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Abstract Soil is the most complicated biomaterial on the planet .It is a natural source for microorganisms and is a natural laboratory to do experiments. Soil, which arises from the weathering of parent rock materials, is by definition capable of acting as a habitat for microorganisms. Microbially, the most active soil is the upper 16- to 17.2-cm-thick plow layer. As with any other material, the physical habitat is of prime importance in determining and regulating biological activity. However, until recently, the opaque nature of soil has meant that any interrogation of its interior architecture has been relatively rudimentary, restricted to simple qualitative expressions of the physical heterogeneity that fail to relate to any specific function. However, new techniques and insights into the biophysical and biochemical processes of this inner space are leading to the developments of theoretical frameworks and experimental approaches that will allow us to sustainably manage earth's most important resource. We introduce the concept that the soil-microbe system is self-organized and acts as a potential source for soil enzymes. It also suggests new priorities for research based on an integrative approach that combines biochemistry and biophysics. Microbial exploitation for the production of soil enzymes like keratinases, pectinases, xylanases, and lipases is highly attractive for applications in fruit, detergent, textile, tanning, meat paper industries, and waste water treatment.

Chapter 14 1

Actinomycetes: Sources for Soil Enzymes 2

V. Suneetha and Zaved Ahmed Khan 3

14.1 Introduction 4

The classification of the Prokaryotes is a complex issue. Their major subdivisions are the bacteria (Schizophyta), the blue green algae (Cyanophyta), and the Actinomycetales. The latter are sometimes called the “higher bacteria,” organisms possessing properties intermediate between the fungi and the bacteria. The Actinomycetes are gram-positive organisms that tend to grow slowly as branching elements. They are prokaryotes, sporulated, powdery growth organisms, and show similarity to fungi in the formation of branched aerial mycelium, which profusely sporulate. But these Actinomycetes differ from fungi in the composition of cell wall; they do not have chitin and cellulose that are commonly found in the cell wall of fungi. The number of Actinomycetes increases in the presence of decomposing organic matter. Depending on the abundance in the soil, the common genera of Actinomycetes are *Streptomyces* (70%), *Nocardia*, and *Micromonospora* although *Actinomyces*, *Actinoplanes*, and *Streptosporangium* have been encountered. The term Actinomycetes is used to indicate organisms belonging to the Actinomycetales, a major subdivision of the Prokaryotae, the kingdom that comprises all organisms with a prokaryotic cell. They were long regarded as fungi, as is reflected in their name: aktino (gr) = ray, mykes (gr) = mushroom (=fungus). 21

Actinomycetes are divided into several families: 22

- The family Actinomycetaceae comprises two genera: *Actinomyces* and *Nocardia*. A few species are pathogenic. *A. israelii* causes actinomycosis in man and *A. bovis* in cattle. 23

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- 26 • The family *Mycobacteriaceae* has a single genus, *Mycobacterium*, which
27 contains several pathogenic species causing diseases such as leprosy and
28 tuberculosis.
- 29 • The family *Streptomyceteae* comprises several organisms found in the soil. They
30 are rarely pathogenic. In contrast, several species of the genus *Streptomyces*
31 produce antibiotics. Erythromycin is produced by *Streptomyces erythreus*.

32 The characteristic earthy smell of compost is caused by Actinomycetes. Acti-
33 nomycetes are a form of fungi-like bacteria that form long, thread-like branched
34 filaments that look like gray spider web stretching through the compost. Different
35 species of Actinomycetes predominate during each phase of the composting pro-
36 cess (the mesophilic, thermophilic, and maturation phases) but are most easily
37 seen during the early stages of the composting process in the outer 10–15 cm of the
38 pile. Actinomycetes are the primary decomposers of tough plant materials like bark,
39 newspaper, and woody stems. They are especially effective at attacking tough, raw
40 plant tissues (cellulose, chitin, and lignin), softening them up for their less enter-
41prising relatives. The morphology of an Actinomycete growing on agar can provide
42 useful clues to its identity but viewing isolated colonies can give little worthwhile
43 information. Examine the organism streaked in a cross-hatched pattern on the
44 surface of the agar, first with a stereomicroscope and then with a transmitted light
45 microscope with a 40× long-working distance objective to avoid water condensa-
46 tion on the front lens. The appearance of hyphae within the agar and the nature of
47 the spores on the aerial hyphae are important but can only be observed when growth
48 is thin and the medium promotes differentiation.

49 Sometimes the name “Actinomycetes” is used restrictively for members of the
50 genus *Actinomyces* only, instead of all members of the Actinomycetales. The
51 industrial enzyme sector in India is growing fast for meeting the need of pharma-
52 ceutical, food processing, leather, detergents, pulp, paper, and textile industries. In
53 view of vigorously growing demand, the enzyme industry and sector is poised for
54 high growth rates, necessitating increase in the production or import. The product
55 range and services are growing rapidly as the use of enzymes is gaining widespread
56 acceptance. In addition to the Indian market, export opportunities are also there for
57 the manufacturers. Studies on specific enzyme producing Actinomycetes other than
58 fungi are rather fragmentary and limited in our country. In view of the importance
59 of soil enzymes producing Actinomycetes and scarce information available in our
60 country, it was interesting to carry out studies in this direction (Suneetha 2004).

AU1

61 The use of enzyme-mediated processes can be traced back to ancient civiliza-
62 tions. Today nearly 4,000 enzymes are known, of which many are commercially
63 produced. The majority of the industrial enzymes are of microbial origin. Until the
64 1960s, the total sales of enzymes were only a few million dollars annually, but the
65 market has since grown spectacularly. Because of improved understanding of
66 production biochemistry, the fermentation processes, and recovery methods, an
67 increasing number of enzymes can be produced affordably. Also, advances in the
68 methods of using enzymes have greatly expanded the demand. Furthermore,
69 because of the many different transformations that enzymes can catalyze, the

number of enzymes used commercially continues to multiply. Enzyme-mediated reactions are attractive alternatives to tedious and expensive chemical methods, and they find great use in a large number of fields such as food, dairy, pharmaceutical, detergent, textile, and cosmetic industries. In the above scenario, enzymes such as proteases and amylases have dominated the world market owing to their hydrolytic reactions for proteins and carbohydrates. However, with the realization of the biocatalytic potential of microbial lipases in both aqueous and nonaqueous media in the last one and a half decades, industrial fronts have shifted toward utilizing these enzymes for a variety of reactions of immense importance. AU2

For commercialization of any valuable product, emphasis is laid on the use of relatively low-cost raw materials that are converted into commercially important and useful products or services. This process requires coordinated coupling of several units and operations. The efficiency depends on adequate upstream operations and the process of recovery of the product, which includes a series of careful and meticulous steps collectively referred to as downstream processing. Important organisms and their natural products come into light mainly when new screening systems are utilized or when samples from different sources are examined. Further the isolated native organisms are improved upon by conventional techniques or by modern techniques involving rDNA technology. Due to the availability of powerful expression systems in various microbes, the large-scale commercial production of new and useful enzymes is becoming increasingly attractive. The focus of enzyme technology is thus the microorganism, the Actinomycetes itself, that has the capacity to produce the soil enzymes. Though there are many advantages and applications of microbial enzymes, these are still not being exploited as biocatalysts to their optimum capacity for various reasons.

14.2 Keratinases

The microbes like *Actinomycetes* hold prominent position in microbial world because of their diversity and proven ability to produce soil enzymes. They are also potential sources of proteases with typical substrate specificities such as Keratinases that attack normally unreactive protein called keratin. Microbial Keratinases reported till date are produced from organisms like *Streptomyces*, *Bacillus* species, and fungal members. The studies on isolation, characterization, and strain improvement of keratinase producing organisms have both economic and ecological value but have not been fully exploited yet. The limiting aspect in the wide scale usage of Keratinases is mainly an efficient and cost-effective method for fermentative production of keratinase. Though in recent years patents are being obtained internationally for strains and process of fermentation of Keratinases, there is very little effort in this direction (Table 14.1).

To develop indigenous product technology in India, as great economical and ecological value is associated with the production of Keratinases, any effort to develop the process will be of great potential.

t1.1 **Table 14.1** Some of the reported keratinase producing Actinomycetes

t1.2	Strains	References	
t1.3	Actinomycetes: <i>Doratomyces microsporus</i> <i>Streptomyces</i> spp. <i>S. fradiae</i> , <i>S. raminofaciens</i> <i>S. pactum</i> , <i>Streptomyces</i> spp. <i>A</i> ₁₁ , <i>1349</i> , <i>1382</i> , <i>BA7</i> , etc.	Vignardet et al. (1999), Gradisar et al. (2000) Noval and Nickerson (1959), Nickerson et al. (1963), Tatsushi et al. (1967), Elmayergi and Smith (1971), Young and Smith (1975), Kunert and Stransky (1988), Kunert (1989), Mukhopadhyay and Chandra (1990), Galas and Kaluzewska (1992), Bockle et al. (1995), Letourneau et al. (1998), Szabo et al. (2000), Ichida et al. (2001), Ivanko et al. (2002), Korkmaz et al. (2003), Suneetha (2003)	AU3
t1.4			AU4
t1.5	<i>Thermoactinomyces</i> spp. <i>Thermoactinomyces candidus</i>	Ignatova et al. (1999)	AU5
			AU6
			AU7
			AU8

111 Tirumala hills is a famous pilgrim center in Andhra Pradesh. It is located in
 112 Eastern Ghats on Seshachalam hill range, with North latitude of 13–14' and East
 113 longitude of 70–21'. It is 2,820 feet above the sea level and 100 square miles in
 114 extent. Tirumala is visited by thousands of pilgrims every day from all over India
 115 as well as the world, throughout year to worship Lord Venkateswara (Hindu
 116 mythology). The place has relatively high deposits of keratin as most of the
 117 pilgrims coming to Tirumala consider head tonsuring as the most sacred offering
 118 to God. Further the prevailing climatic conditions also facilitate the growth of
 119 thermo-tolerant organisms. Thus, this place was presumed to provide good enrich-
 120 ment for potential keratinophilic and keratinolytic organisms, and soil samples
 121 collected from various locations in Tirumala hills and Tirupati were analyzed to
 122 isolate potential keratinolytic organisms. It is expected that the present emphasis
 123 on keratinase producing organisms may lead to a step forward in the process of
 124 development of indigenous kerazyme technology (Suneetha 2004).

125 **14.3 Pectinases**

126 The structural unit of pectin has a complex structure. Preparations consist of substructural
 127 entities that depend on their source and extraction methodology. Commercial
 128 extraction causes extensive degradation of the neutral sugar-containing side chains.
 129 The majority of the structure consists of homopolymeric partially methylated poly- α -
 130 (1 \rightarrow 4)-D-galacturonic acid residues (Fig. 14.1), but there are substantial “hairy” non-
 131 gelling areas (Fig. 14.2) of alternating α -(1 \rightarrow 2)-L-rhamnosyl- α -(1 \rightarrow 4)-D-galactur-
 132 onosyl sections containing branch points with mostly neutral side chains (1–20
 133 residues) of mainly L-arabinose and D-galactose (rhamnogalacturonan I). Pectins
 134 may also contain rhamnogalacturonan II side chains containing other residues such
 135 as D-xylose, L-fucose, D-electronic acid, D-apipose, 3-deoxy-D-manno-2-octulosonic
 136 acid (Kdo), and 3-deoxy-D-lyxo-2-heptulosonic acid (Dha) attached to poly- α -

Fig 14.1 Micromorphology of Actinomycetes

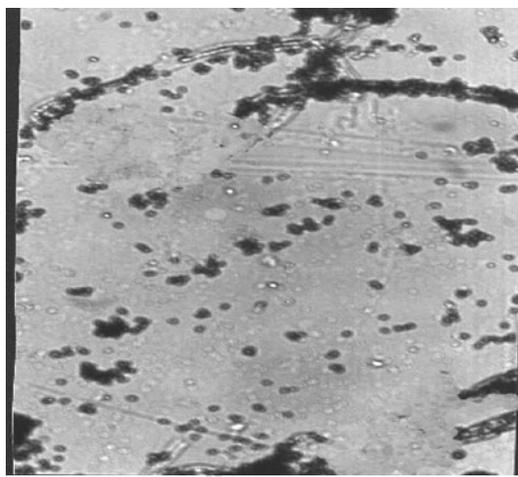
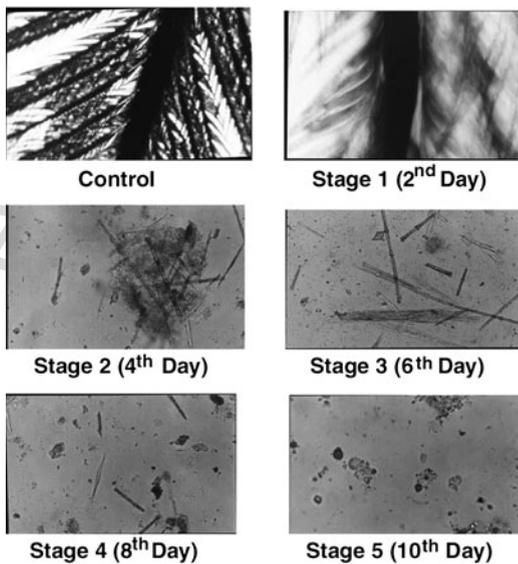


Fig 14.2 Keratin (feather) degradation

Microscopic Examination of Stages of Feather Degradation



(1 → 4)-D-galacturonic acid regions. Enzymes are bio-catalysts. They speed up the rate of chemical reactions taking place in living cells. The reactants of enzyme-catalyzed reactions are termed as substrates and each enzyme is specific in character, acting on a particular substrate(s) to produce particular product or products. Enzyme usage in the fruit industry is a recent innovation. Application of biotechnology to

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142 industrial operations is no longer an academic or potentially useful alternative propo-
143 sition for the future. Enzymes have become big business, with a wide range of
144 industries using commercial enzymes, in addition to the feed industry. The world
145 annual sales of industrial enzymes were recently valued at \$1 billion. Three-quarters
146 of the market is for enzymes involved in the hydrolysis of natural polymers. Food-
147 processing enzymes including pectinases account for about 45% of enzyme usage
148 (Fig 14.3).

AU9

149 Pectinase was found to be the most efficient commercialized enzyme in degrad-
150 ing the fruit waste. Pectinolytic enzymes or pectinases is a group of enzymes that
151 hydrolyze the pectic substances, present mostly in plants. Enzymes are usually
152 offered as “cocktails” of several activities rather than a single enzymatic activity.
153 However, in many cases, the different enzyme activities can still act on the same
154 composition, as the composition can have a complex chemical structure having
155 various types of chemical bounds, requiring different enzyme activities for break
156 down. An example of this is the enzyme cocktails offered as “pectinase.” Such
157 pectinase composition often contains one or more of the following activities:
158 polygalacturonase, pectin lysase, pectin methyl esterase. Pectinase preparations
159 are often used in fruit juice processing. It is preferred in the present invention that
160 the enzyme preparation used contains at least one of these three activities men-
161 tioned, preferably two, more preferably all three.

162 Pectinases are a group of enzymes that catalyze the degradation of pectic
163 polymers present in plants. Pectinolytic enzymes are widely distributed in higher
164 plants and microorganisms. Based on their catalytic action, pectin-degrading
165 enzymes have been classified into two major groups: the first group is represented
166 by pectin esterase (PE) and the second by polygalacturonase (PG) and pectin lyase
167 (PL) (Table 14.2).

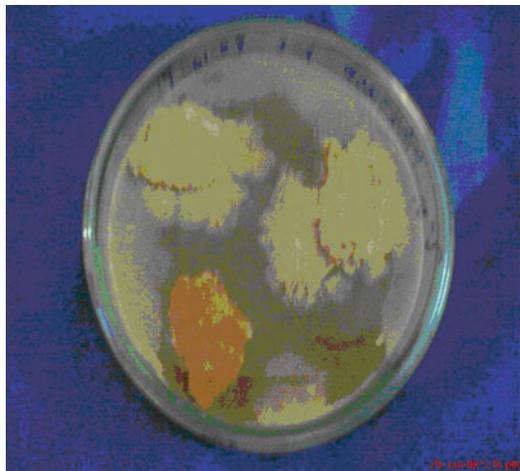


Fig 14.3 Pectin degradation

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Table 14.2 Some of the reported petinase producing microorganism t2.1

Source	Organism	References	t2.2
Actinomycetes	<i>Streptomyces</i> spp.	Suneetha et al. (2003)	t2.3
	<i>Streptomyces</i> spp.	Suneetha et al. (2003)	t2.4
	<i>Streptomyces lydicus</i>	Jacob and Prema (2006)	t2.5
	<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. <i>RCK-SC</i>	Chander Kuhad et al. (2004)	t2.6
	<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. <i>QG-11-3</i>	Qasim Khalil et al. (2000)	t2.7
	<i>Thermomonospora flisca</i>	Stutzenberger (1987)	t2.8
	<i>Streptomyces viridochromogenes</i>	Agate et al. (1962)	t2.9

14.4 Xylanases 168

Xylans are hydrolyzed mainly by β -1,4-endoxylanases (1,4- β -D-xylan xylano- 169
 drolases EC 3.2.1.8.) and xylosidases (1,4- β -D-xylan xylohydrolases EC 3.2.1.37). 170
 The interests in xylan-degrading enzyme and its application in the pulp and paper 171
 industries have advanced significantly over the past few years (Agate et al. 1962). 172
 Mainly, cellulose-free xylanase is of great importance in the paper industry. The 173
 cost of carbon source plays another major role in the economics of xylanase 174
 production. Hence, an approach to reduce the cost of xylanase production is by 175
 the use of lignocellulosic materials as substrates such as wheat bran, rice straw, corn 176
 cob, agricultural wastes, sugar cane baggase rather than opting for the expensive 177
 pure xylans. For the development of suitable xylanase as a pre-bleaching agent, the 178
 stability of enzyme at higher optimum pH and temperature is desirable (Bockle 179
 et al. 1995). Alkaline xylanase also finds a number of applications. For example, 180
 because of high solubility of xylan at alkaline pH, alkaline xylanases may have 181
 good potential in the conversion of lignocellulosic wastes to fermentable sugars. 182

Many xylanases producing alkaliphilic microbial strains have been reported 183
 from different laboratories. However, the xylanase from many of the alkaliphilic 184
 strains have their optimum pH around neutrality. Naturally occurring habitats for 185
 the isolation of alkaliphilic microbial strain are scattered in different parts of the 186
 world (Bockle and Muller 1997). Most of the reported literature on xylanase has 187
 concentrated on the characterization of the enzyme and its application as a pre- 188
 bleaching agent (Nickerson 1947). Relatively less attention was paid to the optimi- 189
 zation of xylanase production. In the present study, an attempt was made to describe 190
 the optimization studies related to xylanase production from Actinomycetes, which 191
 is isolated from soil near paper industry (Fig. 14.4, Table 14.3). 192

14.5 Lipases 193

Although bacteria have the highest total population in soil followed by Actinomycetes 194
 and fungi, the frequencies of lipase producing bacteria, Actinomycetes, and fungi 195
 were 8.5, 55.9, and 23.3%, respectively. Although little research has been published 196

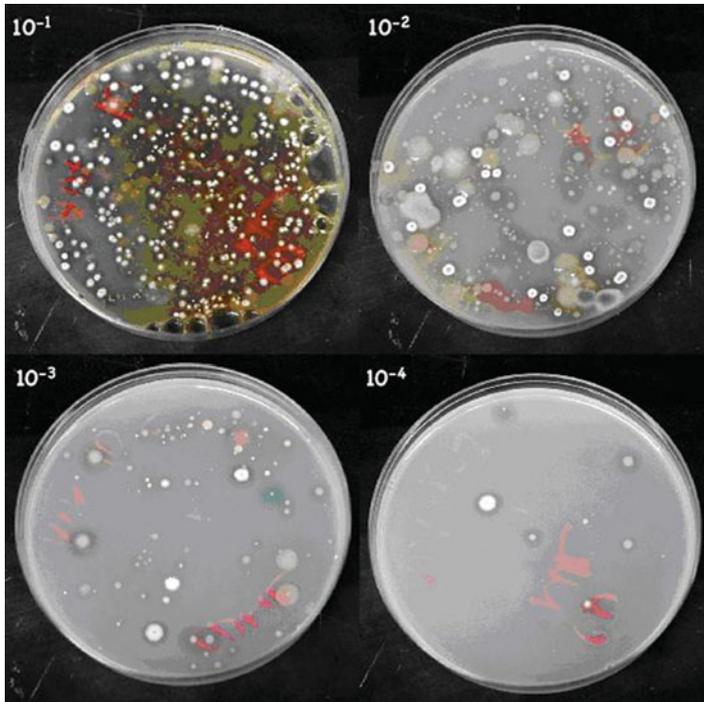


Fig 14.4 Xylan degradation by Actinomycetes

t3.1 **Table 14.3** Some reported Actinomycetes producing xylanase

t3.2 Actinomycetes	References
t3.3 <i>Actinomyces</i> from soil	Suneetha (2003), Suneetha et al. (2006)
t3.4 <i>Streptomyces olivaceoviridis</i> E-86	Ding (2004)
t3.5 <i>Streptomyces</i> sp.	Rawashdeh (2005), <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. (strain Ib 24D)

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197 on lipolytic activity in *Streptomyces* considering their widespread use within antibi-
 198 otic production, lipase activity has been detected. Lipase production in a wide range of
 199 *Streptomyces* has been investigated. However, lipolytic activity was found in only a
 200 few strains tested (15). Lipases (triacylglycerol acylhydrolases, E.C. 3.1.1.3)
 201 are ubiquitous enzymes of considerable physiological significance and industrial
 202 potential. Lipases catalyze the hydrolysis of triacylglycerols to glycerol and free
 203 fatty acids. In contrast to esterases, lipases are activated only when adsorbed to an
 204 oil–water interface and do not hydrolyze dissolved substrates in the bulk fluid. A true
 205 lipase will split emulsified esters of glycerin and long-chain fatty acids such as triolein
 206 and tripalmitin. Lipases are serine hydrolases and display little activity in aqueous
 207 solutions containing soluble substrates. In eukaryotes, lipases are involved in various
 208 stages of lipid metabolism including fat digestion, absorption, reconstitution, and

lipoprotein metabolism. In plants, lipases are found in energy-reserve tissues. How lipases and lipids interact at the interface is still not entirely clear and is a subject of intense investigation. The natural substrates of lipases are triacylglycerols, having very low solubility in water. Under natural conditions, they catalyze the hydrolysis of ester bonds at the interface between an insoluble substrate phase and the aqueous phase in which the enzyme is dissolved. Under certain experimental conditions, such as in the absence of water, they are capable of reversing the reaction. The reverse reaction leads to esterification and formation of glycerides from fatty acids and glycerol. The occurrence of the lipase reaction at an interface between the substrate and the aqueous phase causes difficulties in the assay and kinetic analysis of the reaction. The usual industrial lipases are special classes of esterase enzymes that act on fats and oils, and hydrolyze them initially into the substituted glycerides and fatty acids, and finally on total hydrolysis into glycerol and fatty acids (Table 14.4).

The focus of soil is thus the habitat for microorganisms, especially Actinomycetes, the wonderful organisms that have the capacity to produce the enzymes. Though there are many advantages and applications of microbial enzymes, these have still not being exploited as biocatalysts to their optimum capacity (Fig. 14.5).

14.6 Conclusion

Table 14.4 Reported lipase producing Actinomycetes

Source	Genus	Species	References
Actinomycetes	Streptomyces	<i>Streptomyces fradiae</i> NCIB 8233	Sztajer et al. (1988)
		<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. PCB27	Sztajer et al. (1988)
		<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. CCM 33	Sztajer et al. (1988)
		<i>S. Coelicolor</i>	Hou (1994)

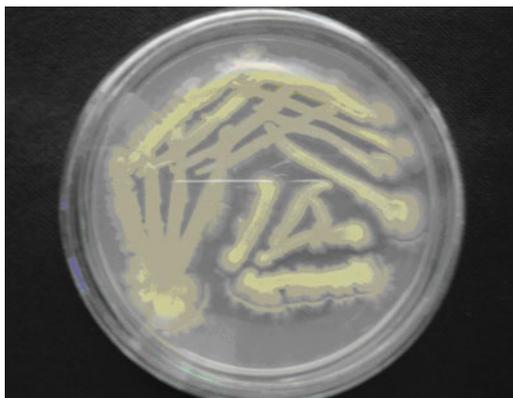


Fig 14.5 Lipid degradation by Actinomycetes

227 The use of Actinomycetes for industrial purposes has a long history, which is long
 228 before the realization of activities of other microorganisms. We have discussed the
 229 production of enzymes like keratinases, pectinases, xylanases, and lipases for
 230 commercial applications and screening methods. With the improvement of screen-
 231 ing methods, we will be able to produce other commercial products from Actino-
 232 mycetes in near future. It also suggests new priorities for research based on an
 233 integrative approach that combines biochemistry and biophysics, and microbial
 234 exploitation for the production of soil enzymes is highly attractive for applications
 235 in fruit, detergent, textile, tanning, meat paper industries, waste water treatment,
 236 and other bioremediation technology.

237 References

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AU12	'Rawashdeh (2005)' is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
AU13	'Sztajer et al. (1988)' is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
AU14	'Hou (1994)' is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
AU15	Following references are not cited in text "Burt and Ichida 1999" "Mukhopadhyay and Chandra 1993" "Nickerson and 1963" "Pace and Smith 1981" "Suneetha and Lakshmi 2004" "Vignardet et al. 2001". Please cite these reference in text or delete them from list.	
AU16	Reference Bockle et al. 1995 is repeated twice, hence the repetition has been deleted and rest of the references are renumbered sequentially.	
AU17	Please provide revised figures for Fig. 3 with minimum 300 dpi and better legibility along with your proof corrections.	