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## 1 Multiplication of microbes below 0.690 water activity: implications for terrestrial and 2 extraterrestrial life

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28 Running title: Multiplication of microbes at low water-activity

29

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 xerophilic fungi, water activity

33 Summary

#### 34

Since a key requirement of known life-forms is available water (water-activity; a<sub>w</sub>), searches 35 for signatures of past life in terrestrial and extraterrestrial environments have recently 36 37 targeted places known to have contained significant quantities of biologically available water. 38 The lower limit of water activity that enables cell division is ~0.605 which, until now, was only 39 known to be exhibited by a single eukaryote; the sugar-tolerant, fungal xerophile Xeromyces 40 bisporus. The first forms of life on Earth were, however, prokaryotic. Furthermore, early life on Earth inhabited high-salt environments, suggesting an ability to withstand low water-41 42 activity. Recent evidence indicates that some halophilic Archaea and Bacteria have wateractivity limits more or less equal to those of X. bisporus. Regardless of species, cellular 43 44 systems are sensitive to minute differences in water activity (of <0.005 a<sub>w</sub>-units) so there is a need to determine water-activity values to three decimal places. We discuss water activity in 45 46 relation to the limits of Earth's present-day biosphere; the possibility of microbial 47 multiplication by utilizing water from thin, aqueous films or non-liquid sources; whether prokaryotes were the first organisms able to multiply at the 0.605-aw limit; and whether 48 49 extraterrestrial aqueous milieu of  $\geq 0.605$  a<sub>w</sub> can resemble fertile microbial habitats found on Earth. 50

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#### 54 Introduction

Given the fact that water is one of the principal ingredients of cellular life (Daniel et al., 55 2004), insights into the minimum water requirements of cells are imperative to understanding 56 57 the functionality of living-systems at every level (from biomacromolecule to biosphere), as well as the origins of life, in an environmental context. The generally held opinion is that life 58 59 appeared independently on Earth and, possibly, elsewhere in the Solar System (Clancy et al., 2005); though one other explanation for the presence of life on Earth is that it appeared 60 61 on another planet and was transported here in the form of prokaryotes or their ancestors (an 62 idea known as panspermia; Thomson, 1871). Until recently, eukaryotic microbes have held 63 the record for life under water-constrained conditions, as some species are capable of cell division down to a water activity  $(a_w)^1$  of 0.605 at high sugar concentrations (Pitt and 64 65 Christian, 1968; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009). Whereas such data have formed the basis 66 of international policy for planetary protection in relation to space-exploration missions (see

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Water activity, the mole fraction of water, is defined by an equation (water activity = vapour pressure of the solution/vapour pressure of the water) which is derived from Raoult's Law; this parameter and its derivation are discussed in detail by Brown (1990) and Grant (2004).

67 below), sugar-rich substrates have very limited applicability to those extraterrestrial habitats 68 with which we are familiar. Historically, the accepted limit for cell division of prokaryotic microbes has been 0.755 aw; this applied to a small fraction of halophilic species at high salt 69 concentrations (for references, see Grant, 2004). However, both culture-based and culture-70 71 independent studies provide evidence for multiplication and metabolic activity of halophilic Archaea and Bacteria in the range 0.680 to 0.605 a<sub>w</sub>, both in their natural habitats in situ, 72 and in vitro (Javor, 1984; Yakimov et al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). Other studies 73 74 have shown that, whereas the vast majority of yeasts and fungi are active somewhere within the range 1 to 0.720 a<sub>w</sub> (Pitt, 1975; Brown, 1976), only ~12 species have been observed to 75 grow and/or germinate at < 0.700 a<sub>w</sub> (Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; A. Stevenson et al., 76 submitted). Here, we discuss the evidence for microbial activity below at or below 0.690, 77 78 which represents the very edge of the functional biosphere on Earth. Low water activity is 79 also discussed in relation to early life on Earth, the plausibility of cell division in habitable extraterrestrial environments in which biologically available water is present, and a series of 80 unanswered scientific questions. 81

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#### 83 Water-activity at the outer edges of the microbial biosphere

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The primary physical determinants of the habitable space on Earth are temperature and 85 water activity; these parameters are also used to designate the 'Special Regions' of Mars in 86 which microbial cell-division might feasibly take place (Beaty et al., 2006; Kminek et al., 87 88 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished)<sup>2</sup>. The temperature window over which microbes are, 89 collectively, capable of cell division (i.e. from -18 to +122°C; Takai et al., 2008; Chin et al., 2010) spans  $\leq$  40% of the entire range of temperatures to which life-systems on Earth can 90 91 be exposed; i.e. from approximately -90°C to  $\geq$  250°C (for some hydrothermal vents; Fig. 92 1a). By contrast, environmental water-activity values range from 1 to 0 and most cellular 93 systems of known life-forms on Earth are only active in the range, or a segment of the range. 94 1 to 0.900 a<sub>w</sub> (Fig. 1b; Brown, 1976; Grant, 2004). For example, there is a drop-off in 95 measurable metabolic activity in many soils at  $\leq 0.890$  a<sub>w</sub> (Moyano et al., 2012; 2013; 96 Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014). However, metabolic activity and cell-division has been

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Planetary protection in relation to space missions aims to protect those planets where spacecraft are landed, as well as Earth, from accidental contamination with non-native life-forms (Kminek et al., 2010; 2014). Mars Special Regions have been defined according to the activities of the NASA Mars Exploration Program Analysis Group (MEPAG), Special Regions-Scientific Analysis Group 1 (SR-SAG1) and the Committee on Space Research (COSPAR), which is part of the International Council for Science. Both these committees conservatively recommended 0.500 aw as the limit beyond which no known terrestrial microorganism is capable of multiplication; implying that any environment of Mars with a water activity of > 0.500 may potentially enable proliferation of xerophilic microbes if they happened to arrive as accidental passengers on spacecraft sent from Earth (Fig. 1; Beaty et al., 2006; Kminek et al., 2010). A revised analysis of Mars Special Regions is currently underway by the MEPAG SR-SAG2 (J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished).

97 reported below 0.900 aw for a great number of xerotolerant/philic and halotolerant/philic 98 microbes (Brown, 1976; Grant, 2004), and even below 0.755 aw for both eukayotic and 99 prokaryotic species (Javor, 1984; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; Yakimov et al., 2014; A. 100 Stevenson et al., submitted). Of the microbes known to multiply below 0.720, the majority 101 (unlike X. bisporus) are not obligate osmophiles that must inhabit sugar-rich substrates; 102 these include halophilic prokaryotes and xerophilic fungi such as Aspergillus penicilliodes and Eurotium herbarorium (Samson and Lustgraaf, 1978; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; 103 104 Yakimov et al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted)<sup>3</sup>. Even for the most xerophilic microbes thus far characterized (see Pitt, 1975; Javor, 1984; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; A. 105 Stevenson et al., submitted), rates of cell division typically decrease by an order of 106 107 magnitude between 0.870 and 0.770 a<sub>w</sub>, and by a further order of magnitude between 0.770 108 and 0.670 a<sub>w</sub> (Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). There are 109 only reports of cell division for between 20 and 30 microbial species or communities at  $\leq$ 0.690 aw (see Javor, 1984; Yakimov et al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). Whereas 110 111 all of these species are extreme, obligately xerophilic eukaryotes or extreme, obligately 112 halophilic prokaryotes which have low rates of cell division - or are incapable of growth close to 1 aw, the ultimate limit for multiplication of even the most resilient strains appears to 113 114 be ~0.61 a<sub>w</sub> (Pitt and Christian, 1968; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). For microbes on Earth, therefore, biotic activity spans approximately 40% of the available water-activity 115 116 range, thus emphasizing the potency of water as a determinant of the functional biosphere. The overwhelming majority of microbial systems are metabolically active somewhere within 117 118 the ranges 5 to 40°C, and 1 to 0.900  $a_w$ , which represent even smaller portions of the 119 environmentally pertinent temperature and water-activity ranges; i.e. only 10% in each case (Fig. 1). Of the microbial systems characterized thus far, the 20 to 30 known to be active at  $\leq$ 120 121 0.690 a<sub>w</sub> (Fig. 1; Javor, 1984; Yakimov et al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted) represent 122 the most extreme forms of life to have penetrated these kinds of hostile environment<sup>4</sup>.

Some reports have alluded to the possibility of microbial growth and metabolism at the otherwise unprecedented water-activity values of 0.382 (for deep-sea halophiles in MgCl<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine; van der Wielen et al., 2005), < 0.450 (for halophiles in the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-rich, Antarctic Don Juan Pond; Siegel, 1979), 0.500 (Actinobacteria isolated from algal mats and cultured in soil-based substrates; Doroshenko et al., 2005; 2006; Zvyagintsev et al., 2009;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This has implications for preventing contamination of other planetary bodies (see above) which, as far as we know, lack sugar-ruch environments, during space exploration missions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Habitats which have sufficiently low water-activity to exclude almost all forms of life on Earth and, therefore, have a characteristically low biodiversity (especially those of < 0.690 a<sub>w</sub>) are fertile habitats for those extremophiles which thrive there due to minimal competition and, frequently, a lack of grazers and predators (for references, see Cray et al., 2013b). Such low-water activity habitats are, however, typically too biologically hostile and insufficiently biodiverse to act as open habitats for microorganisms (Cray et al., 2013b; Lievens et al., 2014; Oren and Hallsworth, 2014).

128 2012), 0.570 (for halophiles in acidic saline lakes; Mormile et al., 2009), 0.600 (for 129 germination of Wallemia sebi [a xerophilic basidiomycete] on high-sugar substrates; Frank and Hess, 1941) and 0.600 (reported value for optimum growth of halophiles (Jaenicke and 130 Bohm, 1998), and biotic activity in salt lakes; Cobucci-Ponzano et al., 2006). Some of these 131 values were hypothetical (see below), and the other claims have not been accepted or have 132 been refuted by authors of a number of subsequent studies (Pitt and Christian, 1968; Wynn-133 134 Williams, 1996; Beaty et al., 2006; Hallsworth et al., 2007; Kminek et al., 2010; Oren, 2011; Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted; J. D. Rummel et al., 135 136 unpublished). The Don Juan Pond (located within the McMurdo Dry Valleys, Antarctica) is a CaCl<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine-pool situated in a closed basin and fed by seasonal melt-water 137 138 streams and deliquescent seepages, both of which are thought to deliver CaCl<sub>2</sub> to the lake 139 (Dickson, 2013). Its volume fluctuates but is typically ~3000 m<sup>3</sup> (slightly larger than an Olympic swimming pool), and it is amongst the most saline large-scale bodies of water 140 known on Earth. This pond rarely, if ever, freezes despite winter temperatures of  $\leq -51^{\circ}$ C 141 142 (Siegel 1979; Marion 1997; Grant, 2004). While annual temperatures of the pond's water and the surrounding sediments are occasionally above 0°C, they remain below -20°C for the 143 majority of the year (Samarkin et al., 2010) so it is highly unlikely that microbial life could 144 multiply there (for references, see Chin et al., 2010; Kminek et al., 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., 145 146 unpublished). Saturated solutions of CaCl<sub>2</sub>, as found in the Don Juan Pond, are highly 147 chaotropic and are therefore likely to prevent microbial growth (and may even be sterile 148 environments; Duda et al., 2004; 2005; Hallsworth et al., 2007; Cray et al., 2013a; 2013b; Oren, 2013; Yakimov et al., 2014). Nitrous oxide emissions recorded from the surrounding 149 150 sediments, frequently attributed to the biological transformation of nitrogenous compounds, are apparently the result of abiotic reactions between brine nitrates and Fe<sup>ll</sup>-bearing minerals 151 152 (Samarkin et al., 2010). The water activity of the MgCl<sub>2</sub>-dominated, deep-sea hypersaline 153 brine studied by van der Wielen et al. (2005) is ~0.382 at the in situ temperature of 14.5°C (Winston and Bates, 1960; Hallsworth et al., 2007). Culture-dependent and culture-154 155 independent studies of this brine, and investigations into the biophysics of macromolecular 156 interactions, indicate that both its potent chaotropicity (even at water-activity values which 157 would otherwise be permissive for cell division) and exceptionally low water-activity prohibit 158 life processes (Hallsworth et al., 2007; Yakimov et al., 2014), as these parameters do for 159 solutions of comparable salts (Winston and Bates, 1960; Duda et al., 2004; Hallsworth et al., 2003a; Kminek et al., 2010; Oren, 2011; Cray et al., 2013a; 2013b). Speculations that 160 161 microbial metabolism and cell division occur at ~5 M MgCl<sub>2</sub> are inconsistent with the virtual 162 sterility of the Dead Sea when MgCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations become elevated (Oren, 1999; 2010; 163 Oren, 2013) or the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-dominated Don Juan Pond (Siegel et al., 1983; Samarkin et al.,

164 2010; Oren, 2013) where concentrations of divalent chloride salts reach critical 165 concentrations which are prohibitive for all life processes (Hallsworth et al., 2007; Cray et al., 166 2013a; Oren, 2013; Yakimov et al., 2014). Although there is a theoretical possibility that 167 some microbes have evolved specialised structures which isolate cells from such hostile 168 habitats whilst permitting biotic activity, to our knowledge no such structures have yet been 169 reported for any microbial species in any type of extremely chaotropic (e.g. Hallsworth et al., 170 2007; Yakimov et al., 2014) or low water-activity ( $\leq$  0.600) environment.

171 Reports of germination and subsequent cell division during germ-tube formation of 172 several Actinobacteria (i.e. Streptomyces albidoflavus [syn. Streptomyces odorifer], 173 Streptomyces rectiviolaceus, and a Micromonospora strain) at 0.500 aw (which were carried 174 out by one group: Doroshenko et al., 2005; 2006; Zvyagintsev et al., 2009; 2012) are 175 apparently erroneous (see Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014). Independent studies have 176 demonstrated that none of these species was capable of growth below 0.895 a<sub>w</sub>, and the 177 theoretical water-activity minimum for the most xerotolerant (a strain of Streptomyces albidoflavus) was ~0.870 (Stevenson and Hallsworth, 2014). Proposed limits of 0.570 or 178 179 0.600 aw for biotic activity of halophiles were speculative (i.e. not derived from 180 determinations of water-activity; Jaenicke and Bohm, 1998; Mormile et al., 2009; Cobucci-181 Ponzano et al., 2006), and sources of experimental error in studies of W. sebi germination have been discussed previously (Pitt and Christian, 1968). Furthermore, apparent microbial 182 183 growth within terrestrial brine lakes which can reach values of  $\leq 0.600$  a<sub>w</sub> may have actually 184 occurred at higher water-activity values given the seasonal and other temporal fluctuations of 185 the in situ salt concentrations (Oren, 1988; 1993; Cobucci-Ponzano et al., 2006; Mormile et al., 2009). 186

Although the established temperature minima for multiplication of the most 187 188 psychrophilic microbes are in the region of -15 to -18°C (for references, see Chin et al., 2010; Kminek et al., 2010), there are numerous sources of evidence for metabolic activity 189 190 considerably below this range (Kminek et al., 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). By 191 contrast, there is a paucity of data to demonstrate metabolic activity below the accepted 192 water-activity minimum for microbial cell division (i.e. 0.605; Kminek et al., 2010; Yakimov et 193 al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., unpublished; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). In relation to 194 the water-activity limit for life, it is noteworthy that trehalose, a hygroscopic substance which 195 accumulates in desiccated microbial cells and may facilitate the acquisition and retention of 196 water, cannot efficiently absorb water from the vapour phase at equilibrium relative 197 humidities of less than ~50%, equivalent to 0.500 a<sub>w</sub> (Fakes et al., 2000). Whereas some 198 enzymes can remain catalytic at water activities of < 0.500 (Kurkal et al., 2005; Lopez et al., 199 2010), there is evidence that DNA becomes disordered, and is therefore no longer

200 transcribable, below a water activity of 0.550 (Falk et al., 1963). Furthermore, strand breaks 201 have been recorded at 0.530 aw in bacterial cells (Asada et al., 1979). It has, therefore, longbeen considered unlikely that cellular systems could function at water activities substantially 202 lower than 0.600 (e.g. Pitt, 1975; Brown, 1976; 1990; Sutton and Hildebrand, 1985; J. D. 203 Rummel et al., unpublished). However, interactions between the various factors which 204 205 determine the biophysical limits for cellular integrity and biotic activity at low water-activity are complex and have vet to be fully elucidated. Macromolecular integrity and functionality 206 207 can depend on the net effect of prevailing conditions such as temperature, chao-/kosmotropicity, pressure and water activity (Hallsworth, 1998; Hallsworth et al., 2007; 208 Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; Bhaganna et al., 2010; Chin et al., 2010; Yakimov et al., 209 210 2014) and it may be possible that, in some as-yet-undiscovered environments, cells are 211 capable of metabolism at < 0.600 aw.

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213 Microbial cell division via utilization of water which is not in the bulk liquid-phase

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215 Water is more or less ubiguitous on Earth and in other parts of the Solar System (Bradley et al., 2014; Küppers et al., 2014); it may be present within the atmospheres, subsurface, rocks 216 217 and regolith, polar ice-sheets, glaciers, and/or subsurface oceans of planetary bodies, in vapour plumes extruded into space, and – indeed – within space itself<sup>5</sup>. Whereas here on 218 219 Earth, we tend to be most familiar with water in its bulk-liquid phase, in both terrestrial and 220 extraterrestrial environments, it can also be present in a variety of forms. In addition to ice 221 and vapour, these include thin aqueous films on/at various types of surfaces and interfaces, 222 or as molecules hydrating mineral, organic, and other substances (Kminek et al., 2010; 223 Toner et al., 2014; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). Liquidity of water is determined by 224 temperature, pressure, the presence of solutes and/or gases, and molecular interactions 225 between other materials or substances and water molecules - as well as processes such as salt deliguescence, sublimation of ice, frost formation, condensation or dew-formation on 226 227 surfaces or within the gaseous phase, aerosol formation, and precipitation (Watanabe and Mizoguchi, 2002; Jepsen et al., 2007; Möhlmann; 2008; 2009; 2012; Argyris et al., 2008; 228 229 Chin et al., 2010; Pavlov et al., 2010; Bing and Ma, 2011).

Thin aqueous films can exist on various surfaces including those of ice and biological and mineral structures, and the water within these films can remain in the liquid phase under a wide range of conditions (Pearson and Derbyshire, 1974; Raviv et al., 2001; Wolfe et al., 2002; Jepsen et al., 2007; Möhlmann; 2004; 2008; 2009; 2011; 2012; J. D. Rummel et al.,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See Waite et al. (2006); Nimmo et al. (2007); Tosca et al. (2008); Campins et al. (2010); Sohl et al. (2010); Carter et al. (2013); Martínez and Renno (2013); and Bradley et al. (2014).

234 unpublished). The depth of thin films can range from > 1 mm to a monolayer of water 235 molecules (~0.3 nm; Möhlmann, 2004; 2005), and they can be stable (Möhlmann, 2012) or highly ephemeral (Burkhardt and Hunsche, 2013). At the temperatures and pressures which 236 typically prevail in Earth's biosphere, aqueous films of ~1 mm are primarily made up of water 237 which is biologically available (e.g. Qvit-Raz et al., 2008, Burch et al., 2013). Whereas we 238 239 speculate that single-monolayer films do not provide water that can be accessed by cellular 240 systems. It has, however, been suggested that microbes can utilize fluid films with a mean 241 thickness equivalent to that of three water molecules (Harris, 1981; Beaty et al., 2006); a hypothesis that may be inconsistent with the lack of solute diffusion in very thin films 242 (Derjaguin and Churaev, 1986; Hu and Wang, 2003) which indicate that the water in films as 243 244 thin as this is not in the liquid phase<sup>6</sup>. Despite the circumstantial evidence (see also Rivkina 245 et al., 2000), there is a paucity of data thus far available which convincingly demonstrate that 246 water in thin films that are equivalent to between one and three water molecules in depth is 247 biologically available.

There are three possible sources of liquid water in otherwise desiccated and cold 248 249 areas such as those which are characteristic of Mars: (1) interfacial water as a thin film 250 (several water-molecular in depth) forming on mineral surfaces by adsorption or, on ice, as 251 pre-melted ice (Dash et al. 2006, Möhlmann, 2011); (2) brines forming on salt crystals via 252 deliguescence; and (3) subsurface melt-water below an ice covering due to a solid-state 253 'greenhouse' effect (Möhlmann, 2011). Process (2) is a particularly effective mechanism by which liquid water can be generated on Earth and, almost certainly, in extraterrestrial 254 255 locations (Möhlmann, 2011). The condensing water vapour can potentially reach the dry weight of the deliguescent salt, and will exceed it if the humidity exceeds the deliguescence 256 257 relative humidity. Deliguescence of NaCl, as equilibrium relative humidity increases from 65 258 to 80%, can be observed in Movie S1. Most salts (and, indeed, many organic substances) 259 are hygroscopic and will attract water to their surface at equilibrium relative humidities of  $\leq$ 100%. Each salt becomes deliguescent at a specific relative humidity, thereby dissolving as 260 261 the water vapour condenses. The deliguescence relative humidity for a given salt and its (usually slight) temperature-dependence quantitatively correspond to both the water activity 262 values of, and equilibrium relative humidity values for, saturated solutions of a given salt 263 (Winston and Bates, 1960). If the equilibrium relative humidity is higher than a salt's 264 265 deliguescence relative humidity, the water activity of the salt solution will equilibrate with the relative humidity of the atmosphere, so the salt solution will become more dilute. Mixtures of 266 267 substances (e.g. mixtures of different salts or salts plus sugars) will have a deliquescence

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This inconsistency also raises the possibility that the high water-activity values associated with very thin films (Harris, 1981; Papendick and Campbell, 1981) could be a consequence of methodological error.

relative humidity below that of each individual component (Mauer and Taylor, 2010). In addition to the reduced water activity, salts also reduce the freezing point, and cryobrines may be stable far below the melting point of water, e.g. under Martian conditions (Möhlmann, 2011, Martínez and Renno, 2013).

Within the Earth's biosphere, brine formation may play a role for diverse microbial 272 species - especially those that are halotolerant or halophilic - which are located within 273 274 bioaerosols, or on mineral or biological surfaces (e.g. leaf surfaces) and are exposed to 275 humid air (Potts, 1994). For example, adapted species can reproduce within the 276 phyllosphere of salt-exuding desert plants (Qvit-Raz et al., 2008, Burch et al., 2013) and, at 277 subzero temperatures, in supercooled water in the atmosphere (Sattler et al., 2001). 278 Pseudomonas syringae, which is not haliophilic, is a species widely transported within 279 bioaerosols and its cells are highly effective as ice nuclei because they have protein coatings that cause water to freeze at relatively warm temperatures (Christner et al., 2008; Morris et 280 al., 2014). Being surrounded by ice, they may benefit from the solid-state greenhouse effect 281 282 which involves the internal formation of thin films due to the penetration and retention of 283 shortwave radiation within the ice.

284 Microbes can obtain water from the vapour-phase, a process which has been observed in lichens (Lange et al., 2006; Pintado and Sancho, 2002) as well as the 285 propagules of various species (Waldham and Halvorson, 1954; Pasanen et al., 1991; 286 287 Reponen et al., 1996). Other studies have demonstrated that microbial cells also generate considerable quantities of water via their metabolic activity (Oriol et al., 1988; Nagel et al., 288 289 2001; Marcano et al., 2002; Kreuzer-Martin et al., 2005; 2006; de Goffau et al., 2011), up to 70% of the cell's water according to radio-labelled gas uptake experiments (Kreuzer-Martin 290 291 et al. 2005; 2006). Spore germination of powdery mildews, such as by the Erysiphe and 292 Uncinula species, has been observed at low equilibrium relative humidities (0 to 10%) 293 without a visible extracellular source of liquid water (Brodie and Neufield, 1942; Manners and 294 Hossain, 1963; Carroll and Wilcox, 2003); although it is not clear whether condensation 295 processes and/or thin films might act to shuttle water to the cell. Desiccated lichens are able 296 to absorb water at an equilibrium relative humidity of  $\geq$  82% and thereby commence photosynthesis (Pintado and Sancho, 2002; Lange et al. 2006). Various lines of evidence 297 suggest that microorganisms may be capable of cell division without an extracellular supply 298 299 of liquid water (see also Miller and Chibnall, 1932; Yarwood, 1950; Peterson and Cowling, 300 1972; Lange et al., 1986; 1994). However, there is a paucity of convincing data to irrefutably 301 affirm this hypothesis. Furthermore, systematic studies of water-activity limits for cell division 302 of phylogenetically diverse extremotolerant and extremophilic microbes suggest that cell 303 division would be implausible at values much below 0.600 a<sub>w</sub> (i.e. 60% equilibrium relative

humidity) (Pitt and Christian, 1968; Brown, 1976; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; A. Stevenson et al., unpublished). This question is equally pertinent to life on Earth, and the aqueous milieu found elsewhere in the Solar System (not least in relation to planetary protection; see above).

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309 Implications for the evolution of microbial life on Earth

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The most solute-tolerant Bacteria and Archaea (i.e. extreme, obligate halophiles) are only 311 312 able to grow at their water-activity minima under hypersaline conditions. Some of these organisms thrive under conditions which resemble those that would have been available on 313 314 the early Earth; indeed, many of the extreme halophiles thus far studied exhibit their water-315 activity minimum for cell division at elevated temperatures (Robinson et al., 2005). There is 316 some debate regarding the temperature of the early seas; earlier estimates of 70-80°C 317 (Knauth and Lowe, 2003) are now considered to be too high (the  $\delta^{18}$ O values on which the calculations were based were skewed due to increased seawater temperatures which 318 319 resulted from inputs of hydrothermal fluids from the crust). More recent estimates based on analysis of oxygen and hydrogen isotopes (i.e.  $\delta^{18}O$  and  $\delta D$ , respectively) are about 40°C 320 321 (Blake et al., 2010). However, the high mantle heat flow on the early Earth drove a highly active hydrothermal circulatory system that contributed hot, salty (de Ronde et al., 1997), 322 323 silica-rich fluids to the local environment (Westall, 2012). It has been proposed that primordial life may have first occurred within saline environments on early Earth (Dundas, 324 1998), and recent evidence suggests that the abiotic formation of primitive proteins can 325 indeed occur under saline conditions (Longo et al., 2013; Longo and Blaber, 2014). 326 327 Understanding the way in which water-condensing chemical reactions could have led to the 328 emergence of key biomolecules (eg: peptides and nucleic acids) is essential to 329 understanding the origins of life (da Silva and Holm 2014 and references therein). 330 Prokaryote life (anaerobic) was relatively abundant in these early environments and left 331 behind numerous signatures of its presence (Westall, 2012). There are stratified salt deposits of various ages across large regions of the Earth, indicating that concentrated salt-332 waters/brines have existed across the planet's geologic history (Warren, 2010). Direct 333 association of an early photosynthetic microbial community with evaporitic conditions is 334 documented in 3.33 billion-year-old volcanic sands from the Barberton greenstone belt. 335 336 South Africa (Figure 2; Westall et al., 2006, 2011). The uppermost layers of a desiccated biofilm, formed on sediments deposited in shallow waters that were partially exposed to air, 337 338 are interlayered with tiny evaporate crystals (microns in size and including aragonite, 339 gypsum, halite and magnesium calcite; Figure 2). Evaporitic precipitates have been

340 described from other formations on the early Earth, including the 3.42 billion-year-old Buck 341 Reef Chert in Barberton (Lowe and Fisher-Worrell, 1999) and the 3.43 billion-year-old 342 Strelley Pool Chert of the Pilbara in Australia (Allwood et al., 2007). The early terrestrial phototrophs were quite advanced on the evolutionary scale compared to chemotrophs. 343 Although, to date, no direct association of chemotrophic biosignatures with the early 344 evaporitic deposits has been identified, these more primitive organisms were nevertheless 345 also common (Westall, 2012; Westall et al., 2013). If primitive cells did reach the early Earth 346 347 through panspermia, experiments simulating the entry of meteorites containing 348 microorganisms into the Earth's atmosphere have shown (1) that phototrophs could not have 349 been transported to Earth by these means (Cockell et al., 2007) and (2) that, if resilient forms 350 of life were hidden in meteorites, they would need to be buried at depths of at least 5 cm in 351 cracks within the meteorite in order to withstand the heat of entry (Foucher et al., 2010).

Regardless of how (and where) life originated, it seems most likely that it was 352 353 prokaryotes (known to have preceded eukaryotes by ~2 billions years), in saline 354 environments, which first reached the 0.605-aw limit. Some of the oldest known fossils are those of prokaryotic cells (dating from ~3.5 billion years ago [Frances, is this the same 355 356 environment as the 3.33 billion above? And if so, do we need to use the same 357 number?....also is there any repetition between these sentences concerning the Barberton work here and those in the paragraph above? If not then that's fine.]) which apparently lived 358 359 in salt-rich environments, as evaporite minerals such as magnesium calcite and halite were found embedded in the biofilm of an extant [Frances, was this mat fossilized or alive?] 360 361 microbial mat, discovered in the Barberton greenstone belt, South Africa [Frances, given that 362 the Barberton greenstone belt and it's location were mentioned above does this need repeating here?] (Westall et al., 2001; 2006), and similarly within ancient stromatolite 363 364 columns from the Pilbara Craton, Western Australia (Allwood et al., 2007). Intriguingly, molecular analysis of modern stromatolite communities revealed that 74% of archaeal clones 365 366 were closely related to the Halobacteria (Burns et al., 2004), which frequently dominate 367 hypersaline environments (Oren, 2002). These prokaryotic halophiles were exposed to, and 368 presumably inhabited [Frances should there be a comma here...] evaporitic environments 369 containing [...or a comma here?] elevated concentrations of magnesium and characterized 370 by water activities of considerably less than 0.755 (and can, indeed, be considerably below 0.600 aw, depending on salt concentrations; Winston and Bates, 1960; Hallsworth et al., 371 372 2007; Yakimov et al., 2014; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). Indeed, the signatures of past 373 life forms, including stromatolites, can be common in evaporitic deposits (Rothschild and 374 Mancinelli, 2001).

375 Much later, and presumably in terrestrial locations, the Eukarva must have developed 376 a similar resilience during growth at high concentrations of solutes which are produced via 377 biogenic activity; namely sugars and polyols. Indeed, extremophilic Eukarya are considerably 378 less salt-tolerant than their bacterial and archaeal counterparts, and it may be that the prokaryotes are yet to evolve an ability to grow at low water-activity in non-saline substrates 379 (their current record is in the range 0.850 to 0.800; Lievens et al., 2014; R. Santos et al., 380 submitted; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). Microbial, and indeed all biological, cells are not 381 382 pure-water reactors with water activity of 1 (Trevors and Pollack, 2005), but consist of gels within which modulation of water activity along with speciation as a result of the solute-383 exclusion principle are central to effective cellular function. Indeed, a metabolic ability to 384 385 maintain the cellular system at his level is one of the fundamental, defining characteritstics of 386 life itself.

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388 Extraterrestrial, aqueous milieu which resemble fertile habitats on Earth

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390 Liquid water was, and may still be, present in numerous locations in the Solar System. On 391 Mars, for example, there is abundant geomorphological evidence for the presence of liquid 392 water on the planet in the past (Carr, 2006) and possibly even, ephemerally, in the present 393 (Möhlmann, 2011; McEwan et al., 2014; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). Such evidence 394 includes the formation of secondary minerals through the aqueous alteration of the basaltic rocks that cover the surface of the planet (e.g. Carter et al., 2013; Martínez and Renno, 395 396 2013). It has been calculated that the water activities of evaporite deposits and bodies of 397 saline water on early Mars were as high as 0.780 to 0.860 (Tosca et al., 2008), which is well 398 within the ranges for microbial species from each Domain-of-life (Javor, 1984; Grant, 2004; 399 Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; Stevenson et al., submitted).

400 The various brines on Jupiter's moon Europa are composed primarily of water and 401 salts such as MgSO<sub>4</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and/or Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (and, in some cases also contain sulfuric 402 acid; Muñoz-Iglesias et al., 2013). Saturated solutions of these salts have water-activity 403 values of 0.900, 0.930 and 0.920 respectively (at 20°C, 1 atm; Winston and Bates, 1960). although it is currently unclear what the values would be under the prevailing conditions on 404 405 Europa. At the lower temperatures, and the in situ pressures, on Europa the solubility of ions 406 and, conversely, the precipitation of salts can also vary leading to increases in water activity 407 (Marion et al., 2003; 2005), the water activity of a saturated Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution at 10°C, for 408 example, is 0.990 (Winston and Bates, 1960). Whereas water-activity values for individual 409 brines will vary according to their ionic composition (and pH, which also influences 410 solubilities of some salts), it seems likely that the in-situ water activities are sufficiently high

411 to span the entire range for known life (Javor, 1984; Williams and Hallsworth, 2009;
412 Stevenson et al., submitted).

Water has also been identified in asteroidal materials, for example the Monahans 413 414 (1998) H5 chondrite which contained hypersaline fluid inclusions composed predominantly of saturated NaCl (Zolensky et al., 1999) having a water activity of 0.760 at 20°C and 0.750 at 415 2°C at 1 atm (Winston and Bates, 1960), although these values will vary with pressure. Fluid 416 inclusions have been identified in an increasing number of asteroidal specimens including 417 418 the Zag (1998) meteorite (Rubin et al., 2002). Furthermore, organic molecules have been 419 detected in the fluid inclusions of some of these asteroidal bodies (e.g. Fries et al., 2012), so the composition of these asteroidal fluids can be close to those of the media and substrates 420 421 in which halophiles occur. For instance, halophiles in hypersaline fluid inclusions of salt 422 crystals from evaporite deposits contain Archaea, Bacteria, and algae (Dunaliella species)<sup>7</sup>. Many NaCI-saturated habitats contain a remarkably high microbial biomass and are 423 characterised by intense competition (Antón et al., 2002; Daffonchio et al., 2006; Baati et al., 424 2008; Elevi Bardavid et al., 2008; Khemakhem et al., 2010) during which some species -425 426 which are known as "microbial weeds" (Cray et al., 2013b; Oren and Hallsworth, 2014) achieve dominance of the communities including Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarva (e.g. 427 428 Haloquadratum walsbyi, Salinibacter ruber, and Dunaliella salina: for references see Cray et 429 al., 2013b; Oren and Hallsworth, 2014). The microbes that dominate and/or are most 430 frequently isolated from the fluid inclusions of salt crystals found in evaporite deposits 431 include a number of species known to be capable of cell division in the range 0.710 to 0.605 432 (or their close relations, such as Dunaliella, Halocarcula, Halobacterium, Halococcus, Halorubrum and Natrinema spp.: Stan-Lotter et al., 2000; Schubert et al., 2009b; Lowenstein 433 434 et al., 2011; Gramain et al., 2011; A. Stevenson et al., submitted). In relation to water activity, the biotic activity of microorganisms - including halophiles - is plausible for some of 435 the aqueous milieu found in extraterrestrial environments. Indeed, some of these locations 436 resemble highly fertile habitats for known halophiles (see also A. Stevenson et al., 437 submitted). 438

Planets which are neither too close to nor too far from a star and could, theoretically at least, accommodate active biological systems are said to be in the Circumstellar Habitable Zone or Goldilocks Zone of their respective solar system (Strughold, 1953). This designation is based on criteria, such as size of the planet and its absolute distance from the star it orbits, whether illuminosity could permit photosynthesis, having surface temperatures which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See McGenity et al. (2000); D'Hondt et al. (2002); Schubert et al. (2009a); Gramain et al. (2011); Lowenstein et al. (2012); Valentine (2013). Cyanobacteria are know to be metabollically active in evaporite deposits (the in situ water-activity limit for this activity has yet to be determined; Rothschild et al., 1994).

444 are biologically permissive for at least some of the time (variously defined as 0 to 100°C, or -445 25 to +122°C; Franck et al. 2007; Takai et al., 2008; Kmine k et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2013), and/or whether they have liquid water (Rampino and Caldeira, 1994; von Bloh et al., 446 447 2011). However, these criteria (and indeed the habitable-zone concept) have limited applicability or validity for a variety of reasons. Ecosystems exist on Earth which do not 448 449 depend on photosynthetic activity (Chivian et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2013) and, indeed, the earliest forms of life were not photosynthetic (Westall, 2012); furthermore, there is 450 451 circumstantial evidence that an extracellular source of liquid water is not obligatory for microbial life (see above). What is more, biologically permissive conditions may prevail in 452 453 specific environments or substrates on otherwise hostile planetary bodies (for examples in 454 relation to moons of Saturn, see Raulin, 2006; Nimmo et al., 2007; Parkinson et al., 2008). 455 And finally, various activities of solutes can both prevent freezing of water and expand biotic 456 windows of microbes and may do so to a degree yet to be determined (see below; Chin et 457 al., 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished).

Water can remain liquid at temperatures far lower than those known to permit 458 459 microbial cell-division (i.e. approximately -18°C; see references in Chin et al., 2010). Liquid 460 water (in various forms, from thin films to underground oceans) may be found in many 461 environments on Mars as well as planetary moons (Europa, Ganymede, Enceladus, etc). Diverse lines of evidence suggest that both photosynthetic and non-photosynthetic microbes 462 463 may be capable of metabolism and cell division by hygroscopic absorption of water vapour and/or acquiring water from their substratum (as a sole extracellular source of water) both in 464 vitro and in their natural habitats on Earth<sup>8</sup>, and utilize a variety of mechanisms for the 465 acquisition and retention of water (e.g. production and accumulation of trehalose and other 466 hygroscopic substances which optimize the acquisition and retention of water, morphological 467 changes which minimize water loss, hydrotactic responses, inhabiting high-humidity niches, 468 and construction of soil features to enhance water capture and retention; Garcia-Pichel and 469 Pringault, 2001; Garvie et al., 2008; de Goffau et al. 2011; Williams et al., 2012; Rajeev et 470 471 al., 2013; Zakharova et al., 2013). Furthermore, as noted above, some microbial cells can generate vast guantities of water via their metabolic activities (Miller, 1932; Peterson and 472 473 Cowling, 1973; Oriol et al., 1988; Nagel et al., 2001; Marcano et al., 2002; Hocking, 2003; 474 Kreuzer-Martin et al., 2005; 2006). Indeed, studies of bacterial cells demonstrate that up to 475 70% of intracellular water can be derived in this way (Kreuzer-Martin et al., 2005; 2006) and other studies demonstrate that cells can maintain higher intracellular water-activity than that 476 477 of the environment; de Goffau et al. (2011).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> E.g. fungi, lichens and cyanobacteria (Snow, 1949; Armolick and Dickson, 1956; Pitt and Christian, 1968; Ayerst, 1969; Bootsma et al., 1973; Drewello and Weissmann, 1997; Shomari and Kennedy, 1999; Lange et al., 2006; Wierzchos et al., 2011; Zakharova et al., 2013).

478 The atmosphere of Saturn's moon Enceladus can contain  $\geq$  90% water vapour (Waite 479 et al., 2006) and, whereas its terrestrial surface is approximately -200°C (Brown et al., 2006), plumes of water vapour and ice which are released into space are thought to originate in 480 481 subsurface oceans that have temperatures in the range -23 to -3°C (Nimmo et al., 2007; 482 Parkinson et al., 2008); i.e. temperatures which are permissive for the metabolic activity of 483 psychrotolerant and psychrophilic microbes (Collins and Buick, 1989; Chin et al., 2010, 484 Kminek et al., 2010, Mykytczuk et al., 2013). Various salts, nitrogenous compounds, and 485 organic substances have been identified in the atmosphere of Enceladus and E-ring ice 486 grains of Saturn (which may originate from Enceladus) including NaCl, NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, NaCO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, ammonia, hydrogen cyanide, CO and CO<sub>2</sub>, methane, acetylene, and propane (Matson et al., 487 488 2007; Postberg et al., 2009; 2011). Under conditions prevalent on Earth, bioaerosols can be 489 fertile habitats characterized by high levels of microbial diversity, biomass, and metabolic 490 activity (Fahlgren et al., 2010; Womack et al., 2010; 2012). In relation to the atmosphere of Enceladus and/or the watery plumes which it emits into space, it is intriguing to speculate 491 492 what the water activity of liquid droplets in, or the humidity of, the gaseous phase might be 493 (presumably close to 100%) and whether the temperatures within these plumes can ever be 494 considerably higher than -200°C. It should be noted that, whereas definitive evidence from 495 culture-based studies of microbial systems on Earth indicate limits for cell division of 496 approximately +122°C or -18°C (Collins and Buick, 1989; Takai e t al., 2008; Chin et al., 497 2010; Harrison et al., 2013), circumstantial evidence from other biochemical or geochemical data suggest biotic activity under more extreme conditions (down to about -40°C, and up to 498 499 approximately +140℃; Parkes et al., 2000; Kminek et al., 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., 500 unpublished).

501 Although the Earth is located within the region allocated as the Goldilocks Zone of our 502 own Solar System, it hosts many environments which do not permit life process and are 503 therefore essentially sterile due to, for example, low water activity, high chaotropicity, 504 excessively high or low temperatures, pH of > 12, plus combinations of conditions such as 505 high salt and low pH or high temperature and high pH (e.g. Brown, 1990; Hallsworth, 1998; 506 Parkes et al., 2000; Grant, 2004; Hallsworth et al., 2007; Harrison et al., 2013; Yakimov et al., 2014). Under all these conditions cells also need adequate energy sources and nutrients 507 for maintenance and growth which may require electron donors and acceptors for 508 respiration etc. Some combinations of conditions can slightly extend extremes for growth, 509 510 such as high pressure and temperatures; furthermore survival can occur under conditions

511 where growth cannot<sup>9</sup>. Conversely, planetary bodies which are basically hostile to life may 512 nevertheless harbour small-scale, biologically permissive domains (Kminek et al., 2010; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). Solute activities represent one of the determinants for potential 513 habitability on Earth; for example, chaotropicity can enable cellular function at low 514 temperatures and kosmotropicity may enable cellular function in high-temperature 515 environments or those dominated by chaotropic substances<sup>10</sup>. The ways in which water 516 activity and other solute activities can interact to determine the physicochemical limits for life 517 (e.g. Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; Chin et al., 2010) have yet to be fully characterized. 518 519 Furthermore, there is little information on the way in which availability of nutrients and other resources can determine tolerance limits to physicochemical stress parameters (e.g. 520 521 Daffonchio et al., 2006; J. P. Harrison et al., submitted). Once the interactions between such 522 factors are better understood, the currently accepted criteria for habitability will require revision (Beaty et al., 2006; Marion et al., 2003; Marion and Kargel, 2008; Tosca et al., 2008; 523 524 Kminek et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2013; J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished).

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526 How sensitive are cells to minute changes in water activity? And other unanswered 527 questions

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In their environmental context, microbes are exposed to complexity at multiple levels; in 529 530 relation to (i) the dynamics of physical and chemical parameters, (ii) the antimicrobials and 531 other substances produced by other cells in the vicinity, (iii) varying availability of resources, and countless other factors. Water activity, in particular, can oscillate (Cray et al., 2013b; 532 533 Lievens et al., 2014), and may do so across a range of timescales from a fraction of a second, for example to days or longer. The majority of stress-biology studies which quantify 534 water activity do so to either one or two decimal places. We propose here that water activity 535 ought to be determined to an accuracy of three decimal places (Winston and Bates, 1960; 536 Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; A. Stevenson et al., submitted) as this is more closely 537 538 aligned with the sensitivity of cellular systems. All technologies used to quantify the water 539 activity of undefined substrates are associated with some degree of error (see Winston and Bates, 1960, Greenspan, 1977, Hallsworth and Nomura, 1999, Yu et al., 2009). 540 541 Commercially available apparatus for water-activity determination are associated with a net

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The propagules/cells of many microbes are highly resilient to exposure to extremes of temperature, uv, pH, chaotropicity, desiccation and other stresses (e.g. Wyatt et al., 2014; R. Santos et al., submitted), even over long timescales, and so are capable of surviving conditions found in extraterrestrial locations (see above). <sup>10</sup> See Hallsworth (1998a); Hallsworth et al. (1998b; 2003a; 2003b; 2007); Williams and Hallsworth (2009) Bhaganna et al. (2010); Chin et al. (2010); McCammick et al. (2010); Bell et al. (2013); Cray et al. (2013a; 2013b); Lievens et al. (2014); Yakimov et al. (2014). Whereas chaotropic substances are typically less polar than water and disorder biomacromoelcules, kosmotropic substances are usually more polar than water and thereby structure or rigidify macromolecular systems (see Cray et al., 2013a, and references therein).

variation (accounting for both accuracy and repeatability) of ±0.010 to 0.020 water-activity 542 543 units (A. Stevenson et al., submitted). At 0.600 water activity, this is equivalent to variations of water potential between  $\pm$  -2.3 and -4.5 MPa respectively). For the purposes of biological 544 545 and food-related research it has been suggested, that levels of accuracy of ±0.010 (Labuza 546 et al., 1976; Roa and Tapia, 1998), ±0.020 (Troller and Christian, 1978; Sereno et al., 2001), ±0.005 (Ferro Fontán and Chirife, 1981; Hallsworth and Nomura, 1999), or ±0.001 aw are 547 548 appropriate (Winston and Bates, 1960). Our earlier studies (Williams and Hallsworth, 2009; 549 A. Stevenson et al., submitted) suggest that microbial cells can be sensitive to 550 differences/changes of < 0.010 water activity. For example, water-activity differences of < 0.005 units have impacted growth rates for diverse strains of xerophilic fungi by between 40 551 552 and 80% (A. Stevenson et al., submitted) which, in turn, implies fundamental differences at 553 every level of the cellular system, from gene expression to physiological and developmental 554 processes. On glycerol-supplemented media at water activities of 0.799 and 0.795 growthrates for A. penicillioides varied between 1.13 and 0.642 mm d<sup>-1</sup> for strain JH06THH and 555 between 1.20 and 0.732 mm d<sup>-1</sup> for strain JH06THJ; and on MgCl<sub>2</sub>-supplemented media at 556 water activities of 0.915 and 0.907 rates for X. bisporus varied between 3.96 and 1.43 mm d<sup>-</sup> 557 <sup>1</sup> for strain FRR 0025, 2.55 and 0.533 mm d<sup>-1</sup> for strain FRR 2347, and 2.13 and 0.800 mm 558 d<sup>-1</sup> for strain FRR 3443 (A. Stevenson et al., submitted). These data raise the tantalizing 559 question of whether microbial cells are sensitive to water-activity differences down to the 560 fourth, or even fifth, decimal place<sup>11</sup>. It is noteworthy that, for a hypothetical microbial species 561 which has a temperature window for cell division spanning from 5 to  $40^{\circ}$  (i.e. a  $35^{\circ}$ 562 range), a temperature change of 10, 1 or 0.1°C would represent a 1/3.5, 1/35 and 1/350 563 564 fraction of this window, respectively. If the water-activity window for this microbe spanned from 1 to 0.900  $a_w$  (i.e. 0.100  $a_w$ -units in total), 1/3.5, 1/35- and 1/350-portions of this window 565 would correspond to 0.02857, 0.00286 and 0.00029 aw units, respectively. This underlines 566 567 the fact that water-activity determinations to one decimal place (equivalent, in this example, to  $\sim 29^{\circ}$  can lack biological meaning, and those made to two decimal places (equivalent to 568 569 an accuracy level of up to 2.9°C) are far less accurate than we would accept for biological 570 studies of temperature or other environmental parameters. In relation to microbial 571 multiplication on Earth, the water-activity and temperature windows for life span 0.400 aw-572 units and 140°C, respectively (Fig. 1). In the context of stress biology, and at the scale of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Based on the use of Novasina technnology (Axair Ltd., Pfäffikon, Switzerland) and a protocol incorporating a range of precautionary measures we achieve an accuracy of ±0.001 water-activity units (A. Stevenson et al., submitted). Whereas calculations can be carried out to enable the expression of water-activity values to the fourth decimal place, these have been based on a number of assumptions which, collectively, result in unacceptable levels of uncertainty (Greenspan, 1977; Yu et al., 2009). Such a level of accuracy would be highly desirable in many spheres of biological research but empirical determinations of water activity to the fourth decimal place are currently unattainable.

biosphere, the expression of water activity to decimal place leads to an unacceptable level of accuracy, as 0.100  $a_w$  units equates to a temperature of 35°C. Even water-activity determinations to three decimal places (equivalent to an accuracy level of ~0.3°C) are imposed by technological limitations rather than being dictated by the sensitivity level of the cell.

578 It remains unclear whether microorganisms are capable of subsistence without an 579 extracellular supply of liquid water, and the biological availability of water in various types of 580 aqueous film has also yet to be quantified. Cells may be able to acquire and retain water (de Goffau et al., 2011) which can be utilized when water activity falls below biologically 581 582 permissive levels (for instance, see the studies of powdery mildew cited above) but there is 583 no definitive evidence that this does indeed occur (and, if so, what mechanisms are involved) 584 at present (J. D. Rummel et al., unpublished). Culture-independent studies are needed for 585 high-solute, and other low-water activity, habitats to establish whether metabolic activity 586 below the threshold for cell division (0.605 a<sub>w</sub>) is commonplace at different locations within the microbial biosphere. In contrast with the increasing understanding of molecular-level 587 588 adaptations in many other forms of extremophile, there is a paucity of information in relation 589 to physiological, biochemical, and genetic mechanisms which facilitate halophile/xerophile function at  $< 0.690 a_w^{12}$ . Further work is also needed to elucidate the roles that low water-590 591 activity substrates have played, and continue to play, in the evolution of both prokaryotic and eukaryotic systems. In the context of habitability, work is also needed to elucidate the 592 593 interactions between type and concentration of ions, chao-/kosmotropicity, and water activity 594 in relation to complex brines such as current those found in various locations on Earth 595 (Siegel et al., 1983; Oren, 1988; Hallsworth et al., 2007; Yakimov et al., 2014) and those 596 likely to have existed on early Earth or ancient Mars (Tosca et al., 2008). For ecosystems 597 located in extremely hostile habitats, some reports hint that microbial life can be 598 discontinuous and fragmented (Hopkins et al., 2005). In some low water-activity habitats, it 599 may be that active cells can be located in otherwise biologically non-permissive zones, and 600 pockets of sterility exist within otherwise inhabited zones. Furthermore, in some locations 601 microbes may be inactive for most of the time and yet functional for short periods. It has yet 602 to be determined, for example, whether slow cell divisions (over 100s or 1000s years) can 603 occur in microbial communities which may subsist in nature at water activities below the 604 known 0.605 aw limit. In relation the water-activity limits for microbial life, we know much about the outer edges of Earth's biosphere yet, in the relation to the in situ conditions of 605 606 microbial habitats, we still know relatively little.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> This also acts as a barrier to the biotechnological exploitation of these extremophiles and the macromolecular systems derived from them.

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## 628 **References**

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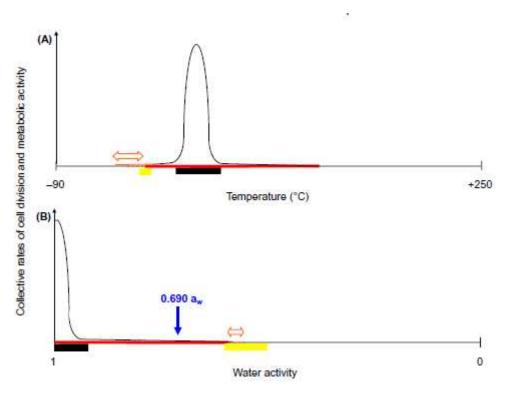
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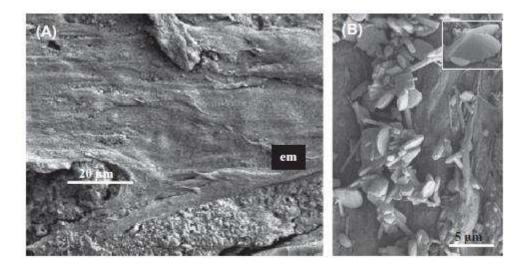






1335 Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of collective biological activity (compound rates cell 1336 division and metabolic activity) for microbes on Earth in relation to prevailing environmental 1337 (a) temperatures and (b) water activities. Red bars indicate the known range for cell division 1338 of microbes (-18 to +122 $^{\circ}$ C, and 1 to 0.605 a<sub>w</sub>), and orange dotted lines indicate for (**a**) the 1339 established limit for cellular metabolism (33°C), and (b) the known limit for physiological function of DNA (down to 0.530 a<sub>w</sub>). Black bars indicate the range in which the overwhelming 1340 majority of microbial activity takes place, and curves represent collective biotic activity of 1341 microbes on Earth. Yellow bars indicate safety margins used for the designation of 'Special 1342 Regions' on Mars (down to -25°C and 0.500 a w; Kminek et al., 2010) in relation to 1343 1344 international policy on planetary protection. Horizontal orange arrows indicate zones in which 1345 cell division may take place over extended timescales (10s to 1000s years) though there is a 1346 paucity of data on this topic; this zone for temperature extends considerably below -33°C 1347 because of the possibility that chaotropic substances may enhance flexibility of 1348 macromolecular systems and thereby reduce the temperature minima for microbial activity 1349 by a further 10 to  $20^{\circ}$  (Chin et al., 2010).

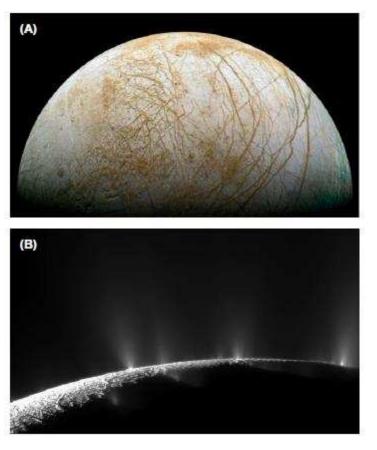
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**Figure 2.** Early Archaean microbes and evaporites; example from the 3.33 billion-year-old Josefsdal Chert, Barberton Greenstone Belt: (**a**) layer of evaporite minerals interbedded with layers of a photosynthetic microbial biofilm, (em) evaporite minerals, and (**b**) details of the diversity of minerals encrusted on the surface of the biofilm. They include here pseudomorphs (silica replaced) of acicular aragonite and losenge-shaped gypsum. Reproduced from Westall et al. (2006) with permission from The Royal Society Press.

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**Figure 3.** Views of two planetary moons which are known to have an abundance of water, some of which may be present as subsurface oceans: (**a**) the icy surface of Europa, and (**b**) 1363 jets composed of water vapour, ice particles and organic compounds released from beneath

the surface of Enceladus. Courtesy NASA/JPL-Caltech.

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## 1366 Supplemental information

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**Movie S1.** Deliquescence of NaCl crystals on the surface of a pine needle (Pinus sylvestris) as humidity rises from approximately 65 to 80% equilibrium relative humidity. The deliquescence point of NaCl is approximately 75.0% equilibrium relative humidity at 2°C. An epistomatal chamber is visible but the guard cells are located below this section and cannot, therefore, be seen. The recording was made using an environmental scanning electron microscope and equilibrium relative humidity was controlled experimentally within a chamber (see Burkhardt and Hunsche, 2013).