuan, Y., Kudo, T., Ohkuma, M. & Chantawannakul, P. (2013). Streptomyces chiangmaiensis sp. nov., and Streptomyces lanensis sp. nov., isolated from the south-Easr Asian stingless bee (*Tetragonilla collina*). International Journal of systematic and Evoluitional Microbiology 63, 1896-1901.
- Pruesse, E., Quast, C., Knittel, K., Fuchs, B. M., Ludwig, W., Peplies, J. and Glöckner, F. O. (2007). SILVA: a comprehensive online resource for quality checked and aligned ribosomal RNA sequence data compatible with ARB. *Nucleic Acids Research* 35, 7188-7196.
- Pukall, R., Lapidus, A., Glavina, D.R.T., Copeland, A. Tice, H., Cheng, J.F., Lucas,
 S., Chen, F., Nolan, M., Labutti, K., Pati, A., Ivenova, N., Mavromatis, K.,
 Mikhailova, N., Pitluck, S., Bruce, D., Goodwin, L., Land, M., Hauser, L.,
 Chang, Y.J., Jeffries, C.D., Chen, A., Palaniappan, K., Chain, P., Rohde,

M., Göker, M., Bristow, J., Eisen, J.A., Markowitz, V., Huhenholtz, P., Kyrpides, N.C., Klenk, H.P. & Brettin, T. (2012). Complete genome sequence of *Kribbella flavida* type strain (IFO 14399). *Standards in Genomic Sciences* 2, 186-193.

- Qin, S., Zhao, G. Z., Li, J., Zhu, W. Y., Xu, L. H. & Li, W. J. (2009). Jiangella alba sp. nov., an endophytic actinomycete isolated from the stem of Maytenus austroyunnanensis. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiolgy 59, 2162-2165.
- Qin, S., Brian, G.K., Zhang, Y.J., Xing, K., Cao, C.L., Lui, C.H., Dai, C.C. & Jiang, J.H. (2013). Modestobacter roseus sp. nov., an endophytic actinomycete isolate from the coastal halophyte Salicornia europea Linn., and emended description of the genus Modestobacter. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 63, 2197-2202.
- Rainey, F.A. & Oren, A., eds (2011). Taxonomy of prokaryotes. Method in Microbiology, Volume 38.. Elseiver, London, pp. 1-472.
- Rappé, M. S. & Giovannoni, S. J. (2003). The uncultured microbial majority. Annual Review of Microbiology 57, 369-394.
- Ramsay, A. J. (1984). Extraction of bacteria from soil: efficiency of shaking or ultrasonication as indicated by direct counts and autoradiography. *Soil Biology* and Biochemistry 16, 475-481.
- Rateb, M.E., Houssen, W.E., Arnold, M., Abdelrahman, M.-H., Deng, H., Harrison, W.T.A., Okoro, C.K., Asenjo, J.A., Andrews, B.A., Ferguso,n G., Bull, A.T., Goodfellow, M., Ebel, R. & Jaspars, M. (2011a). Chaxamycins A-D, bioactive ansamycins from a hyper-arid desert *Streptomyces* sp. *Journal of Natural Products* 74, 1965–1971.
- Rateb, M.E., Houssen, W.E., Arnold, M., Abdelrahman, Deng, H., Harrison, W.T.A., Okoro, C.K., Asenjo, J.A., Andrew, B.A., Ferguson, G., Bull, A.T., Goodfellow, M., Ebel, R. & Jaspars, M. (2011b). Chaxamycins A-D, new bioactive ansamycins from a hyper-arid desert *Streptomyces* sp. *Journal of Natural Product* 74, 1491-1499.
- Ray, L., Suar, M., Kumar, Pattnaik, A.K. & Raina, V. (2013). Streptomyces chickensis sp. nov. a novel halophilic streptomycete isolated from brackish water sediment of Lake Chilika in Odisha. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 63, 2754-2764.

- Reasoner, D.J. & Geldreich, E.E. (1985). A new medium for the enumeration and subculture of bacteria from potable water. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 49, 1-7.
- Reddy, G.S.N., Potrafka, R.M. & Garcia-Pichel, F. (2007). Modestobacter versicolor sp. nov., an actinobacterium from biological soils cruts that produces melanins under oligothrophy, with emended descriptions of the genus Modestobacter multiseptatus Mevs et al. 2000. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 57, 2014-2020.
- Reddy, T.V., Mahmood, S., Paris, L., Reddy, Y.H., Wellington, E.M.H. & Idris, M.M. (2011). Streptomyces hyderabadensis sp. nov. an actinomycete isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61, 76–80.
- Reed, J. F. & Cummings, R. W. (1945). Soil reaction-glass electrodes and colorimetric methods for determining pH values in soil. Soil Science 59, 97-104.
- Riedlinger, J., Reicke, A., Zähner, H., Krismer, B., Bull, A. T., Maldonado, L. A., Ward, A. C., Goodfellow, M., Bister, B., Bischoff, D., Süssmuth, R. D. & Fiedler, H. P. (2004). Abyssomicins, inhibitors of the *para*-aminobenzoic acid pathway produced by the marine *Verrucosispora* strain AB-18-032. *Journal of Antibiotics (Tokyo)* 57, 271-279.
- Ritacco, F.V., Haltli, B., Janso, J.E., Greestein, M. & Bernan, V.S. (2003). Dereplication of Streptomyces soil isolates and detection of specific biosynthetic genes using an qutomated ribotyping instrument. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 8, 472-479.
- Robinson, D. A. & Enright, M. C. (2004). Multilocus sequence typing and the evolution of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection* 10, 92-97.
- Rohde, A. (2011). Microscopy. Methods in Microbiology 38, 61-100.
- Rong, X. & Huang, Y. (2010). Taxonomic evaluation of the *Streptomyces griseus* clade using multilocus sequence analysis and DNA DNA hybridization, with proposal to combine 29 species and three subspecies as 11 genomic species. *International Journal of Systematic Evolutionary Microbiology* 60, 696-703.
- Rong, X. & Huang, Y. (2012). Taxonomic evaluation of the *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* using multilocus sequence analysis and DNA-DNA

hybridization, validating the MLSA scheme for systematics of the whole genus. *Systematic and applied microbiology* **35**, 7-18.

- Rong, X., Guo, Y. & Huang, Y. (2009). Proposal to reclassify the *Streptomyces albidoflavus* clade on the basis of multilocus sequence analysis and DNA-DNA hybridization, and taxonomic elucidation of *Streptomyces griseus* subsp. *solvifaciens*. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 32, 314-322.
- Rong, X., Liu, N., Ruan, J. & Huang, Y. (2010). Multilocus sequence analysis of *Streptomyces griseus* isolates delineating intraspecific diversity in terms of both taxonomy and biosynthetic potential. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 98, 237-248.
- Rong, X., Doroghazi, J.R., Cheng, K., Zhung, L., Buckley, D.H. & Huang, Y. (2012). Classification of *Streptomyces* phylogroup pratensis (Doroghazi and Buckley, 2010) based on genetic and phenotypic evidence, and proposal of *Streptomyces pratensis* sp. nov. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 36, 401-407.
- Rosamond, J. & Allsop, A. (2000). Harnessing the power of the genome in the search for new antibiotics. *Science* 287, 1973-1976.
- Rosselló-Mora, R. (2006). DNA-DNA reassociation methods applied to microbial taxonomy and their critical evaluation. In *Molecular Identification Systematics, and population Structure of Prokaryotes*, pp. 23-50. Edited by E. Stackebrandt, Heidelberg, Springer.
- Rosselló-Mora, R. & Amann, R. (2001). The species concept for prokaryotes. FEMS Microbiology Reviews 25, 39-67.
- Rosselló-Mora, R., Urdiain, M. & López-López, A. (2011). DNA-DNA hybridization. *Methods in Microbiology* **38**, 325-348.
- Rowbotham TJ & Cross T. 1977. Ecology of *Rhodococcus coprophilus* and associated actinomycetes in freshwater and agricultural habitats. *Journal of General Microbiology* 100, 231–240.
- Saintpierre-Bonaccio, D., Amir, H., Pineau, R., Tan, G.Y.A. & Goodfellow, M. (2005). Amycolatopsis plumensis sp. nov., a novel bioactive actinomycete isolated from a New-Caldedonian brown hypermagnesian ultramafic soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 55, 2057-2061.
- Saitou, N. & Nei, M. (1987). The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 4, 406-425.

- Salazar, O., Valverde, A. & Genilloud, O. (2006). Real-time PCR for the detection and quantification of Geodermatophilaceae from stone samples and identification of new members of genus *Blastococcus*. Applied and *Environmental Microbiology* 72, 346-352.
- Saleeb, P. G., Drake, S. K., Murray, P. R. & Zelazny, A. M. (2011). Identification of mycobacteria in solid-culture media by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionizationtime of flight mass spectrometry. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 49, 1790-1794.
- Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E. F. & Maniatis, T. (1989). *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual*, 2nd edn. Cold Spring Harbor, NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.
- Santhanam, R., Okoro, C.K., Rong, X., Huang, Y., Bull, A.T., Woen, Y., Andrews
 B.A., Asenjo, J.A. & Goodfellow, M. (2012a). Streptomyces atacamensis sp.
 nov., isolated from an extreme hyper-arid soil of the Atacama Desert.
 International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 2680-2684
- Santhanam, R., Okoro, C.K., Rong, X., Huang, Y., Bull, A.T., Andrews, B.A., Asenjo, A.J., Weon, H.Y. & Goodfellow, M. (2012b). Streptomyces deserti sp. nov., isolated from hyper-arid desert soil. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 101,575–581.
- Santhanam R, Rong X, Huang Y, Andrews BA, Asenjo JA, &Goodfellow, M. (2013). Streptomyces bullii sp. nov., isolated from a hyper-arid Atacama Desert soil. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 103: 367-373.
- Sasser, M. (1990). Identification of bacteria by gas chromatography of cellular fatty acids, MIDI Technical Note 101. MIDI Inc., Newark.
- Schaal, K. P. (1985). Identification of clinically significant actinomycetes and related bacteria using chemical techniques. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics*, pp. 359-381. Edited by M. Goodfellow & D. E. Minnikin. London: Academic Press.
- Schatz, A., Bugie, E. & Waksman, S.A. (1944). Streptomycin, a substance exhibiting antibiotic activity against gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. *Proceeding of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine* 55, 66-69.
- Schleifer, K. H. (2009). Classification of *Bacteria* and *Archaea*: past, present and future. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 32, 533-542.

- Schleifer, K.H. & Kandler, O. (1972). Peptidoglycan types of bacterial types of bacterial cell walls and their taxonomic implications. *Bacteriological Reviews* 36, 407-477.
- Schloss, P. D. & Handelsman, J. (2004). Status of the microbial census. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* 68, 686-691.
- Schulz, D., Beese, P., Ohlendorf, B., Erhard, A., Zinecker, H., Dorador, C. & Imhoff, J. (2011). Abenquines A-D: aminoquinone derivatives produced by Streptomyces sp. strain DB634. *Journal of Antibiotics (Tokyo)* 64, 763–768.
- Sembiring, L., Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2000). Selective isolation and characterisation of members of the *Streptomyces violaceusniger* clade associated with the roots of *Paraserianthes falcataria*. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 78, 353-366.
- Senechkin, H.V., Speksnijder, A.C.L., Semenov, A.M., van Bruggen, A.H.C. & van Overbeek, L.S. (2010). Isolation and partial characterization of bacterial strains on low organic carbon medium from soils fertilized with different organic amendments. *Microbial Ecology* 60, 829-839.
- Sentausa, E. & Fournier, P.-E. (2013). Advantages and limitations of genomics in prokaryotic taxonomy. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection* 19, 790-795.
- Sierra, G. (1957). A simple method for the detection of lipolytic activity of microorganisms and some observations on the infulence of contact between cells and fatty substrates. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 23, 15-22.
- Shen, F. T. & Young, C. C. (2005). Rapid detection and identification of the metabolically diverse genus *Gordonia* by 16S rRNA-gene-targeted genusspecificprimers. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 250, 221-227.
- Shendure, J. & Lieberman-Aiden, E. (2012). The expanding scope of DNA sequencing. *Nature Biotechnology* 30, 1084-1094.
- Shirling, E. B. & Gottlieb, D. (1966). Methods for characterization of *Streptomyces* species. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 16, 313-340.
- Singh, S. B., Phillips, J. W. & Wang, J. (2007). Highly sensitive target-based wholecell antibacterial discovery strategy by antisense RNA silencing. *Current Opinions in Drug Discovery and Development* 10, 160-166.
- Skerman, V. B. D., McGowan, V. & Sneath, P. H. A. (1980). Approved lists of bacterial names. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 30, 225-420.

- Skujins, J. (1984). Microbial ecology of desert soils. Advances in Microbial Ecology 7, 49–91.
- Sneath, P. H. A. (1957). The application of computers to taxonomy. *Journal of General Microbiology* 17, 201-226.
- Sneath, P. H. A. & Johnson, R. (1972). The influence on numerical taxonomic similarities of errors in microbiological tests. *Journal of General Microbiology* 72, 377-392.
- Sneath, P. H. A. & Sokal, R. R. (1973). Numerical Taxonomy: The Principles and Practice of Numerical Classification. San Francisco, C.A.: W.H. Freeman, pp. 1-373.
- Sokal, R. R. (1985). The principles of numerical taxonomy. In Computer-assisted bacterial systematics. Edited by M. Goodfellow, D. Jones & F.G. Priest pp. 1-20. Academic Press London.
- Somma, S., Gastaldo, L. & Corti, A. (1984). Teicoplanin, a new antibiotic from Actinoplanes teichomyceticus sp.nov. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 26, 917-923.
- Spellberg, B., Guidos, R., Gilbert, D., Bradley, J., Boucher, H. W., Scheld, W. M., Bartlett, J. G. & Edwards Jr, J. (2008). The epidemic of antibiotic-resistant infections: A call to action for the medical community from the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 46, 155-164.
- Stach, J. E. M., Maldonado, L. A., Masson, D. G., Ward, A. C., Goodfellow, M. & Bull, A. T. (2003a). Statistical approaches for estimating actinobacterial diversity in marine sediments. *Appied and Environmental Microbiology* 69, 6189-6200.
- Stach, J. E. M., Maldonado, L. A., Ward, A. C., Goodfellow, M. & Bull, A. T. (2003b). New primers for the class *Actinobacteria*: application to marine and terrestrial environments. *Environmental Microbiology* 5, 828-841.
- Stackebrandt, E. & Ebers, J. (2006). Taxonomic parameters revisited: tarnished gold standards. *Microbiology Today* 4, 152–155.
- Stackebrandt, E. & Goebel, B.M. (1994). Taxonomic note: a place for DNA-DNA reassociation and 16S rRNA sequence analysis in the present species definition in bacteriology. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 44, 846-849.
- Stackebrandt, E. & Goodfellow, M., eds. (1991). Nucleic Acid Techniques in Bacterial Systematics. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, pp. 1-329.

- Stackebrandt, E., Rainey, F.A. & Ward-Rainey, N. (1997) Proposal for a new hierarchic classification system, Actinobacteria classis nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology. 47, 479-491.
- Stackebrandt, E., Frederiksen, W., Garrity, G. M., Grimont, P. A. D., Kämpfer, P., Maiden, M. C. J., Nesme, X., Rosselló-Mora, R., Swings, J., Trüper, H. G., Vauterin, L., Ward, A. C. & Whitman, W. B. (2002). Report of the *ad hoc* committee for the re-evaluation of the species definition in bacteriology. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 52, 1043-1047.
- Staley, J. T. (2006). The bacterial species dilemma and the genomic-phylogenetic species concept. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, B 361, 1899-1909.
- Staneck, J. L. & Roberts, G. D. (1974). Simplified approach to identification of aerobic actinomycetes by thin-layer chromatography. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 28, 226-231.
- Strobel, T., Al-Dilaimi, A., Blom, J., Gessner, J., Kalinowski, J., Luzhetska, M., Pühler, Szczepanowski, R., Bechthod, A. & Rückert, C. (2012). Complete genome sequence of *Saccharothix espanaensis* DSM 44229^T and comparison to other completely sequenced *Pseudonocardiaceae*. *BMC Genomics* 13,465.
- Strohl, W. R. (2004). Antimicrobials. In *Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting*, pp. 336-355. Edited by A. T. Bull. Washington, D.C.: ASM Press.
- Sun, W., Dai, S., Jiang, S., Wang, G., Liu, G., Wu, H. & Li, X. (2010). Culturedependent and culture-independent diversity of *Actinobacteria* associated with the marine sponge *Hymeniacidon perleve* from the South China Sea. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 98, 65-75.
- Sutcliffe, I.C., Trujillo, M.E. & Goodfellow, M. (2012). A call to arms for systematists: revitalizing the purpose and practices underpinning the description of novel microbial taxa. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 101, 13–20.
- Suzuki, M. (1957). Studies on an antitumor substance, gancidin. Mycological study on the strain AAK-84 and production, purification of active fractions. *The Journal* of Chiba Medical Society 33, 535–542.
- Suzuki, S. I., Okuda, T. & Komatsubara, S. (2001). Selective isolation and distribution of the genus *Planomonospora* in soils. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* 47, 253-263.

- Tabacchioni, S., Chiarini, L., Bevivino, A., Cantale, C. & Dalmastri, C. (2000). Bias caused by using differenct isolation media assessing the genetic diversity of a natural microbial population. *Microbial Ecology* 40, 169-176.
- Tamura, K. (1992). Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions when they are strong transition-transversion and G+C-content biases. *Molecular Biology* and Evolution 9, 678-687.
- Tamura, K. & Nei, M. (1993). Estimation of the number of nucleotide substitutions in the control region of mitochondrial DNA in humans and chimpanzees. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 10, 512–526.
- Tamura, K., Peterson, D., Peterson, N., Stecher, G., Nei, M. & Kumar, S. (2011). MEGA5: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum parsimony methods. *Molecular Biology* and Evolution 28, 2731–2739.
- Tan, G.Y.A. and Goodfellow, M. (2012). Genus: Amycolatopsis. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, pp 1334-1358. Editied by M. Goodfellow, P. Kämpfer, H.-J. Busse, M.E. Trujillo, K.-I. Suzuki, W. Ludwig and W.B. Whitman. New York, NY: Springer.
- Tan, G. Y. A., Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2006). Exploration of Amycolatopsis diversity in soil using genus-specific primers and novel selective media. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 29, 557-569.
- Tan, G., Robinson, S., Lacey, E., Brown, R., Kim, W. & Goodfellow, M. (2007). Amycolatopsis regifaucium sp. nov., a novel actinomycete that produces kigamicins. International Journal of Systematic Evolutionary Microbiology 57, 2562-2567.
- Tang, S.K., Wang, Y., Guan, T.W., Lee, J.C., Kim, C.J. & Li, W.J. (2010). Amycolatopsis halophila sp. nov., a halophilic actinomycete isolated from a salt lake. International Journal of Systematic Evolutionary Microbiology 60, 1073–1078.
- Tatar, D., Sazak, A., Guven, K., Cetin, D. & Sahin, N. (2013). Amycolatopsis cihanbeyliensis sp. nov., a halotolerant actinomycete isolated from a salt mine. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 63, 3739-3743.
- Terekhova, L. (2003). Isolation of actinomycetes with the use of microwaves and electric pulses. In *Selective Isolation of Rare Actinomycetes*, pp. 82-101. Edited

by I. Kurtböke. Nambour, Queensland, Australia: University of the Sunshine Coast.

- Theobald, U., Schimana, J. & Fiedler, H.-P. (2000). Microbial growth and production kinetics of *Streptomyces antibioticus* Tu 6040. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 78, 307–313
- Thompson, J.D., Higgins, D.G. & Gibson, T.J. (1994). CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Research* 22, 4673–4680.
- Thompson, F. L., Gevers, D., Thompson, C. C., Dawyndt, P., Naser, S., Hoste, B., Munn, C. B. & Swings, J. (2005). Phylogeny and molecular identification of vibrios on the basis of multilocus sequence analysis. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 71, 5107-5115.
- Tindall, B. J., Kämpfer, P., Euzéby, J.P. & Oren, A. (2006). Valid publication of names of prokaryotes according to the rules of nomenclature: past history and current practice. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* 56, 2715-2720.
- Tindall, B.J., Rosselló-Móra, R., Busse, H.J., Ludwig, W. & Kämpfer, P. (2010). Notes on the characterization of prokaryote strains for taxonomic purpose. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 60, 249-266.
- Tiwari, K. & Gupta, R.K. (2012a). Diversity and isolation of rare actinomycetes: an overview. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* **39**, 256-294.
- Tiwari, K. & Gupta, R.K. (2012b). Rare actinomycetes: a potential storehouse for novel antibiotics. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology* 32, 108-132.
- Torsvik, V., Øvreås, L. & Thingstad, T. F. (2002). Prokaryotic diversity magnitude, dynamics, and controlling factors. *Science* 296, 1064-1066.
- Traag, B.A. & van Wezel, G.P. (2008). The SsgA-like proteins in actinomycetes: small proteins up to a big task. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 94, 85–97.
- Trujillo, M. E. & Goodfellow, M. (2003). Numerical phenetic classification of clinically significant aerobic sporoactinomycetes and related organisms. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 84, 39-68.
- Uchida, K. & Seino, A. (1997). Intra- and intergeneric relationships of various actinomycete strains based on the acyl types of the muramyl residue in cell

wall peptidoglycans examined in a glycolate test. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **47**, 182-190.

- Uchida, K., Kudo, T., Suzuki, K. & Nakase, T. (1999). A new rapid method of glycolate test by diethyl ether extraction, which is applicable to a small amount of bacterial cells of less than one milligram. *Journal of General and Applied Microbiology* 45, 49-56.
- Udwary, D. W., Zeigler, L., Asolkar, R. N., Singan, V., Lapidus, A., Fenical, W., Jensen, P. R. & Moore, B. S. (2007). Genome sequencing reveals complex secondary metabolome in the marine actinomycete Salinispora tropica. Proceedings of the National Academy Science U S A 104, 10376-10381.
- Urban, A., Echermann, S., Fast, B., Metzger, S., Gehling, M., Ziegelbauer, K., Rubsamen-Waigmann, H. & Freiberg, C. (2007). Novel whole-cell antibiotic biosensors for compound discovery. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 73, 6436-6443.
- Urzı', C., Brusetti, L., Salamone, P., Sorlini, C., Stackebrandt, E. & Daffonchio, D. (2001). Biodiversity of *Geodermatophilaceae* isolated from altered stones and monuments in the Mediterranean basin. *Environmental Microbiology* 3, 471–479.
- Urzì, C., Salamone, P., Schumann, P., Rohde, M. & Stackebrandt, E. (2004). Blastococcus saxobsidens sp. nov., and emended descriptions of the genus Blastococcus Ahrens and Moll 1970 and Blastococcus aggregatus Ahrens and Moll 1970. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 54, 253–259.
- Urzì, C. & Realini, M. (1998). Colour changes of Noto's Calcareous Sandstone as related with its colonization by microorganisms. *International Biodeterioration & Biodegradation* 42: 45–54.
- Van Saltza, M.H. & Pansy, F.E. (1964). Septacidin, a new antitumour and antifungal antibiotic produced by *Streptomyces fimbriatus*. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 1963, 83-88.
- Vandamme, P., Pot, B., Gillis, M., de Vos, P., Kersters, K. & Swings, J. (1996). Polyphasic taxonomy, a consensus approach to bacterial systematics. *Microbiological Reviews* 60, 407-438.
- Vickers, J. C. & Williams, S. T. (1987). An assessment of plate inoculation procedures for the enumeration and isolation of soil streptomycetes. *Microbios Letters* 35, 113-117.

Voet, D. & Voet, J. G. (2011). Biochemistry. 4th edition, John Wiley & Sons, USA.

- Wagman, G. H. & Weinstein, M. J. (1980). Antibiotics from *Micromonospora*. Annual Reviews of Microbiology 34, 537-557.
- Waksman, S. A. & Lechevalier, H. A. (1949). Neomycin, a new antibiotic active against streptomycin-resistant bacteria, including tuberculosis organisms. *Science* 109, 305-307.
- Waksman, S.A. (1953). A Guide to the Classification of Actinomycetes and their Antibiotics. Edited by Waksman, S.A. & Lechevalier, pp. 1-126. Baltimore, Williams and Wilkins Co.
- Waksman, S. A. & Woodruff, H. B. (1941). Actinomyces antibioticus, a new soil organism antagonistic to pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria. Journal of Bacteriology 42, 231-249.
- Wang, J., Soisson, S. M., Young, K., Shoop, W., Kodali, S., Galgoci, A., Painter, R., Parthasarathy, G., Tang, Y. S., Cummings, R., Ha, S., Dorso, K., Motyl, M., Jayasuriya, H., Ondeyka, J., Herath, K., Zhang, C., Hermandez, L., Allocco, J., Basilio, A., Tormo, J.R., Genilloud, O., Vincente, F., Pelaez, F., Colwell, L., Lee, S.H., Michael, B., Felcetto, T., Gill, C., Silver, L.L., Hermes, J.D., Bartizal, K., Barrett, K., Schmatz, D., Beck, J.W., Cully, D. & Singh, S.B.(2006). Platensimycin is a selective FabF inhibitor with potent antibiotic properties. *Nature* 441, 358-361.
- Wang, J., Kodali, S., Lee, S. H., Galgoci, A., Painter, R., Dorso, K., Racine, F., Motyl, M., Hernandez, L., Tinney, E., Colletti, S.L., Herath, K., Cummings, R., Salazar, O., González, I., Basilio, A., Vincente, F., Genilloud, O., Pelaez, F., Jayasuriya, H., Young, K., Cully, D.F. & Singh, S.B. (2007). Discovery of platencin, a dual FabF and FabH inhibitor with *in vitro* antibiotic properties. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of the America* 104, 7612-7616.
- Ward, D. M. (1998). A natural species concept for prokaryotes. Current Opinion in Microbiology 1, 271 - 277.
- Ward, A. C. & Goodfellow, M. (2004). Phylogeny and functionality: taxonomy as a roadmap to genes. In *Microbial Diversity and Bioprospecting*, pp. 288-313. Edited by A. T. Bull. Washington, D.C.: ASM Press.
- Watve, M. G., Tickoo, R., Jog, M. M. & Bhole, B. D. (2001). How many antibiotics are produced by the genus *Streptomyces? Archives of Microbiology* 176, 386-390.

- Wayne, L. G., Brenner, D. J., Colwell, R. R., Grimont, P. A. D., Kandler, O., Krichevsky, M. I., Moore, L. H., Moore, W. E. C., Murray, R. G. E., Stackebrandt, E., Starr, M. P. & Trüper, H. G. (1987). Report of the *ad hoc* committee on reconciliation of approaches to bacterial systematics. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 37, 463-464.
- Wayne, L. G., Good, R. C., Bottger, E. C., Butler, R., Dorsch, M., Ezaki, T., Gross, W., Jones, V., Kilburn, J., Kirschner, P., Krichevsky, M. I., Ridell, M., Shinnick, T. M., Springer, B., Stackebrandt, E., Tarnók, Z., Tasaka, H., Vincent, V., Warren, N. G., Knott, C. A. & Johnson, R. (1996). Semantide-and chemotaxonomy-based analyses of some problematic phenotypic clusters of slowly growing mycobacteria, a cooperative study of the International Working Group on Mycobacterial Taxonomy. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 46, 280-297.
- Weinstein, M. J., Luedemann, G. M., Oden, E. M., Wagman, G. H., Rosselet, J. P., Marquez, J. A., Coniglio, C. T., Charney, W., Herzog, H. L. & Black, J. (1963). Gentamicin, a new antibiotic complex from *Micromonospora* [2]. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry* 6, 463-464.
- Wellington, E. M. H. & Cross, T. (1983). Taxonomy of antibiotic-producing actinomycetes and new approaches for their selective isolation. In *Progress in Industrial Microbiology*, pp. 7-36. Edited by M. E. Bushell. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier.
- Whitman, W.B. (2011). Intent of the nomenclatural code and recommendations about naming species based on genomic sequences. *The Bulletin of BIMIS* 2, 135– 139.
- Whitman, W.B. (2014). The need for change: embrace the genome. Methods in Microbiology 43 (in press).
- Whitham, T. S., Athalye, M., Minnikin, D. E. & Goodfellow, M. (1993). Numerical and chemical classification of *Streptosporangium* and some related actinomycetes. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 64, 387-429.
- Whitman, W. B., Coleman, D. C. & Wiebe, W. J. (1998). Prokaryotes: the unseen majority. Proceedings of the Natural Academy of Sciences U S A 95, 6578-6583.
- Willemse, J., Borst, J.W., de Waal, E., Bisseling, T. & van Wezel, G.P. (2011). Positive control of cell division: FtsZ is recruited by SsgB during sporulation of *Streptomyces*. Genes and Development 25, 89–99.

- Williams, P.G. (2008). Panning for chemical gold: marine bacteria as a source of new therapeutics. *Trends in Biotechnology* 27, 45–52.
- Williams, P.G. (2008). Panning for chemical gold: marine bacteria as a source of new therapeutics. *Trends in Biotechnology* 27: 45-51.
- Williams, S. T. & Vickers, J. C. (1988). Detection of actinomycetes in the natural environment-problems and perspectives. In *Biology of Actinomycetes* '88, pp. 265–270. Edited by Y. Okami, T. Beppu & K. Ogawara. Tokyo, Japan: Japan Scientific Societies Press.
- Williams, S.T., Dames, F.L. & Hall, D.M. (1969). A practical approach to the taxonomy of cctinomy& es isolated from soil. In *The Soil Ecosystem*. Edited by J. G. Shealspp. 107-117, Systematics Association Pubn No. 8, London.
- Williams, S. T. & Davies, F. L. (1965). Use of antibiotics for selective isolation and enumeration of actinomycetes in soil. *Journal of General Microbiology* 38, 251-261.
- Williams, S. T., Davies, F. L., Mayfield, C. I. & Khan, M. R. (1971). Studies on the ecology of actinomycetes in soil. II. The pH requirements of streptomycetes from two acid soils. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 3, 187–195.
- Williams, S.T., Shameemullah, M., Watson, E.T. & Mayfield, C.I. (1972). Studies on the ecology of actinimycetes in acid soil.VI: the influence of moisture tension on growth and survival. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 4, 215-225.
- Williams, S. T., Goodfellow, M., Alderson, G., Wellington, E. M., Sneath, P. H.A.
 & Sackin, M. J. (1983). Numerical classification of *Streptomyces* and related genera. *Journal of General Microbiology* 129, 1743-1813.
- Williams, S. T., Goodfellow, M. & Vickers, J. C. (1984a). New microbes from old habitats? In *The Microbe*, pp. 481-528. Edited by D. P. Kelley & N. G. Carr. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, S. T., Lanning, S. & Wellington, E. M. H. (1984b). Ecology of actinomycetes. In *The Biology of the Actinomycetes*, pp. 481–528. Edited by M. Goodfellow, M. Mordarski & S. T. Williams. London: Academic Press.
- Williams, S. T., Locci, R., Vickers, J., Schofield, G. M., Sneath, P. H. A. & Mortier,
 A. M. (1985). Probabilisic idenification of *Streptoverticillium* species. *Journal of General Microbiology* 131, 1681-1689.
- Williams, S. T., Goodfellow, M. & Alderson, G. (1989). Genus Streptomyces Waksman and Henrici 1943, 339 AL. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic

Bacteriology, pp. 2452-2492. Edited by S. T. Williams, M. E. Sharpe & J. G. Holt. Baltimore, M.D.: Williams & Wilkins.

- Wink, J., Kroppenstedt, R. M.,Seibert, G. & Stackebrandt, E. (2003). Actinomadura namibiensis sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 53, 721-724.
- Wink, J. M., Kroppenstedt, R. M., Ganguli, B. N., Nadkarni, S. R., Schumann, P., Seibert, G. & Stackebrandt, E. (2003). Three new antibiotic producing species of the genus Amycolatopsis, Amycolatopsis balhimycina sp. nov., A. tolypomycina sp. nov., A. vancoresmycina sp. nov., and description of Amycolatopsis keratiniphila subsp. keratiniphila subsp. nov. and A. keratiniphila subsp. nogabecina subsp. nov. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 26, 38-46.
- Wintzingerode, F.v., Göbel, U.B., & Stackebrandt, E. (1997). Determination of microbial diversity in environmental samples pitfalls of PCR-based rRNA analysis. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews* 21, 213-229.
- Woese, C. R. (1987). Bacterial evolution. *Microbiology Reviews* 51, 221-271.
- Woese, C. R. (1998). The universal ancestor. *Proceedings of the Natural Academy Science USA* 95, 6854-6859.
- Woo, P. C. Y., Lau, S. K. P., Huang, Y. & Yuen, K. Y. (2006). Genomic evidence for antibiotic resistance genes of actinomycetes as origins of antibiotic resistance genes in pathogenic bacteria simply because actinomycetes are more ancestral than pathogenic bacteria. *Medical Hypotheses* 67, 1297-1304.
- Wu, G., Feng, X. & Stein, L. (2010). A human functional protein interaction network and its application to cancer data analysis. *Genome Biology* 11, R53 doi:10.1186/gb-2010-11-5-r53.
- Xiao, J., Luo, Y., Xu, J., Xie, S. & Xu, J. (2011). Modestobacter marinus sp. nov., a psychrotolerant actinobacterium from deep-sea, and emeded description of genus Modestobacter. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 61, 1710-1704.
- Xing, K., Lui, W., Zhang, Y.-J., Bian, G.-K., Zhang, W.D., Tamura, T., Lee, J.-S., Qin, S. & Jiang, W.-D. (2014). Amycolatopsis jiangsuensis sp. nov., a novel endophytic actinomycete isolated from a coastal plant in Jiangsu, China. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 103, 433-439.

- Yamamura, H., Hayakawa, M. & Iimura, Y. (2003). Application of sucrose-gradient centrifugation for selective isolation of *Nocardia* spp. from soil. *Journal of Applied Microbiology* 95, 677-685.
- Yarza, P. & Munoz, R. (2014). The All-Species Living Tree Project. Methods in Microbiology 43 (in press).
- Yarza, P., Ludwig, W., Euzéby, J., Amann, R., Schleifer, K-H, Glöckner, F.O. & Rosselló-Móra, R. (2010). Update of the all-species living tree project based on 16S rRNA and 23S rRNA sequence analyses. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 33, 291-299.
- Yassin, A.F., Rainey, F.A., Brzezinka, H., Goodfellow, M. & Pulverer, G. (1991). Menaquinone patterns of *Amycolatopsis* species. *Zentralbatt für Bakteriologie* 274, 465-470.
- Yoon, J. H., Lee, S. T., Kim, S. B., Goodfellow, M. & Park, Y. H. (1997). Inter- and intraspecific genetic analysis of the genus *Saccharomonospora* with 16S to 23S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) and 23S to 5S rDNA internally transcribed spacer sequences. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 47, 661-669.
- Yuan, M., Yong, Y., Li, H.-R., Dong, N. & Zhang, X.-H. (2014). Phylogenetic diversity and biological activity of actinobacteria isolated from the Chuckchi Shelf marine sediments in the Arctic Ocean. *Marine Drugs* 12, 1281-1297.
- Zakharova, O.S., Zenova, G.M. & Zvyagintsev, D.G. (2003). Some approaches to the selective isolation of actinomycetes of the genus *Actinomadura* from soil. *Microbiology* 72, 110-113.
- Zengler, K., Toledo, G., Rappe, M., Elkins, J., Mathur, E. J., Short, J. M. & Keller,
 M. (2002). Cultivating the uncultured. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science U S A* 99, 15681-15686.
- Zerbino, D.R. & Birney, E. (2008) Velvet: algorithms for de novo short read assembly using Bruijn graphs. *Genome Research* **18**,821–829.
- Zhang, Y.-Q., Lui, H.-Y., Chen, J., Yuan, L.-J., Sun, W., Zgang, L.-X., Zhang, Y.-Q., Yu, L.-Y. & Li, W.-J. (2010). Diversity of culturable actinobacteria from Qinghai-Tibet plateau, China. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 98, 213-223.
- Zhao, W., Zhong, Y., Yuan, H., Wang, J., Zheng, H., Wang, Y., Cen, X., Xu, F., Bai, J., Han, X., Lu, G., Zhu, Y., Shao, Z., Yan, H., Li, C., Peng, N., Zhang, Z., Zhang, Y., Lin, W., Fan, Y., Qin, Z., Hu, Y., Zhu, B., Wang,

S., Ding, X. & Zhao, G.P. (2010). Complete genome sequence of the rifamycin SV-producing *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* U32 revealed its genetic characteristics in phylogeny and metabolism. *Cell Research* 20, 1096-1108

- Zhi, X.-Y., Li, W.-J. & Stackebrandt, E. (2009). An update of the structure and 16S rRNA gene sequence-based definition of higher ranks of the class *Actinobacteria*, with the proposal of two new suborders and four new families and emended descriptions of the existing higher taxa. *International Journal of Systematic Evolution Microbiology* 59, 589-608.
- Zhi, X. Y., Tang, S. K., Li, W. J., Xu, L. H. & Jiang, C. L. (2006). New genusspecific primers for the PCR identification of novel isolates of the genus *Streptomonospora*. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 263, 48-53.
- Zhi, X-Y., Zhao, W., Li, W-Z. & Zhao, G-P. (2012). Prokaryotics systematics in the genomics era. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 101, 21-34.
- Zhou, Z., Yuan, M., Tang, R. Chen, M., Lim, M. & Zhang, W. (2012). Corynebacterium deserti sp. nov., isolated from desert sand. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 791-794.
- Zitouni, A., Boudjella, H,m Lamari, L., Badji, B. Mathieu, F., Lebrihi, A. & Sabaou, N. (2005). Nocardiopsis and Saccharothrix genera in Saharan soils in Algeria: Isoaltion biological activities and partial characterization of antibiotics. Research in Microbiology 156, 984-993.
- Zotchev, S.B. (2012). Marine actinomycetes as an emerging resource for the drug development pipelines. *Journal of Biotechnology* **158**, 168-175.
- Zucchi, T.D., Bonda, A.N.V., Frank, S., Kim, K.-Y., Kshetrimayum, J.D. & Goodfellow, M. (2012a). Amycolatopsis bartoniae sp. nov. and Amycolatopsis bullii sp. nov., mesophilic actinomycetes isolated from aric Australian soils. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 102, 91-98.
- Zucchi, T.D., Tan, G.Y.A. & Goodfellow, M. (2012b). Amycolatopsis granulosa sp. nov., Amycolatopsis ruanii sp. nov. and A. thermalba sp. nov., thermophilic actinomycetes isolated from arid soils. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 1245-2351.
- Zucchi, T.D., Tan, G.Y.A. & Goodfellow, M. (2012c). Amycolatopsis thermophila sp. nov., and Amycolatopsis viridis sp. nov., thermophilic actinomycetes isolated from arid soil. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 62, 168-172.

Zuckerkandl, E. & Pauling, L. (1965). Evolutionary divergence and convergence in proteins. In *Evolving Genes and Proteins*. Edited by V. Bryson & H. J. Vogel: Academic Press, pp. 97-166.

Appendix 1. Assignment of isolates to colour-groups

Assignment of strains isolated from the Salar de Atacama and Yungay environmental samples to multi- and single-membered colour-groups based on their ability to produce aerial spore mass, substrate mycelial and diffusible pigments on oatmeal agar and melanin pigments on peptone-yeast extract agar after incubation at 28°C for 4 weeks and 3 days, respectively.

	Growth on oatmeal agar				Strain numbers and source of isolates				
Colour	Aerial spore mass colour	Substrate mycelial colour	Colour of diffusible pigments	Number of Salar de Atacama		Yungay			
code				istiates	Codes	*Melanin production	Codes	*Melanin production	
KNN1	white (263)	yellowish white (92)	None	5	KNN1-1a, KNN1-2c, KNN1-3b, KNN1-4c and KNN1-5f	-	None	-	
KNN2	medium gray (265)	olivaceous black (114)	light olivaceous gray (112)	23	KNN2-1b, KNN2-2c, KNN2-3c, KNN2-4c, KNN2-5c, KNN2-6c, KNN2- 7d, KNN2-8b, KNN2-9d, KNN2-10d, KNN2-11d, KNN2-12d, KNN2- 13a, KNN2-14c, KNN2-15a, KNN2-16c, KNN2-17d, KNN2-18b C34, C38, C58, C59, C79,	-		-	
KNN3	white (263)	yellow white (92)	none	19	KNN3-1b, KNN3-2b, KNN3-3c, KNN3-4c, KNN3-5c, KNN3-6c, KNN3-7c, KNN3-8c, KNN3-9c, KNN3-10e, KNN3-11d, KNN3-12d, KNN3-13b, KNN3-14d, KNN3-15d, KNN3-16d, KNN3-17d, KNN3-18b and KNN3-19b	-	None		
KNN4	white (263)	yellow white (92)	yellow white (92)	4	KNN4-1b, KNN4-2e, KNN4-3b and KNN4-4a	-	None		
KNN5	medium gray (265)	gray greenish yellow (105)	pale greenish yellow (104)	25	KNN5-1a, KNN5-2a, KNN5-3c, KNN5-4c, KNN5-5a, KNN5-6a, KNN5- 7a, KNN5-8b, KNN5-9b, KNN5-10b, KNN5-11b, KNN5-12b, KNN5- 13b, KNN5-14b, KNN5-15b, KNN5-16d, KNN5-17d, KNN5-18d, KNN5-19d, KNN5-20b, KNN5-21b, KNN5-22d, KNN5-23c, KNN5-24b, and KNN5-25d	+	None	-	
KNN6	medium gray (265)	gray olive 9110)	light orange yellow (70)	11	KNN6-1a, KNN6-2a, KNN6-3a, KNN6-4a, KNN6-5a, KNN6-6b, KNN6-7d, KNN6-8d, KNN6-9a, KNN6-10b and KNN6-11a	-		-	
KNN7	very orange (48)	slightly orange (50)	none	4	None		KNN7-1b, KNN7-2b, KNN7-3b, KNN7-4b	-	
KNN8	medium gray (265)	gray greenish yellow (105)	light gray olive (109)	10	KNN8-1b, KNN8-2d, KNN8-3a, KNN8-4b, KNN8-5b, KNN8-6a, KNN8-7a, KNN8-8a, KNN8-9c and KNN8-10e	-	None		
KNN9	light gray (264)	gray greenish yellow (105)	light oliveceous gray (112)	3	KNN9-1a, KNN9-2c and KNN9-3b	-	None		
KNN10	light gray (264)	gray greenish yellow (105)	light oliveceous gray (112)	5	KNN10-1a, KNN10-2b, KNN10-3b, KNN10-4d and KNN10-5a	-	None		
KNN11	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	none	6	KNN11-1a, KNN11-2a, KNN11-3c, KNN11-4b, KNN11-5a and KNN11- 6a	-	None	-	

KNN12	gray yellow (90)	light brown (57)	medium yellow (87)	2	-		KNN12-1a and KNN12-2a	
KNN13	medium gray (265)	gray olivaceous green (127)	none	1	None		KNN13a	-
KNN14	light gray (264)	pale yellow (89)	light brown (57)	3	KNN14-1f, KNN14-2e and KNN14-3e	-	None	
KNN15	brilliant vellow (83)	light yellow (86)	none	2	None		KNN15-1a and KNN15-2a	-
KNN16	pale yellow (61)	yellowish white (92)	none	2	KNN16-1c	+	KNN16-2c	+
KNN17	very light purple (222)	blackish purple (230)	very deep purplish Red (257)	2	KNN17-1c and KNN17-2b	+	None	
KNN18	light gray (264)	pale yellow (89)	none	3	KNN18-1b, KNN18-2c and KNN18-3d	-	None	
KNN19	white (263)	light yellow (86)	light yellow (86)	2	None		KNN19-1b and KNN19-2c	-
KNN20	slightly orange (50)	slightly orange (50)	none	1	None		KNN20c	-
KNN21	light gray (264)	yellowish white (92)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	None		KNN21a	-
KNN22	brown pink (33)	dark yellowish brown (75)	light orange (52)	1	None	-	KNN22a	
KNN23	yellowish white (92)	deep orange yellow (72)	gray yellow (90)	2	None	-	KNN23-1b, KNN23-2b	
KNN24	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	none	8	KNN24-1b, KNN24-2c, KNN24-3c, KNN24-4c, KNN24-5a, KNN24-6c, KNN24-7e and KNN24-8e	-	None	
KNN25	dark yellowish brown (78)	middle orange yellow (71)	pale orange yellow (70)	1	KNN25c	-	None	
KNN26	dark gray (75)	dark gray (75)	light yellowish brown (76)	1	KNN26b	-	None	
KNN27	white (263)	yellowish white (92)	none	1	KNN27a	-	None	

KNN28	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	dark yellow (88)	1	KNN28a	-	None	
KNN29	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	2	KNN29a	+	KB36a and KB44a	+
KNN30	Medium gray (265)	dark yellowish brown (78)	light brown (57)	1	KNN30a	-	None	
KNN31	light gray (264)	brown gray (61)	gray yellowish brown	1	KNN31d	-	None	
KNN32	gray (265)	dark red gray (23)	pale yellowish green (121)	2	KNN32-1a, KNN32-2b	-	None	
KNN33	pale yellow (89)	pale yellow (89)	pale yellow (89)	1	KNN33a	-	None	
KNN34	white (263)	light orange yellow (70)	light yellow (86)	1	KNN34c	-	None	
KNN35	white (263)	dark orange yellow (72)	yellowish gray (90)	2	KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b	+	None	
KNN36	light orange yellow (70)	light orange yellow (70)	light yellowish brown (76)	3	KNN36-1c, KNN36-2c and KNN36-3c	+	None	
KNN37	medium gray (265)	middle yellowish brown (77)	medium gray (265)	5	KNN37-1e, KNN37-2a, KNN37-3a, KNN37-4a and KNN37-5a	-	None	
KNN38	dark gray (75)	dark gray (75)	light yellowish brown (76)	5	KNN38-1b, KNN38-2d, KNN38-3a, KNN38-4b and KNN38-5b	-	None	
KNN39	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	light orange yellow (70)	1	KNN39c	-	None	
KNN40	yellowish white (92)	light yellow (86)	none	1	None		KNN40b	-
KNN41	medium	olivaceous black	light olivaceous	2	KNN41-1b, KNN41-2a	-	None	

	gray (265)	(114)	gray (112)					
KNN42	dark gray (75)	dark gray (75)	light yellowish brown (76)	1	None		KNN42f	-
KNN43	gray yellowish pink (32)	very dark red (17)	bright pink	1	KNN43b	-	None	
KNN44	black (267)	black (267)	light yellowish brown (76)	4	None		KNN44-1b, KNN44-2a, KNN44-3b, KNN44-4b	+
KNN45	black (267)	black (267)	none	4	None		KNN45-1a, KNN45-2b, KNN45-3b and KNN45-4b	-
KNN46	black (267)	black (267)	none	12	None		KNN46-1b, KNN46-2b, KNN46-3b, KNN46-4b, KNN46-5b, KNN46-6a, KNN46-7a, KNN46-8a, KNN46-9c, KNN46-10g, KNN46-11f, KNN46-12f	-
KNN47	black (267)	black (267)	none	1	None	-	KNN47b	-
KNN48	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	light orange yellow (70)	20	KNN48-1c, KNN48-2a, KNN48-3e, KNN48-4e, KNN48-5e	-	KNN48-6d, KNN48-7d, KNN48-8d, KNN48-9d, KNN48-10b, KNN48-11b, KNN48-12b, KNN48-13a, KNN48-14a,KNN48-15c, KNN48-16c, KNN48-17c, KNN48-18c, KNN48-19c, KNN48-20c	-
KNN49	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	none	32	KNN49-1h, KNN49-2e, KNN49-3e, KNN49-4e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-7c, KNN49-8c, KNN49-5c, KNN49-6b, KNN49-7c, KNN49-8b, KNN49-9c, KNN49-10b, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-13b, KNN49-14b, KNN49-15b, KNN49-16c, KNN49-17b, KNN49-18b, KNN49-19a, KNN49-20b, KNN49-21c, KNN49-22d, KNN49-23d, KNN49-24d, KNN49-25d, KNN49-26a, KNN49-27a, KNN49-28a, KNN49-29a, KNN49-30b, KNN49-31b, KNN49-32e	-	None	
KNN50	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	none	18	KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-3c, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50- 12c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14d, KNN50-15d, KNN550-16d, KNN50-17d and KNN50-18d	-	None	
KNN51	yellowish	yellowish white	none	1	None	-	KNN51b	-

	white (92)	(92)						
KNN52	light olive brown (94)	dark gray yellow (91)	dark gray yellow (91)	3	KNN52-1c, KNN52-2b and KNN52-3b	-	-	-
KNN53	White (263)	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	3	KNN53-1a, KNN53-2a and KNN53-3a	-	-	-
KNN54	gray yellowish brown (32)	dark yellowish brown (78)	dark yellowish brown (78)	2	KNN54-1a and KNN54-2b	-	None	-
KNN55	pink white (9)	very dark red (7)	middle brown (58)	2	-	-	KNN55-1b and KNN55-2b	
KNN56	none	light yellowish brown (76)	none	1	KNN56a	-	None	-
KNN57	brown pink (33)	dark yellowish brown (75)	light orange (52)	2	KNN57-1b and KNN57-2b	-	-	-
KNN58	yellowish white (92)	dark orange yellow (72)	light orange yellow (70)	2	KNN58-1b and KNN58-2c	-		-
KNN59	yellowish white (92)	gray yellow (90)	gray yellow (90)	1	KNN59e	-	-	-
KNN60	pale yellow (89)	middle yellowish brown (77)	none	2	KNN60-1c and KNN60-2d	-	-	-
KNN61	light gray (264)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	4	KNN61-1a, KNN61-2e, KNN61-3e, KNN61-4b and KNN61-2c	-	-	-
KNN62	dark gray purple (229)	blackish purple (230)	pale gray (233)	1	KNN62b	-	-	-
KNN63	yellowish white (92)	yellowish white (92)	none	18	KNN63-1a, KNN63-2b, KNN63-3b, KNN63-4b, KNN63-5a, KNN63-6b, KNN63-7b, KNN63-8d, KNN63-9d, KNN63-10d, KNN63-11b, KNN63- 12b, KNN63-13b, KNN63-14b, KNN63-15b, KNN63-16b, KNN63-17b	-	-	-
					and KNN63-18b			
-------	------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---
KNN64	dark gray (75)	dark gray (75)	light yellowish brown (76)	6	KNN64-1a, KNN64-2a, KNN64-3a, KNN64-4b, KNN64-5b and KNN64-6b	-	-	-
KNN65	white (263)	middle orange yellow (71)	Gray yellow (90)	6	KNN65-1f, KNN65-2a, KNN65-3c, KNN65-4c, KNN65-5d and KNN65- 6b	-	-	-
KNN66	yellowish white (92)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	KNN66b	-	-	-
KNN67	none	light orange yellow (70)	none	4	KNN67-1b, KNN67-2b, KNN67-3b and KNN67-4b	-	-	-
KNN68	yellowish white (92)	middle yellowish brown (77)	dark orange yellow (72)	4	KNN68-1b, KNN68-2b, KNN68-3b and KNN68-4b	-	-	-
KNN69	slightly yellowish pink (26)	light brown (57)	light brown (57)	3	KNN69-1e, KNN69-2a and KNN69-3a	-	-	-
KNN70	very yellowish pink (25)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	KNN80b	-	-	-
KNN71	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	light orange yellow (70)	2	KNN71-1a and KNN71-2a	-	-	-
KNN72	yellowish white (92)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	KNN72a	-	-	-
KNN73	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	gray yellow (90)	4	KNN73-1a, KNN73-2a , KNN73-3d and KNN73-4d	-	-	-
KNN74	yellowish white (92)	dark yellowish brown (78)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	2	KNN74-1c and KNN74-2c	-	-	-

KNN75	white (263)	yellowish white (92)	none	4	KNN75-1c, KNN75-2b, KNN75-3b and KNN75-4b	-	-	-
KNN76	yellowish white (92)	light orange yellow (70)	light orange yellow (70)	1	KNN76-1b	-	-	-
KNN77	yellowish white (92)	middle yellowish brown (77)	dark orange yellow (72)	6	-	-	KNN77-1a, KNN77-2a, KNN77-3a, KNN77-1a, KNN77-5a and KNN77-6a	-
KNN78	yellowish White (92)	yellowish White (92)	gray yellow (90)	2	KNN78-1e and KNN78-2e	-	-	-
KNN79	yellowish white (92)	deep yellowish brown (75)	middle yellowish brown (77)	3	KNN79-1b, KNN79-2b and KNN79-3d	-	-	-
KNN80	none	White yellow(92)	pale yellow (89)	2	KNN80-1c and KNN80-2d	-	-	-
KNN81	pale yellowish pink (31)	Light orange (52)	middle yellowish brown (77)	4	KNN81-1c, KNN81-2b, KNN81-3d and KNN81-4d	-	-	-
KNN82	yellowish white (92)	blackish purple (230)	gray reddish brown (46)	2	KNN82-1a and KNN82-2c	-	-	-
KNN83	white (263)	yellowish White (92)	none	1	KNN83e	-	-	-
KNN84	dark yellowish brown (78)	middle orange yellow (71)	pale orange yellow (70)	1	KNN84c	-	-	-
KNN85	yellowish white (92)	middle yellow (87)	dark gray yellow (91)	8	KNN85-1f, KNN85-2b, KNN85-3c, KNN85-4c, KNN85-5c, KNN85-6c, KNN85-7b, KNN85-8a	-	-	-
KNN86	black (267)	black (267)	none	5	-	-	KNN86-1b, KNN86-2b, KNN86-3b, KNN86-4a and KNN86-5a	-
KNN87	dark pale gray (234)	blackish purple (230)	light reddish brown (45)	1	KNN87b	+	-	-

KNN88	yellowish white (92)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	4	-	-	KNN88-1a, KNN88-2a, KNN88-3a and KNN88-4a	-
KNN89	medium gray (265)	olivaceous black (114)	light olivaceous gray (112)	1	-	-	KNN89a	-
KNN90	yellowish white (92)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	-	-	KNN90a	-
KNN91	black (267)	black (267)	light yellowish brown (76)	6	-	-	KNN91-1a, KNN91-2a, KNN91-3a, KNN91-4a, KNN91-5a and KNN91-6a	-
KNN92	dark pale gray (234)	blackish purple (230)	light reddish brown (45)	7	-	-	KNN92-1a, KNN92-2a, KNN92-3a, KNN92-4a, KNN92-5a, KNN92-6a and KNN92-7a	-
KNN93	white (263)	yellowish White (92)	none	4	-	-	KNN93-1a, KNN93-2a, KNN93-3a and KNN93-4a	-
KNN94	white (263)	yellowish white (92)	None	1	KNN94e	-	-	-
KNN95	white (263)	middle orange yellow (71)	Gray yellow (90)	7	-	-	KNN95-1b, KNN95-2b, KNN95-3b, KNN95-4b, KNN95-5b, KNN995-6b and KNN95-7b	-
KNN96	white (263)	yellowish White (92)	none	1	-	-	KNN96a	-
KNN97	yellowish White (92)	yellowish White (92)	gray yellow (90)	1	-	-	KNN97a	-
KNN98	yellowish white (92)	dark yellowish brown (78)	light gray yellowish brown (79)	1	-	-	KNN98a	-

Codes exemplified by strain KNN2-1b, this organism was isolated by Kanungnid Busarakam (KNN), assigned to colour-group 2 as the first member of group and was isolated on a humic acid-vitamin agar isolation plate. The C-coded isolates represent a colour-group delineated by Okoro *et al.* (2009).

Selective isolation media: (a), Gause No.1 agar; (b), HVA, humic acid-vitamin agar; (c), Oligotrophic agar; (d), minimal medium agar; (e), SM1 agar; (f) Geodermatophilus obscurus agar; (g) Luedemann's agar, (h), SCAV agar.

Appendix 2. Reagents and buffers

20X SSC buffer

EDTA buffer (0.5 M, pH 8.0)

Lugol's iodine for the detection of starch degradation

Iodine	5 g
Potassium iodide	10 g
Distilled water	100 ml
Iodine and potassium iodide were dissolved in 10 m	l of distilled water and make up to
100 ml. The reagent was diluted 1in 5 with distilled	water.

Nitrate reduction reagents

Reagent A:	
Sulphanilic acid	0.8 g
Acetic acid (5N)	100 ml
Reagents B:	
α-Napthylamine	. 0.8 g
Acetic acid (5N)	. 100 ml

Potassium phosphate buffer

Solution A: 0.1 M potassium dihydrogen phosphate (KH₂PO₄) Solution B: 0.1 M dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (K₂HPO₄)

Desired	Solution	Solution
pН	A (ml)	B (ml)
5.7	98.5	6.5
5.8	92.0	8.0
5.9	90.0	10.0
6.0	87.7	12.3
6.1	85.0	15.0
6.2	81.5	18.5
6.3	77.5	22.5
6.4	73.5	26.5
6.5	68.5	31.5
6.6	62.5	37.5
6.7	56.5	43.5
6.8	51.0	49.0

Desired	Solution	Solution
pH	A (ml)	B (ml)
6.9	45.0	55.0
7.0	39.0	61.0
7.1	33.0	67.0
7.2	28.0	72.0
7.3	23.0	77.0
7.4	19.0	81.0
7.5	16.0	84.0
7.6	13.0	87.0
7.7	10.5	90.5
7.8	8.5	91.5
7.9	7.0	93.0
8.0	5.3	94.7

Tris-EDTA buffer, pH 8.0 (TE; 10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0)

0.5 M EDTA, pH 8.0	2 ml
1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0	10 ml
Milli-Q water up to	1000 ml
Autoclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes and stor	red at room temperature.

Appendix 3. Media formulations

All media formulations were prepared with reagents of high purity (BDH Chemicals Ltd., Dorset, UK; Difco, Difco Laboratories, Michigan, USA; Oxoid, Oxoid Ltd., Cambridge, UK; Sigma, Sigma-Aldrich, Dorset, UK). Media were autioclaved at 121°C for 20 minutes unless otherwise stated.

1) Culture media

Carbon utilisation medium (ISP med	ium 9, Pridham & Gottlieb, 1948)
(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄	2.64 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	2.38 g
K ₂ HPO ₄ .3H ₂ O	5.65 g
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	1.0 g
Pridham & Gottlieb trace salts*	1.0 ml
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1 L
рН 6.8-7.0	

Pridham & Gottlieb trace salts*

CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	0.64 g
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.11 g
MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ 0	0.79 g
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.15 g
dH ₂ O	100.0 ml

Carbohydrate solutions were prepared, separately, Tyndallised (steam at 100°C between 8 to 24 hours) individual carbon sources were mixed thoroughly with the molten basal medium to give the appropriate final concentration.

Glucose-yeast extract-malt extract (ISP medium 2; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966)

Glucose	4.0 g
Yeast extract	4.0 g
Malt extract	10.0 g
CaCO ₃	2.0 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
рН	7.2 ± 0.2

Glycerol-asparagine agar (ISP medium 5; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966)

L-asparagine		1.0 g
Glycerol		10.0 g
KH ₂ PO ₄		1.0 g
Trace salt solution*	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1.0 ml
Agar		15.0 g
dH ₂ O		1.0 L
рН		6.8 ± 0.2
Trace salt solution*		
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.001 g	
MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O	0.001 g	
ZnSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.001 g	
pH 7.4±0.2		

K ₂ HPO ₄ (anhydrous basis)	1.0 g
$MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	1.0 g
(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄	2.0 g
NaCl	1.0 g
CaCO ₃	2.0 g
Soluble starch solution	500 ml
Agar	
pH	
Preparation of soluble starch solution	<i>n</i> : 10 g of soluble starch

Preparation of soluble starch solution: 10 g of soluble starch was added to 500 ml of distilled water and the preparation mixed well to prevent clumping then sterilsed.

Luria-Bertani medium (Miller, 1972)

Tryptone	10.0 g
Yeast extract	5.0 g
NaCl	10.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L

Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949)

Yeast extract	1.0 g
Lab-LEMCO	0.8 g
Bacto-Casitone	2.0 g
Glycerol	10.0 g
Agar	15.0 g
pH	7.2 ± 0.2

Oatmeal agar (ISP medium 3; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966).

Oatmeal (mixture)	1000 ml
Trace salt solution stock	1.0 ml
Agar	15.0 g
pH	

Oatmeal mixture: Add 20 g of oatmeal to 1000 ml of distilled water and boil for 20 minutes. The mixture is then filtered through cheese cloth and restored to 1000 ml by adding distilled water.

Trace salt solution stock:

$FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.1 g
$MnCl \cdot 4H_2O$	0.1 g
$ZnSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.1 g
Distilled water	100 ml
The solution was filter-sterilised using	cellulose acetate membrane filters (pore size 0.45
μ m) and stored at 4°C.	

Peptone-yeast extract-iron agar (ISP medium 6; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966)

Bacto-peptone iron agar	36 g
Bacto-yeast extract	1.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH	\dots 7.0 ±0.2

Tryptone-yeast extract agar (ISP medium 1; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1996)

Bacto-Tryptone	5.0 g
Bacto-Yeast extract	3.0 ml
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L

рН7.0 -7.2

Tyrosine agar (ISP medium 7; Shirling & Gottlieb, 1966)	
Glycerol	15.0 g
L-Tyrosine (Difco)	0.5 g
L-Asparagine (Difco)	1.0 g
K ₂ HPO ₄ (anhydrous basis)	0.5 g
$MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.5 g
NaCl	0.5 g
$FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	0.01 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
Trace salt solution (see ISP3)	1.0 ml
Agar	20.0 g
pH	. 7.2 - 7.4

Modified Bennett's agar (Jones, 1949)

This composition of Bennett's Agar followed the original formulation of Jones (1949) but with the substitution of beef-extract (1g per litre) and N-Z-Amine A' (2g per litre) by Lab Lemco (0.8g per litre; Oxoid) and Bacto-Casitone (2g per litre; Difco), as recommended by P. Agrawal (unpublished data).

Glucose	10.0 g
Bacto-Casitone (Difco)	2.0 g
Yeast-extract	1.0 g
Lab-Lemco (Oxoid)	0.8 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH	7.2 - 7.4

2) Phenotypic test media

Aesculin/ Arbutin degradation (Kutzner, 1976)

Basal medium	
Yeast extract	3.0 g
Ferric ammonium citrate	. 0.5 g
Agar	7.5 g
pH	7.2
Aesculin and arbutin were tyndallised in distilled water	then ad

Aesculin and arbutin were tyndallised in distilled water then added to the melted basal medium to give a final concentration of 0.1% (w/v).

Allantoin degradation (Gordon et al., 1974)

Basal medium	
KH ₂ PO ₄	9.1 g
Na ₂ HPO ₄	
Yeast extract	
Phenol red	0.01 g
dH ₂ O	
pH	
Autoplayed at 121°C for 20	minutes. The allentoin was

Autoclaved at 121° C for 20 minutes. The allantoin was tyndallised for 24 hours in distilled water then added to the basal medium to give a final concentration of 0.33 %, w/v. Three ml amounts of the broth were dispensed into test tubes.

Buffer media for pH tolerance tests

Potassium phosphate buffers (0.2 M) were prepared at pH 4.0, 5.0, 9.0 and 10.0 by combining the volume of buffers A (0.2 M potassium dihydrogen phosphate) and buffer B (0.2 M dipotassium hydrogen phosphate) in the ratio of 199.7: 0.3; 197.3: 2.7; 1.4: 198.6 and 0.1: 199.9, respectively. Buffer at pH 11.0 was prepared by combining 0.2 M dipotassium hydrogen phosphate with 1 N NaOH to reach the pH. Each 200 ml of warm buffer was added aseptically to 200ml of sterile double strength modified Bennett's agar to give a final volume of 400 ml. The pH of the media were tested using pH paper and adjusted with sterile 1 N NaOH or 1 N HCl to the desired pH.

Chitin degradation (Hsu & Lockwood, 1975)

Colloidal chitin	4.0 g
K ₂ HPO ₄	0.7 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.3 g
MgSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	0.5 g
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.01 g
ZnSO ₄	0.001 g
MnSO ₄	0.001 g
Agar	20.0 g
dH ₂ O	1 L
pH	8.0
1	

DNase test agar for DNA degradation (Difco)

Tryptose	20.0 g
DNA	2.0 g
NaCl	5.0 g
Agar	12.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH	7.2

Nitrate reduction medium (Gordon & Mihm, 1962)

KNO ₃	1.0 g
Lab LEMCO	2.4 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH	
Three ml amounts of the media were dispens	ed into bijoux bottles.

RNA degradation (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1979)

0		,	/	
Tryptone			20.0 §	g
NaCl			5.0 g	-
dH ₂ O			1.0 L	
Agar			12.0 g	ζ
pH			7.2	
\mathbf{DNA} (2 α) \mathbf{w}	basilishan basilish	and added to t	ha moltan hasal	1 m

RNA (3 g) was tyndallised and added to the molten basal medium prior to dispensing into plates to give a final concentration (0.3%, w/v).

Sierra's medium for degradation of Tweens (Sierra, 1957)

Basal medium	
Bacto-peptone 10.	.0 g
NaCl	0 g
$CaCl_2.H_2O.\ldots.0.$	1 g
Agar	0 g
dH_2O	.0 L

pH......7.4

Ten ml of each of the Tweens was tyndallised in distilled water then added to melted basal medium to give a final concentration of 1.0% (v/v).

Tributyrin agar

Tributyrin agar base (Sigma T3688)	. 23.0 g
Tributyrin (Sigma T8626)	10.0 ml
Distilled water	. 990 ml

Tributyrin agar base was dissolved in 990 ml distilled water by heating and stirring on a heated magnetic stirrer. Tributyrin was added to the medium while it was being stirred. After autoclaving the molten medium was cooled in a 50°C water bath and mixed by gentle swirling while pouring in order to maintain uniform turbidity in the agar.

Urea degradation (Krieg & Padgett, 2011)

Basal medium	
KH ₂ PO ₄	9.1 g
Na ₂ HPO ₄	9.5 g
Yeast extract	. 0.1 g
Phenol red	0.01 g
dH ₂ O	1 L
pH	6.8

Urea solution in distilled water was filter-sterilized using cellulose acetate membrane filters (pore size 0.45 μ m) then added to the basal medium to give a final concentration (2.0%, w/v). Three ml amounts of the medium were aseptically dispensed into bijoux bottles.

3) Isolation media

Geodermatophilus obscurus agar (Uchida & Seino, 1997)	
Soluble starch	10.0 g
Yeast extract	4.0 g
Tryptone	4.0 g
Sucrose	2.0 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 Ľ
рН	7.0

Humic acid vitamin agar (Hayakawa & Nonomura, 1987)

Humic acid*	1.0 g
Vitamin solution**	1.0 ml
CaCO ₃	0.02 g
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.01 g

KCl	1.7 g
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.05 g
Na ₂ HPO ₄	0.5 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
рН	.7.2 <u>+</u> 0.2
*Humic acid was dissolved in 10 ml of 0.2 N NaOH	

****Vitamin Solution**

The following vitamins were dissolved in 1 litre of cold distilled water and the pH adjusted to 3.0 ± 0.2 with 0.1M HCl prior to sterilising by vacuum membrane filtration.

p-aminobenzoic acid	10 mg
Biotin	10 mg
Inositol	10 mg
Nicotinamide	10 mg
Pantothenic acid (B5)	10 mg
Pyridoxine (B6)	10 mg
Riboflavin Na choline (B2)	10 mg
Thiamin (B1)	10 mg
Cyanocobalamin (B12)	0.5 mg
Folic acid	0.5 mg

Microlunatus agar (Nakamura et al., 1995)

Glucose	0.5 g
Peptone	0.5 g
Yeast extract	0.5 g
Na-glutamate	0.5 g
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.5 g
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.1 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 Ľ
pH	7.0
1	

Minimal medium (Johnson et al., 1981)

KH ₂ PO ₄	1.5 g
K ₂ HPO ₄	2.9 g
Urea	2.1 g
MgCl ₂ .6H ₂ O	1.0 g
CaCl ₂	150 mg
FeSO ₄ .6H ₂ O	1.25 mg
Cysteine hydrochloride	1.0 g
Resazurin	2.0 mg
Cellobiose	5.0 g
Morpholinopropane sulfonic acid	10.0 g
Pyridoxamine hydrochloride	2.0 mg
Biotin	0.2 mg
ρ-Aminobenzoic acid	0.4 mg
Vitamin B ₁₂	0.2 mg
Sodium citrate.H ₂ O	3.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L

Oligotrophic medium (Senechkin et al., 2010)

MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.5 g
KNO ₃	0.5 g

KH ₂ PO ₄ .3H ₂ O	1.3 g
Ca(NO ₃) ₂ .4H ₂ O	0.06 g
Glucose	2.5 g
Enzymetic casein hydrolysate	0.2 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH	7.2

R2A agar (Reasoner & Geldriech, 1985)

Proteose peptone	0.5 g
Casamino acid	0.5 g
Yeast extract	0.5 g
Dextrose	0.5 g
Soluble starch	0.5 g
K ₂ HPO ₄	0.3 g
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.005 g
Sodium pyruvate	0.3 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
рН	

SM1 (Tan et al., 2006)

Basal medium*	.100.0 ml
Sterile molten agar (15% w/v)	.900.0 ml
*Basal medium: yeast nitrogen base (Difco)	67.0 g
Casamino acid (Difco)	100.0 mg
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
Basal medium were steriled by cellulose filter (0.20	um) Ther

Basal medium were steriled by cellulose filter (0.20 μ m). Then add to sterilised K₂HPO₄ (10% w/v) 200 ml. Followed by filter sterilized of

D(-)-sorbitol (final concentration)	1.0 %w/v
Cycloheximide	50.0 µg/ml
Neomycin sulphate	4.0 µg/ml
Nystatin	50.0 µg/ml

Starch casein-vitamin agar (Küster & Williams, 1964)	
Difco-vitamin-free casein	0.3 g
KNO ₃	2.0 g
NaCl	2.0 g
	~ ~ - -

$MgSO_4.7H_2O$	0.05 g
CaCO ₃	0.02 g
FeSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	0.01 g
Soluble starch	10.0 g
Agar	15.0 g
dH ₂ O	1.0 L
pH 7.0 <u>+</u> 0.2	

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Isolate	•	-	20/1 400	-	22/1200	00/14/00			22/120/	AC 11 404				20/14/04	10	26/1200	20/1404	22/1 400		25/1 400
1. Isolate KNN34		42/1363	39/1400	15/1393	22/1399	20/1400	25/1343	25/1401	23/1396	26/1401	28/139/	25/1400	27/1391	39/1401	52/1394	36/1398	30/1401	32/1400	28/1401	25/1400
2.Isolate KNN53-3	96.9		3/1365	54/1360	51/1363	39/1364	37/1336	47/1364	38/1361	37/1365	50/1359	40/1364	43/1355	8/1366	18/1363	19/1363	31/1366	32/1364	38/1365	40/1364
3.Isolate KNN53-1	97.2	99.8		52/1401	52/1407	36/1413	41/1344	47/1402	36/1409	37/1414	52/1409	36/1413	41/1404	9/1415	17/1404	19/1407	28/1415	29/1413	34/1414	36/1413
4. A. rugatobispora	98.9	96.0	96.3		24/1405	26/1405	34/1340	37/1397	30/1402	37/1405	41/1399	34/1405	32/1396	52/1405	56/1404	47/1402	42/1405	42/1405	40/1405	34/1405
5. A. vinacea	98.4	96.3	96.3	98.3		25/1441	34/1343	31/1429	32/1423	34/1438	50/1421	33/1432	32/1432	51/1438	61/1405	47/1428	44/1441	39/1427	35/1418	33/1432
6. A. bangladensis	98.6	97.1	97.5	98.2	98.3		20/1343	25/1431	15/1437	18/1455	58/1438	19/1444	7/1449	40/1454	50/1406	34/1429	25/1458	27/1442	26/1434	19/1444
7. A. napierensis	98.1	97.2	97.0	97.5	97.5	98.5		25/1343	25/1340	27/1344	37/1339	29/1343	24/1334	36/1344	52/1342	34/1342	36/1344	30/1343	30/1344	29/1343
8. A. xylanlytica	98.2	96.6	96.7	97.4	97.8	98.3	98.1		25/1412	26/1441	41/1416	31/1424	31/1440	47/1432	57/1398	39/1418	42/1452	27/1420	27/1411	31/1424
9. A. meyeae	98.4	97.2	97.4	97.9	97.8	99.0	98.1	98.2		12/1435	44/1425	22/1433	22/1428	40/1435	50/1403	38/1421	33/1438	31/1433	27/1429	22/1433
10. A. geliboluensis	98.1	97.3	97.4	97.4	97.6	98.8	98.0	98.2	99.2		54/1440	27/1445	28/1455	42/1457	51/1407	36/1427	39/1466	32/1444	28/1436	27/1445
11. A. flavaba	98.0	96.3	96.3	97.1	96.5	96.0	97.2	97.1	96.9	96.3		53/1434	64/1429	79/1450	63/1400	56/1417	66/1440	56/1435	54/1426	53/1434
12. A. madurae	98.2	97.1	97.5	97.6	97.7	98.7	97.8	97.8	98.5	98.1	96.3		26/1435	40/1445	51/1406	35/1426	34/1445	31/1439	32/1431	0/1445
13. A. chokoriensis	98.1	96.8	97.1	97.7	97.8	99.5	98.2	97.9	98.5	98.1	95.5	98.2		45/1446	56/1397	37/1420	30/1467	33/1433	32/1425	26/1435
14. A. phis	97.2	99.4	99.4	96.3	96.5	97.3	97.3	96.7	97.2	97.1	94.6	97.2	96.9		23/1408	19/1428	35/1458	32/1445	39/1436	40/1445
15. A. rifamicini	96.3	98.7	98.8	96.0	95.7	96.4	96.1	95.9	96.4	96.4	95.5	96.4	96.0	98.4		26/1407	40/1408	39/1406	47/1407	51/1406
16. A. cremea	97.4	98.6	98.7	96.7	96.7	97.6	97.5	97.3	97.3	97.5	96.1	97.6	97.4	98.7	98.2		26/1431	35/1426	43/1417	35/1426
17. A. sediminis	97.9	97.7	98.0	97.0	97.0	98.3	97.3	97.1	97.7	97.3	95.4	97.7	98.0	97.6	97.2	98.2		37/1445	44/1436	34/1445
18. A. flabrosa	97.7	97.7	98.0	97.0	97.3	98.1	97.8	98.1	97.8	97.8	96.1	97.9	97.7	97.8	97.2	97.6	97.4		19/1434	31/1439
19. A. nitritigenes	98.0	97.2	97.6	97.2	97.5	98.2	97.8	98.1	98.1	98.1	96.2	97.8	97.8	97.3	96.7	97.0	96.9	98.7		32/1431
20. A. madurae	98.2	97.1	97.5	97.6	97.7	98.7	97.8	97.8	98.5	98.1	96.3	100	98.2	97.2	96.4	97.6	97.7	97.0	97.8	

Appendix 4. Nucleotide similarity and differences tables

Table 1Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN34c,KNN53-1a and KNN53-3d isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related Actinomadura species.

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.1.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
		17/	21/	16/	2/	2/	16/	2/	3/	16/	16/	17/	2/	16/	7/	19/	17/	3/	2/	16/	19/	7/
1. Isoalte KNN50-8b		1285	1315	1314	1314	1312	1315	1317	1316	1317	1317	1312	1313	1314	1314	1313	1316	1313	1314	1314	1317	1317
			4/	25/	15	15/	26/	15/	16/	26/	26/	40/	15/	28/	18/	16/	30/	16/	15/	26/	24/	16/
2. Isolate GY024	98. 7		1366	1353	/1353	1354	1369	1371	1370	1370	1370	1372	1281	1374	1282	1282	1338	1370	1347	1369	1351	1371
2 Jack CV142	00.4	00.7		27/	17/	18/	31/	21/	22/	31/	30/	39/	19/	29/	20/	18/	34/	19/	17/	28/	26/	26/
3. Isolate G 1 142	90.4	99./		13/0	1370	13/0	1395	1390	25/	1397	1390	1392	1311	1392	1314	1515	1305	1595	13/2	1393	1360	1397
4 Isolate KNN49-6a	98.8	98.2	98.0		24 /1382	1380	0/ 1381	1382	25/ 1381	1383	1383	1381	14/	1/	1311	1/	14/	1381	1376	1383	1/	1382
4. Isolate In (14)-0a	70.0	70.2	20.0		/1502	0/	24/	0/	1/	24/	24/	23/	0/	25/	3/	15/1	29/	1/	0/	24/	23/	5/
5. Isolate KNN49-5e	99.9	98.9	98.8	98.3		1380	1380	1382	1381	1382	1382	1380	1310	1381	1311	1311	1366	1381	1376	1382	1380	1382
							25/	0/	1/	25/	25/	25/	0/	26/	3/	15/	29/	0/	0/	25/	23/	4/
6. Isolate KNN49-3e	99.9	98.9	98.7	98.3	100.0		1379	1382	1381	1381	1381	1381	1308	1380	1309	1309	1364	1383	1374	1381	1378	1382
								25/	26/	0/	0/	21/	14/	1/	20/	4/	14/	26/	19/	0/	4/	31/
7. Isolate KNN50-10e	98.8	98.1	97.8	100.0	98.3	98.2		1401	1399	1402	1401	1396	1311	1397	1313	1312	1368	1395	1374	1397	1383	1400
									1/	25/	25/	38/	0/	26/	6/	18/	29/	1/	0/	25/	26/	6/
8. Isolate KNN50-4c	99.9	98.9	98.5	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.2		1402	1403	1402	1398	1313	1398	1315	1314	1369	1398	1376	1398	1384	1403
							00.4			26/	26/	38/	1/	27/	7/	19/	30/	2/	1/	26/	27/	7/
9. Isolate KNN49-26a	99.8	98.8	98.4	98.2	99.9	99.9	98.1	99.9		1401	1400	1396	1312	1396	1314	1313	1369	1397	1375	1397	1383	1401
10 Jaclata KNN40 12h	00.0	09.1	07.9	100.0	08.2	08.2	100.0	08.2	09.1		0/	21/	14/	1/	20/	4/	14/	26/	19/	0/ 1200	4/1205	31/
10. Isolate KININ49-120	90.0	90.1	97.0	100.0	90.5	90.2	100.0	90.2	90.1		1405	21/	1515	1399	1315	2/	13/0	26/	13/0	1399	4/1505	1402
11 Isolate KNN49-11c	98.8	98.1	97.9	100.0	98.3	98.2	100.0	98.2	98.1	100.0		1398	1313	1399	1314	1313	1370	1397	1376	1399	1384	1402
	2010	,,,,,	7.15	10010	1010	, 	10010	, 	<i>,</i> ,,,,	10010		1070	15/	23/	18/	2/	15/	38/	19/	20/	6/	41/
12. Isolate KNN49-32e	98.7	97.1	97.2	99.5	98.3	98.2	98.5	97.3	97.3	98.5	98.5		1308	1398	1309	1309	1365	1397	1374	1397	1379	1398
														14/	5/	17/	15/	1/	0/	14/	17/	5/
13. Isolate KNN50-18d	99.9	98.8	98.6	98.9	100.0	100.0	98.9	100.0	99.92	98.9	98.9	98.9		1310	1312	1312	1312	1309	1310	1310	1313	1313
															17/	1/	15/	27/	20/	1/	2/	32/
14. Isolate KNN50-17d	98.8	98.0	97.9	99.9	98.2	98.1	99.9	98.1	98.1	99.9	99.9	98.4	98.9		1311	1311	1366	1396	1375	1398	1380	1398
15. Isolate KNN50-15d	99.5	98.6	98.5	98.7	99.8	99.8	98.5	99.5	99.5	98.5	98.6	98.6	99.6	98.7		18/1314	20/1313	4/1310	3/1311	17/1311	18/1315	10/1314
16. Isolate KNN50-16d	98.6	98.8	98.6	99.9	98.9	98.9	99.7	98.6	98.6	99.7	99.8	99.9	98.7	99.9	98.6		2/1312	16/1310	15/1311	1/1311	2/1314	22/1313
17. Isolate KNN50-11c	98.7	97.8	97.5	99.0	97.88	97.9	99.0	97.9	97.8	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.5	99.9		30/1365	29/1366	14/1367	17/1370	34/1369
	00.0	00.0	00.6	00.0	00.0	100.0	00.1	00.0	00.0	00.1	00.1	07.2	00.0	00.1	00 5	00.0	07.0		1/1055	0.01205	24/1270	6/
18. Isolate KNN50-14d	99.8	98.8	98.6	98.2	99.9 100.0	100.0	98.1	99.9 100.0	99.9	98.1	98.1	97.3	99.9	98.1	99.7	98.8	97.8		1/1375	26/1397	24/1379	1398
19. Isolate KNN50-13c	99.9	98.9	98.8	98.0	100.0	100.0	98.0 100.0	100.0	99.9	98.0	98.0	98.0	100.0	98.0	99.8 09.7	98.9	9/.9	99.9		19/15/6	20/15/6	5/15/0
20. Isolate KNN50-12c 21. Isolate KNN50-0h	98.8	98.1	98.0	100.0	98.3	98.2	100.0	98.2	98.1	100.0	100.0	98.0	98.9	99.9	98.7	99.9	99.0	98.1	98.0		1/1581	31/1398
21. Isolate KININ50-90	90.0	90.4	90.1 08 1	99.9 07.0	90.3	90.3 00.7	99.1 07.8	90.1 00.6	90.1 00 5	99.1	99.9 07.9	99.0	90.7	99.9	90.0	99.9	90.0 07.5	90.3 00.6	90.0	99.9	07.8	50/1303
22. Isolate KININ50-/0	99.5	90.0 08.0	90.1 08.6	97.9	99.0 100.0	39.7 100.0	97.0	39.0 100.0	99.5 00.0	97.0	97.0	97.1	99.0 100.0	9/./	99.4	90.3 08 7	97.5	99.0	99.0 100.0	97.0	97.0	
23. Isolate KININSO-00	99.9	90.9	98.8	98.6	100.0	100.0	98.6	100.0	00.0	98.6	98.6	98.6	100.0	98.5	00.8	08.0	97.9	00.0	100.0	98.6	98.5	99.6
25. Isolate KNN50-20	98.8	97.8	97.9	100.0	98.3	98.1	100.0	98.1	98.1	100.0	100.0	98.4	98.9	99.6	98.7	99.9	99.0	98.1	98.6	100.0	99.9	97.7
26 Isolate KNN50-1a	98.6	98.1	98.0	100.0	98.3	98.2	99.8	98.0	97.9	99.8	99.9	98.5	98.9	99.9	98.7	99.9	98.8	98.1	98.6	100.0	99.9	97.7
27. Isolate KNN49-10h	99.9	98.9	98.6	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.3	100.0	99.9	98.3	98.3	98.3	100.0	98.2	99.6	98.7	97.9	99.9	100.0	98.3	98.2	99.6
28 Isolate KNN49-1b	99.9	98.8	98.6	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.1	99.9	99.9	98.1	98.1	97.4	100.0	98.1	99.8	98.9	97.9	99.9	100.0	98.1	98.3	99.7
20. 1301att 111147-111	,,,,	70.0	70.0	70.5	100.0	100.0	70.1	,,,,	,,,,	70.1	70.1	<i>//.</i> -	100.0	70.1	11.0	70.7	10	11.1	100.0	70.1	10.0	11.1

Table 2 Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN49-1h, KNN49-3e, KNN49-5e, KNN49-6a, KNN49-10b, KNN49-11c, KNN49-12b, KNN49-26a, KNN49-32e, KNN50-1a, KNN50-2e, KNN50-4c, KNN50-5c, KNN50-6e, KNN50-7d, KNN50-8b, KNN50-9b, KNN50-10e, KNN50-11c, KNN50-13c, KNN50-14d, KNN50-15d, KNN50-12c, KNN50-16d, KNN50-17d and KNN 50-18d isolated from the hyper-arid Salar de Atacama environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Amycolatopsis* species.

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.2.

Table2 (cont.)

Isolate	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43
	2/																				
1.Isolate KNN50-8b	1317	2/1314	16/1314	18/1317	2/1316	2/1312	0/1317	18/1317	16/1316	18/1317	19/1317	19/1316	20/1317	23/1316	26/1316	24/1313	68/1315	67/1317	66/1315	84/1313	87/1314
	15/	45 49 49	24/4275	26/4270	45/4252	46/4262	45 (4995	45/4000	25/12224	47/4200		47/4004	40/4005	25/4254	20/4252	20/4200		ca (4 4 4 4	ca /4 430	co /4005	05 (400.4
2. Isolate GY024	13/0	15/1348	31/13/5	26/13/0	15/1352	16/1369	15/1395	15/1328	26/1394	17/1380	19/1394	17/1394	18/1395	35/1351	39/1353	20/1390	/2/1412	63/1411	62/1429	68/1395	85/1394
3 Isolate CV142	20/	17/1373	29/1394	28/1397	19/1380	19/1392	18/1410	17/1369	29/1409	20/1409	22/1409	21/1409	22/1410	40/1392	47/1381	29/1396	80/1408	70/1409	68/1407	74/1406	95/1407
5. Isolate (51 142	24/	1/13/3	23/1334	20/1357	15/1500	15/1552	10/1410	17/1505	23/1405	20/1405	22/1405	21/1405	22/1410	40/1332	47/1301	25/1350	00/1400	70/1405	00/140/	74,1400	55/140/
4. Isolate KNN49-6a	1382	20/1377	0/1383	0/1383	24/1381	24/1380	24/1382	0/1357	28/1382	26/1382	18/1382	22/1382	23/1383	26/1381	25/1380	32/1378	83/1381	79/1382	76/1380	86/1378	98/1379
	0/																				
5. Isolate KNN49-5e	1382	0/1377	24/1382	24/1382	0/1381	0/1380	0/1382	14/1357	16/1381	18/1381	19/1381	19/1381	20/1382	31/1380	33/1379	24/1377	70/1380	65/1381	64/1379	83/1378	86/1379
	0/																				
6. Isolate KNN49-3e	1382	0/1375	26/1382	25/1381	0/1380	0/1383	0/1382	14/1355	16/1381	18/1381	19/1381	19/1381	20/1382	31/1378	35/1379	24/1377	70/1380	65/1381	64/1379	83/1378	86/1379
7 I	25/	20/1275	0/1209	2/1402	24/1292	26/1204	28/1401	2/1250	22/1401	20/1401	22/1401	26/1401	27/1402	20/1202	27/1202	26/1207	97/1400	92/1401	80/1200	00/1207	101/1208
7. Isolate KINN50-10e	0/	20/13/3	0/1596	5/1402	24/1562	20/1394	26/1401	3/1339	52/1401	50/1401	22/1401	20/1401	27/1402	29/1303	27/1505	50/159/	87/1400	65/1401	60/1555	90/1397	101/1398
8. Isolate KNN50-4c	1402	0/1377	26/1400	28/1403	0/1384	1/1397	3/1404	17/1361	19/1403	21/1403	22/1403	22/1403	23/1404	34/1384	37/1385	27/1399	73/1402	68/1403	67/1401	86/1400	89/1401
	1/																				
9. Isolate KNN49-26a	1401	1/1376	27/1398	29/1401	1/1383	2/1396	4/1402	18/1360	20/1401	22/1401	23/1401	23/1401	24/1402	35/1383	38/1384	28/1397	74/1400	69/1401	68/1399	87/1398	89/1399
10. Isolate KNN49-	25/																				
12b	1401	20/1377	0/1400	3/1404	24/1384	26/1396	28/1403	3/1361	32/1403	30/1403	22/1403	26/1403	27/1404	29/1385	27/1385	36/1399	87/1402	83/1403	80/1401	90/1399	102/1400
11.1.1.4 72575140.11	25/	20/1277	0/1400	2/1402	24/1204	26/1206	27/1402	2/1200	21/1402	20/1402	21/1402	25/1402	26/1402	20/1204	27/1205	25/1200	00/1401	02/1402	70/1400	00/1200	101/1200
11.Isolate KNN49-11c	1401	20/13//	0/1400	2/1403	24/1384	26/1396	27/1402	2/1360	31/1402	29/1402	21/1402	25/140Z	26/1403	28/1384	27/1385	35/1398	86/1401	82/1402	79/1400	89/1398	101/1399
12 Isolate KNN49-32e	1397	19/1375	22/1400	21/1398	23/1379	37/1396	39/1399	1/1355	43/1399	41/1399	33/1399	37/1399	38/1400	33/1381	34/1383	47/1395	99/1400	94/1401	92/1399	101/1395	113/1397
13. Isolate KNN50-	0/	10/10/0	22/ 2100	22/2000	20/ 20/ 5	01/2000	05/2055	1,1000	40/ 2000	42/2000	00/1000	07/1000	00/1100	00/1001	0 1/ 2000	-17 2000	55/1100	542102	52, 2000	101/1055	110/1007
18d	1313	0/1310	14/1310	16/1313	0/1312	0/1308	2/1313	16/1313	14/1312	16/1313	17/1313	17/1312	18/1313	21/1312	24/1312	22/1309	66/1311	65/1313	64/1311	82/1309	85/1310
14. Isolate KNN50-	26/																				
17d	1397	21/1376	5/1403	1/1399	25/1380	27/1395	27/1403	1/1356	31/1403	29/1403	21/1403	25/1403	26/1404	27/1380	26/1381	35/1399	85/1402	82/1403	79/1401	89/1399	101/1400
15. Isolate KNN50-	5/	-	47/4044	47/4245	- /	2/4222	2/1216			47/4246	40/4045	40/4045	40/4045		25/4242		<i>cc lana a</i>	<i>cc (</i> 1224 <i>c</i>	<i>c= (i</i> a <i>i i i i i i i i i i</i>		06/4040
15d	1314	3/1311	1//1311	1//1315	5/1313	3/1309	3/1316	1/1316	15/1315	1//1316	18/1316	18/1315	19/1316	22/1315	25/1313	23/1312	66/1314	66/1316	65/1314	83/1312	86/1313
16.Isolate KNN50-	1//	15/1211	1/1211	1/1214	17/1212	15/1200	15/1215	1/1215	19/1214	17/1215	0/1215	12/1214	12/1215	21/1214	22/1212	22/1211	60/1212	72/1215	60/1212	77/1211	99/1212
100	29/	15/1511	1/1311	1/1314	17/1312	13/1305	15/1315	1/1315	18/1314	17/1315	5/1315	12/1314	13/1313	21/1314	22/1312	22/1311	09/1313	72/1315	03/1313	///1511	88/1312
17. Isolate KNN50-11c	1369	29/1366	14/1367	16/1370	29/1368	29/1364	31/1369	1/1359	33/1369	32/1370	24/1370	27/1369	28/1370	38/1368	38/1368	37/1365	87/1368	88/1370	85/1368	92/1365	103/1366
18. Isolate KNN50-	1/																				
14d	1398	1/1376	27/1398	26/1397	1/1381	1/1398	1/1398	15/1356	17/1397	19/1397	20/1397	20/1397	21/1398	32/1379	36/1381	25/1393	71/1396	66/1397	65/1395	84/1394	87/1395
	0/																				
19. Isolate KNN50-13c	1376	0/1376	19/1376	19/1376	0/1375	0/1374	0/1376	14/1357	16/1375	18/1375	19/1375	19/1375	20/1376	26/1374	28/1373	24/1371	70/1374	65/1375	64/1373	83/1372	86/1373
20 Isolata KNN50-12c	1398	20/1377	0/1399	0/1399	24/1381	26/1396	25/1398	0/1357	29/1398	27/1398	19/1398	22/1298	24/1399	26/1381	25/1382	33/1394	84/1397	80/1398	77/1396	87/1394	99/1395
20.1501ate R101050-120	25/	20/13//	0/1355	0/1355	24/1301	20/1350	25/1550	0,1337	25/1550	27/1350	15/1550	23/1350	24/1355	20/1301	23/1302	33/1354	04/1357	00/1350	11/1350	07/1354	55/1355
21. Isolate KNN50-9b	1383	21/1377	1/1381	1/1385	25/1382	23/1378	23/1384	1/1361	27/1384	25/1384	17/1384	21/1384	22/1385	27/1383	26/1381	31/1380	82/1383	78/1384	75/1382	85/1380	97/1381
	6/											•				•					
22. Isolate KNN50-7d	1402	5/1377	32/1400	33/1402	5/1384	4/1397	8/1403	21/1360	24/1402	26/1402	27/1402	27/1402	28/1403	38/1383	42/1385	32/1398	78/1401	73/1402	72/1400	91/1399	94/1400
23.Isolate KNN50-6e		0/1377	26/1399	27/1401	0/1384	1/1397	2/1402	16/1360	18/1401	20/1401	21/1401	21/1401	22/1402	33/1383	37/1385	26/1397	72/1400	67/1401	66/1399	85/1398	88/1399
24. Isolate KNN50-5c	100.0		20/1377	20/1377	0/1376	0/1375	0/1377	14/1357	16/1376	18/1376	19/1376	19/1376	20/1377	27/1375	29/1374	24/1372	70/1375	65/1376	64/1374	83/1373	86/1374
25. Isolate KNN50-2e	98.1	98.6		0/1400	24/1381	27/1397	30/1404	0/1357	34/1404	32/1404	24/1404	28/1404	29/1405	26/1381	26/1383	38/1400	89/1403	85/1404	82/1402	92/1400	104/1401
26. Isolate KNN50-1a	98.1	98.6	100.0		26/1384	26/1396	25/1403	0/1361	29/1403	27/1403	19/1403	23/1403	24/1404	26/1385	25/1385	33/1399	84/1402	80/1403	77/1401	87/1399	99/1400
27. Isolate KINN49- 10b	100.0	100.0	98.3	98.1		0/1380	2/1384	16/1359	18/1383	20/1383	21/1383	21/1383	22/1384	33/1382	35/1381	26/1379	71/1382	66/1383	65/1381	84/1380	88/1381
28. Isolate KNN49-1h	99.93	100.0	98.1	98.1	100.0		1/1397	14/1355	17/1396	19/1396	20/1396	20/1396	21/1397	31/1378	35/1380	25/1392	71/1395	66/1396	65/1394	84/1393	87/1394
20. 150iate 1111149-111	33.33	100.0	J0.1	J0.1	100.0		1/135/	14/1333	1/1330	13/1330	-0/1350	20/1350	-1/135/	31/13/0	33/1300	23/ 1332	, 1/ 1333	30/1330	00/1004	04/1000	07/1334

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.2.

Table2 (cont.)

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
29. A_ruanii_	100.0	98.9	98.7	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.0	99.9	99.7	98.0	98.1	97.2	99.9	98.1	99.8	98.9	97.7	99.9	100.0	98.2	98.3	99.4	99.9
30. A_thermalba	98.6	98.9	98.8	100.0	99.0	99.0	99.8	98.8	98.7	99.9	99.9	99.9	98.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	98.9	99.0	100.0	99.9	98.5	98.8
31. A_thermoflava	98.8	98.1	97.9	98.0	98.8	98.8	97.7	98.7	98.6	97.7	97.8	96.9	98.9	97.8	98.9	98.6	97.6	98.8	98.8	97.9	98.1	98.3	98.7
32. A_endophytica	98.6	98.8	98.6	98.1	98.7	98.7	97.9	98.5	98.4	97.9	97.9	97.1	98.8	97.9	98.7	98.7	97.7	98.6	98.7	98.1	98.2	98.2	98.6
33. A_methanolica	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.5	97.6	98.7	98.5	98.6	99.3	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.8	98.1	98.5
34. A_eurytherma	98.6	98.8	98.5	98.4	98.6	98.6	98.1	98.4	98.4	98.2	98.2	97.4	98.7	98.2	98.6	99.1	98.0	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.5	98.1	98.5
35. A_tucumanensis	98.5	98.7	98.4	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.1	98.4	98.3	98.1	98.2	97.3	98.6	98.2	98.6	99.0	98.0	98.5	98.6	98.3	98.4	98.0	98.4
36. A_granulosa	98.3	97.4	97.1	98.1	97.8	97.8	97.9	97.5	97.5	97.9	98.0	97.6	98.4	98.0	98.3	98.4	97.2	97.7	98.1	98.1	98.1	97.3	97.6
37. A_viridis	98.0	97.1	96.6	98.2	97.6	97.5	98.1	97.3	97.3	98.1	98.1	97.5	98.2	98.1	98.1	98.3	97.2	97.4	98.0	98.2	98.1	97.0	97.3
38. A_thermophila	98.2	98.6	97.9	97.7	98.3	98.3	97.4	98.1	98.0	97.4	97.5	96.6	98.3	97.5	98.3	98.3	97.3	98.2	98.3	97.6	97.6	97.7	98.1
39. A_pigmentata	94.8	94.9	94.3	94.0	94.9	94.9	93.8	94.8	94.7	93.8	93.9	92.9	95.0	93.9	95.0	94.7	93.6	94.9	94.9	94.0	94.1	94.4	94.9
40. A_helveola	94.9	95.5	95.0	94.3	95.3	95.3	94.1	95.2	95.1	94.1	94.2	93.3	95.1	94.2	95.0	94.5	93.6	95.3	95.3	94.3	94.4	94.8	95.2
41. A_taiwanensis	95.0	95.7	95.8	94.5	95.4	95.4	94.3	95.2	95.1	94.3	94.4	93.4	95.1	94.4	95.1	94.7	93.8	95.3	95.3	94.5	94.6	94.9	95.3
42. A_orientalis	93.6	95.1	94.7	93.8	94.0	94.0	93.6	93.9	93.8	93.6	93.6	92.8	93.7	93.6	93.8	94.1	93.3	94.0	94.0	93.8	93.8	93.5	93.9
43. Actinokineospora																							
riparia	93.4	93.9	93.3	92.9	93.8	93.8	92.8	93.7	93.6	92.7	92.8	91.9	93.5	92.8	93.5	93.3	92.5	93.76	93.7	92.9	93.0	93.3	93.7

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.2.

Isolate	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43
							14/	16/												
29. A_ruanii_	100.0	97.9	98.2	99.9	99.9		1392	1456	18/1441	19/1460	19/1456	20/1461	31/1414	35/1385	24/1426	70/1455	65/1456	64/1458	83/1453	87/1457
								17/												
30. A_thermalba	99.0	100.0	100.0	98.8	99.0	99.0		1389	16/1389	8/1392	11/1389	12/1392	20/1390	21/1359	21/1360	70/1388	71/1390	68/1390	77/1386	88/1389
31. A_thermoflava	98.8	97.6	97.9	98.7	98.8	98.9	98.8		20/1442	13/1457	16/1459	17/1460	34/1416	41/1388	24/1429	79/1455	74/1456	71/1454	86/1452	94/1452
32. A_endophytica	98.7	97.7	98.1	98.6	98.6	98.8	98.9	98.6		12/1443	16/1442	17/1443	37/1413	44/1386	23/1413	76/1440	72/1441	70/1439	82/1437	97/1438
33. A_methanolica	98.6	98.3	98.7	98.5	98.6	98.7	99.4	99.1	99.2		10/1457	11/1478	31/1415	38/1386	22/1427	77/1455	78/1456	73/1468	80/1452	93/1471
34. A_eurytherma	98.6	98.0	98.4	98.5	98.6	98.7	99.2	98.9	98.9	99.3		1/1460	36/1416	43/1388	26/1429	75/1455	78/1456	75/1454	80/1452	96/1452
35. A_tucumanensis	98.6	97.9	98.3	98.4	98.5	98.6	99.1	98.8	98.8	99.3	99.9		37/1418	44/1389	27/1430	76/1456	79/1457	76/1469	81/1453	97/1472
36. A_granulosa	98.0	98.1	98.1	97.6	97.8	97.8	98.6	97.6	97.4	97.8	97.5	97.4		11/1387	39/1386	77/1414	69/1415	72/1414	92/1409	101/1412
37. A_viridis	97.9	98.1	98.2	97.5	97.5	97.5	98.5	97.1	96.8	97.8	96.9	96.8	99.2		44/1384	80/1386	74/1387	79/1385	100/1381	102/1383
38. A_thermophila	98.3	97.3	97.6	98.1	98.2	98.3	98.5	98.3	98.4	98.5	98.2	98.1	97.2	96.8		77/1425	75/1426	71/1424	86/1422	100/1422
39. A_pigmentata	94.9	93.7	94.0	94.9	94.9	95.2	95.0	94.6	94.7	94.7	94.9	94.8	94.6	94.2	94.6		46/1475	44/1475	110/1451	110/1453
40. A_helveola	95.3	94.0	94.3	95.2	95.3	95.5	94.9	94.9	95.0	94.6	94.6	94.6	95.1	94.7	94.7	96.9		17/1475	91/1452	111/1454
41. A_taiwanensis	95.3	94.2	94.5	95.3	95.3	95.6	95.1	95.1	95.1	95.0	94.8	94.8	94.9	94.3	95.0	97.0	98.		94/1450	113/1466
42. A_orientalis	94.0	93.4	93.8	93.9	94.0	94.3	94.4	94.1	94.3	94.5	94.5	94.4	93.5	92.8	94.0	92.4	93.73	93.5		97/1452
43. Actinokineospora																				
riparia	93.7	92.6	92.9	93.6	93.8	94.0	93.66	93.53	93.25	93.68	93.39	93.41	92.85	92.62	92.97	92.43	92.37	92.29	93.32	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.2.

Isolate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Isolate KNN45-3		12/1389	0/1405	0/1405	3/1405	3/1405	1/1405	14/1394	3/1398	12/1396	12/1396	7/1401
2. Isolate KNN46-3	99.1		12/1389	12/1389	14/1389	15/1389	13/1389	1/1381	13/1383	0/1388	0/1388	17/1386
3. Isolate KNN46-6	100	99.1		6/1419	3/1410	3/1411	1/1421	14/1403	3/1398	12/1401	12/1401	8/1404
4. Isolate KNN46-10	100	99.1	99.6		3/1411	3/1412	7/1420	14/1401	3/1398	12/1402	12/1402	8/1402
5. Isolate KNN46-9	99.8	99	99.8	99.8		4/1411	4/1411	17/1399	3/1398	14/1402	14/1402	4/1401
6. Isolate KNN46-8	99.8	98.9	99.8	99.8	99.7		2/1412	15/1400	4/1398	15/1402	15/1402	7/1402
7. Isolate KNN46-5	99.9	99.1	99.9	99.5	99. 7	99.9		13/1403	2/1398	13/1402	13/1402	7/1404
8. Isolate KNN45-4	99	99.9	99	99	98.8	98.9	99.1		13/1387	3/1393	3/1393	18/1394
9. Isolate KNN46-4	99.8	99.1	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.9	99.1		14/1390	14/1390	3/1397
10. Isolate KNN45-2	99	100	99.1	99.1	99.0	98.9	99.1	99.8	99		0/1403	18/1393
11. Isolate KNN45-1	99	100	99.1	99.1	99.0	98.9	99.1	99.8	99	100		18/1393
12. Isolate KNN46-2	99.5	98.8	99.4	99.4	99. 7	99.5	99.5	98.7	99.8	98.7	98.7	
13. M. versicolor	99	98.5	99.1	99.1	99.0	98.9	99.1	98.3	99.0	98.5	98.5	98.7
14. M. marinus	98.8	99.6	98.4	98.8	98.6	98.6	98.3	99.4	98.6	99.6	99.6	98.2
15. M. roseus	98.3	99.1	97.9	98.3	98.1	98.1	97.8	98.9	98.1	99.1	99.1	97.7
16. M. multiseptatus	98.6	98.1	98.2	98.6	98.4	98.4	98.1	97.9	98.4	98.1	98.1	98.0
17. Isolate KNN44-1	96.5	96.4	96.5	96.5	96.6	96.6	96.5	96.4	96.5	96.4	96.4	96.7
18. Isolate KNN44-3	96	95.8	95.6	96	95.8	95.8	95.5	95.7	95.8	95.9	95.9	95.5
19. Isolate KNN44-4	96.3	96.1	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.1	96.3	96.1	96.1	96.3
20. G. normandii	95.6	96.1	95.2	95.6	95.4	95.4	95.1	96.0	95.4	96.1	96.1	95.0
21. G. solani	94.9	94.6	94.9	94.9	94.8	94.7	94.9	94.5	94.9	94.6	94.6	94.7
22. G. ruber	95.2	95.2	94.9	95.3	95.0	95.0	94.8	95.1	95.1	95.3	95.3	94.6
23. G. telluris	94.2	94.7	93.9	94.3	94.0	94.0	93.8	94.7	94.1	94.8	94.8	93.6
24. G. obscurus	96	96	95.6	96.1	95.8	95.8	95.7	95.9	95.8	96.1	96.1	95.4
25. G. terrae	95.6	95.3	95.5	95.5	95.4	95.4	95.5	95.2	95.8	95.2	95.2	95.6
26. G. saharensis	95.9	96.5	95.6	96	95.7	95.7	95.5	96.4	95.8	96.5	96.5	95.4
27. G. siccatus	95.8	95.7	95.4	95.9	95.6	95.6	95.4	957	95.6	95.8	95.8	95.2
28. G. arenarius	95.6	95.2	95.2	95.6	95.4	95.4	95.1	95.0	95.4	95.2	95.2	95.0
29. G. nigrescens	95.7	95.4	95.3	95.8	95.5	95.5	95.3	95.3	95.5	95.4	95.4	95.1
30. G. taihuensis	93.9	93.9	93.5	93.4	93.6	93.5	93.3	93.1	93.9	93.6	93.6	93.3
31. Isolate KNN47	96.6	96.3	96.3	96.7	96.4	96.4	96.2	96.1	96.4	96.4	96.4	96.1
32. B. jejuensis	96.7	96.5	96.7	96.7	96.6	96.5	96.6	96.3	96.6	96.6	96.6	96.3
33. B. saxobsidens	96.6	96.3	96.3	96.7	96.4	96.4	96.2	96.1	96.5	96.4	96.4	96.1
34. B. endophyticus	96.7	96.3	96.3	96.6	96.4	96.5	96.2	96.2	96.5	96.4	96.4	96.1
35. B. aggregatus	96	95.9	96	96	95.9	95.8	95.9	95.5	96	95.8	95.8	95.6

Table 3 Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between 16 strains isolated from

 the extreme hyper-arid Yungay environmental sample and the type strains of closely related *Blastococcus, Geodermatophilus* and *Modestobacter* species.

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.3.

Table 3 (contin	ue)
-----------------	-----

Isolate	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. Isolate KNN45-3	12/1393	17/1402	24/1400	20/1401	45/1298	56/1398	49/1322	62/1399	70/1358	67/1401	81/1401	56/1401
2. Isolate KNN46-3	21/1385	5/1387	12/1385	26/1385	47/1298	58/1383	51/1322	54/1384	74/1358	66/1386	73/1386	55/1386
3. Isolate KNN46-6	12/1398	23/1418	30/1416	26/1417	45/1298	62/1413	49/1322	68/1415	70/1358	73/1417	87/1417	62/1417
4. Isolate KNN46-10	12/1400	17/1423	24/1416	20/1422	45/1298	57/1418	49/1322	62/1420	70/1358	67/1422	81/1422	56/1422
5. Isolate KNN46-9	14/1399	20/1408	27/1406	23/1407	44/1298	59/1404	49/1322	65/1405	71/1358	70/1407	84/1407	59/1407
6. Isolate KNN46-8	15/1399	20/1409	27/1407	23/1408	44/1298	59/1404	49/1322	65/1406	72/1358	70/1408	84/1408	59/1408
7. Isolate KNN46-5	13/1399	24/1419	31/1417	27/1418	45/1298	63/1414	49/1322	69/1416	70/1358	74/1418	88/1418	63/1418
8. Isolate KNN45-4	24/1389	8/1402	15/1400	29/1400	47/1291	60/1397	51/1315	56/1399	74/1350	69/1401	75/1401	58/1401
9. Isolate KNN46-4	14/1387	20/1395	27/1393	22/1394	45/1298	59/1392	49/1322	64/1392	70/1358	69/1394	83/1394	58/1394
10. Isolate KNN45-2	21/1398	5/1401	12/1399	26/1399	47/1297	58/1397	51/1321	54/1398	74/1357	66/1400	73/1400	55/1400
11. Isolate KNN45-1	21/1398	5/1401	12/1399	26/1399	47/1297	58/1397	51/1321	54/1398	74/1357	66/1400	73/1400	55/1400
12. Isolate KNN46-2	18/1390	25/1401	32/1399	28/1400	43/1298	63/1396	49/1322	70/1398	72/1358	75/1400	89/1400	64/1400
13. M. versicolor		25/1446	23/1432	26/1408	51/1298	66/1397	55/1320	64/1400	72/1356	76/1410	84/1442	66/1443
14. M. marinus	98.3		11/1451	29/1439	47/1298	62/1424	50/1322	55/1428	75/1358	72/1444	73/1476	56/1477
15. M. roseus	98.4	99.2		38/1426	44/1298	59/1415	48/1320	46/1419	71/1356	66/1429	66/1448	54/1448
16. M. multiseptatus	98.2	98	97.3		45/1298	61/1422	48/1320	68/1428	70/1356	70/1435	86/1436	55/1436
17. Isolate KNN44-1	96.1	96.4	96.6	96.5		4/1300	1/1288	31/1297	39/1296	25/1300	43/1299	13/1300
18. Isolate KNN44-3	95.3	95.7	95.8	95.7	99.7		1/1324	39/1423	49/1356	31/1428	55/1427	20/1428
19. Isolate KNN44-4	95.8	96.2	96.4	96.4	99.9	99.9		31/1319	44/1320	24/1324	46/1323	13/1324
20. G. normandii	95.4	96.2	96.8	95.2	97.6	97.3	97.7		60/1357	46/1429	30/1431	30/1429
21. G. solani	94.7	94.5	94.8	94.8	97	96.4	96.8	95.6		59/1358	69/1359	53/1358
22. G. ruber	94.6	95	95.4	95.1	98.1	97.8	98.2	96.8	95.7		66/1447	35/1448
23. G. telluris	94.2	95	95.4	94	97	96.2	96.5	97.9	94.9	95.4		46/1479
24. G. obscurus	95.4	96.2	96.3	96.2	99.0	98.6	99.0	97.9	96.1	97.6	96.9	
25. G. terrae	94.9	95	95	95.4	96.8	96.2	96.5	95.3	97.7	95.3	94.1	95.9
26. G. saharensis	95.7	96.9	97	95.7	97.6	97	97.7	98.5	95.3	96.3	97.4	97.7
27. G. siccatus	95.2	96	96	96.1	98.8	98.5	98.9	97.8	96.2	97.9	96.7	99.1
28. G. arenarius	95.5	95.5	95.9	95.3	97.5	96.8	97.3	97.7	95.4	96.3	97.6	97.6
29. G. nigrescens	95.6	95.6	96	95.2	97.2	96.9	97.3	98.6	95.2	96.3	97.1	97.6
30. G. taihuensis	92.6	91.8	92.1	93.1	96.9	95	96.5	94.3	99.1	93.9	92.6	93.8
31. Isolate KNN47	96.3	96.2	96.6	96.2	96.7	96.3	96.6	96.6	96	95.9	95.7	96.5
32. B. jejuensis	96.5	96.6	96.6	96.7	97.8	97.5	97.8	96.1	95.5	96.9	94.8	97.4
33. B. saxobsidens	96.1	96.4	96.5	96.3	96.8	96.6	96.8	96.9	95.7	96	95.5	97.3
34. B. endophyticus	96.4	96.2	96.9	95.7	97.3	96.9	97.2	96.6	96.6	96.5	95.6	96.7
35. B. aggregatus	96	95.8	96.1	95.9	96.7	95.9	96.4	95.1	95.7	95.8	94.4	96

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.3.

Table 5 (continue)	Table 3	(continue)
--------------------	---------	------------

Isolate	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
1. Isolate KNN45-3	59/1353	57/1402	59/1401	62/1402	60/1398	85/1397	47/1398	46/1392	47/1399	47/1401	56/1392
2. Isolate KNN46-3	63/1353	49/1387	59/1386	67/1387	64/1383	84/1382	51/1383	48/1384	51/1384	51/1386	57/1383
3. Isolate KNN46-6	61/1355	63/1418	65/1417	68/1418	66/1414	92/1408	53/1413	46/1397	53/1415	53/1417	56/1397
4. Isolate KNN46-10	61/1355	57/1423	59/1422	62/1423	60/1419	93/1408	47/1416	46/1399	47/1420	49/1420	56/1399
5. Isolate KNN46-9	63/1355	60/1408	62/1407	65/1408	63/1404	90/1403	50/1403	48/1398	50/1405	50/1406	58/1398
6. Isolate KNN46-8	63/1355	60/1409	62/1408	65/1409	63/1405	92/1404	50/1403	49/1398	50/1406	50/1407	59/1398
7. Isolate KNN46-5	61/1355	64/1419	66/1418	69/1419	67/1415	94/1409	54/1413	47/1398	54/1416	54/1417	57/1398
8. Isolate KNN45-4	65/1348	51/1402	61/1401	70/1402	66/1398	97/1397	54/1397	51/1389	54/1399	54/1401	62/1389
9. Isolate KNN46-4	57/1347	59/1395	61/1394	64/1395	62/1391	85/1390	50/1392	47/1386	49/1392	49/1394	56/1386
10. Isolate KNN45-2	65/1354	49/1401	59/1400	67/1401	64/1397	90/1396	51/1396	48/1398	51/1398	51/1399	59/1397
11. Isolate KNN45-1	65/1354	49/1401	59/1400	67/1401	64/1397	90/1396	51/1396	48/1398	51/1398	51/1399	59/1397
12. Isolate KNN46-2	60/1350	65/1401	67/1400	70/1401	68/1397	93/1396	54/1396	52/1389	55/1398	55/1400	61/1389
13. M. versicolor	69/1354	62/1440	67/1400	65/1440	64/1442	105/1424	51/1394	49/1401	55/1426	50/1395	58/1437
14. M. marinus	68/1354	46/1470	58/1434	67/1474	65/1470	118/1440	54/1422	48/1404	53/1460	55/1429	61/1441
15. M. roseus	68/1354	42/1449	57/1419	59/1449	58/1447	114/1438	48/1412	48/1402	51/1445	44/1414	56/1430
16. M. multiseptatus	62/1354	61/1433	56/1432	68/1437	69/1431	98/1416	54/1420	46/1402	53/1436	62/1427	58/1405
17. Isolate KNN44-1	42/1295	31/1297	16/1300	33/1300	36/1296	40/1296	43/1298	29/1298	42/1298	35/1298	43/1298
18. Isolate KNN44-3	52/1350	43/1424	22/1428	46/1428	44/1422	70/1410	52/1419	35/1400	49/1424	44/1421	58/1400
19. Isolate KNN44-4	46/1316	31/1320	15/1324	36/1324	36/1318	46/1320	45/1322	29/1322	42/1322	37/1322	48/1321
20. G. normandii	64/1353	21/1434	31/1429	33/1430	20/1434	81/1413	49/1419	55/1400	45/1427	49/1428	69/1400
21. G. solani	31/1343	64/1358	52/1358	63/1358	65/1356	12/1359	55/1358	61/1358	59/1358	46/1358	59/1357
22. G. ruber	64/1353	54/1440	30/1438	53/1448	53/1438	87/1424	59/1422	44/1403	58/1444	50/1431	60/1413
23. G. telluris	80/1353	38/1471	48/1437	36/1477	43/1472	106/1441	61/1421	73/1403	65/1459	63/1430	80/1440
24. G. obscurus	56/1353	34/1469	13/1438	35/1477	35/1471	90/1440	50/1422	37/1404	40/1460	47/1431	58/1441
25. G. terrae		60/1354	55/1353	71/1353	63/1352	41/1352	62/1351	65/1352	60/1352	59/1353	64/1351
26. G. saharensis	95.6		35/1430	36/1470	30/1472	102/1440	55/1420	57/1402	48/1454	57/1429	72/1439
27. G. siccatus	95.9	97.6		37/1438	33/1428	75/1414	50/1422	40/1403	43/1434	47/1431	58/1403
28. G. arenarius	94.8	97.6	97.4		24/1468	100/1440	45/1422	60/1404	51/1460	48/1431	63/1441
29. G. nigrescens	95.3	98.0	97.7	98.4		103/1438	50/1418	60/1400	46/1452	52/1427	68/1437
30. G. taihuensis	97.0	92.9	94.7	93.1	92.8		76/1408	71/1402	101/1440	68/1409	95/1427
31. Isolate KNN47	95.4	96.1	96.5	96.8	96.5	94.6		32/1397	14/1422	25/1422	30/1397
32. B. jejuensis	95.2	95.9	97.2	95.7	95.7	94.9	97.7		28/1404	39/1398	35/1403
33. B. saxobsidens	95.6	96.7	97.0	96.5	96.8	93.0	99.0	98.0		33/1429	37/1429
34. B. endophyticus	95.6	96.0	96.7	96.7	96.4	95.2	98.2	97.2	97.7		33/1398
35. B. aggregatus	95.3	95.0	95.9	95.6	95.3	93.3	97.9	97.5	97.4	97.6	

Strain codes, as given in Figure 3.3.

Table 4. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains C59, KNN26b, KNN38-1b, KNN42f and KNN64-5b isolated from the Atacama Desert environmental samples and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		1/	0/	34/	15/	0/	15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
1. Isolate C59		1356	1356	1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
			1/	35/	16/	1/	16/	17/	17/	19/	16/	36/
2. Isolate KNN13a	99.9		1356	1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
				34/	15/	0/	15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
3. Isolate KNN26b	100.0	99.9		1353	1355	1356	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
					25/	34/	40/	41/	41/	43/	46/	64/
4. Isolate KNN38-1b	97.5	97.4	97.5		1352	1353	1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1347
						15/	30/	31/	31/	33/	30/	50/
5. Isolate KNN64-5b	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.2		1355	1351	1352	1352	1351	1351	1349
							15/	16/	16/	18/	15/	35/
6. S. fimbriatus	100.0	99.9	100.0	97.5	98.9		1352	1353	1353	1352	1352	1350
								19/	19/	11/	10/	41/
7. S. werraensis	98.9	98.8	98.9	97.0	97.8	98.9		1352	1352	1352	1352	1346
									0/	14/	21/	37/
8. S. griseostramineus	98.8	98.7	98.8	97.0	97.7	98.8	98.6		1353	1352	1352	1347
										14/	21/	37/
9. S. griseomycini	98.8	98.7	98.8	97.0	97.7	98.8	98.6	100.0		1352	1352	1347
											15/	41/
10. S. viridiviolaceus	98.7	98.6	98.7	96.8	97.6	98.7	99.2	99.0	99.0		1351	1346
												41/
11. S. caelestis	98.9	98.8	98.9	96.6	97.8	98.9	99.3	98.5	98.5	98.9		1346

Strain codes, as given in Figure 6.5

Isolates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Isolate C38		1/1362	1/1370	1/1362	4/1365	1/1331	3/1334	0/1324	0/1353	3/1330	0/1313	2/1372	1/1362
2. Isolate C58	99.9		0/1362	1/1352	4/1355	1/1321	4/1325	0/1314	0/1343	3/1320	0/1303	3/1362	1/1352
3. Isolate C79	99.9	100.0		1/1360	4/1363	1/1329	3/1332	0/1322	0/1351	3/1328	0/1311	3/1370	1/1360
4. Isolate KNN1-5a	99.9	99.9	99.9		2/1362	2/1331	4/1334	1/1324	1/1353	2/1330	1/1313	1/1362	0/1362
5. Isolate KNN2-6a	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.9		2/1331	4/1334	1/1324	1/1353	4/1330	1/1313	3/1365	2/1362
6. Isolate KNN6-6b	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9		4/1331	1/1324	1/1331	4/1330	1/1313	1/1331	2/1331
7. Isolate KNN6-9a	99.8	99. 7	99.8	99.7	99.7	99. 7		3/1324	3/1334	6/1330	3/1313	3/1334	4/1334
8. Isolate KNN10-4d	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8		0/1324	1/1324	0/1312	0/1324	1/1324
9. Isolate KNN10-5a	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0		3/1330	0/1313	0/1353	1/1353
10. Isolate KNN11-1a	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.7	99. 7	99.6	99.9	99.8		1/1313	3/1330	2/1330
11. Isolate KNN24-1b	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.9		0/1313	1/1313
12. Isolate KNN25c	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.8	100.0		1/1362
13. Isolate KNN41-1c	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.7	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	
14. Isolate KNN48-1c	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.9
15. C34	99.7	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.6	99.8	99.6	99.7
16. S. mexicanus	98.9	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.7	98.9	99.0	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.9
17. S. hyderabadensis	98.4	98.5	98.5	98.4	98.2	98.3	98.2	98.4	98.5	98.2	98.4	98.3	98.4
18. S. parvulus	98.8	99.0	98.9	99.0	98.6	98.8	98.7	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.7	99.0
19. S. lusitanus	98.9	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.7	98.9	98.7	98.9	99.0	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.9
20. S. speibonae	98.8	99.0	98.9	98.8	98.6	98.8	98.7	98.9	98.9	98.7	98.9	98.7	98.8
21. S. chiangmaiensis	98.7	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7
22. S. coerulescens	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.8
23. S. althioticus	98.8	98.9	98.8	98.9	98.5	98.7	98.6	98.8	98.8	98.7	98.8	98.6	98.9
24. S. matensis	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.6	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.5	98.8
25. S. variabilis	98.7	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.5	98.7	98.5	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.5	98.8
26. S. albus subsp. albus	96.9	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.6	96.8	96.9	96.6	96.8	96.7	96.8

Table 5. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains C34, C38, C58, KNN2-6c, KNN6-6b, KNN6-9a, KNN9-3b, KNN10-4d, KNN10-5a, KNN11-1a, KNN11-5a, KNN24-1b, KNN25c, KNN41-1b and KNN48-1c isolated from the Atacama Desert environmental sample and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Strain codes, as given in Figure 6.1

Table 5. (2)

Isolates	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. Isolate C38	0/1335	4/1372	15/1367	22/1370	16/1371	15/1371	16/1371	18/1369	18/1371	17/1364	18/1364	18/1371
2. Isolate C58	0/1325	2/1363	14/1357	20/1360	14/1361	13/1361	14/1361	15/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	17/1361
3. Isolate C79	0/1333	3/1370	14/1365	21/1368	15/1369	14/1369	15/1369	17/1367	17/1369	16/1362	17/1362	17/1369
4. Isolate KNN1-5a	1/1335	4/1362	15/1357	22/1360	14/1361	15/1361	16/1361	18/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	16/1361
5. Isolate KNN2-6a	1/1335	5/1365	16/1360	25/1363	19/1364	18/1364	19/1364	19/1362	21/1364	20/1357	21/1357	21/1364
6. Isolate KNN6-6b	1/1331	4/1331	15/1326	22/1329	16/1330	15/1330	16/1330	18/1330	18/1330	17/1323	18/1323	18/1330
7. Isolate KNN6-9a	3/1334	7/1335	17/1329	24/1332	18/1333	17/1333	18/1333	20/1333	20/1333	19/1326	20/1326	20/1333
8. Isolate KNN10-4d	0/1324	3/1324	14/1319	21/1322	15/1323	14/1323	15/1323	17/1323	17/1323	16/1316	17/1316	17/1323
9. Isolate KNN10-5a	0/1335	3/1353	14/1348	21/1351	15/1352	14/1352	15/1352	17/1351	17/1352	16/1345	17/1345	17/1352
10. Isolate KNN11-1a	3/1330	6/1330	17/1325	24/1328	16/1329	17/1329	18/1329	20/1329	18/1329	17/1322	18/1322	18/1329
11. Isolate KNN24-1b	0/1313	3/1313	14/1308	21/1311	15/1312	14/1312	15/1312	17/1312	17/1312	16/1305	17/1305	17/1312
12. Isolate KNN25c	0/1335	6/1372	17/1367	24/1370	18/1371	17/1371	18/1371	20/1369	20/1371	19/1364	20/1364	20/1371
13. Isolate KNN41-1c	1/1335	4/1362	15/1357	22/1360	14/1361	15/1361	16/1361	18/1359	16/1361	15/1354	16/1354	16/1361
14. Isolate KNN48-1c		3/1335	14/1330	21/1333	15/1334	14/1334	15/1334	17/1334	17/1334	16/1327	17/1327	17/1334
15. S. leeuwenhoekii	99.8		15/1367	23/1370	17/1371	16/1371	17/1371	16/1369	19/1371	18/1364	19/1364	20/1371
16. S. mexicanus	99.0	98.9		23/1365	19/1366	21/1366	18/1366	15/1364	19/1366	23/1359	24/1360	24/1366
17. S. hyderabadensis	98.4	98.3	98.3		15/1371	24/1371	25/1371	26/1368	24/1371	27/1364	27/1364	32/1371
18. S. parvulus	98.9	98.8	98.6	98.9		14/1372	19/1372	18/1369	12/1372	15/1365	16/1365	22/1372
19. S. lusitanus	99.0	98.8	98.5	98.3	99.0		14/1372	21/1369	8/1372	9/1365	9/1365	17/1372
20. S. speibonae	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.2	98.6	99.0		19/1369	15/1372	15/1365	16/1365	15/1372
21. S. chiangmaiensis	98.7	98.8	98.9	98.1	98.7	98.5	98.6		20/1369	22/1362	23/1362	26/1369
22. S. coerulescens	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.3	99.1	99.4	98.9	98.5		12/1365	12/1365	14/1372
23. S. althioticus	98.8	98.7	98.3	98.0	98.9	99.3	98.9	98.4	99.1		0/1364	4/1365
24. S. matensis	98.7	98.6	98.2	98.0	98.8	99.3	98.8	98.3	99.1	100.0		5/1365
25. S. variabilis	98.7	98.5	98.2	97.7	98.4	98.8	98.9	98.1	99.0	99.7	99.6	
26. S. albus subsp. albus	96.8	96.8	96.7	96.3	96.2	96.5	96.4	96.3	96.3	96.9	96.8	96.7

Strain codes, as given in Figure 6.1.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Isolate KNN35-1b		1/1382	2/1373	2/1370	2/1382	2/1381	2/1382	7/1382	7/1381	8/1382	9/1382	10/1382
2. Isolate KNN35-2b	99.9		2/1373	1/1371	1/1385	1/1382	1/1383	6/1391	6/1390	7/1391	8/1391	9/1391
3. Isolate KNN42f	99.9	99.9		1/1363	1/1373	1/1373	1/1373	6/1373	6/1372	7/1373	8/1373	9/1373
4. Isolate KNN48-3b	99.9	99.9	99.9		0/1388	0/1407	0/1407	9/1403	5/1392	6/1398	7/1403	8/1389
5. Isolate KNN48-6d	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0		0/1399	0/1400	6/1402	5/1401	6/1402	7/1402	8/1402
6. Isolate KNN6-11a	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0		0/1418	9/1414	5/1403	6/1409	7/1414	8/1400
7. Isolate KNN83e	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0		9/1415	5/1404	6/1410	7/1415	8/1401
8. S. pseudogriseolus	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.4	99.6	99.4	99.4		1/1452	2/1458	14/1462	10/1448
9. S. gancidicus	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.9		1/1452	10/1451	9/1447
10. S. capillispiralis	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.9	99.9		11/1457	8/1448
11. S. carpinensis	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.0	99.3	99.3		7/1448
12. S. levis	99.3	99.4	99.3	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.3	99.4	99.5	99.5	

Table 6. Nucleotide similarities (%) and differences based on almost complete 16S rRNA gene sequences showing relationships between strains KNN6-11a, KNN35-1b, KNN35-2b, KNN42f, KNN48-3b, KNN48-6d and KNN83e isolated from the Atacama Desert environmental sample and between them and the type strains of closely related *Streptomyces* species.

Strain codes, as given in Figure 6.6.

Appendix 5. Figures



Figure 1. Sampling site at the Chaxa de Laguna, Salar de Atacama, Atacama Desert, Chile.



Figure 2. Sampling site in the region of the Yungay, Atacama Desert Chile



Figure 3. Selective isolation of filamentous actinobacteria from soil samples.



Figure 4. Production of melanin pigment on peptone yeast-extract-iron agar (ISP6 medium)



Figure 5. One dimensional thin layer chromatography to detect isomer of diaminopimelic analysis.



Figure 6. The primer pair AMY2 and ATOP were used to amplify a 435 bp product that is characteristic of members of the genus *Amycolatopsis*.



Figure 7. One dimensional thin layer chromatography to detect diagraphic whole-cell sugar analysis.

Finc R	hTV-1rC34F_A05_2013-03-22ab1
File E	
6	
	Go to Base No. 🛛 Prid Sequence
	AGG GG GG GAT T A GTC G GC GAAC G G GT GA GCAACAC GT G G GCCAT CT GCCCT GCACCAT CT G GGACAA GCCCT GGAAAC GG GGTCTAATACC GGATACGACACTCT CG GGATCGATG 40 59 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50
	and the second and th
	T G GAAAGET CE G G C G G T G C A G G G C C T A C A G C T G T T G G T G A G G T A T G C T C A C C A G G G A C G A C G G G T G A G G G C A C G G G C G C C G A G A G
	Manager Manager and Manager
	CLABACTCCTACGGAGGCAGCAGGCAGGGGATATTGCACAATGGGCGAAAGCCTGATGCAGCGACGCCGCGGGGGGGG
	man when when the second of th
Vertical Scale	
	Martin
-	11111111111111111111111111111111111111
	my My my man man man my my man hand my hanne my man han han har man hand han han har han han han han han han ha
	11111111111111111111111111111111111111
	and a hard a second and the second and a second
	Let THI tert FILIFIETTE FILIFIETTE FILIFIETTE FILIFIETTE FILIFIETTE FILIFIETTE CARCOLAGO CON ACCATTACCALA OCCUPACATACACCO AGAACATTACCALA OCCUPACATACACCO GAACATTACCALA OCCUPACATACACCO GAACATTACACCO GAACATTACCALA OCCUPACATACACCO GAACATTACACCO
	Man Mun Andrew 2000 and a construction of a construction of the co
	1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
Rese	Hotorta Soale

Figure 8. ABI format-chromatogram of *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* C34^T.



Figure 9. growth of isolates on sole carbon sources and degradation of tyrosine after incubated at 28°C for 7 days



Figure 10. *Amycolatopsis* colonies growing on selective characters on isolation media after incubation at 28°C for 14 days.



Figure 11. *Modestobacer* colonies growing on selective isolation media after incubation at 28°C for 14 days.



Figure 12. *Streptomyces* colonies growing on selective isolation media after incubated at 28°C for 14 days.