

# Culturable rare *Actinomycetes* : diversity, isolation and marine natural product discovery

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**Abstract** Rare *Actinomycetes* from underexplored marine environments are targeted in drug discovery studies due to the *Actinomycetes*' potentially huge resource of structurally diverse natural products with unusual biological activity. Of all marine bacteria, 10 % are *Actinomycetes*, which have proven an outstanding and fascinating resource for new and potent bioactive molecules. Past and present efforts in the isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* from underexplored diverse natural habitats have resulted in the isolation of about 220 rare *Actinomycete* genera of which more than 50 taxa have been reported to be the producers of 2,500 bioactive compounds. That amount represents greater than 25 % of the total *Actinomycetes* metabolites, demonstrating that selective isolation methods are being developed and extensively applied. Due to the high rediscovery rate of known compounds from *Actinomycetes*, a renewed interest in the development of new antimicrobial agents from rare and novel *Actinomycetes* is urgently required to combat the increasing number of multidrug-resistant human pathogens. To facilitate that discovery, this review updates all selective isolation media including pretreatment and enrichment methods for the isolation of marine rare *Actinomycetes*. In addition, this review demonstrates that discovering new compounds with novel scaffolds can be increased by intensive efforts in isolating and screening rare marine genera of *Actinomycetes*. Between 2007 and mid-2013, 80 new rare *Actinomycete* species were reported from marine habitats. They belong to 23 rare families, of which three are novel, and 20 novel genera. Of them, the family *Micromonosporaceae* is dominant as a producer of promising chemical diversity.

**Keywords** Rare *Actinomycetes* · Marine habitats · Diversity · Selective isolation · Pretreatment · Microbial natural products

## Introduction

Natural products have continued to play a highly significant role in the drug discovery and development process; about 28 % of the new chemical entities and 42 % of the anticancer drugs introduced into the worldwide market between 1981 and 2006 were natural products and their derivatives (Newman and Cragg 2007).

Microbial natural products represent an important route to the discovery of novel chemicals for the development of new therapeutic agents—more than 22,000 biologically active compounds have been obtained from microbes. Among them, 45 % were produced by *Actinobacteria*, especially the excellent producers in the genus *Streptomyces* (Berdy 2005). *Actinobacteria* have made a significant contribution to the health and well-being of people throughout the world (Demain and Sanchez 2009). Even so, the emergence of antibiotic resistance developed in various bacterial pathogens and the increase in numbers of new diseases and pathogens (such as acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, severe acute respiratory syndrome and H1N1 flu virus) has caused a resurgence of interest in finding new biologically active compounds for drug discovery. However, the 'law of diminishing returns' (Fischbach and Walsh 2009) has resulted in fewer new discoveries from the traditional sources (such as plants and soil *Actinomycetes*) of natural products. Thus, it is critical that new groups of microbes from unexplored habitats be pursued as sources of novel antibiotics and other therapeutic agents (Bull et al. 2005).

The oceans are home to high microbial diversity (Stach and Bull 2005; Sogin et al. 2006). These are also being screened intensively throughout the world for their biodiversity

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potential (Jensen et al. 2005a, b). Moreover, until now, representatives of a relatively few taxa have been isolated from marine as opposed to terrestrial habitats (Goodfellow 2010). Thus, considering the vastness of the marine environment, the potential rewards of this treasure house represented by the oceans are large (Tiwari and Gupta 2012b).

Novel (new genera in *Actinobacteria*), new (new species of previously reported rare genera) or rare microbes need to be examined in the search for bioactive compounds with diverse biological activity. Rare *Actinomycetes* are usually considered as non-streptomycete *Actinomycete* strains. The isolation frequency of rare *Actinomycetes* is much lower than that of the streptomycete strains isolated by conventional methods (Baltz 2006)—only 11 genera had been isolated by 1970, increasing to 100 genera by 2005 and 220 genera by 2010 (Berdy 2005; Tiwari and Gupta 2012a). This number is quickly increasing due to recently developed taxonomically selective isolation and genetic techniques. Table 1 shows the approximate number of antibiotics produced by *Streptomyces* and rare *Actinomycetes* between 1974 and 2005. By 1974, 125 antibiotics had been isolated from rare *Actinomycetes*, increasing to 2,250 by 2005, and a recent update by Kurtböke (2012) indicates that there were about 2,500 by 2010. Thus, it is clear that isolation of antibiotics and biologically active metabolites

has steadily been increasing from rare *Actinomycetes* (Fenical and Jensen 2006; Lam 2006; Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012). Furthermore, contemporary bioprospecting of soil *Actinobacteria* (particularly streptomycetes), the most significant source of new antibiotics in the twentieth century has largely resulted in the rediscovery of already-known compounds (Walsh 2003; Fischbach and Walsh 2009); rare *Actinomycetes* should be targeted for novel drug discovery programmes. Many excellent reviews describing *Actinomycetes* diversity, secondary metabolism, natural product discovery and genetics have appeared over the last 20 years. However, fewer reviews have described rare *Actinomycetes* diversity and their increasing contribution to the production of novel compounds (Lazzarini et al. 2000; Kurtböke 2012; Tiwari and Gupta 2012a, b).

The goal of this review is to summarize isolation and cultivation methods, and discuss the new and rare *Actinobacteria* findings in studies since 2007 particularly from marine habitats, also to discuss their enormous biotechnological potential in the area of natural products discovery and related applications.

### High rate of rediscovery of known compounds

It is important to speculate on the reasons for the high rate of rediscovery of antimicrobial compounds in previous screening programmes. According to Stach (2010), the reasons are likely to include bias in the screening programmes and limitations in analytical technology, but more importantly in the organisms being screened themselves. Many new antibiotics were isolated from *Actinomycetes* (particularly from a single genus *Streptomyces*) between the late 1940s and 1960s—a period which came to be known as the Golden Age of antibiotic discovery—but the rate of new discoveries plummeted thereafter due in large part to the frequent rediscovery of highly abundant existing compounds. Stach (2010) suggested that the distribution of microbial species is probably similar to that of other organisms, i.e. there are small numbers of very rich species and those species may also be those that are readily cultured (as is the case for *Streptomyces*); thus, they represent a small fraction of the available diversity. In addition, many streptomycetes, although isolated from different environments, evidently produce the same known compounds, probably due to the frequent genetic exchange between them (Bredholdt et al. 2007).

However, recent genome sequence information suggests that this *Streptomyces* source of novel compounds is still not yet exhausted. Whole-genome sequencing of several streptomycetes (Bentley et al. 2002; Ikeda et al. 2003; Ohnishi et al. 2008; Song et al. 2010; Medema et al. 2010) revealed that each member can produce on average 20–30 bioactive small molecules, but only a small fraction of these molecules have

**Table 1** Approximate number of antibiotics produced by *Streptomyces* and rare *Actinomycetes*

Genus	1974	1980	1984	1988	2005 <sup>a</sup>
<i>Streptomyces</i>	1,934	2,784	3,477	4,876	6,550
Rare <i>Actinomycetes</i>	125	361	745	1,276	2,250
<i>Micromonospora</i>	41	129	269	398	740
<i>Nocardia</i>	45	74	107	262	357
<i>Actinomadura</i>	0	16	51	164	345
<i>Actinoplanes</i>	6	40	95	146	248
<i>Streptoverticillium</i>	19	41	64	138	258
<i>Streptosporangium</i>	7	20	26	39	79
<i>Microbispora</i>	4	6	6	10	54
<i>Dactylosporangium</i>	0	4	19	31	58
<i>Saccharopolyspora</i>	0	4	33	44	131
<i>Actinosynnema</i>	0	0	25	14	51
<i>Streptoalloteichus</i>	0	3	14	12	48
<i>Actinomyces</i>	0	14	17	–	–
<i>Pseudonocardia</i>	0	3	8	–	27
<i>Micropolyspora</i>	2	4	7	–	13
<i>Thermomonospora</i>	1	3	4	–	19
<i>Kitasatosporia</i>	0	0	0	11	37
<i>Kibdelosporangium</i>	0	0	0	7	34

Adapted from Goodfellow and Williams (1986), Goodfellow and O'Donnel (1989) and Berdy (2005)

<sup>a</sup> Number stated for each rare *Actinomycete* genera are bioactive metabolites

ever been detected under various culture conditions. Consequently, over the past decade, researchers have been attempting several methods such as cloning (Peiru et al. 2005) and heterologous expression (Mutka et al. 2006) of biosynthetic gene clusters, interfering with regulatory pathways (Laureti et al. 2011), varying culture conditions (Sánchez et al. 2010), co-culturing two or more organisms together (Kurosawa et al. 2008), the adaptive evolution (Charusanti et al. 2012) and other strategies (Baltz 2011) to stimulate the production of new compounds. Furthermore, the biosynthetic gene pathways used to make the antimicrobial compounds are distributed among the *Actinomycetes* at varying frequencies, such that a single compound may be found in one in ten strains screened. In other words, thousands of compounds should be found in 1 in  $10^7$  are screened (Baltz 2007; Stach 2010). Previous screening activities appeared to be focused on limited species diversity, and those few species produced a number of common compounds (rediscovered antimicrobials) that would obscure the detection of novel antimicrobials in the lower frequency ranges (Stach 2010). Baltz (2007) defined the challenge as finding the resources necessary to discover new antibiotics at frequencies of  $<1$  in  $10^7$  within a background noise of 2,000 known antibiotics (Baltz 2007; Stach 2010). Understanding the reasons for rediscovery, coupled with disappointing returns from small molecule libraries, has led to a revival of interest in microbes as sources of new antimicrobial compounds. Proponents of this renaissance have suggested focusing on rare *Actinomycetes*, the assumption being that species novelty will lead to chemical novelty. In this instance, rare *Actinomycetes* are not necessarily those that are scarce in nature, but those that are rarely brought into culture (Stach 2010). Thus, it is reasonable to predict that focusing on environments that have been underexplored, and use of selective isolation methods, will lead to the isolation of novel genera and species of *Actinomycetes* and hence new antimicrobial compounds.

#### Rare *Actinomycetes*: selective isolation methods

In a report released by the American Academy of Microbiology entitled “The Microbial World: Foundation of the Biosphere”, Young (1997), estimated that less than 1 % of bacterial species are known, and recent evidence indicates that millions of microbial species are undiscovered (Cragg and Newman 2005). Surprisingly, the approach to the search for potentially valuable bacteria has been largely empirical and restricted to sampling a tiny fraction of the microbial community found in natural habitats. Therefore, techniques that enhance the growth of desirable microorganisms in natural samples (enrichment) or eliminate the undesirable streptomycete propagules and other contaminants from the primary isolation plate (pretreatment) must be developed and employed for

selectively isolating particularly rare genera of *Actinomycetes* (Tiwari and Gupta 2012a).

Different pretreatment methods and media combinations are effective in the isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* (Tiwari and Gupta 2012a), and many researchers have been attempting to develop methods for isolating desirable rare *Actinomycete* genera from natural habitats (Nonomura 1988; Nonomura and Hayakawa 1988; Hayakawa et al. 1991a, b, c, d; Hayakawa 1990, 1994, 2003; Hayakawa and Nonomura 1993; Seong et al. 2001; Hamaki et al. 2005; Tan et al. 2006; Qiu et al. 2008; Qin et al. 2009; Nakaew et al. 2009; Baskaran et al. 2011; Istianto et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2013a). Their methods include a variety of pretreatments in combination with different enrichment techniques that selectively supplement isolation media with chemicals and selective antimicrobial agents to successfully increase the selectivity of the isolation media for desirable rare *Actinomycetes*.

Humic acid vitamin agar (HVA), first developed by Hayakawa and Nonomura (1987a), is one of the milestones in rare *Actinomycetes* isolation: this medium contains soil humic acid as the sole carbon and nitrogen sources which are suitable for recovery of rare *Actinomycetes* from natural samples. Although humic acid is an extremely heterogeneous cross-linked polymer resistant to biological decomposition and restricts the growth of non-filamentous bacteria colonies (Seong et al. 2001), *Actinomycetes* can utilize it as a nutrient source and also use it to support sporulation. A number of rare genera isolated by researchers described in this review have been discovered through the use of HVA together with different pretreatment and enrichment techniques, to successfully isolate rare *Actinomycetes*. Rare *Actinomycetes* as well as *Streptomyces* grow well on HVA. Although the growth rate of *Actinomycetes* is low, discrimination of typical morphology of colonies is easy on HVA because the black colour of HVA also makes it suitable for determining the morphology of white *Actinomycetes* colonies. The activation of spore germination by humic acid is believed to be one of the causes that increases the number of diverse *Actinomycetes* colonies on HVA (Hayakawa and Nonomura 1987b).

#### Moist and dry heat treatment

Samples secured from natural habitats cultured without pretreatment surrendered (in order of frequency) bacteria other than *Actinomycetes*, *Streptomyces*, fungi and non-streptomycete *Actinomycetes* (Seong et al. 2001). Consequently, different pretreatment procedures and selective isolation media have been recommended for the selective isolation of novel and rare *Actinomycetes*. The aerial spores of most *Actinomycete* genera resist desiccation and show a slightly higher resistance to wet or dry heat than do the corresponding vegetative hyphae (Seong et al. 2001). Pretreatments of natural habitat samples by drying and heating

stimulated the isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* (Nolan and Cross 1988; Kim et al. 1995). In comparison to the other genera of rare *Actinomycetes*, the rare genera *Streptosporangium* are difficult to isolate by traditional methods as their sporangiospores are able to withstand and resist physical or chemical pretreatments: Hayakawa et al. (1991a) found that dry heat treatment (120 °C for 1 h) of natural samples greatly induces the growth of *Streptosporangium* spp. After surface sterilization, Qin et al. (2009) subjected different medicinal plant samples to continuous drying at 100 °C for 15 min: directly plating on different selective media enabled the isolation of 280 strains belonging to the genera *Pseudonocardia*, *Nocardioopsis*, *Micromonospora* and *Streptosporangium*. Additionally, along with dry heating of samples treated with chemicals such as 0.01 % benzethonium chloride, 0.03 % chlorhexidine gluconate, 0.05 % sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS), 6 % yeast extract and 1.5 % phenol and supplemented with different selective antibiotics such as leucomycin, nalidixic acid on HVA drastically eliminated the unicellular bacteria and other unwanted *Actinomycete* propagules (including *Streptomyces* spp.) from the isolation plates and increased the selectivity for *Streptosporangium* spp., *Microbispora* spp., *Acitinomadura* spp., *Micromonospora* spp., *Nocardia* spp. and *Nonomurea* spp. (Hayakawa et al. 1988, 1991a, b, c, d; Hayakawa 2008; Khamna et al. 2009). Recently, Niyomvong et al. (2012) showed that pretreatment of samples with moist (50 °C for 6 min) and dry (120 °C for 1 h) heating and 1.5 % phenol reduced the number of undesirable bacteria and enhanced the selective isolation of *Actinoplanes*, *Gordonia*, *Microbispora*, *Micromonospora*, *Nocardia* and *Nonomurea*. The successful isolation of members of the genera *Actinomadura* and *Saccharopolyspora* from caves was reported for the first time using these pretreatments with selective isolation media (Niyomvong et al. 2012).

#### Phenol treatment

An alternative approach is to make the isolation procedure more selective by adding chemicals such as phenol to the natural samples (Nonomura 1988; Hayakawa et al. 1991c). Phenol is a biocide and toxic to bacteria, fungi and streptomycetes, so treatment with 1.5 % phenol reduces the number of those organisms by removing sensitive species (Hayakawa et al. 1991b, 2004). Khamna et al. (2009) selectively isolated 11 % of non-streptomycetes including the rare genera *Actinomadura*, *Microbispora*, *Micromonospora*, *Nocardia* and *Nonomurea* by pretreating the samples with 1.5 % phenol and then plating on HVA. Although phenol treatment of soil suspension lowered the number of fungi and other bacteria, the *Actinomycetes* were less affected: 65 % of the colonies were rare *Actinomycetes*. The phenol pretreatment of the soil killed bacteria and streptomycetes in the samples, while keeping *Micromonosporae* and *Microbisporae* alive (Hayakawa

et al. 1991b; Qiu et al. 2008). In another study, the rare genera *Micromonospora* (49.2 %), *Actinomadura* (13.1 %), *Microbispora* (9.8 %) and *Polymorphospora* (3.3 %) were successfully obtained from soil samples using 1.5 % phenol pretreatment (Istianto et al. 2012).

#### Selective antimicrobial agents

Several rare *Actinomycetes* are resistant to a wide spectrum of antibiotics. Thus, several antibiotic molecules have been used in selective media to inhibit the competing bacteria including fast-growing *Actinomycetes* (Okami and Hotta 1988). Selective isolation plates containing novobiocin significantly increased the numbers of *Micromonospora*-like colonies (Qiu et al. 2008). Gentamicin is also one of the selective agents used to access *Micromonospora* spp. (Williams and Wellington 1982). Specialized growth media have also been developed to isolate specific *Actinomycete* genera (Seong et al. 2001). Hayakawa and Nonomura (1987a, b) and Cho et al. (1994) chose macromolecules such as casein, chitin, hair hydrolysate and humic acid as carbon and nitrogen sources of rare *Actinomycetes*.

#### Calcium carbonate treatment

Treatment of natural habitat samples with calcium carbonate increased the populations of rare genera of *Actinomycetes* (Alferova and Terekhova 1988). The mechanism of the calcium carbonate effect is not clear; however, Tsao et al. (1960) described natural samples mixed with powdered calcium carbonate where the pH is altered in favour of the growth of *Actinomycete* propagules and the calcium ions have the ability to stimulate the formation of aerial mycelia by several *Actinomycete* cultures (Natsume et al. 1989). Furthermore, Tsao et al. (1960) demonstrated significant increases in the relative plate counts of the *Actinomycete* populations in soil samples treated with calcium carbonate. In addition, using a combined calcium carbonate rehydration and centrifugation (RC) procedure, Otoguro et al. (2001) successfully isolated diverse *Actinokineospora* spp. and other *Actinomycetes* from soils and plant litter. Recently, Qin et al. (2009) demonstrated that the enrichment stage with calcium carbonate and the RC procedure was also suitable for the isolation of zoosporic and other rare *Actinobacteria*; they were the first to the isolation of *Saccharopolyspora*, *Dietzia*, *Blastococcus*, *Dactylosporangium*, *Promicromonospora*, *Oerskovia*, *Actinocorallia* and *Jiangella* species from endophytic environments. Therefore, the calcium carbonate procedure, in combination with other selective isolation methods, is recommended for the isolation of rare genera of *Actinomycetes* from soil samples (Tiwari and Gupta 2012a).

### Microwave irradiation

Many studies have examined the use of microwave energy for sterilization of soil (Wang et al. 2013a), yet there are few reports about the effect of microwave irradiation on the culturability of microorganisms, and especially the culturability of *Actinomycetes* (Bulina et al. 1997; Yang et al. 2008; Xue et al. 2010). Ferriss (1984) reported that microwave irradiation of soil reduced total fungal and total prokaryote counts in soil extracts. Bulina et al. (1997) reported that microwave irradiation significantly increased the number of culturable rare *Actinomycetes* taxa in soil, including *Micromonospora*, *Micropolyspora*, *Nocardia* and *Actinomadura*. Yang et al. (2008) reported that short periods of microwave irradiation increased culturable *Actinomycete* counts and the number of culturable *Actinomycete* isolates in a sandy aeolian soil; they also found that irradiation increased the number of antagonistic *Actinomycete* isolates as a percentage of the total number of cultural *Actinomycete* isolates. Recently, Xue et al. (2010) reported that microwave irradiation of a calcareous soil increased the total counts of culturable *Actinomycetes* such as *Streptomyces* spp. and *Micromonospora* spp. Furthermore, Wang et al. (2013a) isolated biologically active *Streptomyces* spp., *Nocardia* spp., *Streptosporangium* spp. and *Lentzea* spp. using microwave irradiation of soil samples. In addition, some researchers used other physical agents such as electromagnetic radiation (Miguélez et al. 1993; Niyomvong et al. 2012), electric pulses and super high frequency radiation (Bulina et al. 1997), ultrasonic waves (Jiang et al. 2010) and extremely high-frequency radiation (Li et al. 2003) for the selective isolation of *Actinomycetes* in natural samples. All of these methods have significantly increased the total number of rare *Actinomycetes* isolated.

### Centrifugation process

Another physical method, centrifugation, eliminates streptomycetes and other non-motile *Actinomycetes* from the liquid phase, thereby facilitating the selective growth of rare—especially motile *Actinomycetes*—on isolation plates subsequent to inoculation (Hayakawa et al. 2000; Qin et al. 2009). The combined enzymatic hydrolysis and differential centrifugation method was particularly useful for isolating endophytic rare *Actinobacteria* *Pseudonocardia*, *Nocardiopsis* and *Micromonospora* species and species of other genera, including *Amycolatopsis*, *Nocardia*, *Nonomuraea*, *Actinomadura*, *Gordonia*, *Promicromonospora* and *Mycobacterium* (Qin et al. 2009).

### Chemoattractants and chlorination methods

Selective isolation of sporulating *Actinomycetes* known to produce motile spores is done by the use of xylose, chloride,  $\gamma$ -collidine, bromide and vanillin (Hayakawa 2008) which act

as chemoattractants for accumulating spores of *Actinoplanes*, *Dactylosporangium* and *Catenuloplanes* (Hayakawa 2008). Further, selective isolation of rare genera *Herbidospora*, *Microbispora*, *Microtetraspora* and *Streptosporangium* can be achieved by chloramine treatment (Hong et al. 2009), as chlorination is known to suppress growth of contaminant bacteria and promote the growth of rare *Actinomycetes* when plated on humic acid–vitamin-enriched media (Hong et al. 2009).

Finally, Tiwari and Gupta (2012a) found that selective isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* from natural habitats using combined physical and chemical treatments of natural samples can increase the chance of isolation of rare genera of *Actinomycetes*.

### Other methods

Several terms have been used in the literature, including ‘uncultured’, ‘unculturable’ and ‘uncultivable’ to describe bacteria that are not readily cultured in the laboratory. Sampling of diverse environments, such as soil, marine sediment or hot springs shows that only 0.01–1 % of cells visible under the microscope will form colonies on a Petri dish, leaving the remaining majority ‘uncultured’ (D’Onofrio et al. 2010). In recent years, researchers have been attempting various methods such as co-culture (D’Onofrio et al. 2010; Stewart 2012), simulation of the natural environment in vitro (Stewart 2012), colony hybridization, flow cytometry and cell sorting, micromanipulation of single bacterial cells (Vartoukian et al. 2010), design and application of the diffusion chamber, ichip and the microbial trap (Gavrish et al. 2008; Lewis et al. 2010) for isolating unculturable microorganisms. Of all of these methods, co-culture has proven successful and so is widely used method for the cultivation of unculturable, novel or rare microorganisms.

### Co-culture method

Recently, D’Onofrio et al. (2010) experimentally described the success of the co-culture methods on the culture of unculturable bacteria. Briefly, pairs of colonies growing within a 2-cm distance of each other were selected from high-density isolation plates (50–200 colonies per plate) and restreaked in close proximity to each other. Each of the two isolates was streaked on one half of an R2Asea plate and cross-streaked through the centre of the plate; the result was regions of proximal, distal and overlapping inoculation (D’Onofrio et al. 2010). Using this method, they were able to isolate an uncultured marine bacterium *Maribacter polysiphoniae* in the presence of helper strain *Micrococcus luteus* that was isolated from the same environment. Similarly, an uncultured bacterium *Bacillus marisflavi* was obtained from fresh water sediment in the presence of the helper strain

*Bacillus megaterium* from the same environment (Stewart 2012). Some unculturable colony-forming microorganisms can grow on a Petri dish only in the presence of other species from the same environment (Kaeberlein et al. 2002; Nichols et al. 2008; D'Onofrio et al. 2010). Interspecies symbiosis based on nutrient exchange (syntrophy) is well known in the bacterial world (McInerney et al. 2008). Bacteria are also known to communicate using an interspecies quorum-sensing factor [autoinducer 2 (AI-2)] that induces synthesis of proteins such as toxins or polymer hydrolases that are useful for a community rather than a single cell (Williams et al. 2007a). Uncultured bacteria, however, do not grow on rich synthetic media (such media should largely obviate the need for nutrient supply by other species), and AI-2 has not been found to act as a growth-promoting factor, raising questions about the nature of unknown growth-promoting factors in microbial communities.

### Diverse habitats and genera of rare *Actinomycetes*

#### Soil and plants

Soil is well-studied for *Actinomycetes* populations and most of the rare *Actinomycetes* reported so far have come from different types of soil (Tiwari and Gupta 2012a, b). The isolation of several new and rare genera discussed in this review under the section 'Selective isolation methods' was mostly derived from different soil types. Many rare *Actinomycetes* are now being isolated from plants (Matsumoto et al. 1998; Taechowisan et al. 2003; Janso and Carter 2010), often for the purpose of finding novel microbial resources for use in screening for new bioactive compounds (Inahashi et al. 2011). For example, Qin et al. (2009) reported for the first time the isolation of *Saccharopolyspora*, *Dietzia*, *Blastococcus*, *Dactylosporangium*, *Promicromonospora*, *Oerskovia*, *Actinocorallia* and *Jiangella* species from endophytic environments. A typical endophytic *Actinomycete*, *Frankia*, has nitrogen-fixing activity, a function which plays an important role in ecological systems (Xu et al. 2007).

#### Extreme environments

Extreme environments have unusual growth conditions such as high and low temperature, salt, alkaline and acidic pH, radioactivity and high pressure. Microorganisms from extreme environments have received great attention owing to their special mechanisms of adapting to the conditions in their extreme environments and also because they can produce unusual compounds (Meklat et al. 2011). Despite the interest however, only a few investigations have been performed with *Actinomycetes* growing under extreme environments: *Actinopolyspora halophila* is an accidentally discovered pioneer (Gochnauer

et al. 1975). In recent years, researchers from Yunnan Institute of Microbiology at Yunnan University discovered many novel *Actinomycetes* from salt and alkaline soils in Xinjiang and Qinghai, P. R. China (Jiang and Xu 1996; Jiang et al. 2006). These researchers described a new family *Yaniaceae*, several novel genera including *Streptomonospora*, *Jiangella*, *Myceligenerans*, *Naxibacter*, and a great number of new species of the genera *Actinopolyspora*, *Amycolatopsis*, *Citricoccus*, *Halomonas*, *Isopterocola*, *Jonesia*, *Kocuria*, *Kribbella*, *Liuella*, *Marinococcus*, *Massilia*, *Microbacterium*, *Nesterenkonia*, *Nocardia*, *Nocardiosis*, *Prauserella*, *Rhodococcus*, *Saccharomonospora*, *Saccharopolyspora*, *Sphingomonas*, *Thermobifida* and *Virgibacillus*. Recently, Meklat et al. (2011) reported a wide spectrum of biologically active halophilic *Actinomycetes* evaluated using a polyphasic approach which showed the presence of a new genus and many new species of the *Actinopolyspora*, *Nocardiosis*, *Saccharomonospora*, *Streptomonospora* and *Saccharopolyspora* genera. Furthermore, their discovery that from among the rare genera isolated from saline conditions, *Nocardiosis* strains having high frequency of NRPS genes could be evidence of the high potential of halophilic *Actinomycetes* for producing a large number of biologically active compounds.

#### Caves

Generally, caves are low in nutrients, temperature and light intensity but they have high humidity (Schabereiter-Gurtner et al. 2002). These factors might encourage competition which could enhance the production of substances such as antibiotics and hydrolytic enzymes that inhibit the growth of other microorganisms (Nakaew et al. 2009). Recently, several new species of *Actinomycetes* have been isolated from caves, including from a gold mine in Korea (Lee et al. 2000a, b, 2001; Lee 2006a, b, c), the Reed Flute Cave in China (Groth et al. 1999), the Grotta Dei Cervi Cave in Italy (Jurado et al. 2005a) and a cave occupied by bats in Spain (Jurado et al. 2005b). Nakaew et al. (2009) reported for the first time the isolation of *Spirillospora* and *Nonomuraea* from a cave soil along with very rare genera such as *Spirillospora*, *Catellatospora*, *Nonomuraea* and *Micromonospora*, and Niyomvong et al. (2012) isolated members of the genera *Actinomadura* and *Saccharopolyspora* from caves along with other rare genera *Actinoplanes*, *Gordonia*, *Microbispora*, *Micromonospora*, *Nocardia*, *Nonomuraea* and the predominant genus *Streptomyces*. These studies confirm that caves may be excellent sources of rare *Actinomycetes* that produce novel compounds.

#### Insects

The insect world is another unexplored environment for exploring new and novel microorganisms. Fungi culture in the

insect world is practised by ants, termites, beetles and gall midges (Kaltenpoth 2009) and there is evidence that the fungal cultivar produces antibiotics in order to defend itself (Wang et al. 1999; Currie et al. 1999; Little et al. 2006). Ant workers also defend their fungal gardens through a combination of grooming and weeding (Little et al. 2006), producing their own antimicrobials through metapleural gland secretions (Bot et al. 2002) and the application of weedkillers. These weedkillers are natural product antimicrobials produced by symbiotic *Actinomycete* bacteria (Currie et al. 1999; Sen et al. 2009; Haeder et al. 2009; Oh et al. 2009). A long-standing theory suggests that bacteria from the genus *Pseudonocardia* co-evolved with the ants and are transmitted vertically by the gynes (reproductive females) along with the fungal cultivar. However, more recent evidence has emerged that suggests attine ants are also associated with bacteria from the *Actinomycete* genera *Streptomyces* and *Amycolatopsis* and that antibiotic-producing *Actinomycetes* can be horizontally acquired through male dispersal and sampling of *Actinomycetes* from soils (Currie et al. 1999; Mueller et al. 2008). The identities of the antifungal compounds produced by attine ant-associated *Actinomycetes* remain largely unknown. Only two compounds have been identified so far: a previously unknown antifungal named ‘Dentigerumycin’ that is produced by *Pseudonocardia* species isolated from the lower attines *Apterostigma dentigerum* and ‘Candicidin’, a well-known antifungal that is produced by *Streptomyces* species isolated from the higher attine ants belonging to the genus *Acromyrmex* (Haeder et al. 2009; Oh et al. 2009). *Pseudonocardia* isolated from *Acromyrmex octospinosus* also inhibit the growth of *Escovopsis* in bioassays, but the antifungal compounds have not been isolated nor identified (Haeder et al. 2009). Recently, Barke et al. (2010) identified a *Pseudonocardia* species in the ant *Acromyrmex octospinosus* that produces an unusual polyene antifungal metabolite. Exploring new bioactive molecules could be increased by switching the search away from explored environments to unexplored ones (Clardy et al. 2009). In this line, the insect world is emerging rapidly as a source to discover *Actinomycetes* for unusual and novel bioactive molecules.

#### Aquatic environments

*Actinomycetes* are predominant in river, lake and marine environments, despite some of them being introduced from terrestrial habitats (Cross 1981). High numbers of *Micromonospora*, an indigenous inhabitant of the water and mud from freshwater lakes (Cross 1981), can be isolated from lake sediments as much as 10–50 % of the total microbial population in lake water. Nebish Lake had 3,300 bacteria mL<sup>-1</sup> of which 15 % was *Micromonospora*, and Crystal Lake 3,600 bacteria mL<sup>-1</sup> with 16 % *Micromonospora*.

*Actinoplanes* with sporangium and zoospores will grow at moist conditions and survive as spores in the dry environment

(Cross 1981): it colonizes vegetable and animal remains, ranging from pollen and hair to leaves and twigs. Rehydration stimulates the release of zoospores, which swim in the water film of soil or in stream and lake waters until they are able to recolonize a suitable substrate (Cross 1981). Representatives of *Thermoactinomyces*, *Streptomyces* and *Rhodococcus* live in aquatic environments (Cross 1981). Xu and Jiang (1996) studied *Actinomycete* populations of 12 lakes in the middle plateau of Yunnan (China) and found that *Micromonospora* was the dominant genus (39–89 %) in the *Actinomycetes* population in sediments of those lakes. Furthermore, *Streptomyces* was the second most abundant genus. Members of rare genera *Actinoplanes*, *Actinomadura*, *Microbispora*, *Micropolyspora*, *Microtetraspora*, *Mycobacterium*, *Nocardiosis*, *Nocardia*, *Promicromonospora*, *Rhodococcus*, *Saccharomonospora*, *Saccharopolyspora*, *Streptosporangium*, *Thermoactinomyces*, *Thermomonospora* and *Thermopolyspora* have also been reported from lake sediments (Xu and Jiang 1996).

#### Other habitats

Rare genera of *Actinomycetes* such as *Microbispora*, *Nocardia*, *Microtetraspora*, *Actinomadura*, *Amycolatopsis* and *Saccharothrix* have been successfully isolated from desert soil (Takahashi et al. 1996), and the novel rare *Actinomycete* genera *Beutenbergia* (Groth et al. 1999) and *Terrabacter* (Lee et al. 2008c) have been reported from small stones collected from caves and agricultural fields, respectively. Recently, rare genera of *Actinomycetes* such as *Streptosporangium*, *Actinomadura*, *Saccharopolyspora*, *Thermoactinomyces* and *Nocardia* were isolated from soils in the nests of solitary wasps and swallow birds (Kumar et al. 2012).

#### Marine environment: a source of rare *Actinomycetes*

Many natural environments are still either unexplored or underexplored and thus can be considered as potential resources for the isolation of lesser studied microorganisms, including rare *Actinomycetes* (Tiwari and Gupta 2012a). Unexplored marine environments, for example, are now a popular research area due to the potentially huge resources present within them. A recent study (Stach and Bull 2005) of the microbial diversity of deep-sea sediments has shown that this environment might contain more than 1,300 different actinobacterial operational taxonomic units, a great proportion of which are predicted to represent novel species and genera. Furthermore, it is recognized that marine microbes can sense, adapt and respond quickly to diverse environments, and can compete for defense and survival by producing unique secondary metabolites (Knight et al. 2003; Zhang et al. 2005). The hidden wealth of this source needs to be explored further.

The historical paradigm of the deep ocean as a biological ‘desert’ has shifted to one of a ‘rainforest’ owing to the isolation of many novel microorganisms and their associated unusual bioactive compounds (Zhang 2005). The marine environment has emerged as an important source of bioactive natural products. There are, for example, several exciting marine-derived molecules on the pharmaceutical market and dozens more progressing through the development pipeline (Mayer et al. 2010). Thus, unexplored and new microbial habitats need to be examined for microbial resources that produce useful bioactive compounds. As with terrestrial soils, marine sediments contain limited amounts of readily available organic matter, with most sources of carbon (such as cellulose and chitin) being present in complex forms. However, culture-independent studies have shown that marine sediment environments contain a wide diversity of *Actinomycetes* and many unique taxa are very different from their terrestrial counterparts (Stach et al. 2003; Gontang et al. 2007). In addition, culture-dependent studies have shown that marine *Actinomycetes* are ubiquitous in marine sediment environments (Maldonado et al. 2005; Jensen et al. 2005a). Many novel bioactive secondary metabolites isolated from marine *Actinomycetes* have been reported (Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012), and they may be a source of novel compounds with pharmaceutical potential (Mayer et al. 2010).

The isolation of a seawater-obligate marine *Actinomycete* species of the genus *Salinispora* was reported in 2005 (Maldonado et al. 2005) and that discovery was followed by the discovery of other genera such as *Demequina*, *Marinispora*, *Solwaraspora*, *Lamerjespora*, *Serinicoccus*, *Salinibacterium*, *Aeromicrobium*, *Williamsia*, *Marinactinospira* and *Sciscionella* that so far appear to be exclusively marine (Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012). Further, these indigenous *Actinomycetes* are robust sources of natural products, such as the genera *Salinispora* [salinosporamide A (NPI-0052), sporolides, saliniquinone A-F, salinosporamide K], *Verrucosispora* (abyssomicins), *Micromonospora* [diazepinomicin (ECO-4601)] (Lam 2006) and *Marinispora* (marinomycins, marinisporolides) (Kwon et al. 2009). The discovery of novel marine actinomycetal taxa is very important for potential new sources of pharmaceuticals.

Rare *Actinomycetes* are widely present in marine habitats (Goodfellow and Williams 1986; Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012). Rare or unusual *Actinomycetes* produce diverse, unique, unprecedented and occasionally complicated compounds with excellent antibacterial potency and usually low toxicity (Berdy 2005). The oceans represent a rich microbial diversity and population (Stach and Bull 2005; Sogin et al. 2006), and intensive research is ongoing for the microbial biodiversity potential in the marine environment (Heidelberg et al. 2010). Moreover, until now, very few marine obligate taxa have been isolated (Goodfellow 2010). Therefore, oceans are expected to harbour prolific sources of new/novel microbial

taxa, and Tiwari and Gupta (2012a) argued that to obtain a novel metabolite, a diverse and less exploited reserve of microbes is required. Isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* thus becomes the first and most crucial step towards *Actinomycetes* resource development for drug discovery (Cai et al. 2009).

### Marine sediments, seawater, symbiotic and mangroves

Deep-sea sediments cover 63.5 % of the Earth’s surface (Emery 1969) and represent the most undersampled marine habitat (Butman and Carlton 1995). As early as 1884, marine bacterial strains were isolated from deep-sea sediments, to depths of 5,100 m (Zobell 1946). Recently, the concept of ‘marine microorganism’ has been accepted worldwide (Tian et al. 2012), yet the common recognition for ‘marine *Actinomycetes*’ has undergone a long period of dispute concerning their actual source (Goodfellow and Haynes 1984). Originally, *Actinomycetes* generally were considered to be indigenous to terrestrial habitats because no convincing evidence was available to demonstrate that *Actinomycetes* could adapt to marine habitats (Tian et al. 2012). Nevertheless, the novel genus *Salinispora* (Maldonado et al. 2005) was described and subsequently accepted as the first obligate marine *Actinomycetes* due to its stringent requirement of seawater for growth. Tian et al. (2009b) described another marine actinobacterial genus, *Sciscionella*, which can tolerate high salt concentrations (up to 13 %) for growth. To date, more than 14 novel actinobacterial genera have been discovered from the marine environment (Goodfellow and Fiedler 2010; Kurahashi et al. 2010; Chang et al. 2011; Xiao et al. 2011a). It is becoming increasingly obvious that *Actinomycetes* are an important part of the indigenous microflora in marine ecosystems.

Generally, the pretreatments and enrichment of the samples used for isolation of rare *Actinomycetes* from soil (see earlier) are the same methods followed for treatment of marine samples. Tables 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 re-emphasize the pretreatment of samples and enrichment culture methods used, particularly for isolation of marine-derived rare *Actinomycetes*. This review summarizes the source, treatment of samples and isolation media for all new rare *Actinomycetes* reported from marine habitats between 2007 and mid-2013, including sediments, seawater, symbiotic and mangrove ecosystems. Wet and dry heat treatments, radiations, cold shock, different chemicals, and antibiotics and 1.5 % phenol-treated marine samples combined with selective isolation media can increase the recovery of new and novel genera of rare *Actinomycetes* in diverse marine samples (Tables 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6). Interestingly, though observed the combination of selective isolation and screening procedures yielded a number of new rare *Actinomycetes* genera in marine samples, also noticed that a number of new rare *Actinomycete* species and even novel



**Table 2** Pretreatment or enrichment of marine samples for isolation of rare genera of *Actinomycetes*

Pretreatment/enrichment	Source	Rare genera isolated	Reference
Heat treated by 50 °C for 60 min+addition of nalidixic acid in isolation medium	Marine sediments	<i>Micromonospora</i>	Takizawa et al. (1997)
Treated with 41 °C for 10, 30 and 60 days+selective nutrient media	Marine sediments	<i>Streptomyces</i> , <i>Streptoverticillium</i> , <i>Catellatospora</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> and <i>Actinopolyspora</i>	Kokare et al. (2004)
Different selective methods+different seawater-based media	Marine sediments	<i>Salinispora</i> and <i>Micromonospora</i>	Jensen et al. (2005a)
Different selective media particularly raffinose–histidine agar	Deep-sea sediments	<i>Dermacoccus</i> , <i>Kocuria</i> , <i>Micromonospora</i> , <i>Streptomyces</i> , <i>Tsukamurella</i> and <i>Williamsia</i>	Pathom-Aree et al. (2006)
(1) UV irradiation of the wet sediment suspension (5 ml) was performed in open Petri dishes for 30 s	Shallow water sediments	<i>Nocardopsis</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> and <i>Pseudonocardia</i>	Bredtholt et al. (2007)
(2) Super high frequency (SHF) radiation treatment of the suspension (2.5 ml) placed into sterile Eppendorf tubes were carried out in a microwave oven at a frequency of 2,460 MHz and power of 80 W for 45 s		<i>Streptosporangium</i> and <i>Rhodococcus</i>	
(3) Extremely high frequency (EHF) radiation treatment of the suspension (5 ml) was carried out in Petri dishes from the bottom. Emitted radiation had a non-thermal intensity and was amplitude-modulated at a frequency of 1 kHz within wavelength band of 8–11.5 mm using industrial generator		<i>Nocardopsis</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> and <i>Streptosporangium</i>	
(4) Cold-shock by freezing sediment samples at –18 °C+selective nutrient media			
Dry sediment+selective nutrient media	Marine sediments and deep-sea mud samples	Non- <i>Actinomycetes</i> , streptomycetes and non-streptomycete <i>Actinomycetes</i>	Bredtholt et al. (2008)
Treated with 120 °C for 60 min+selective nutrient media	Deep-sea mud samples	Non-streptomycete <i>Actinomycetes</i> and non- <i>Actinomycetes</i>	
1.5 % Phenol+selective nutrient media	Deep-sea mud samples	Non-streptomycete <i>Actinomycetes</i> and non- <i>Actinomycetes</i>	
120 °C for 60 min+1.5 % phenol+selective nutrient media	Deep-sea mud samples	Non-streptomycete <i>Actinomycetes</i>	
120 °C for 60 min+benzethonium chloride+selective nutrient media	Deep-sea mud samples	Non-streptomycete <i>Actinomycetes</i> and non- <i>Actinomycetes</i>	
Heat treated by 60 °C for 6 min	Marine sediments	<i>Streptomyces</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> , <i>Nonomuraea</i> , <i>Rhodococcus</i> , <i>Saccharopolyspora</i> and <i>Gordonia</i>	Solano et al. (2009)
Sediments treated with dry heat (120 °C for 60 min); chloramine-T; phenol (1.5 % for 30 min at 30 °C); 0.05 % SDS and 6 % yeast extract (40 °C, 200 rpm for 30 min) and wet heat in sterilized seawater (50 °C for 15 min)+selective isolation media	Mangrove sediments	<i>Actinomadura</i> , <i>Micromonospora</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> , <i>Nonomuraea</i> , <i>Rhodococcus</i> , <i>Streptomyces</i> and <i>Verrucosisspora</i>	Hong et al. (2009)
Wet heating for 15 min at 70 °C and phenol+hair hydrolysate vitamin agar	Mangrove sediments	<i>Micromonospora</i> , <i>Microbispora</i> , <i>Actinoplanes</i> and <i>Actinomadura</i>	Naikpatil and Rathod (2011)
Treated with 55 °C for 15 min in a suspension fluid containing osmoprotectant (quarter strength Ringer's solution)+selective nutrient medium	Mangrove sediments	<i>Pseudonocardia</i>	Mangamuri et al. (2012)
Different selective isolation media	Sea grass	<i>Streptomyces</i> , <i>Micromonospora</i> , <i>Saccharomonospora</i> , <i>Mycobacterium</i> , <i>Actinomycetozoa</i> , <i>Nonomuraea</i> , <i>Verrucosisspora</i> , <i>Nocardopsis</i> , <i>Microbacterium</i> and <i>Glycomyces</i>	Wu et al. (2012)
Different selective isolation media+sponge homogenate	Sponge	<i>Streptomyces</i> , <i>Nocardia</i> , <i>Rhodococcus</i> and <i>Actinobacterium</i>	Mehbub and Amin (2012)
Wet heat treated with 55 or 65 °C for 30 min	Marine and estuarine sediments	<i>Micromonospora</i>	Terahara et al. (2013)

**Table 3** Newly discovered rare *Actinomycetes* from marine sediments during the period 2007–mid-2013

Stream/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Nocardioideis furvisabuli</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Beach black sand	Sediment sample (1 g) was placed into a sterile tube containing 9 ml sterile seawater. After mixing for 30 min on a tube rotator, aliquots (100 µl) of the serial diluents of the samples were transferred to isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee (2007c)
<i>Actinolealea fermentans</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Micrococccineae</i> (suborder)	Tidal flat sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Marine agar 2216 (MA; Difco)	Yi et al. (2007)
<i>Marmoricola aequoreus</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Sandy sediment under the surface of a beach	Sediment sample (1 g) was placed into a sterile tube containing 9 ml sterile seawater. After mixing for 30 min on a tube rotator, aliquots (100 µl) of the serial diluents of the samples were transferred to isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee (2007b)
<i>Aestuariimicrobium kwangyungense</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Propionibacteriaceae</i>	Oil-contaminated tidal flat sediment	Sediment samples (0.5 mg) were inoculated in 100 ml Bushnell–Haas broth (Difco) that contained 2 % (w/v) diesel oil were incubated at 30 °C on a horizontal shaker at 150 rpm. The diluted enrichment culture was transferred to isolation medium	R2A agar (Difco)	Jung et al. (2007)
<i>Nocardioideis marinisabuli</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Beach sand	Sediment sample (1 g) was placed into a sterile tube containing 9 ml sterile seawater. After mixing for 30 min on a tube rotator, aliquots (100 µl) of the serial diluents of the samples were transferred to agar medium	ISP-4 medium (soluble starch 10.0 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 1.0 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 1.0 g, NaCl 1.0 g, (NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> 2.0 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 2.0 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> 1.0 mg, MnCl <sub>2</sub> 1.0 mg, ZnSO <sub>4</sub> 1.0 mg, agar 20.0 g supplemented with 60 % (v/v) natural seawater)	Lee et al. (2007)
<i>Demequina aestuarii</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Micrococccineae</i> (suborder)	Tidal flat sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Marine agar 2216 (MA; Difco)	Yi et al. (2007)
<i>Nocardioideis dokdonensis</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Beach sediment	Standard dilution plating method	R2A agar (Difco) supplemented with 3.5 % artificial sea salts (Sigma)	Park et al. (2008)
<i>Tessarococcus flavescens</i> / <i>Propionibacteriaceae</i>	Marine sediment	A wet sediment sample (1 g) was dried aseptically for 24 h and ground lightly with a pestle. The sample was transferred onto an SC-SW agar plate using a sterile stopper by serial stamping eight or nine times in a circular fashion	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee and Lee (2008a)
<i>Amycolatopsis marina</i> / <i>Pseudonocardioideaceae</i>	Deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	SMI agar (yeast nitrogen base (67.0 g; Difco) and casamino acids (100 mg; Difco) were added to a litre of distilled water and the solution sterilized using cellulose filters (0.20 µm) prior to the addition of sterilized K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> (200 ml; 10 %, w/v); 100 ml of this basal medium was added to 900 ml of sterilized molten agar (1.5 %, w/v) followed by filter sterilized solutions of D-sorbitol (final concentration 1 %, w/v), cycloheximide (50 µg ml <sup>-1</sup> ), neomycin sulphate (4 µg ml <sup>-1</sup> ) and nystatin (50 µg ml <sup>-1</sup> )	Bian et al. (2009)
<i>Tessarococcus profundus</i> / <i>Propionibacteriaceae</i>	940 m depth of deep-sea sediment	The sample (ca. 5 g) was aseptically ground with a sterile pestle in a mortar and transferred to a sterile test tube. One gram of the ground material was aerobically suspended in 10 ml PBS, vortexed for 1 min, and 1 ml of the suspension was transferred to 50 ml of isolation medium	R2A agar (Difco) plates supplemented with NaCl (20 g l <sup>-1</sup> ) and MgCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O (3 g l <sup>-1</sup> ).	Finster et al. (2009)
<i>Marinactinospora thermotolerans</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Nocardiopsaceae</i>	Deep-sea black soft mud at 3,865 m depth	Samples were first air-dried aseptically by being placed into a laminar flow hood and then a 2-g air-dried sample was suspended in 18 ml sterile seawater before 0.1 ml was spread on isolation medium	Raffinose-histidine agar (10 g of raffinose, 1 g of L-histidine, 0.5 g of MgSO <sub>4</sub> , 0.01 g of FeSO <sub>4</sub> , 20 g of NaCl in liter of seawater)	Tian et al. (2009a)
<i>Paraoerikovia marina</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Cellulomonadaceae</i>	Marine sediment	The sediment sample was suspended and serially diluted in sterile artificial seawater	Half-strength marine agar [HSM; 19 g Bacto marine broth 2216 (Difco), 17 g artificial seawater salts and 15 g agar, dissolved in 1 l distilled water]	Khan et al. (2009)
<i>Scissionella marina</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Pseudonocardioideaceae</i>	516 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Gauze no. 1 medium (20 g soluble starch, 1 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O prepared with 1 l of seawater)	Tian et al. (2009b)
<i>Promicromonospora flava</i> / <i>Promicromonosporaceae</i>	Marine sediment	Not specified	Fucose-proline medium (5 g fucose, 1 g proline, 1 g (NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 1 g NaCl, 2 g CaCl <sub>2</sub> , 1 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 1 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 20 g agar per litre of Baltic seawater)	Jiang et al. (2009)
<i>Ierrucospora sedimini</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	3,602 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Gauze no. 1 medium (20 g soluble starch, 1 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O prepared with 1 l of seawater)	Dai et al. (2010)
<i>Isopericola jiangsuensis</i> / <i>Promicromonosporaceae</i>	Beach sediment	Not specified	Unspecified chitin as a sole carbon source medium	Wu et al. (2010)

Table 3 (continued)

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Micromonospora marina</i> / Micromonosporaceae	Sea-shore sediment	Not specified	Starch-casein nitrate agar (10 g starch, 0.3 g sodium caseinate (Difco), 2 g KNO <sub>3</sub> and 15 g agar per litre)	Tanasupawat et al. (2010)
<i>Prausirella marina</i> / Pseudonocardiaceae	3,602 m depth of sea sediment	Not specified	MOPS-proline agar medium (1 g MOPS, 1 g proline, 1 g (NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 1 g NaCl, 1 g CaCl <sub>2</sub> , 1 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 1 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 20 g agar per litre)	Wang et al. (2010)
<i>Arlhobacter antarcticus</i> / Micrococcaceae	400 m depth of Antarctic marine sediment	The 0.1 g of sample suspended in 1 ml sterile water by vortex mixer and plated on isolation medium	Nutrient agar (10 g peptone, 10 g beef extract, 5 g NaCl and 20 g agar per litre)	Pindi et al. (2010)
<i>Saccharomonospora marina</i> / Pseudonocardiaceae	4 m depth of marine sediment	Not specified	PLA emulsified agar (1 g of polymer was dissolved in 500 ml methylene chloride, followed by emulsification with a homogenizer into 1 l of a basal medium containing 100 mg yeast extract, 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 200 mg MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 1,000 mg (NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 20 mg CaCl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 100 mg NaCl, 0.5 mg Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 mg Na <sub>2</sub> WO <sub>4</sub> , 0.5 mg MnSO <sub>4</sub> , 50 mg Plysurf A210G and 18 g agar per litre)	Liu et al. (2010)
<i>Marisediminicola antarctica</i> (novel genus)/ Microbacteriaceae	Intertidal sea sediment	Dried sediment (approx. 2 g) was diluted with 10 ml sterile seawater. The diluted sample was vortexed, allowed to settle for 30 min, and 100 µl of the resulting solution was further diluted (1:10) and spread onto isolation medium	Gause mineral agar I (starch soluble 20.0 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, KNO <sub>3</sub> 1.0 g, NaCl 0.5 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> 0.01 g, agar 20.0 g, distilled water 1 l)	Li et al. (2010)
<i>Kocuria sediminis</i> / Micrococcaceae	Marine sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Tryptic soy agar (papatic digest of soybean 5 g, pancreatic digest of casein 15 g, NaCl 5 g and 15 g agar per litre)	Bala et al. (2011)
<i>Spinacinospora alkalitolerans</i> (novel genus)/ Nocardiosporaceae	17.5 m depth of marine sediment	Two grams wet sample was suspended in 18 ml sterile seawater and 0.1 ml aliquots of the suspension were spread on isolation media	Sodium propionate-aspartic acid agar (0.1 g aspartic acid, 2.0 g peptone, 4.0 g sodium propionate, 0.05 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> ·3H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.1 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 20.0 g agar, 1.0 l 2–3 weeks old seawater)	Chang et al. (2011)
<i>Nonomuraea maritima</i> / Streptosporangiaceae	Beach surface sediment	The sediment sample was dried at room temperature, suspended in sterile distilled water, serially diluted, and heated in a water bath at 55 °C for 6 min, and spread-plated on isolation medium	Oatmeal agar [ISP 3 medium; Oatmeal 20.0 g, trace salts solution (FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, deionized water 100.0 ml) 1.0 ml, agar 18.0 g per litre]	Xi et al. (2011b)
<i>Domequina globuliformis</i> / Micrococcineae (suborder)	Marine sediment	Not specified	HSV medium (metal mix X 250 ml, humic acid mix 100 ml, vitamin mix A 4 ml, vitamin B12 solution 1 ml, cycloheximide 50 mg, griseofluvin 25 mg, nalidixic acid 20 mg, aztreonam 40 mg, agar 20 g and distilled water 650 ml)	Ue et al. (2011a)
<i>Serrinococcus chungangensis</i> / Intrasporangiaceae	Tidal flat sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Glucose yeast extract agar (10 g yeast extract, 10 g glucose and 15 g agar per litre)	Trautman et al. (2011)
<i>Minimonas arenae</i> (novel genus)/ Beutenbergiaceae	Beach sediment	Not specified	H medium (H mix 100 ml, metal mix X 250 ml, cycloheximide 50 mg, griseofluvin 25 mg, nalidixic acid 20 mg, aztreonam 40 mg, agar 20 g and distilled water 650 ml)	Ue et al. (2011b)
<i>Serrinococcus profundus</i> / Intrasporangiaceae	5,368 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Oligotrophic medium (seawater, 2.0 % agar)	Xiao et al. (2011b)
<i>Modesobacter marinus</i> / Geodermatophilaceae	2,983 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Not specified	Not mentioned	Xiao et al. (2011c)
<i>Rhodococcus nanhaiensis</i> / Nocardiaceae	84.5 m depth of marine sediment	Standard dilution plating method	A1 medium (10 g starch, 4 g yeast extract, 2 g peptone, 1 l seawater and 12 g agar) and A4 medium (0.25 g yeast extract, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 1 l seawater and 12 g agar)	Li et al. (2012b)
<i>Terrucospora maris</i> / Micromonosporaceae	Deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Colloidal chitin agar (chitin 4 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.7 g, KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> 0.3 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·5H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.01 g, ZnSO <sub>4</sub> 0.001 g, MnCl <sub>2</sub> 0.001 g and 20 g of agar per litre)	Goodfellow et al. (2012b)
<i>Nocardia grenadensis</i> / Nocardiaceae	5 m depth of marine sediment	One gram of sample, after a 2-h extraction in 10 ml of 0.1 % (v/v) Tween 80 containing 5 mg ampicillin, then serially diluted and plated on isolation medium	Soil extract agar (1,000 g of soil with 2 l of 50 mM NaOH and incubated overnight at room temperature. The mixture was incubated and then centrifuged for 60 min at 18,000 rpm. The supernatant was sterilized through a 0.2-µm filter membrane. Soil extract agar containing 500 ml of soil extract and 15 g of agar per litre)	Kämpfer et al. (2012)
<i>Terrucospora fiedleri</i> / Micromonosporaceae	250 m depth of sea sediment	Not specified	Starch-casein nitrate agar (10 g soluble starch, 3 g vitamin-free casein, 2 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 2 g NaCl, 2 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> , 0.2 g CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.1 g FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 18 g agar in 1 l seawater)	Goodfellow et al. (2012a)

Table 3 (continued)

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Demequina flava</i> / <i>Micrococccineae</i> (suborder)	Marine sediment	Approximately 1 g of the sample was diluted 10-, 100- and 1,000-fold with saline before 0.2 ml of each dilution was spread on isolation medium	1/5 NBRC medium 802 (0.2 % polypeptone, 0.04 % yeast extract, 0.02 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.5 % agar)	Hamada et al. (2013)
<i>Demequina sediminicola</i> / <i>Micrococccineae</i> (suborder)	Marine sediment	Approximately 1 g of the sample was diluted 10-, 100- and 1,000-fold with saline before 0.2 ml of each dilution was spread on isolation medium	1/5 NBRC medium 802 (0.2 % polypeptone, 0.04 % yeast extract, 0.02 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.5 % agar)	Hamada et al. (2013)
<i>Micromonospora sediminicola</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Marine sediment	Not specified	Starch-casein nitrate agar (10 g soluble starch, 1 g sodium caseinate, 2 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> and 18 g agar in 1 l seawater)	Supong et al. (2013)
<i>Pseudonocardia antitumoralis</i> / <i>Pseudonocardiaceae</i>	3,258 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Standard dilution plating method	Gauze no. 1 medium (20 g soluble starch, 1 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O prepared with 1 l of seawater)	Tian et al. (2013)
<i>Microbacterium sediminis</i> / <i>Microbacteriaceae</i>	2,327 m depth of deep-sea sediment	Two grams of sediment was suspended in 18 ml sterile seawater and mixed. Soil particles were allowed to settle down, the liquid phase was diluted 10 <sup>5</sup> -fold and 100 µl samples were spread onto isolation medium	FJ agar (1 % glucose, 1 % yeast extract, 1.5 % agar, 50 % seawater) with rifampicin (5 mg l <sup>-1</sup> ) and potassium dichromate (50 mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	Yu et al. (2013)

genera of rare *Actinomycetes* were successfully isolated without any pretreatment of the marine samples (Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6). Supportively, Qiu et al. (2008) reported that no matter which pretreatment method was applied, different selective media (particularly HVA, ISP-3 agar and DNB agar) always give better isolation of *Micromonospora*-like colonies than do other media. Furthermore, these authors found that the yield of non-streptomycete colonies increased in all the composite samples. Ongoing research in our group at the University of the South Pacific in Fiji on the isolation of the marine obligate genus *Salinispora* has shown that the direct plating of air-dried sediments on different complex nutrient media allows the successful isolation of *Salinispora* spp. (unpublished data). Therefore, it appears that selective media are playing an important role in the isolation of rare marine *Actinomycetes*. These results clearly reveal that rare or unusual *Actinomycetes* are widely dispersed in marine environments and that they have enormous novel actinobacterial diversity which can be readily obtained using conventional isolation methods.

Marine sediments are rich in actinobacterial diversity. A total of 38 new rare *Actinomycete* species belonging to 15 different *Actinomycete* families have been reported in marine sediments from the period 2007–mid 2013 (Table 3). Among them, nine novel genera such as *Actinotalea*, *Aestuariimicrobium*, *Demequina*, *Marinactinospora*, *Paraoerskovia*, *Sciscionella*, *Marisediminicola*, *Spinactinospora* and *Miniimonas* were reported. The families reported in marine sediments in the period are *Nocardioideae* (four new species), *Micrococccineae* (suborder) (five new species), *Propionibacteriaceae* (three new species), *Pseudonocardiaceae* (five new species), *Nocardioideae* (two new species), *Cellulomonadaceae* (one new species), *Promicromonosporaceae* (two new species), *Micromonosporaceae* (five new species), *Micrococccaceae* (two new species), *Microbacteriaceae* (two new species), *Streptosporangiaceae* (one new species), *Intrasporangiaceae* (two new species), *Beutenbergiaceae* (one new species), *Geodermatophilaceae* (one new species) and *Nocardioideae* (two new species).

The culturability of microorganisms from seawater is considerably lower (0.001–0.10 %) than that from marine sediments (0.25 %) (Amann et al. 1995). Considering the vast volume of seawater in oceans, the extensive microbial diversity for drug discovery efforts should be extended to explore this resource. A total of 11 new rare *Actinomycete* species belonging to six different *Actinomycete* families were reported in seawater from the period 2007 to mid-2013 (Table 4). Among them, four novel genera such as *Marihabitans*, *Ponticoccus*, *Ornithinibacter* and *Oceanitalea* are reported in seawater. The families reported in seawater between 2007 and mid-2013 are *Nocardioideae* (four new species), *Intrasporangiaceae* (two new species), *Propionibacteriaceae* (one new species), *Micrococccineae* (suborder) (one new species), *Micrococccaceae* (two new species) and *Bogoriellaceae* (one new species).

**Table 4** Newly discovered rare *Actinomycetes* from seawater during the period 2007–mid-2013

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Nocardioides marinus</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Seawater around Dokdo island	Not specified	S medium (10 g Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 3 g KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , 1 g K <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> , 30 g NaCl, 0.2 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g CaCl <sub>2</sub> , 0.001 g FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 1 g Casamino acids, 1 g yeast extract, 20 g glucose and 20 g Bacto agar, per litre distilled water)	Choi et al. (2007)
<i>Marihabitans asiaticum</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Intrasporangiaceae</i>	Seawater collected at the Kesennuma ferry port in Miyagi Prefecture	Not specified	1/10 strength marine agar 2216 (Difco)	Kageyama et al. (2008)
<i>Nocardioides salaries</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Seawater was sampled from the surface of the Korean South Sea	Seawater filtered using a syringe filter (0.2 µm) and dispensed into a 20-ml sterile glass vial. Then the 0.2-µm filtered seawater was supplemented with zooplankton and incubated at a temperature close to the in situ temperature (approx. 10–15 °C). After about 1 year, 50 ml aliquots were taken and spread on a isolation medium	Low-nutrient heterotrophic medium [(0.2 µm pore size filtered and autoclaved seawater amended with 1.0 µM NH <sub>4</sub> Cl, 0.1 µM KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , and vitamin mix at a 10 <sup>-4</sup> dilution of stock or an LNHM supplemented with 1× mixed carbons (1× concentrations of carbon mixtures were composed of 0.001 % (w/v) D-glucose, D-ribose, succinic acid, pyruvic acid, glycerol, N-acetyl D-glucosamine, and 0.002 % (v/v) ethanol)]	Kim et al. (2008)
<i>Ponticoccus gilvus</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Propionibacteriaceae</i>	Seawater sample from seashore of Mara Island	A seawater sample (1 l) was filtered with membrane filter (pore size; 0.45 µm). The filter was placed into a sterile falcon tube containing 10 ml distilled water. After mixing for 10 min, aliquots (100 µl) of suspension were directly transferred onto isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee and Lee (2008c)
<i>Nocardioides hwasunensis</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Seawater on Hwasun beach	Aliquots (100 µl) of the water sample were transferred directly onto isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee et al. (2008b)
<i>Brevibacterium marinum</i> / <i>Micrococcineae</i> (suborder)	Seawater collected from Hwasun beach	Aliquots of a seawater sample were directly deposited on isolation medium	Starch-casein agar (starch 10.0 g, KNO <sub>3</sub> 2.0 g, NaCl 2.0 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 2.0 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.05 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.01 g, casein 0.30 g) supplemented with 60 % natural seawater	Lee (2008b)
<i>Aeromicrobium ponti</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Seawater sample collected from Hwasun beach	Seawater sample was spread directly onto isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee and Lee (2008b)
<i>Kocuria gwangalliensis</i> / <i>Micrococcaceae</i>	Seawater collected on the Gwangalli coast	Not specified	Nutrient agar medium (Difco)	Seo et al. (2009)
<i>Arthrobacter halodurans</i> / <i>Micrococcaceae</i>	Seawater collected from the South China Sea	Standard dilution-plating technique	Marine agar 2216 (Difco) supplemented with 0–20 % (w/v) NaCl	Chen et al. (2009a)
<i>Ornithinibacter aureus</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Intrasporangiaceae</i>	Seawater collected in the South China Sea	Standard dilution-plating technique	Modified R2A agar (0.5 g yeast extract, 0.5 g bacto peptone, 0.5 g casein acid hydrolysate, 0.5 g glucose, 0.5 g soluble starch, 0.3 g sodium pyruvate, 15 g agar, 750 ml seawater and 250 ml distilled water)	Xiao et al. 2011a
<i>Oceanitalea nanhaiensis</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Bogoriellaceae</i>	Seawater sample from the South China Sea	Seawater incubated in a rich organic (RO) medium at 28 °C for 10 days	RO medium (g/l: yeast extract 1.0, Bacto peptone 1.0, sodium acetate 1.0, KCl 0.3, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5, CaCl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.05, NH <sub>4</sub> Cl 0.3, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.3, NaCl 20.0 and agar 20 g per litre supplemented with a mixture of vitamins (20 µg of vitamin B <sub>12</sub> , 200 µg of nicotinic acid, 80 µg of biotin, and 400 µg of thiamine) and 1.0 ml per liter of a trace element solution	Fu et al. 2012

Symbiotic microorganisms—especially *Actinomycetes* (Schneemann et al. 2010; Izumi et al. 2010; Abdelmohsen et al. 2010) from marine invertebrates, plants and animals—are now rapidly emerging for drug discovery programmes (Piel 2009). The symbiotic microbial community is highly novel and diverse, and species composition shows temporal and geographic variation (Webster and Hill 2001). Even so, very little information exists about the taxonomic affiliation of marine symbiotic microorganisms (Friedrich et al. 1999). Most symbionts are as-yet unculturable, although significant advances have been made in the development of cultivation-independent techniques to study such bacteria. Since these

methods will likely have a large impact on future chemical studies of symbionts, they will also be discussed because many symbionts remain unidentified (Piel 2009). Interestingly, two novel families such as *Iamiaceae* (Kurahashi et al. 2009) and *Euzebyaceae* (Kurahashi et al. 2010) in *Actinobacteria* were reported from the sea cucumber, *Holothuria edulis* (Table 5). A total of 17 new rare *Actinomycete* species belonging to 11 different *Actinomycete* families have been reported in plants and animals, respectively, between 2007 and mid-2013 (Table 5). Among them, five novel genera *Labeledella*, *Phycicola*, *Iamia*, *Euzebya* and *Koreibacter* were reported from marine alga and

**Table 5** Newly discovered symbiotic rare *Actinomycetes* from marine samples during the period 2007–mid-2013

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Aeromicrobium tamlense</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Dried seaweed	A dried seaweed sample (1 g) was placed into a sterile tube containing 9 ml sterile distilled water. After mixing for 30 min using a tube rotator, aliquots (100 µl) of serial dilutions of the sample were transferred onto isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee and Kim 2007
<i>Labeledella gwakjiensis</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Microbacteriaceae</i>	Dried seaweed	A piece of dried seaweed was transferred directly onto a isolation medium	WAT-SW agar (0.05 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.05 % CaCl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.5 % agar in 60 % natural seawater and 40 % distilled water)	Lee 2007a
<i>Tsukamurella spongiae</i> / <i>Tsukamurellaceae</i>	Deep-water (220 m depth) marine hexactinellid sponge	A small section of the sponge was gently rinsed in sterile natural seawater, cut into smaller pieces and then homogenized at low speed (5,000 rpm) with an ethanol-sterilized high-speed homogenizer. The sponge suspension was then heat-treated (70 °C for 15 min) and plated onto isolation medium	Maltose–seawater agar (2.0 g maltose, 1.0 ml trace metal solution (2.86 g H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub> , 1.81 g MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O, 1.36 g FeEDTA, 0.08 g CuSO <sub>4</sub> ·5H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.049 g Co(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.39 g NaMoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.22 g ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 1 l distilled H <sub>2</sub> O), 1.0 ml PO <sub>4</sub> solution (5.0 g NaH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O, 1 l distilled H <sub>2</sub> O), 1 l filtered seawater, 18 g agar)	Olson et al. 2007
<i>Agrococcus jejuensis</i> / <i>Microbacteriaceae</i>	Dried seaweed	A piece of dried seaweed was transferred directly onto a isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee 2008a
<i>Phycicola gilvus</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Microbacteriaceae</i>	Living seaweed	A seaweed sample (1 g) was placed into a sterile plastic tube containing 9 ml sterile distilled water. After mixing for 30 min using a tube rotator, aliquots (100 µl) of serial dilutions of the sample were transferred onto isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee et al. (2008a)
<i>Saccharopolyspora cebuensis</i> / <i>Pseudonocardiaceae</i>	Philippine sponge <i>Haliclona</i> sp.	Sponge tissues were rinsed 3× in sterile seawater, minced with a razor blade and homogenized. The homogenates of sponge tissues were serially diluted with sterile seawater and 3×100 µl was plated on isolation media	M1 medium (10 g starch, 4 g yeast extract, 2 g peptone and 18 g of agar per litre of artificial seawater)	Pimentel-Elardo et al. (2008)
<i>Nocardiopsis litoralis</i> / <i>Nocardiopsaceae</i>	Sea anemone	Homogenates of a sea anemone by plating 1:10 serial dilutions of the sample on isolation medium	Marine agar 2216 (Difco) supplemented with 10 % (w/v) NaCl	Chen et al. (2009b)
<i>Iamia majanohamensis</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Iamiaceae</i> (novel family)	Abdominal epidermis of a sea cucumber, <i>Holothuria edulis</i>	The collected marine animal was washed several times with sterile seawater. Excised gastrointestinal tracts and attached internal organs were homogenized and diluted serially to a ratio of 1:10 in sterile sea water. Aliquots (0.1 ml each) of the dilution were spread onto a isolation medium	SN medium (750 ppm NaNO <sub>3</sub> , 15.9 ppm K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 5.6 ppm di-sodium EDTA dihydrate, 10.4 ppm Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> , 1.0 ppm vitamin B <sub>12</sub> and 1.0 ppm cyano trace metal solution [(1 l distilled water) <sup>-1</sup> : 6.25 g citric acid·H <sub>2</sub> O, 6.0 g ferric ammonium citrate, 1.4 g MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.39 g Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.025 g Co(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O and 0.222 g ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O] in filtered 75 % seawater)	Kurahashi et al. (2009)
<i>Arthrobacter psychrochitiniphilus</i> / <i>Micrococcaceae</i>	Fresh guano of Antarctic Adelie penguins	The samples were diluted at a ratio of approximately 1:5 (w/v) in distilled water and 100 µl aliquots of the suspension were spread on a isolation medium	M9 agar (12.8 g Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 3 g KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 1 g NH <sub>4</sub> Cl and 1.5 g agar containing 1 % (w/v) colloidal chitin per litre of distilled water)	Wang et al. (2009)
<i>Euzeyha tangerine</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Euzeyhaceae</i> (novel family)	Abdominal epidermis of a sea cucumber, <i>Holothuria edulis</i>	The collected marine animal was washed several times with sterile sea water. Excised gastrointestinal tracts and attached internal organs were homogenized and diluted serially to a ratio of 1:10 in sterile sea water. Aliquots (0.1 ml each) of the dilution were spread onto a isolation medium	SN medium (750 ppm NaNO <sub>3</sub> , 15.9 ppm K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 5.6 ppm disodium EDTA dihydrate, 10.4 ppm Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> , 1.0 ppm vitamin B <sub>12</sub> and 1.0 ppm cyano trace metal solution [(1 l distilled water) <sup>-1</sup> : 6.25 g citric acid·H <sub>2</sub> O, 6.0 g ferric ammonium citrate, 1.4 g MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.39 g Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.025 g Co(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O and 0.222 g ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O] in filtered 75 % seawater)	Kurahashi et al. (2010)
<i>Aeromicrobium halocynthiae</i> / <i>Nocardioideaceae</i>	Siphon tissue of a marine ascidian, <i>Halocynthia roretzi</i>	As soon as the ascidian was collected, it was washed with sterile seawater. The incurrent and excurrent siphon tissues were ground and diluted with autoclaved seawater (ratio of ground tissue to seawater 1:10). The diluted suspension (100 µl) was spread on isolation medium	A1+C agar (10 g starch, 4 g peptone, 2 g yeast extract, 1 g calcium carbonate and 18 g agar in 1 l filtered seawater)	Kim et al. (2010)
<i>Koreibacter algae</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Micrococcineae</i> (suborder)	Unknown seaweed	A piece of dried seaweed was transferred directly onto a isolation medium	SC-SW medium (1 % soluble starch, 0.03 % casein, 0.2 % KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.2 % NaCl, 0.002 % CaCO <sub>3</sub> , 0.005 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 % FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.8 % agar in a 60:40 mixture of natural seawater and distilled water)	Lee and Lee (2010)
<i>Demequina oxidasica</i> / <i>Micrococcineae</i> (suborder)	<i>Zostera marina</i> Linnaeus	Not specified	1/10 Marine agar 2216 (Difco)	Ue et al. (2011a)
<i>Demequina aurantiaca</i> / <i>Micrococcineae</i> (suborder)	Sea alga	Not specified	HSV medium (metal mix X 250 ml, humic acid mix 100 ml, vitamin mix A 4 ml, vitamin B <sub>12</sub> solution 1 ml, cycloheximide 50 mg, griseofluvin 25 mg, nalidixic acid 20 mg, aztreonam 40 mg, agar 20 g and distilled water 650 ml)	Ue et al. (2011a)
<i>Agarivorans gilvus</i> / <i>Alteromonadaceae</i>	Surface of seaweed	The seaweed samples were washed several times with sterile seawater and subsequently put into a centrifuge tube with	Marine agar 2216 (BD)	Du et al. (2011)

**Table 5** (continued)

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Micromonospora yangpuensis</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Cup-shaped marine sponge	sterile seawater and shaken vigorously. Aliquots (0.1 ml each) of the dilution were spread onto isolation medium The sample was homogenized and diluted in series with sterile artificial seawater and then spread onto isolation medium	SMP agar (0.5 g mannitol, 0.1 g peptone, 1,000 ml artificial seawater, 15 g agar)	Zhang et al. (2012)
<i>Nocardioopsis coralliicola</i> / <i>Nocardioopsaceae</i>	Gorgonian coral, <i>Menella praelonga</i>	The coral sample was washed with 75 % (v/v) ethanol and sterilized distilled water, processed in a sterile commercial blender, and 0.2 ml volumes were plated on isolation medium	Trehalose-proline medium (trehalose 1 g, proline 0.5 g, MgCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O 0.2 g, KNO <sub>3</sub> 0.5 g, agar 12 g, 1 l distilled water)	Li et al. (2012a)

animals. The families reported in marine plants and animals during 2007–mid-2013 are *Nocardioideaceae* (two new species), *Microbacteriaceae* (three new species), *Micrococcineae* (suborder) (three new species), *Micrococcaceae* (one new species), *Tsukamurellaceae* (one new species), *Pseudonocardiaceae* (one new species), *Nocardioopsaceae* (two new species), *Iamiaceae* (one new species), *Euzebyaceae* (one new species), *Alteromonadaceae* (one new species) and *Micromonosporaceae* (one new species).

Mangroves are a unique woody plant community of intertidal coasts in tropical and subtropical zones, located at the transition area between the land and the sea (Holguin et al. 2001; Kathiresan and Bingham 2001). They play a very important role as refuge, feeding and breeding areas for many organisms and sustain an extensive food web based on detritus. The mangrove ecosystem is distinguished from other ecosystems by periodic tidal flooding and variable environmental factors such as salinity, tidal gradients and nutrient availability which are believed to be effective selectors for metabolic pathway adaptations that could generate unusual metabolites (Long et al. 2005). This belief has led to increasing exploitation of the mangrove microorganism resources (Alongi 1988; Long et al. 2005; Holguin et al. 2006). A total of 14 new rare *Actinomycete* species belonging to seven different families have been reported in mangrove sediments from the period 2007–mid-2013 (Table 6). Among them, two novel genera, *Ilumatobacter* and *Lysinimicrobium*, were reported from mangrove sediments. The families reported in mangrove sediments between 2007 and mid-2013 are *Micromonosporaceae* (seven new species), *Acidimicrobiaceae* (one new species), *Micrococcineae* (suborder) (one new species), *Promicromonosporaceae* (one new species), *Streptosporangiaceae* (two new species), *Thermomonosporaceae* (one new species) and *Demequinaceae* (one new species). Interestingly, Hamada et al. (2012) reported a novel family *Demequinaceae* from mangrove sediments. Mangrove sediments are an abundant source of *Actinomycetes* population having versatile producers of various enzymes and antimicrobial molecules (Subramani and Narayananasamy 2009).

To conclude, a total of 80 new rare *Actinomycete* species belonging to 23 different rare *Actinomycete* genera, of which 20 novel genera and 3 novel families, have been reported from marine environments, particularly between 2007 and mid-2013 (Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6; Fig. 1). Furthermore, the family *Micromonosporaceae* is dominant in marine habitats; genera *Nocardioideaceae*, *Micrococcineae* (suborder) and *Pseudonocardiaceae* are almost as abundant (Fig. 1). The marine environment, representing more than two thirds of the Earth's surface, is thus a prolific resource for the isolation of less exploited, rare and novel *Actinomycetes*.

### Importance of microbial natural products in novel drug leads

Many of the bacterial pathogens associated with epidemics of human disease have evolved into multidrug-resistant (MDR) forms subsequent to antibiotic use (Davies and Davies 2010). Tuberculosis (TB) is a leading cause of death in the world today and is exacerbated by the prevalence of multi-(MDR-TB), extensively (XDR-TB), and totally (TDR-TB) drug-resistant strains. Cancer is the next leading cause of death worldwide. Although more than 30,000 diseases have been clinically described, less than one third of them can be treated symptomatically and fewer can be cured (Schultz and Tsaklakidis 1997). Therefore, the current shortfall in drugs against multidrug-resistant pathogens and other deadly diseases demands urgent attention to develop new antibiotics (Wright and Sutherland 2007). Concern over the paucity of new antibiotics has raised questions regarding the next source of new chemical entities (NCEs) to meet the challenge of continually emerging resistance (Walsh 2003; Macherla et al. 2007). Between 1981 and 2002, the vast majority of NCEs approved for use as antibiotics were natural product derived (Newman et al. 2003), indicating that nature (in particular microorganisms) offers highly relevant scaffolds for developing therapies in the infectious disease arena. While many of the NCEs approved for use at the end of the past century resulted from semi-synthetic modifications to

**Table 6** Newly discovered rare *Actinomycetes* from mangrove environment during the period 2007–mid-2013

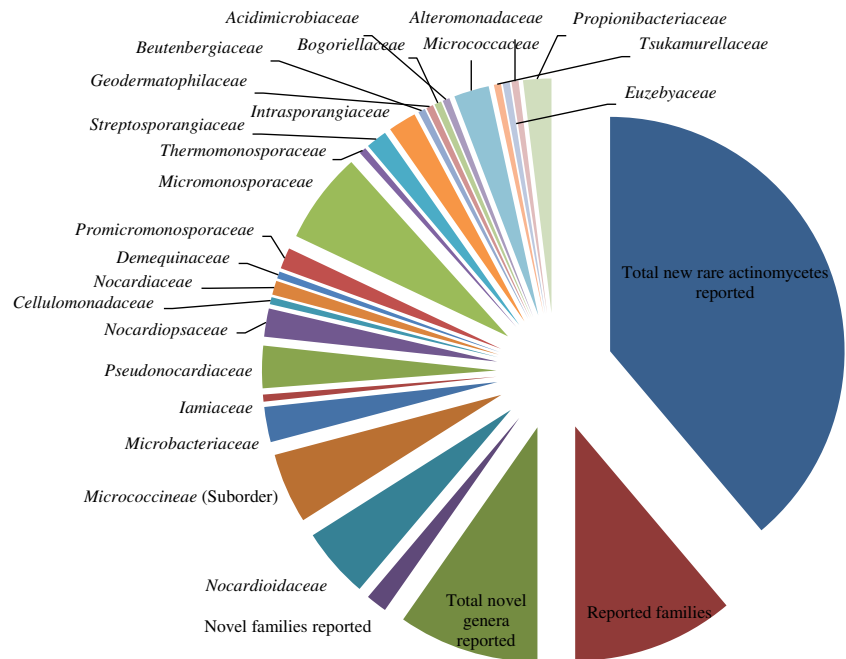
Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Micromonospora rifamycinical</i> <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment from the South China Sea	Standard dilution-planting technique	Gauze no. 1 medium (20 g soluble starch, 1 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O prepared with 1 l of seawater)	Huang et al. (2008)
<i>Micromonospora pattaloongensis</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment from Pattaloong province	Not specified	Starch-casein nitrate agar (starch 10.0 g, KNO <sub>3</sub> 1.0 g, NaCl 2.0 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 2.0 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.05 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.01 g, casein 0.30 g per litre)	Thawai et al. (2008)
<i>Verrucosipora lutea</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment collected from the Shenzhen Futian Mangrove	Not specified	Gauze no. 1 medium (20 g soluble starch, 1 g KNO <sub>3</sub> , 0.5 g NaCl, 0.5 g MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.5 g K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 10 mg FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O prepared with 1 l of seawater)	Liao et al. (2009)
<i>Itumatobacter fluminis</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Actinomicrobiaceae</i>	Sediment sample collected at the Kuiragawa river	The sample (0.5 cm <sup>3</sup> ) was homogenized with a glass rod in 5 ml of sterile seawater. The homogenate (50 µl) was used to isolate a bacterium on medium	R medium (NaCl 25 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 9 g, CaCl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O 0.14 g, KCl 0.7 g, Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> ·12H <sub>2</sub> O 0.25 g, Na <sub>2</sub> -EDTA 30 mg, H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub> 34 mg, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 10 mg, FeCl <sub>3</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O 1.452 mg, MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O 4.32 mg, ZnCl <sub>2</sub> 0.312 mg, CoCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O 0.12 mg, NaBr 6.4 mg, Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O 0.63 mg, SrCl <sub>2</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O 3.04 mg, RbCl 0.1415 mg, LiCl 0.61 mg, KI 0.00655 mg, V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> 0.001785 mg, cycloheximide 50 mg, griseofluvin 25 mg, nalidixic acid 20 mg, aztreonam 40 mg, RPM11640 500 mg, eagle medium 500 mg, L-glutamine 15 mg, NaHCO <sub>3</sub> 100 mg, agar 20 g and distilled water 1 l)	Matsumoto et al. (2009)
<i>Denequina salsinensis</i> / <i>Micrococcineae</i> (suborder)	Mangrove sediment of Amami Island	Standard dilution-planting technique	GPM agar (1 % glucose, 0.5 % peptone, 0.5 % meat extract, 0.3 % NaCl, 1.2 % agar) containing benlate (20 mg l <sup>-1</sup> ), DuPont) with ascorbic acid (440 mg l <sup>-1</sup> ) or rutin (120 mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	Matsumoto et al. (2010)
<i>Isoptericola chiayiensis</i> / <i>Promicromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment collected in Chiayi County	Not specified	Humic acid vitamin agar (humic acid 1.0 g, KCl 1.7 g, Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g, B vitamins (0.5 mg each of thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxin, calcium d-pantothenate, inositol, p-aminobenzoic acid and 0.25 mg biotin), cycloheximide 50 mg; nalidixic acid 20 mg, agar 15.0 g per litre of distilled water)	Tseng et al. (2011)
<i>Micromonospora rhizosphaerae</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Rhizosphere sediment of mangrove, <i>Excocaria agallocha</i>	One gram of sediment was heated in a hot air oven at 120 °C for 60 min, treated with a solution of 1.0 % chloramine-T for 20 min and diluted to 10 <sup>-2</sup> , then 100 µl of the resultant solution was inoculated on isolation medium	Humic acid vitamin agar (humic acid 1.0 g, KCl 1.7 g, Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g, B vitamins (0.5 mg each of thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxin, calcium d-pantothenate, inositol, p-aminobenzoic acid and 0.25 mg biotin), cycloheximide 50 mg; nalidixic acid 20 mg, agar 15.0 g per litre of distilled water)	Wang et al. (2011a)
<i>Nonomuraea wenchangensis</i> / <i>Streptosporangiaceae</i>	Rhizosphere sediment of mangrove, <i>Bruguiera sexangula</i>	The soil sample was heat treated at 100 °C for 1 h after being air-dried at room temperature for 7 days, and treated with a solution of chloramine-T (1 %, w/v). The pretreated soil sample was diluted 1:10 (v/v) with sterile 1/4 Ringer's solution (K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.38 %, KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> 0.12 %, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.51 %, NaCl 0.25 %, Fe <sub>2</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.005 %, MnSO <sub>4</sub> 0.005 %) and serially diluted. One hundred microlitres of the 10 <sup>-1</sup> to 10 <sup>-3</sup> suspensions were spread on isolation medium	Humic acid-vitamin medium (humic acid 1.0 g, KCl 1.7 g, Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g, B vitamins (0.5 mg each of thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxin, calcium d-pantothenate, inositol, p-aminobenzoic acid and 0.25 mg biotin), cycloheximide 50 mg; nalidixic acid 20 mg, agar 15.0 g per litre of distilled water)	Wang et al. (2011b)
<i>Verrucosipora qituae</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove swamp sediment in Sanya	The sediment sample was dried at room temperature, suspended in sterile distilled water and diluted in series; the suspensions		Xi et al. (2011a)



Table 6 (continued)

Strain/family	Source	Pretreatment of sample/enrichment culture	Isolated medium	Reference
<i>Asanoa hainanensis</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Rhizosphere sediment of mangrove fern <i>Acrostichum speciosum</i>	were then heated in an oven at 100 °C for 60 min. The heat-treated suspensions were plated on isolation medium	Oatmeal agar [ISP 3 medium; oatmeal 20.0 g, trace salts solution (FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.1 g, deionized water 100.0 ml) 1.0 ml, agar 18.0 g per litre]	Xu et al. (2011)
<i>Micribispora hainanensis</i> / <i>Streptosporangiaceae</i>	Rhizosphere sediment of mangrove, <i>Excoecaria agallocha</i>	One gram sample of sediment was heated in a hot air oven at 100 °C for 60 min and diluted × 10 <sup>-2</sup> with quarter-strength Ringer's solution before sonicating for 10 min in order to disperse the soil. Then, 100 µl volumes of the suspensions were inoculated on to isolation medium Not specified	Glucose asparagine medium (glucose 1 %, asparagine 0.1 %, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.1 %, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.0001 %, MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O 0.0001 %, ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.001 %, agar 1.5 %)  Humic acid vitamin agar (humic acid 1.0 g, KCl 1.7 g, Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 0.5 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.5 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.01 g, B vitamins (0.5 mg each of thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxin, calcium d-pantothenate, inositol, p-aminobenzoic acid and 0.25 mg biotin), cycloheximide 50 mg; nalidixic acid 20 mg, agar 15.0 g per litre of distilled water)  Kuster's agar (glycerol 10 g, casein 0.3 g, KNO <sub>3</sub> 2 g, NaCl 20 g, K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> 2 g, MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.05 g, CaCO <sub>3</sub> 0.02 g, FeSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O 0.01 g, agar 15 g and distilled water 1,000 ml)	Xu et al. (2012)  He et al. (2012)
<i>Actinomadura sediminis</i> / <i>Thermomonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment collected from Dugong Creek	Sediment (1 g) was added to 9 ml sterile distilled water and mixed by vortexing. A 10-fold dilution of this suspension was prepared in sterilized distilled water and 0.1 ml was spread on isolation medium		
<i>Lysinicrobium mangrovi</i> (novel genus)/ <i>Demequinaceae</i> (novel family)	Rhizosphere sediment of mangrove, <i>Bruguiera gymnorhiza</i>	Approximately 1 g of the sample was diluted 10 <sup>-1</sup> , 100- and 1,000-fold with saline before 0.2 ml of each dilution was spread on isolation medium	NBRC medium 802 (0.2 % polypeptone, 0.04 % yeast extract, 0.02 % MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O and 1.5 % agar) supplemented with 5.0 % NaCl.	Hamada et al. (2012)
<i>Micromonospora maritima</i> / <i>Micromonosporaceae</i>	Mangrove sediment from Samut Sakhon Province	Not specified	Starch-casein nitrate agar (10 g starch, 0.3 g sodium caseinate (Difco), 2 g KNO <sub>3</sub> and 15 g agar per litre)	Songsumanus et al. (2013)

**Fig. 1** Total number of new/novel families, genera and rare *Actinomycete* strains reported from marine habitats between 2007 and mid-2013



compounds discovered during the ‘Golden Age’ of antibiotics, some recent discoveries indicate that alternative technologies are providing access to new antibiotic scaffolds (Clardy et al. 2006). One approach—which maintains credence in the historic success of microbial-derived NCEs—is to culture new microorganisms from unique natural environments as a source of novel chemistry. A genus previously unexploited from unexplored habitats in the natural product screening collection warrants particular attention, as suggested by Donadio et al. (2002). Recent reports on the isolation and characterization of novel *Actinomycetes* from poorly researched habitats illustrate the potential of this approach (Bredholt et al. 2008; Eccleston et al. 2008; Okoro et al. 2009). Therefore, screening such organisms and the prospect of discovering new natural products increases which can later be developed as a resource for biotechnology. Despite the vastness of the Earth’s oceans and their inherent biodiversity, the marine environment remains a largely untapped source of new microorganisms, and evidence has emerged that focused exploration of the marine environment will yield unprecedented, chemically prolific species (Fenical and Jensen 2006).

There are more than 22,000 known microbial secondary metabolites, 70 % of which are produced by *Actinomycetes*, 20 % from fungi, 7 % from *Bacillus* spp. and 1–2 % by other bacteria. Among the *Actinomycetes*, the streptomycetes group is economically important because out of the approximately more than 10,000 known antibiotics, 50–55 % are produced by that genus (Berdy 2005; Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012). *Actinomycetes* are the most economically and biotechnologically useful prokaryotes and hold a prominent position due to their diversity and proven ability to produce novel

bioactive compounds (Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012; Blunt et al. 2013). To date, nearly 400 new compounds with cytotoxicity and antimicrobial activity have been isolated from marine *Actinomycetes* (Proksch and Muller 2006; Fenical and Jensen 2006; Blunt et al. 2009, 2010, 2011). The ecological role of *Actinomycetes* in the marine ecosystem is largely neglected and various assumptions meant there was little incentive to isolate marine strains for search and discovery of new drugs. The search for and discovery of rare and new *Actinomycetes* is of significant interest to drug discovery due to a growing need for the development of new and potent therapeutic agents (Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012).

#### Rare *Actinomycetes* as a source of new antibiotics

Recently, non-streptomycete *Actinomycetes* (rare *Actinomycetes*) have increased significantly up to ~25–30 % share of all known antibiotics (Tishkov 2001; Berdy 2005). Given this, the probability of finding a new compound of economic significance using conventional methodologies of microbial isolation and assay is remote. Efforts to find organisms producing novel antibiotics require either high-throughput screening or specific sampling methods or selections that enrich the unexamined subsets of *Actinomycetes* (Tiwari and Gupta 2012b). Tiwari and Gupta (2012b) recently reviewed bioactive compounds reported from different genera of rare *Actinomycetes* obtained from various natural habitats. They conclude that many of the successful antimicrobial agents currently available in the market are produced by rare *Actinomycetes*, like rifamycins by *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*,

erythromycin by *Saccharopolyspora erythraea*, teicoplanin by *Actinoplanes teichomyceticus*, vancomycin by *Amycolatopsis orientalis*, gentamicin from *Micromonospora purpurea* and a chronological sequence of antibiotic compounds discovered as products of *Micromonospora* spp., *Actinoplanes* spp. and *Streptosporangium* spp. (Cooper et al. 1990; Lancini and Lorenzetti 1993; Lazzarini et al. 2000; Pfefferle et al. 2000). Among the available rare *Actinomycetes* genera, *Amycolatopsis*, *Saccharopolyspora*, *Actinoplanes* and *Micromonospora* have been exploited as a prolific source of novel secondary metabolites (Geok et al. 2007; Murakami et al. 2007; Renu et al. 2008; Zhuge et al. 2008; Igarashi et al. 2008; Berdnikova et al. 2009; Beth et al. 2009; Liras and Demain 2009; Zhang et al. 2009; Dharmendra et al. 2010; Dasari et al. 2012); however, lesser exploited rare genera such as *Actinomadura*, *Nocardopsis*, *Dactylosporangium*, *Kibdelosporangium*, *Microbispora*, *Kitasatospora*, *Planomonospora*, *Planobispora*, *Salinispora*, *Marinispora*, *Serinicoccus* and *Verrucosipora* are now drawing attention. These impacts emphasize the need to continue research in this area and the investments in rare *Actinomycetes* can be considered as being completely warranted.

#### Novel/new metabolites from marine rare *Actinomycetes*

This review also tried to update the information on rare *Actinomycetes* obtained from marine habitats and the antibiotic compounds identified from other groups of marine rare *Actinomycetes* during 2007–mid-2013. Table 7 shows some examples of new bioactive metabolites isolated from marine rare *Actinomycetes* from 2007 to mid-2013. This is by no means an exhaustive search of all novel secondary metabolites produced by marine rare *Actinomycetes* genera during this 6-year period; nevertheless, this list is impressive and illustrates the many different diverse structures with biological activities reported. Among them, a few compounds such as groups of abyssomicins, proximicins, thiocoralines and gifhornenolones produced by *Verrucosipora* spp. and lipoxazolidinones, lynamincins and marinisporolides produced by *Marinispora* spp. (Figs. 2, 3 and 4) are of particular interest due to their rarity, potency and diverse bioactivity. The recently isolated rare and first marine obligate genus *Salinispora* produced an array of novel metabolites which have previously been discussed (Subramani and Aalbersberg 2012).

Now, emphasizing another interesting rare *Actinomycete* genus *Verrucosipora* is quite limited presumably due to its limited distribution in the marine environment. Recently, *Verrucosipora* spp. produced an array of new and novel abyssomicins (Fig. 2), a new class of unique polycyclic natural products with potent antibacterial, antitubercular, antitumor and anti-Bacille Calmette Guerin activity (Keller et al. 2007a, b; Wang et al. 2013b). Abyssomicins are of great

significance since these molecules are the first to inhibit biosynthesis of *para*-aminobenzoic acid biosynthetic pathway, a pathway essential for many microorganisms but absent in humans (Riedlinger et al. 2004; Keller et al. 2007b). Ongoing interest in the synthesis, biosynthesis and pharmacology of the abyssomicins has fuelled further exploration of this interesting class of compounds and perhaps may lead to related derivatives with better biological profiles (Wang et al. 2013b). The recent first complete genome sequence of *Verrucosipora* sp. increased the expectancy from this group of strains in novel biodiscovery efforts (Roh et al. 2011).

Proximicins (Fig. 3), novel aminofuran antibiotics also produced by *Verrucosipora* spp., bear the hitherto unknown  $\gamma$ -amino acid 4-aminofuran-2-carboxylic acid moiety, which adds a new element of structural diversity to the previously described heterocyclic antibiotics (Fiedler et al. 2008; Schneider et al. 2008). The biological activity of proximicins did not show appreciable antibacterial activity against drug-resistant human pathogens. However, they displayed potent antitumor activity against a range of human tumor cell lines.

Gifhornenolones A and B (Fig. 2) are new terpenoids isolated from the marine ascidian-associated *Verrucosipora gifhornensis*. The biological activity of gifhornenolone A showed potent inhibitory activity to the androgen receptor (Shirai et al. 2010).

Thiochondrillines (Fig. 3), analogs of thiocoraline, are potent cytotoxic thiopeptides isolated from the sponge-associated *Verrucosipora* sp. (Wyche et al. 2011). The marine environment, which harbours over 20 million microbes (Qui 2010), has provided several microbial-derived compounds, such as salinosporamide A (Feling et al. 2003), TZT-1027 (Kobayashi et al. 1997) and ILX-651 (Mita et al. 2006) that are currently in clinical trials (Mayer et al. 2010). Among the list of microbial-derived marine natural products with therapeutic relevance is thiocoraline, a potential candidate for clinical trials (Faircloth et al. 1997). Thiocoraline and its analogs have potent cytotoxic properties against a wide range of human cancer cell lines (Romero et al. 1997; Erba et al. 1999; Negri et al. 2007; Wyche et al. 2011).

Lipoxazolidinones A–C (Fig. 4) are novel 2-alkylidene-5-alkyl-4-oxazolidinones isolated from novel and rare genus *Marinispora* (Macherla et al. 2007). The biological activity of lipoxazolidinones exhibited broad spectrum antimicrobial activity similar to that of the commercial antibiotic linezolid (Zyvox), a 2-oxazolidinone (Macherla et al. 2007). Hydrolysis of the amide bond of the 4-oxazolidinone ring of lipoxazolidinone A resulted in loss of antibacterial activity. The 2-alkylidene-4-oxazolidinone represents a new antibiotic pharmacophore and is unprecedented in nature.

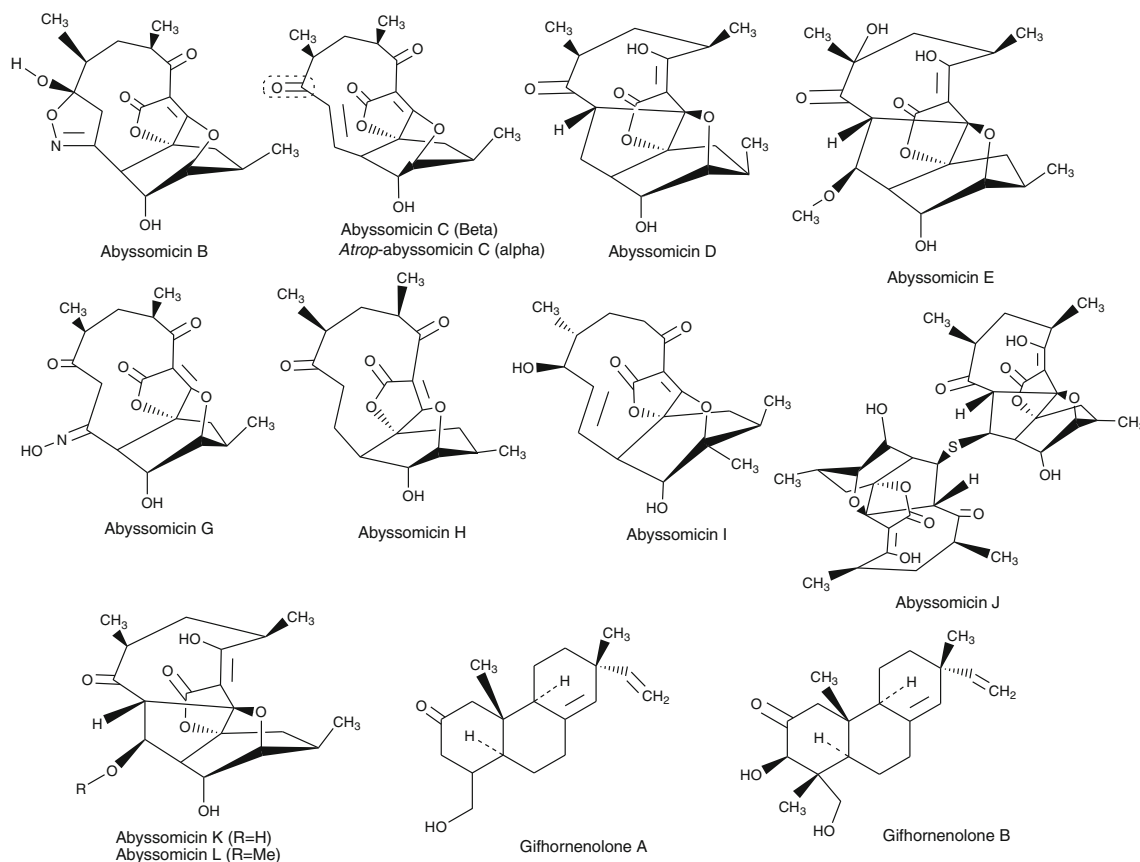
Lynamincins A–E (Fig. 4) are chlorinated bisindole pyrroles isolated from the rare *Actinomycete* *Marinispora* sp. (McArthur et al. 2008). The antimicrobial spectrum of lynamincins was evaluated against a panel of 11 pathogens,

**Table 7** Novel/new bioactive compounds produced by marine rare *Actinomycetes* between 2007 and mid-2013

Compound	Marine source	Biological activity	Reference
3-((6-Methylpyrazin-2-yl)methyl)-1H-indole	<i>Serinicoccus profundi</i>	Weak antibacterial	Yang et al. (2013)
Juvenimicin C	<i>Micromonospora</i> sp.	Chemopreventive activity	Carlson et al. (2013)
Kocurin	<i>Kocuria</i> sp.	Antibacterial	Palomo et al. (2013)
Nocazines D and E	<i>Nocardiopsis alba</i>	Weak cytotoxicity	Zhang et al. (2013)
Abyssomicins J–L	<i>Verrucosipora</i> sp.	Antitubercul	Wang et al. (2013b)
Pyridinium	<i>Amycolatopsis alba</i>	Antibacterial, anticancer	Dasari et al. (2012)
Anthracyclines 1–4	<i>Micromonospora</i> sp.	Anticancer	Sousa et al. (2012)
atrop-abysomicin C and proximicin A	<i>Verrucosipora maris</i>	Antibacterial, antitubercul, antitumor	Roh et al. (2011)
Levantilides A and B	<i>Micromonospora</i> sp.	Antiproliferative activity	Gärtner et al. (2011)
Bipyridines 1–5 and Caerulomycins F–K	<i>Actinoalloteichus cyanogriseus</i>	Cytotoxic	Fu et al. (2011)
Bendigoles D–F	<i>Actinomadura</i> sp.	Cytotoxic, inhibitor of NF- $\kappa$ B nuclear translocation	Simmons et al. (2011)
Thiocoralines 1–5	<i>Verrucosipora</i> sp.	Anticancer	Wyche et al. (2011)
Salinosporamide K	<i>Salinispora pacifica</i>	Proteasome inhibitor	Eustaquio et al. (2011)
Pseudonocardians A–C	<i>Pseudonocardia</i> sp.	Antibacterial, anticancer	Li et al. (2011)
Thiopeptide TP-1161	<i>Nocardiopsis</i> sp.	Antibacterial	Engelhardt et al. (2010)
Fijiolides A and B	<i>Nocardiopsis</i> sp.	Inhibitor of TNF- $\alpha$ induced NF $\kappa$ B activation	Nam et al. (2010)
Nocardiopsins A and B	<i>Nocardiopsis</i> sp.	Immunosuppressive agents	Raju et al. (2010)
Arenimycin	<i>Salinispora arenicola</i>	Antibacterial, anticancer	Asolkar et al. (2010)
Gifhornenolones A and B	<i>Verrucosipora gifhornensis</i>	Inhibitor to androgen receptor	Shirai et al. (2010)
Saliniquinones A–F	<i>Salinispora arenicola</i>	Potent cytostatic	Murphy et al. (2010)
Dermacozines (A–G)	<i>Dermacoccus abyssi</i>	Highest radical scavenger activity, moderate cytotoxic	Abdel-Mageed et al. (2010)
Phthalates	<i>Nocardia levis</i>	Antibacterial, antifungal	Kavitha et al. (2009)
Lodopyridone	<i>Saccharomonospora</i> sp.	Anticancer	Maloney et al. (2009)
Marinisporolides A and B	<i>Marinispora</i> sp.	Weak antifungal	Kwon et al. (2009)
Rifamycin S	<i>Micromonospora rifamycinica</i>	Antibacterial	Huang et al. (2009)
FW03-1149	<i>Micromonospora</i> sp.	Antifungal	Yi-lei et al. (2009)
Ayamycin	<i>Nocardia</i> sp.	Antibacterial, antifungal	El-Gendy et al. (2008)
Proximicins A–C	<i>Verrucosipora</i> sp.	Cytostatic, weak antibacterial, antitumor	Fiedler et al. (2008); Schneider et al. (2008)
Pacificanones A and B	<i>Salinispora pacifica</i>	Antibacterial	Oh et al. (2008)
Salinipyrones A and B	<i>Salinispora pacifica</i>	Mild cytotoxicity	
Lynamicins A–E	<i>Marinispora</i> sp.	Antibacterial	McArthur et al. (2008)
Lucentamycins A–D	<i>Nocardiopsis lucentensis</i>	Cytotoxic	Cho et al. (2007)
Lipoxazolidinones A–C	<i>Marinispora</i> sp.	Antimicrobial	Macherla et al. (2007)
Abyssomicins G, H and atrop-Abyssomicin C	<i>Verrucosipora</i> sp.	Antibacterial	Keller et al. (2007a)
Kitastatin 1	<i>Kitasatospora</i> sp.	Anticancer, antibacterial, antifungal	Pettit et al. (2007)
Salinosporamide A	<i>Salinispora tropica</i>	Anticancer, antimalarial	Jensen et al. (2007); Prudhomme et al. (2008)
Sporolide A	<i>Salinispora tropica</i>	Unknown	Jensen et al. (2007)
Saliniketal	<i>Salinispora arenicola</i>	Cancer chemoprevention	
Cyanosporaside A	<i>Salinispora pacifica</i>	Unknown	
Salinispyrone	<i>Salinispora pacifica</i>	Unknown	
Arenicolides A–C	<i>Salinispora arenicola</i>	Mild cytotoxicity	Williams et al. (2007b)

which demonstrated that these substances possess broad spectrum activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative

pathogens. Significantly, lynamicins were active against drug-resistant pathogens such as methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus*



**Fig. 2** Array of new abyssomicins and gifhornenolones produced by rare *Verrucosipora* spp.

*aureus* and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* (McArthur et al. 2008).

In addition, marinisporolides A and B (Fig. 4) are polyene-polyol macrolides also isolated from *Marinispora* sp. (Kwon et al. 2009). The marinisporolides are 34-membered macrolides composed of a conjugated pentaene and several pairs of 1,3-dihydroxyl functionalities and show interesting photoreactivity and chiroptical properties. Marinisporolide A contains a bicyclic spiro-bis-tetrahydropyran ketal functionality, while marinisporolide B is the corresponding hemiketal.

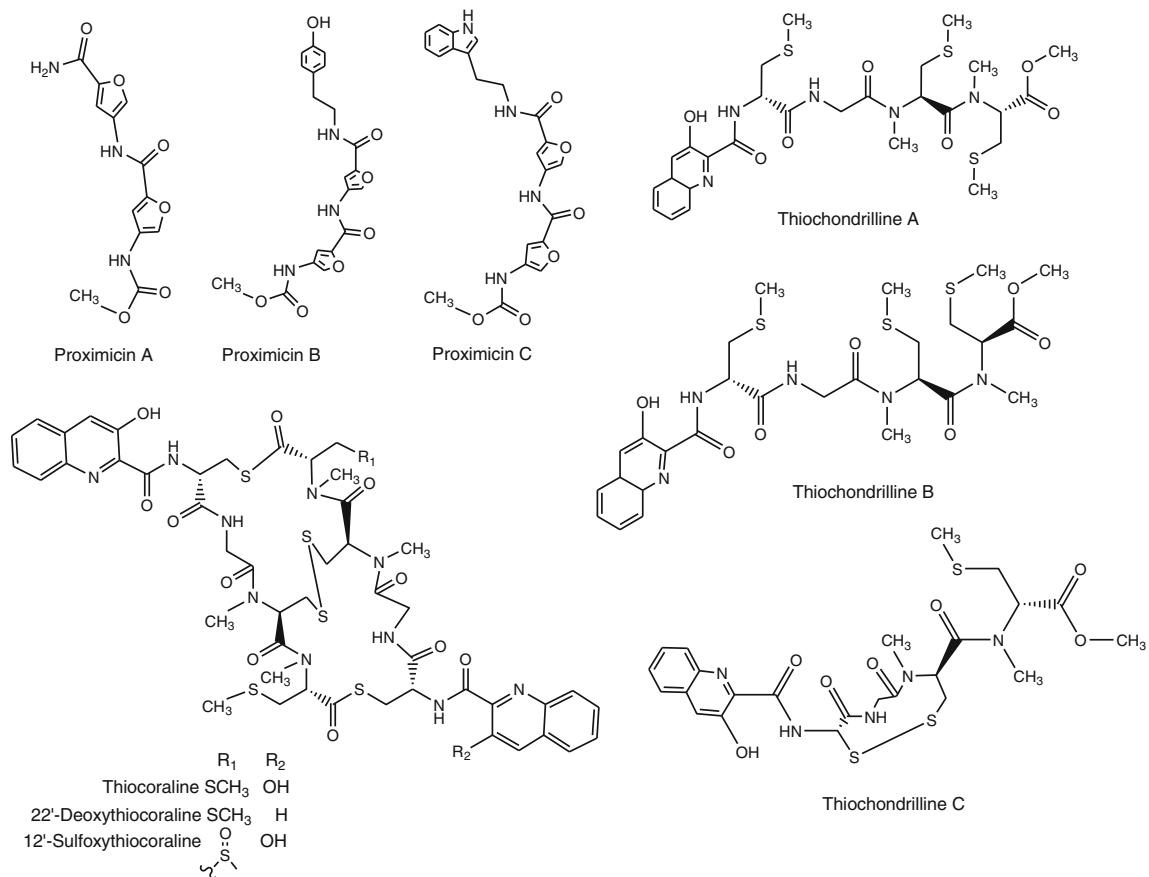
These highlighted structures, chemical diversity, biological properties and discovery of these new compounds (Table 7; Figs. 2, 3 and 4) continue to indicate that rare and new/novel *Actinomycetes* of the genera will be a significant resource for structurally/biologically interesting molecules.

## Conclusions

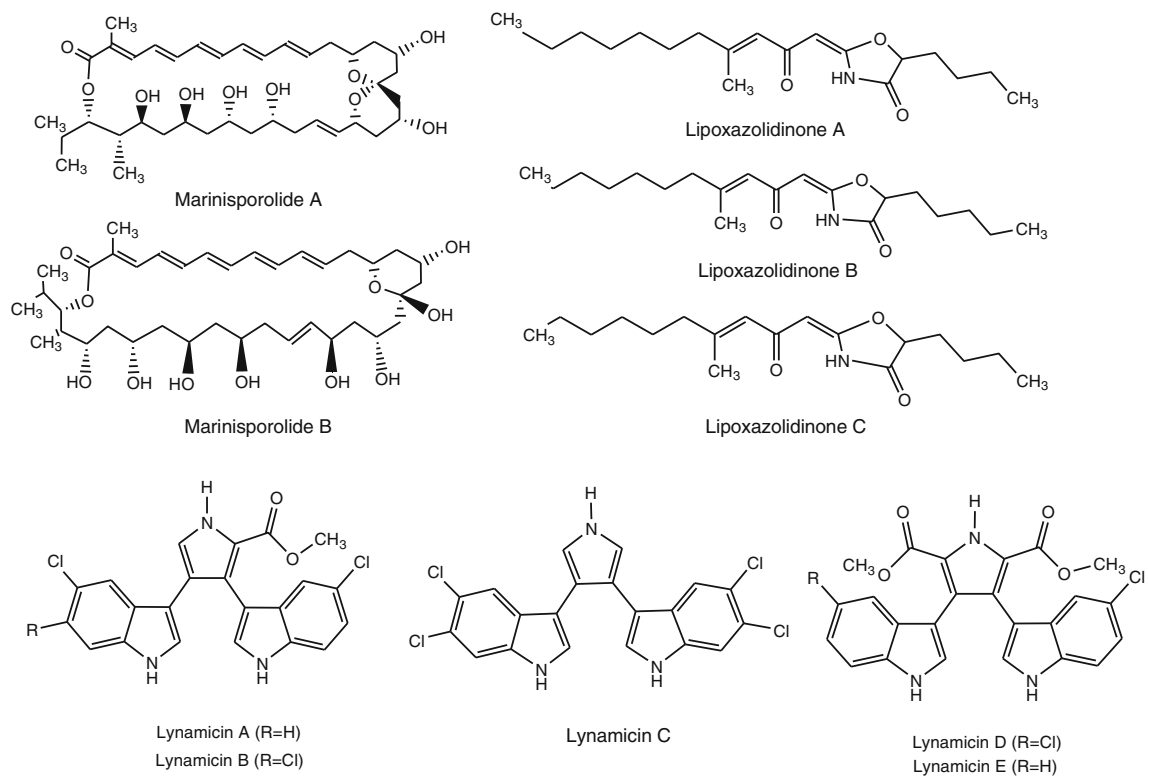
Over the past three decades, the marine environment has continuously been providing a number of new/novel *Actinomycetes* and bioactive compounds, but the potential of this area still remains virtually unexplored. Until recently, microbiologists were greatly limited in their study of natural microbial ecosystems due to an inability to cultivate most

naturally occurring microorganisms (Cragg and Newman 2005). The marine environment is huge and harbours an enormous hidden microbial diversity. As-yet undiscovered and unusual or rare microorganisms may contain possible cures for diseases demanding new antibiotics to combat the multidrug-resistant human pathogens and emerging deadly diseases. Application of selective isolation and enriched methods can lead to the discovery of new/novel and rare bioactive *Actinobacteria* from marine ecological niches having the potential to biosynthesize novel bioactive compounds. As summarized in this review, a combination of different pretreatment techniques along with suitable selective isolation media, enrichment culture supplemented with specific antibiotics, enabled the isolation of rare and novel *Actinomycetes* and the production of unusual bioactive metabolites.

Furthermore as reviewed above, the marine environment contains a myriad of new and rare *Actinobacteria* providing novel structural diversity waiting to be discovered and used in the biotechnological and pharmaceutical industries. Even so, the study on marine rare *Actinobacteria* is just beginning. Researchers are in the early stages of a renaissance in natural product discovery from marine *Actinobacteria*. It is now known that new *Actinomycete* taxa occur in the ocean and that some display specific adaptations for their life in the marine environment (Mincer et al. 2002; Jensen et al. 2005a,



**Fig. 3** Array of new proximicins and thiocoralines produced by rare *Verrucospora* spp.



**Fig. 4** Some new/novel secondary metabolites produced by rare *Marinispora* spp.

2007). These taxa include the chemically prolific genera *Salinispora* and *Marinispora* which produce exciting new and novel structural classes of secondary metabolites. In this line, another rare *Actinomycete* genus, *Verrucosipora*, is also proving to be a productive source of new metabolites such as the abyssomicins. In addition, the rare *Actinomycetes* obtained from marine sediments are metabolically active and produce interesting bioactive molecules (Dai et al. 2010; Goodfellow et al. 2012a, b; Tian et al. 2013). These results provide clear evidence that targeting rare and new/novel marine *Actinomycete* genera and species will lead to the discovery of new chemotypes with significant biological activity and the potential to become leads for drug discovery.

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