

REVIEW ARTICLE

Extreme environments: microbiology leading to specialized metabolites

A.M. Sayed¹ D, M.H.A. Hassan², H.A. Alhadrami^{3,4}, H.M. Hassan^{1,2}, M. Goodfellow⁵ and M.E. Rateb⁶ D

- 1 Pharmacognosy Department, Faculty of Pharmacy, Nahda University, Beni-Suef, Egypt
- 2 Pharmacognosy Department, Faculty of Pharmacy, Beni-Suef University, Beni-Suef, Egypt
- 3 Department of Medical Laboratory Technology, Faculty of Applied Medical Sciences, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
- 4 Special Infectious Agent Unit, King Fahd Medical Research Centre, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
- 5 School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK
- 6 School of Computing, Engineering & Physical Sciences, University of the West of Scotland, Paisley, UK

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Correspondence

Mostafa E. Rateb, School of Computing, Engineering & Physical Sciences, University of the West of Scotland, Paisley PA1 2BE, UK. E-mail: mostafa.rateb@uws.ac.uk

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Summary

The prevalence of multidrug-resistant microbial pathogens due to the continued misuse and overuse of antibiotics in agriculture and medicine is raising the prospect of a return to the preantibiotic days of medicine at the time of diminishing numbers of drug leads. The good news is that an increased understanding of the nature and extent of microbial diversity in natural habitats coupled with the application of new technologies in microbiology and chemistry is opening up new strategies in the search for new specialized products with therapeutic properties. This review explores the premise that harsh environmental conditions in extreme biomes, notably in deserts, permafrost soils and deep-sea sediments select for micro-organisms, especially actinobacteria, cyanobacteria and fungi, with the potential to synthesize new druggable molecules. There is evidence over the past decade that micro-organisms adapted to life in extreme habitats are a rich source of new specialized metabolites. Extreme habitats by their very nature tend to be fragile hence there is a need to conserve those known to be hot-spots of novel gifted micro-organisms needed to drive drug discovery campaigns and innovative biotechnology. This review also provides an overview of microbialderived molecules and their biological activities focusing on the period from 2010 until 2018, over this time 186 novel structures were isolated from 129 representatives of microbial taxa recovered from extreme habitats.

Introduction

Micro-organisms remain the most promising source of novel specialized (secondary) metabolites as the chemical diversity of these compounds cannot be matched currently by that of chemical libraries (Krug and Müller 2014) hence the continued interest in the search for new natural products (NP) needed to drive innovative biotechnology (Katz and Baltz 2016). In recent times, the quest for novel bioactive molecules, especially those that can be developed to control multidrug-resistant pathogens and treat chronic conditions such as cancer,

dementia and epilepsy has been focused on the isolation, characterization (taxonomy) and dereplication (assignment of isolates to taxonomically meaningful groups) of previously unknown micro-organisms isolated from the extremobiosphere (Bull 2011; Horikoshi and Bull 2011; Bull and Goodfellow 2019).

The extremobiosphere encompasses a broad range of biomes that include hyperarid deserts, deep-sea sediments and permafrost soils, as well as acid and high-temperature environments. Such extreme habitats are characterized by combinations of environmental variables such as anoxia, aridity, extreme temperatures, low concentrations

of organic matter, high salinity and intense irradiation. The search for new bioactive compounds from the extremobiosphere rests on the premise that harsh abiotic conditions select for novel micro-organisms that express new chemistry (Okoro *et al.* 2009). Micro-organisms which live optimally under extreme conditions are considered to be extremophiles (Macelroy 1974), whereas those that can tolerate such conditions are described as being extremotolerant.

It is well known that actinobacteria from the phylum Actinobacteria (sensu Goodfellow 2012) have a unique capacity to synthesize new drug leads (Bérdy 2012; Genilloud 2017). These organisms, notably Streptomyces, account for around 70% of known antibiotics, including most of those in clinical use (Newman and Cragg 2016). The recent discovery that filamentous actinobacteria with large genomes contain many NP-biosynthetic gene clusters (NP-BGCs) which express for unknown drug leads partly accounts for the increased focus on these micro-organisms in bioprospecting campaigns (Bull and Goodfellow 2019). Especially gifted actinobacteria that have moderate or large genomes (~5·0-7·9 and >8·0 MB respectively) harbour many NP-BGCs (20-19 and >30 respectively) (Baltz 2017, 2019; Nouioui et al. 2019) are at the premium in the search for new chemical leads using state-of-art-technologies, such as genome mining (Harvey et al. 2015; Goodfellow et al. 2018). Other micro-organisms with large genomes laden with NP-BGCs include cyanobacteria (Vijayakumar and Menakha 2015), ktedonobacteria (Zheng et al. 2019), myxobacteria (Hoffmann et al. 2018) and fungi (Keller et al. 2005). Indeed, members of all of these taxa have been highlighted as potential candidates for drug discovery programmes (Dixit and Suseela 2013; Micallef et al. 2015; Baltz 2019; Keller 2019). In light of these developments, it clearly makes good sense to focus bioprospecting campaigns on micro-organisms with moderate to large genomes. Another important development is the realization that in some actinobacterial taxa, such as the genera Amycolatopsis, Frankia and Micromonospora, there is a link between the distribution of NP-BGCs and phylogeny (Adamek et al. 2018; Carro et al 2018a; Nouioui et al. 2019). In addition, information drawn from whole-genome sequences is providing fascinating insights into how micro-organisms adapt to extreme habitats, as witnessed by the ability of members of the actinobacterial family Geodermatophilaceae to withstand extreme environmental conditions that prevail in hyperarid desert habitats (Castro et al. 2018a, 2018bb).

The steps involved in culture-dependent NP discovery pipelines are outlined in Fig. 1. The initial step, the selection of environmental samples is followed by the selective isolation, dereplication and generation of microbial strain libraries. Subsequent steps involve the detection of bioactive

compounds from representatives of strain libraries, primary screening of fermentation broths and associated biomass extracts, and chemical dereplication of extracts followed by secondary fermentation using production media. Structural determination of drug leads and biological testing of purified compounds is the final stage in this process. At all of these stages, the application of technological developments and associated bioinformatic procedures in microbiology, molecular biology and chemistry minimizes the costly rediscovery of known compounds which until recently bedevilled bioprospecting campaigns (Baltz 2017).

This review is designed to determine the extent to which micro-organisms, notably actinobacteria, cyanobacteria and fungi isolated from diverse extreme habitats are a rich source of new drug leads of potential value in agriculture, industry and medicine. To this end, we not only discuss the microbiology of specific extreme habitats but also relationships between dereplicated micro-organisms and their ability to synthesize diverse chemical classes of specialized metabolites.

Deserts

Until recently, deserts received little attention from microbiologists even though they account for around 20% of the landmass on the planet (Laity 2009). Desert habitats are challenging for micro-organisms, notably the scarcity of water. Several pilot studies have been carried out to establish the microbial flora of nonpolar deserts (Kurapova et al. 2012; Tiwari et al. 2015; Ouchari et al. 2018) but the most extensive studies of cultivable microbial diversity in desert biomes have been focused on sites in the Atacama Desert in Northern Chile (Bull et al. 2016, 2018a; Bull and Goodfellow 2019). The location and abiotic conditions associated with this temperate, nonpolar desert have been the subject of several reviews (Azua-Bustos et al. 2012; Cordero et al. 2018) and its uniqueness highlighted (Bull et al. 2016). Microbial surveys of Atacama Desert soils and regoliths have been focused on the isolation and characterization of microorganisms, notably actinobacteria, from hyperarid and extreme hyperarid regions where the mean annual rainfall to mean annual evaporation is 0.05 and 0.02% respectively (Houston 2006). These conditions are compounded by other factors such as the presence of inorganic oxidants, very low levels of organic carbon, extreme temperature fluctuations and intense solar radiation; the latter contributes, in a synergistic way, with desiccation to limit the growth and survival of microbial life (Gómez-Silva 2018). Until recently, it was believed that such harsh abiotic conditions made any form of life in the core region of the Atacama Desert virtually impossible (Navarro-González et al. 2003). However, it is now known that

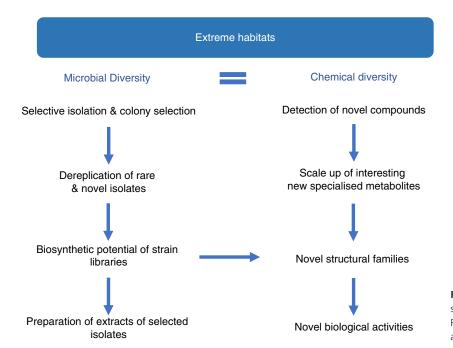


Figure 1 Culture-dependent bioprospecting strategy (modified from Goodfellow and Fiedler 2010). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

different groups of micro-organisms have adapted to the extreme environmental conditions that prevail in the desert (Schulze-Makuch *et al.* 2018), so much so that a highly unusual rain event in the hyperarid core of the desert led to the decimation of surface microbial communities (Azua-Bustos *et al.* 2018).

Actinobacteria

In recent times innumerable filamentous actinobacteria have been isolated from desert soils and assigned not only to the ubiquitous genus Streptomyces but also to rare and poorly studied taxa, such as the genera Actinomadura, Amycolatopsis, Nocardiopsis, Nonomuraea, ropolyspora and Saccharothrix (Okoro et al. 2009; Goodfellow et al. 2018). The application of cutting edge taxonomic and screening methods, especially those based on whole-genome sequence data; show that such filamentous actinobacteria are a significant source of novel specialized metabolites (Bull et al. 2016; Carro et al. 2018a; Carro et al. 2018b). In this context, especially gifted isolates from Atacama Desert habitats have been classified as novel species of Streptomyces, such as Streptomyces asenjonii (Goodfellow et al. 2017), Streptomyces deserti (Santhanam et al 2012a), Streptomyces atacamaensis (Santhanam et al 2012b), Streptomyces bullii (Santhanam et al. 2013) and Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii (Busarakam et al. 2014). Recently, presumptively gifted isolates from a high-altitude Cerro Chajnantor gravel soil in northern Chile have been validly named as Micromonospora acroterricola (Carro et al. 2019), Micromonospora arida and Micromonospora inaquosa (Carro et al. 2018a). Similarly, novel dereplicated isolates belonging to less well-known genera have been validly named, as exemplified by Amycolatopsis vastitatis (Idris et al. 2018), Lentzea chajnantorensis (Idris et al. 2017a) and Pseudonocardia nigra (Trujillo et al. 2017). The genomes of some of these isolates have the capacity to synthesize many novel specialized metabolites and contain stress-related genes that provide an insight into how actinobacteria adapt to the extreme environmental conditions found in Atacama Desert habitats (Idris et al. 2018; Carro et al. 2018b).

A steady flow of filamentous actinobacteria recovered from other nonpolar deserts have been validly named as new species, they include *Amycolatopsis desertii* (Busarakam et al. 2016a), *Desertiactinospora gelatinilytica* (Saygin et al. 2019), *Nakamurella deserti* (Liu et al. 2018a, 2018bb), *Prauserella isguensis* (Saker et al. 2015), *Saccharothrix algeriensis* (Zitouni et al. 2004), *Saccharothrix tharensis* (Ibeyaima et al. 2018) and *Streptosporangium becharense* (Chaouch et al. 2016).

Actinobacteria that are amycelial or form rudimentary hyphae have received less attention though they are known to be common in desert soils (Idris et al. 2017b; Bull et al. 2018b). Members of the family Geodermatophilaceae have received the most attention, notably the genera Blastococcus, Geodermatophilus and Modestobacter; members of these taxa are known to be resistant to desiccation, ionizing radiation, UV-light and heavy metals (Sghaier et al. 2016). Dereplicated Geodermatophilaceae strains from Atacama Desert habitats have been validly named as Blastococcus atacamensis (Castro et al.

2018a), Geodermatophilus chilensis (Castro et al. 2018b) and Modestobacter caceresii (Busarakam et al. 2016b) and shown to have moderately large genomes (3.9-5.9 Mb). Representatives of these taxa not only contain NP-BGCs but also stress-related genes that encode for properties such as carbon starvation, temperature fluxes, osmotic stress and UV-light. Other novel γ-radiation-resistant geodermatophili have been isolated from the Sahara Desert, as exemplified by Geodermatophilus pulveris (Hezbri et al. 2016). In addition, radiation-resistant actinobacteria belonging to the genera Agrococcus, Arthrobacter, Cellulomonas, Kocuria, Knoella and Nocardioides have been recovered from the Taklamakam Desert (Yu et al. 2015). Amycelial actinobacteria isolated from other deserts include Arthrobacter deserti (Hu et al. 2016), Citricoccus alkalitolerans (Li et al. 2005) and Kocuria aegyptia (Li et al. 2006). A particularly interesting development was the discovery that the sole member of the novel taxon Desertimonas flava, which was recovered from the Gurbantünggüt Desert, a desert which occupies a large part of the Dzungarian Basin in northern Xinjiang Province, China, belongs to the newly proposed family Ilumatobacteraceae of the order Acidomicrobiales (Asem et al. 2018).

Alkali-halotolerant actinobacteria retrieved from salty hyperarid soils have been shown to be adapted to alkaline, drought and extreme temperatures (Mohammadipanah and Wink 2016). Streptomyces aburaviensis, an isolate from saline arid desert soil in Kutch, India grows well at pH 8.5 in the presence of 15% w/v NaCl (Thumar et al. 2010). Mycetocola manganoxydans, a unique nonsporulating alkaliphilic actinobacterium isolated from the Taklamakan Desert can oxidize manganese ions (Luo et al. 2012). In addition, several alkalihalophilic actinobacteria have been isolated from the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, including members of the genera Cellulomonas, Saccharothrix and Streptosporangium (Ding et al. 2013) whereas Actinomadura and Nocardiopsis strains have been recovered from alkaline arid soils adjacent to salty lakes in Buryatiya (Lubsanova et al. 2014). A novel alkaliphilic Streptomyces strain isolated from an alkaline soil in the arid area of Boho, Northern Ireland was found to grow under intense γ-radiation (4 kGy) at pH 10·5, and shown to be a potential source of novel specialized metabolites that inhibit ESKAPE pathogens (Terra et al. 2018).

Cyanobacteria

These oxygenic photosynthetic prokaryotes, which form a single taxonomic and phylogenetic group, produce a broad range of bioactive compounds including ones that show anti-microbial, anti-protozoal and anti-inflammatory activity (Micallef *et al.* 2015; Vijayakumar and

Menakha 2015). Endolithic (rock-inhabiting) cyanobacteria dominated by Chroococcidiopsis species were first reported from the Negev Desert (Potts and Friedmann 1981), but are now known to be common in desert biomes given their remarkable ability to cope with extreme aridity and solar radiation (Lacap-Bugler et al. 2017). Indeed, cyanobacteria dominate hypolithic (under rock) desert communities and may be major drivers of community assembly and function (Bahl et al. 2011). Microbial communities dominated by Chroococcidiposis strains inhabit halite deposits in the hyperarid core of the Atacama Desert (Wierzchos et al. 2006). It has also been shown that cyanobacteria and associated heterotrophic bacteria reside within pore spaces in nodule-shaped halite crusts (Ríos et al. 2010; Roldán et al. 2014). These lithic microbial communities have developed adaptive strategies to withstand the extreme environmental conditions that prevail in the Atacama Desert (Gómez-Silva 2018), as is the case with similar communities in the Namib Desert (Stomeo et al. 2013). It is evident that green hypoliths in the hyperarid core of the Atacama Desert are dominated by Chroococcidopsis and Nostocales species and red hypoliths by Chloroflexi (Lacap et al. 2011), whereas Noctocophycideae and Synechococcophycideae species are present in lower numbers (Vítek et al. 2014). Cyanobacteria also produce pigments which may protect them against lethal doses of UV-radiation in hyperarid habitats (Powell et al. 2015).

Fungi

Like actinobacteria and cyanobacteria, fungi show a range of adaptive mechanisms which allow them to withstand environmental extremes found in desert ecosystems (Onofri et al. 2007; Stevenson et al. 2017; Santiago et al. 2018), as shown by their ability to synthesize melanin pigments that provide protection against high levels of UV-radiation (Gessler et al. 2014). Early isolation studies on soils from the Negev and Sonoran deserts revealed extensive fungal diversity (Taylor-George et al. 1983), results now known to square with the view that fungi are the most stress-resistant eukaryotes (Sterflinger et al. 2012), a point especially apt with respect to microbial rock fungi (Palmer et al. 1987; Gonçalves et al. 2016).

To date, fungi isolated from desert habitats have featured rarely in bioprospecting campaigns even though fungal taxa, including novel species, are common in desert landscapes. A preliminary survey of Atacama Desert soils by Conley *et al.* (2006), for instance, recorded 13 distinct fungal genera, notably *Alternaria* and *Ulocladium* species; it is now clear that fungal communities in this desert represent an unknown element of global fungal diversity (Santiago *et al.* 2018). Furthermore, a survey

of fungi from Makhtesh Ramon desert soil found 135 novel species dominated by ascomycetes (Grishkan and Nevo 2010). In addition, 77 lichenoid fungal species detected along two altitudinal transects at Alto Patache in the Atacama Desert included four new species, Amandinea efflorescens, Diploicia canescens, Myriospora smaragdula and Rhizocarpon simillimum (Castillo and Beck 2012), whereas high-altitude rocks in the desert were a source of fungi belonging to the genera Cladosporium, Neucatenulostroma and Penicillium (Gonçalves et al. 2016). Furthermore, two novel halophilic fungi isolated from a cave in the Coastal Range of the Atacama Desert were designated as Aspergillus atacamensis and Aspergillus salisburgensis (Martinelli et al. 2017). Extensive fungal diversity has been recorded in Middle East desert sand (Murgia et al. 2018) and three novel fungal species, Diverispora omaniana, Septoglomus nakheelum and Rhizophagus arabicus, were recorded from a desert in Oman (Symanczik et al. 2014).

Desert-associated specialized metabolites

The range of micro-organisms found in deserts are potential sources of new chemical diversity but have been understudied chemically, partly reflecting a view that desert micro-organisms were likely to synthesize bioactive metabolites due to limited numbers of competing microbial species present in extreme biomes (Pettit 2011). However, over the last 20 years, actinobacteria, cyanobacteria and fungi isolated from unusual or extreme desert habitats have been shown to have evolved unique metabolic pathways for the synthesis of novel bioactive specialized metabolites (Peng et al. 2011; Jančič et al. 2016; Rateb et al. 2018). Indeed, by 2008, more than 100 specialized metabolites had been isolated and identified from micro-organisms isolated from such habitats (Wilson and Brimble 2009).

N-containing compounds

Since 2010, most investigated bioactive molecules have been reported from actinobacteria recovered from hyperarid Atacama Desert soils, as shown in Fig. 2. *Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii* strain C34^T produces ansamycin-type macrocyclic polyketides, the chaxamycins A–D (1–4) together with the aminoglycoside antibiotics hygromycin A (5), 5"-dihydrohygromycin A (6), deferrioxamine E (nocardamine, 7) as well as desferrioxamine B (8), the latter were isolated from the same strain using the OSMAC (One Strain Many Compounds) approach (Rateb *et al.* 2011a, 2011bb). Further examples of novel bioactive molecules from Atacama Desert streptomycetes include the aminobenzoquinones, abenquines A, B1, B2, C and D (9–13) which showed inhibitory activity against

bacteria and dermatophytic fungi (Schulz et al. 2011). Fermentation of S. leeuwenhoekii strain C58 led to the isolation of chaxapeptin (14), a novel ribosomally-synthesized and posttranslationally modified lasso peptide which exhibits significant in vitro inhibitory activity against human lung cancer cells (Elsayed et al. 2015). Recently, bio-guided fractionation of a culture broth extract of S. asenjonii strain 42.f (Goodfellow et al. 2017) led to the isolation of new bioactive polyketides of the rare β -diketone family, asenjonamides A-C (15-17) which showed potent antibacterial effects against Gram-positive bacteria., it is particularly interesting that asenjonamide C (17) shows comparable activity to that of tetracycline (Abdelkader et al. 2018). In the same study, a series of bioactive acylated 4-aminoheptosyl-β-N-glycosides, spicamycins A-E (18-22), were isolated in a pure form for the first time. These antibiotics were initially found as a nonseparable mixture of seven compounds extracted from Streptomyces alanosinicus (Hayakawa et al. 1983). There is evidence that this unique class of nucleoside antibiotics may provide a promising lead for the development of new anticancer drugs (Gadgeel et al. 2003).

Cyanobacteria are widely distributed in both arid and hyperarid ecosystems, and are the source of many bioactive compounds (Singh et al. 2005; Micallef et al. 2015). They produce pigments like scytonemin (23) and the mycosporine-like amino acids shinorine (24) and porphyra-334 (25) which may absorb potentially lethal doses of UV-radiation found in hyperarid environments, these compounds are being evaluated as a source of potent sunscreens (Powell et al. 2015). Scytonemin (23), which is produced by a *Chroococcidiopsis* strain, has potential as a chemical marker for endolithic cyanobacterial colonies in halite crusts which are common in the hyperarid zone of the Atacama Desert (Vítek et al. 2014). This compound is of considerable interest as it causes attenuation of mitogen-induced inflammatory hyperproliferation through inhibition of polo-like kinase hence its unique dimeric structure may prove to be a potential scaffold for the development of potent kinase inhibitors (D'Orazio et al. 2012). Recently, the mycosporine-like amino acids, shinorine (24) and porphyra-334 (25) were found to exhibit anti-inflammatory effects by interference with NFκB activation (Becker et al. 2016).

Cyanobacteria found in extreme habitats, such as alkaline lakes, hyperarid desert soils, hypersaline environments and polar regions, produce cyanotoxins, diverse specialized metabolites (e.g., alkaloids, amino acids and cyclic peptides) which can be classified into hepatotoxins, neurotoxins and cytotoxins (Metcalf and Codd 2012). Cyanotoxins detected in habitats such as these include the neurotoxins anatoxin-a (26), anatoxin-a(S) (27), β -methylaminopropionic acid (28) and 2,4-diaminobutyric

Figure 2 Specialized metabolites derived from actinobacteria (red colour), cyanobacteria (blue colour) and fungi (black colour) recovered from desert habitats (compounds 1–49). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

acid (29), as well as the hepatotoxins, nodularin (30) and cylindrospermopsin (31). Biosynthesis of these toxins is mainly attributed to the cyanobacterial genera *Arthrospira*, *Oscillatoria and Synechococcus* (Cirés *et al.* 2017). Apart from their toxicological properties, cylindrospermopsin (31) and anatoxin-a (26) show estrogenic activity *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays (Liu *et al.* 2018a, 2018bb).

Recent studies on fungi from desert ecosystems underlines their potential as a prolific source of novel chemical entities which show interesting bioactivities (Santiago et al. 2018). Members of the genus Wallemia, a taxon which encompasses seven species, were previously considered to be halophilic (Zalar et al. 2005). However, Wallemia sebi, the sole representative of the genus isolated from the Atacama Desert produces a range of specialized metabolites such as wallimidione (32) (Desroches et al. 2014), 15-azasterol (33) and 24,28-dihydro-15-azasterol (34) (Jančič et al. 2016). Molecules 33 and 34, also known as UCA1064-A and UCA1064-B, respectively, exhibit in vivo antitumor activity against a mouse mammary tumour model and in vitro antiproliferative activity against HeLa S3 cells; they also show antifungal activity against Saccharomyces cerevisiae and inhibit Gram-positive bacteria (Jančič et al. 2016). Furthermore, the alkaloid cyclopentanopyridine (35) isolated from a halophilic strain of W. sebi inhibits Enterobacter aerogenes (Peng et al. 2011).

Macrolides

Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii C34^T from Atacama Desert soil produces chaxalactins A–C (36–38), a rare class of 22-membered macrolactone polyketides which show antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria (Rateb *et al.* 2011a, 2011bb). In turn, *S. leeuwenhoekii* strain C38, isolated from the same desert location, synthesizes 22-membered macrolactone antibiotics, the atacamycins A-C (39–41) (Nachtigall *et al.* 2011).

Other metabolites

Chemical investigation of *L. chajnantorensis* strain H45 recovered from a high-altitude Atacama Desert soil (Idris *et al.* 2017a) led to the characterization of new diene glycosides, lentzeosides A–F (**42–47**) which show inhibitory activity against HIV integrase (Wichner *et al.* 2017). Furthermore, the Atacama Desert-derived fungus, *W. sebi* produces two unique terpenes, walleminone (**48**) and walleminol (**49**) (Jančič *et al.* 2016).

Permafrost soils

Permafrost is the layer below the earth's crust that has remained at or below 0°C for at least two consecutive years (Jansson and Taş 2014). It is estimated that

approximately 25% of the landmass of the planet is underlayen by permafrost soils. These soils, together with overlying (naturally thawing) layers, provide unique habitats for active, cold-adapted, microbial communities (Bakermans et al. 2014; De Maayer et al. 2014; Hu et al. 2015), as well as for cells that have remained viable for millions of years (Gilichinsky et al. 2008). Indeed, according to the Snow Ball Earth hypothesis, the planet has been completely or almost completely frozen at least once within the last 650 million years suggesting that microorganisms would have had to adapt to subzero temperatures to survive (Schopf and Klein 1992). Permafrost can be distinguished from other low-temperature biomes, such as sea ice and deep oceans, by its structural heterogeneity given horizontal and vertical differences in soil, ice and organic matter content (Jansson and Taş 2014).

Micro-organisms adapted to temperatures that range from -17 to +10°C are referred to as cryophiles (Feller and Gerday 2003). Water availability and temperature are the most important abiotic factors influencing microbial diversity in cold environments though high viscosity and low thermal energy offer additional challenges (Jansson and Taş 2014). Nucleic acid replication, transcription and translation are inhibited under such conditions, whereas proteins can denaturate causing loss of cell membrane fluidity (Chattopadhyay 2006; D'Amico et al. 2006). Micro-organisms adapted to life in such cold environments have developed several strategies for survival, such as initiating dormant states and generating specialized metabolites and proteins (Bakermans et al. 2009). Cryophilic micro-organisms can also reduce their metabolism and nutrient uptake by storing energy as polyphosphates, triglycerides, wax esters and glycogen (Bowman 2008) and can adapt their cellular structure by regulating branched and saturated fatty-acid production to maintain cell membrane fluidity at freezing temperatures (Unell et al. 2007).

Prokaryotes

Arctic permafrost soils tend to be dominated by *Acidobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria*, as well as by *Proteobacteria* belonging to the Burkholderiales (β -proteobacteria), Myxococcales (δ -proteobacteria), Rhizobiales (α -proteobacteria) and Xanthomonadales (γ -proteobacteria) (Malard and Pearce 2018). These authors suggested that biogeographic variation may be a feature of Arctic soils as actinobacteria occurred in lower numbers in Greenland and Finland, whereas much higher populations of *Bacteroidetes* were evident in Alaskan, Canadian and Svalbard permafrost., these abundant groups also included *Chloroflexi*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, *Gemmatimonadetes*, *Planctomycetes* and *Verrucomicrobia*. In turn,

the dominant taxa found in Chinese permafrost soils were *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes* and *Proteobacteria* (Hu *et al.* 2015). The dominant cyanobacterial orders in Arctic soil crusts were found to be the Nostocales, Oscillatoriales and Synechococcales (Steven *et al.* 2013; Pushkareva *et al.* 2015). Indeed, cyanobacteria are mainly responsible for the uptake of CO₂ and N₂ as plants in Arctic ecosystems are unable to fix nitrogen (Malard and Pearce 2018).

Regional populations of cyanobacteria may also be a feature of Antarctic soils (Namsaraev *et al.* 2010). Archaea have also been isolated from permafrost (Jansson and Taş 2014). Archaeal communities in Arctic soils seem to be variable through *Methanobacteria* and *Methanomicrobia* (*Euryarchaeota*) are abundant in Alaskan and Greenland soils (Ganzert *et al.* 2014; Malard and Pearce 2018), whereas isolates related to the genera *Methanolobus* and *Methanomethylovorans* have been recovered from frozen ground in the Zoige wetland of the Qinghai—Tibet plateau (Zhang *et al.* 2008). The methane released by these organisms can be used as a sole carbon source by methanotrophic bacteria, such as α - and γ -proteobacteria (Coolen *et al.* 2011) and members of the Methanococcales (Martineau *et al.* 2014).

Fungi

In general, fungal communities in Arctic permafrost are dominated by Ascomycota, Basidiomycota and Chytridiomycota (Gittel et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2016a, 2016bb), through the survival of associated shrubs are dependent on ectomycorrhizal fungi (Deslippe et al. 2011; Fujiyoshi et al. 2011). In turn, common genera include Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Geomyces and Penicillium (Ozerskaya et al. 2009). Over 400 taxonomically distinct genera have been recovered from Antarctic soil systems suggesting that fungi may be the most diverse biota in this mileau (Bridge and Spooner 2012); isolates from Cape Royds, Antarctica keyed out to the genera Cadospora, Geomyces and Thielava (Blanchette et al. 2010). Indeed, the ascomycete genera Cadospora and Geomyces may be endemic to Antarctic soils (Arenz and Blanchette 2011). Fungal diversity in Antarctic lichens from King George Island was shown to include the Arthonimycetes, Eurotiomycetes, Leoanoromycetes, Leotiomycetes and Sordariomycetes (Ascomycota) and the Cystobasidiomycetes and Tremellomycetes of the Basidiomycota (Park et al. 2015).

Permafrost soil-associated specialized metabolites

N-containing compounds

Their rapid growth rate and ability to metabolize a wide array of substrates have enabled fungi to become the

dominant micro-organisms in polar habitats (Fig. 3). Two new epipolythiodioxopiperazines, the chetracins B and C (50, 51), together with five new diketopiperazines, oidioperazines A-D (52-55) and chetracin D (56) were isolated from the Antarctic psychrophilic fungus Oidiodendron truncatum. Chetracin B (50) shows potent anticancer activity at a nanomolar concentration against a panel of human cancer cell lines, whereas chetracin C (51) displayed a significant effect at a micromolar concentration suggesting that the sulphide bridge is an essential structural feature for the activity of these compounds (Li et al. 2012). Another psychrophilic fungus, Eutypella sp. D1, isolated from an Arctic soil on London Island of Fongsfjorden, yielded the new cytochalasins Z_{24} , Z_{25} , Z_{26} (57–59). Cytochalasin Z_{24} (57) showed moderate cytotoxicity toward human breast cancer MCF-7 cells (Liu et al. 2014). Further chemical profiling of the Eutypella strain led to the isolation of two new N-containing diterpenes; libertellenone G (60) and eutypenoid B (61). The former exhibited significant antibacterial activity against Gram-positive and Gramnegative bacteria and the latter potent immunosuppressive activity (Lu et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2016a, 2016bb). Lindgomycin (62), an unusual polyketide with a novel carbon skeleton, and ascosetin (63) were recovered from an Arctic sponge-derived fungal strain and classified in the family Lindgomycetaceae. All these metabolites exhibited potent antimicrobial activities against several pathogenic Gram-positive bacteria, including MRSA and the pathogenic yeast Candida albicans (Ondeyka et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2015).

The new benzoxazine glycosides, arcticoside (64) and C-1027 chromophore-V (65) derived from an Arctic marine Streptomyces strain showed inhibitory activity against Candida albicans isocitrate lyase and breast and colorectal carcinoma cells. Additionally, C-1027 chromophore-III (66) and fijiolides A and B (67, 68) were isolated from the same strain (Moon et al. 2014). An Arctic freshwater-derived bacterium, Pseudomonas fluorescens BD5 produced unusual cyclic lipopeptide biosurfactants, namely pseudofactin I and II (69, 70), the structure of which is unique as a palmitic acid is connected to a terminal peptide moiety of eighth amino acids. Interestingly, the stability and emulsification activity of these metabolites were greater than those of the conventional synthetic surfactants Triton X-100 and Tween 20 suggesting that they may be of potential value in bioremediation and biomedicine (Janek et al. 2010).

Polyketides

Two highly oxygenated polyketides, penilactones A and B (71, 72), isolated from an Antarctic deep-sea-derived fungus, *Penicillium crustosum*, inhibited the nuclear factor-

κΒ (NF-κΒ) (Wu et al. 2012). Furthermore, a psychrophilic fungal strain isolated from an Antarctic marine sponge and assigned to the genus Pseudogymnoascus produced four new nitroasterric acid derivatives, pseudogymnoascins A-C (73-75) and 3-nitroasterric acid (76); these polyketides are the first nitro-derivatives of the known fungal metabolite asterric acid. In general, most reported asterric acid derivatives have been found to show antibacterial and antifungal activity but the present nitro-derivatives were inactive possibly due to the presence of the nitro group (Figueroa et al. 2015). Bio-guided fractionation of the culture broth of the Antarctic soil-derived Aspergillus ochraceopetaliformis strain led to the isolation of five new highly oxygenated polyketides, ochraceopones A-E (77-81), along with a new double bond isomer of asteltoxin (82), isoasteltoxin (83), as well as asteltoxin B (84). Among these metabolites, ochraceopones A (77) and isoasteltoxin (83) showed promising antiviral activity against the influenza viruses H1N1 and H3N2 (Wang et al. 2016).

Terpenes

A psychrophilic fungal *Eutypella* strain isolated from an Arctic soil on London Island was the source of four new diterpenes; scoparasin B (85), libertellenone H (86) and eutypenoids A and C (87, 88) (Liu *et al.* 2014). In turn, the meroterpenoids chrodrimanins I and J (89, 90) and five known structurally related chrodrimanins were purified from the culture broth of the Antarctic moss-derived fungus *Penicillium funiculosum*, the novel chrodrimanins showed week inhibitory activity against influenza A virus H1N1 (Zhou *et al.* 2015).

Lipids

Screening for new anti-*Burkholderia cepacia* complex compounds from bacteria isolated from the Ross Sea (Antarctica) led to the isolation of three new rhamnolipids (91–93) from *Pseudomonas* strain BNT1 (Tedesco *et al.* 2016).

Deep-sea sediments

Taxonomically diverse micro-organisms able to synthesize bioactive metabolites are common in marine habitats (Goodfellow and Fiedler 2010; Wang et al. 2016). In contrast, partly for logistics reasons, less attention has been given to the microflora of deep-sea sediments, notably those in polar regions and oceanic trenches. However, it is now becoming apparent that bacteria and fungi adapted to extreme conditions in these habitats, notably low temperatures (-1 to 4°C), dearth of nutrients and high hydrostatic pressure, provide interesting targets for bioprospecting campaigns (Zhang et al. 2014a, 2014bb; Dickinson et al. 2016; Gonçalves et al. 2017).

Bacteria

Arctic marine sediments contain diverse actinobacterial communities including representatives of putatively novel species (Zhang et al. 2014a, 2014bb) whereas samples taken along a transcend between the Atlantic Peninsula and South America were dominated in terms of genetic diversity by γ-proteobacteria and euryarchaeota (López-García et al. 2001). Furthermore, subsea floor core samples from the Nakau and Okinawa Troughs showed a range of halotolerant actinobacteria related to well-known antibiotic producing genera, such as Nocardia, Pseudonocardia and Streptomyces (Ulanova and Goo 2015). These results are in good agreement with those of earlier studies on actinobacteria isolated from deep-sea sediments, including ones recovered from the Challenge Deep of the Mariana Trench (Pathom-aree et al. 2006). Neither cyanobacteria nor archaea are common in polar marine deep sediments (Dickinson et al. 2016).

Fungi

Taxonomically diverse marine fungi are a feature of cold deep-sea sediments. Seawater sediments taken from across the northern Antarctic penunsula, for instance, contained diverse fungal assemblages despite the harsh environmental conditions (Gonçalves et al. 2017), as is the case with deep-sea sediments from the East Indian Ocean (Zhang et al. 2014a, 2014bb). Dominant cold-adapted yeasts from the deep Polar Sea include Candida, Cryptococcus, Pichia and Rodotorula spp. (Nagano et al. 2013). In addition, filamentous yeasts and fungi belonging to the Ascomycota have been isolated from deep-sea sediments from the Central Indian Basin (Singh et al. 2010, 2012). Many Graphium sp. that displayed barotolerance at 100-bar pressure were recovered from Northern Antarctic Peninsula (Gonçalves et al. 2017).

Deep-sea sediment-associated specialized metabolites

N-containing compounds

Regulatory genes such as whiB-like (wblA₅₀) play significant roles in actinobacterial specialized metabolism. Inactivation of wblA₅₀ and vioB from a cold deep-sea-derived Streptomyces somaliensis strain led to spectacular changes in the production of specialized metabolites (Fig. 4), notably in the synthesis of the new antimycin-type depsipeptide, somalimycin (94) and two analogues, USF-19A and urauchimycin D (95, 96) (Li et al. 2017). Chemical investigation of Marinactinospora thermotolerans, Streptomyces scopuliridis and Streptomyces drozdowiczii strains recovered from deep-sea samples collected off South China (3865 m) led to the isolation of the cyclic peptides,

Figure 3 Specialized metabolites derived from actinobacteria (red colour), bacteria (green colour) and fungi (black colour) isolated from permafrost soils (compounds 50–93). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

Figure 4 Specialized metabolites derived from actinobacteria (red colour) and fungi (black colour) isolated from deep-sea sediments (compounds **94–142**). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

marthiapeptide A (97), desotamide (98), desotamide B-D (99-101) and marfomycins A-F (102-107) all of which showed antimicrobial activity against pathogenic Grampositive bacteria (Zhou et al. 2012, 2014; Song et al. 2014). Additionally, three spirotetronate polyketides, lobophorin E (108), F (109) and H (110) extracted from two Streptomyces strains isolated from the same location at a depth of 2134 m, were shown to have antibacterial activity against a panel of Gram-positive bacteria (Niu et al. 2011; Pan et al. 2013). Furthermore, a novel piezotolerant actinobacterium, Dermacoccus abyssi, isolated from Mariana Trench sediment produced novel phenazine metabolites, dermacozines A-J (111-120); dermacozines F (116) and G (117) showed interesting antiproliferative activity towards the leukaemia cell line K562 with IC₅₀ values of 9 and 7 mmol l⁻¹ (Abdel-Mageed et al. 2010; Wagner et al. 2014). Chemical investigation of the Antarctic deep-sea fungus Penicillium sp. PR19N-1 led to the isolation of a new rare lactam-type metabolite, eremophilane (121) (Lin et al. 2014). Fermentation of another deep-sea fungus, Aspergillus westerdijkiae DFFSCS013, led to the isolation of two new benzodiazepine alkaloids circumdatins K and L (122, 123), and two new indole alkaloids, 10-epi-sclerotiamide and 5-chlorosclerotiamide (124, 125) together with the novel amide, aspergilliamide B (126) (Peng et al. 2013).

Terpenes

A novel chloro-trinoreremophilane sesquiterpene (127) and three new chlorinated eremophilane sesquiterpenes (128–130) were also obtained from the Antarctic deepsea fungus *Penicillium* sp. PR19N-1, these compounds showed moderate cytotoxic activity against the cancer cell lines HL-60 and A549 (Wu *et al.* 2013). Further chemical investigation on this strain led to the isolation of five new cytotoxic eremophilane-type sesquiterpenes (131–135) (Lin *et al.* 2014).

Polyketides

Five new α -pyrone derivatives, violapyrone A–C, J and H (136–140), which showed anti-MRSA activity were isolated from a *Streptomyces somaliensis* strain isolated from a deep-sea sediment (Huang *et al.* 2016). Extensive chemical profiling of the Antarctic deep-sea fungus *Penicillium crustosum* PRB-2 resulted in the identification of penilactones A and B (141, 142), two novel polyketides with unusual highly oxygenated structures, along with known phenolic metabolites (Wu *et al.* 2012).

Highly acidic habitats

In general, extreme acidophiles can be defined as microorganisms that grow optimally at pH values below 3 (Johnson and Quatrini 2016). These micro-organisms are common in acid lakes, acid sulphate soils and acid mine wastes (Druschel et al. 2004; Mirete et al. 2017). Most studies have been focused on the structure and function of microbial communities in acid mine drainage (AMD) systems given their simplicity from a biological and geochemical perspective (Denef et al. 2010). Primary environmental variables that shape AMD habitats are dissolved metal concentrations, total organic carbon, dissolved oxygen, pH and temperature (Méndez-García et al. 2015). These factors, notably pH, help to drive microbial diversity patterns in acid mine wastes (Kuang et al. 2013). Acidophilic algae, archaea, bacteria and fungi have developed ways of thriving or tolerating conditions in acidic biomes (Baker-Austin and Dopson 2007; Denef et al. 2010), as exemplified by roles played by cell membranes in archaea and bacteria (Konings et al. 2002; Falteisek and Čepička 2012).

Prokaryotes

Individual acidic habitats tend to be dominated by one or a few species (Mueller et al. 2010), as illustrated by the dominance of Acidithiobacillus thioxydans on the ceilings of acidic caves (Ziegler et al. 2013); this extreme acidic chemolithotroph, which is a member of the order Acidothiobacilliales (Williams and Kelly 2013), is a feature of acid mine wastes across the world (Hedrich and Johnson 2013). Furthermore, acidic, warm ferruginous mine wastes are dominated by Ferroplasma and Leptospirillum spp. (Denef et al. 2010) and their cold counterparts by Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans (Liljeqvist et al. 2015). In turn, Leptospirillum species are common members of acidophilic communities that catalyse the oxidation of ferrous ion (Goltsman et al. 2013). However, the primary bacterial lineages found in acid mine wastes are Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Aquificae, Firmacutes, Nitrospora, Proteobacteria and Candidatus division TH7 (Chen et al. 2016). Predominant sulphate-reducing bacteria detected in AMD systems include Desulfurella, Desulfomonile, Syntrophobacter and Thermodesulfolobium spp. (Sánchez-Andrea et al. 2012). Taxomonically diverse archaea present in acid mine wastes include Acidianus, Metallophaera, Sulfolobus and Sulfurisporae spp. (phylum Crenarchaeota) and the genus Ferroplasma of the phylum Euryarchaeota (Chen et al. 2015, 2016). Extremely acidophilic archaea are classified within the Euryarchaeota (such as a *Picrophilus* sp. which is considered the most acidophilic of all known life-forms) and Crenarchaeota phyla have been regarded as thermoacidophiles (Aguilera et al. 2016).

Eukaryotes

Relatively little is known about algae and fungi in acidic habitats even though they are an integral part of

microbial communities (Falteisek and Čepička 2012). However, *Penicillum* spp. isolated from an abandoned open-pit containing acid-metal waste in Montana, USA were found to produce interesting, novel bioactive compounds (Zhang *et al.* 2018), whereas algae from acid mine waste have been identified as *Chlorella protothecoids* var. *acidicola* and *Euglena mutabolis* (Johnson 2012).

Acidic habitats-associated specialized metabolites

Polyketides

In 2012, azaphilone-type polyketides, berkazaphilones A and B (143, 144) together with berkazaphilones C (145), berkedienoic acid (146), berkedienolactone (147), vermistatin (148), dihydrovermistatin (149), penisimplicissin (150) and methylparaconic acid (151) were isolated from an extremophilic fungus recovered from the acid mine waste lake in Montana and identified as Penicillium rubrum (Fig. 5). Berkazaphilones B and C (144, 145) and penisimplicissin (151) exhibited selective inhibitory activity against leukemia cancer cell lines through inhibition of caspase-1 (Stierle et al. 2012a). An extremophilic fungus assigned to the genus Pleurostomophora isolated from the same acid mine lake produced three new azaphilones, berkchaetoazaphilones A-C (152-154) and the red pigment berkchaetorubramine (155), berkchaetoazaphilone B (153) showed in vitro anti-inflammatory activity by inhibiting of the production of IL-1β, TNFα and IL-6 inflammatory mediators, and exhibited potent cytotoxic effects against human retinoblastoma, leukaemia and melanoma cell lines (Stierle et al. 2015).

Terpenes

The *P. rubrum* strain mentioned above also produced interesting meroterpenoids, namely berkeleyones A–C (156–158), berkeleydione (159) and berkeleytrione (160), as well as preaustinoid A and A₁ (161, 162)., these metabolites inhibited the *in vitro* production of interleukin 1- β (Stierle *et al.* 2011). Moreover, two new drimane sesquiterpene lactones, berkedrimanes A and B (163, 164) and a new tricarboxylic acid (165) were isolated from another extremophilic fungal strain isolated from the Montana acid mine lake and identified as *Penicillium solitum*, berkedrimanes A and B (163, 164) showed *in vitro* anti-inflammatory activity as they inhibited the enzymes caspase-1 and 3 (Stierle *et al.* 2012b).

Saline and hypersaline habitats

Saline habitats can be considered as ones where salt concentrations correspond to the level found in seawater (3.5% w/v of total dissolved salts, Díaz-Cárdenas *et al.* 2017), whereas high salt environments have

concentrations of salts >100 g l⁻¹. (Enache *et al.* 2017) as found in Antarctic biomes and hypersaline lakes. Halophilic micro-organisms thrive under harsh environmental conditions that prevail in such habitats as they have evolved molecular and cellular mechanisms to cope with factors such as osmotic pressure and low water activity (Oren 1999; Gunde-Cimerman and Zalar 2014; Waditee-Sirisattha *et al.* 2016), whereas their halotolerant counterparts generally grow in the absence of salt but can tolerate high salt concentrations. Halophilic micro-organisms, in particular, are being seen as a source of novel bioactive compounds (Waditee-Sirisattha *et al.* 2016; Díaz-Cárdenas *et al.* 2017).

Prokaryotes

Phylogenetically diverse halophilic and highly halotolerant archaea are common in hypersaline systems and include members of the class *Halobacteria* (Andrei *et al.* 2012). Extreme halophilic archaea have been isolated from hypersaline lakes in the Transylvanian Basin close to the salt minos of Turda (Baricz *et al.* 2014, 2015). Novel archaea isolated from commercial salt include *Halarchaeum acidophilum* (Minegishi *et al.* 2010) and *Natronoarchaeum mannanilyticum* (Shimane *et al.* 2010). Common bacteria recovered from hypersaline habitats have been assigned to the phyla *Actinobacteria* (*Streptomyces*), *Bacteriodetes* (*Flavobacteria*), *Cyanobacteria*, *Firmacutes* (*Bacilli* and *Clostridia*) and *Proteobacteria* (α and γ-proteobacteria) (Enache *et al.* 2017). Archaea and bacteria are also common in ancient halite (Jaakkola *et al.* 2016).

Eukaryotes

Extremely halotolerant and halophylic fungi have been isolated from biomes in solar salterns across the world, as exemplified by melanized members of the genera *Aspergillus*, *Cladosporium* and *Penicillium* spp., and *Emericella* and *Eurotium* spp., nonmelanized yeasts and *Wallemia* spp. (Gunde-Cimerman and Zalar 2014). Unclassified eukaryotes have been detected in a hypersaline sulphate lake (Pontefract *et al.* 2017).

Saline and hypersaline habitats-associated specialized metabolites

N-containing compounds

Chemical investigation of *Streptomyces* strains derived from a saltern in Shinui Island (Republic of Korea) led to the isolation of a new chlorinated manumycin, salternamide A (166) and a new indolosesquiterpene, xiamycin D (167) (Fig. 5). Salternamide A (166) showed potent cytotoxicity against human colon and gastric cancer cell lines, whereas xiamycin D (167) exhibited potent antiviral

Figure 5 Specialized metabolites derived from actinobacteria (red colour), bactrria (green colour) and fungi (black colour), isolated from acidic, hypersaline and high-temperature habitats (compounds 143–186). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

activity against the porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus (Kim et al. 2015). Chemical profiling of bioactive specialized metabolites from a Bacillus strain isolated from a saltern in Incheon, Korea led to the isolation of three new lipopeptides, iturin F_1 (168), iturin F_2 (169) and iturin A_9 (170), together with iturin A_8 (171). All of these compounds showed potent activity against pathogenic fungi and moderate antiproliferative activity against HeLa and srcts-NRK cell lines. Moreover, an in vitro enzymatic assay of iturin A_8 (171) demonstrated significant inhibitory activity towards indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (Son et al. 2016).

Carotenoids

A *Halobacterium salinarium* strain was found to produce a group of potent antioxidant carotenoids, namely bacterioruberin (172), bisanhydrobacterioruberin (173) and trisanhydrobacterioruberin (174) (Mandelli *et al.* 2012).

High-temperature environments

Thermophilic and hyperthermophilic micro-organisms are common in hot-springs and deep-sea hydrothermal vents, but are also found in artificial habitats such as compost (Rastogi *et al.* 2010; Urbieta *et al.* 2015). The optimal growth temperature for thermophiles is around 55°C and that for hyperthermophiles is above 80°C though other extreme variables, such as low pH and high salt concentrations may affect their distribution. Hyperthermophilic micro-organisms contain polyamines, these long chain functional polymers contribute to their survival at high temperatures (Hidese *et al.* 2018). Heat loving micro-organisms continue to attract the interest of biotechnologists, notably as a source of liquid biofuels and thermostable enzymes (de Miguel Bouzas *et al.* 2006; Rastogi *et al.* 2010; Goh *et al.* 2013; Urbieta *et al.* 2015;

Zeldes *et al.* 2015). Urbieta and her colleagues have spelt out the advantages of using thermophilic micro-organisms in biotechnological processes.

Prokaryotes

Archaea and bacteria are common in high-temperature environments, notably hot-springs. Common thermophilic bacteria include members of the genera Anoxybacillus, Geobacillus, Miobacillus and Thermus whereas their hyperthermophilic counterparts belong to the genera Aquificae and Thermatoga of the families Aquificaceae and Thermatogaceae respectively (Urbieta et al. 2015). The majority of hyperthermophiles are archaea, as exemplified by the genera Desulfurococcus, Pyrodiotum, Pyro-Pyrolobus, Sulfolobus, Thermophylum Thermoproteus of the Crenarchaeota (de Miguel Bouzas et al. 2006; Zeldes et al. 2015). Actinobacteria have been detected in hot springs, including representatives of the genera Couchiplanes, Glycomyces and Mycobacterium (Valverrde et al. 2012) and Actinospica, Amycolatopsis and Rhodococcus strains (Kusuma & Goodfellow, pers. com.).

Fungi

Thermophilic fungi received little attention though strains keyed out as *Aspergillus clavatus* (Jiang *et al.* 2013) and *Talaromyces thermophilus* (Chu *et al.* 2010; Guo *et al.* 2011) have been reported.

High-temperature environments-associated specialized metabolites

N-containing compounds

Clavatustides A and B (175, 176, Fig. 5), two unusual cyclodepsipeptides containing an anthranilic acid dimer

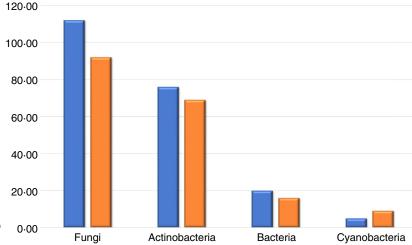


Figure 6 Distribution of specialized metabolites synthesized by micro-organisms isolated from extreme habitats before and after 2010 ((■) till 2010; (■ 2010–2018)). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelib rary.com]

and phenyllactic acid residues were isolated from an *A. clavatus* strain associated with the thermophilic crab, *Xenograpsus testudinatus* which lives around the sulphurrich hydrothermal vents in Taiwan, these compounds inhibit the proliferation of hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines (HepG2) by arresting their growth at G1 phase (Jiang *et al.* 2013). Chemical investigation of the thermophilic fungus *T. thermophilus* afforded two new prenylated alkaloids talathermophilins A and B (177, 178) which showed nematicidal toxicity against the parasitic worm *Panagrellus redivevus* (Chu *et al.* 2010). Subsequently, four talathermophilins (179–182) were isolated from the same fungus (Guo *et al.* 2011).

Carotenoids

The thermophilic bacillus, *Thermus filiformis* was found to produce a group of potent antioxidant carotenoids, the all-trans-zeaxanthin (183), zeaxanthin monoglucoside (184), thermozeaxanthins (185) and thermobiszeaxanthins (186) (Mandelli *et al.* 2012).

Conclusions

The microbiological and chemical data drawn from the recent literature on bioprospecting in selected extreme biomes provide strong backing for the premise that the harsh environmental conditions which prevail in the extreme biomes select for micro-organisms that express

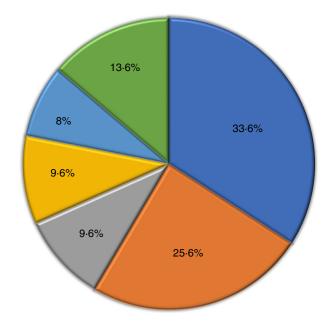


Figure 7 Bioactivities of specialized metabolites produced by microorganisms recovered from diverse extremophile habitats ((anti-bacterial); (anticancer); (anti-fungal); (anti-inflamatory); (anti-viral); (other activities)). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

new chemistry thereby opening up opportunities for therapeutic drug process development. Indeed, by the end of 2009, approximately 221 specialized metabolites were

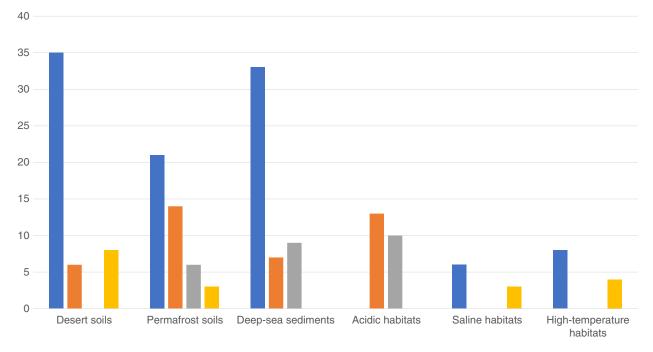


Figure 8 Classes of specialized metabolites produced by micro-organisms isolated from extremophile habitats ((N-containing) (polyketides) (terpenes) (other)). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

Table 1 Examples of actinobacteria isolated from selected extreme biomes and assigned to established genera and associated novel or validly named species*

Hyper/extreme hyperarid, Atacama Desert soils	Deep-Sea sediments	Saline/hypersaline habitats	Hot springs
Genera	Genera	Genera	Genera
Actinomadura	Dermacoccus	Micromonospora	Actinospica
Amycolatopsis	Micromonospora	Nocardia	Amycolatopsis
Arthrobacter	Rhodococcus	Pseudonocardia	Couchiplanes
Blastococcus	Streptomyces	Streptomyces	Glycomyces
Geodermatophilus	Tsukamurella		Mycobacterium
Kribbella ^b	Williamsia		
Lentzea			
Modestobacter			
Microlunatus			
Micromonospora ^b			
Mycobacterium			
Nocardia ^b			
Nocardioides ^b			
Nonomuraea ^b			
Pseudonocardia ^b			
Saccharopolyspora ^b			
Saccharothrix ^b			
Streptomyces ^b			
Terrabacter			
Species	Species		
Amycolatopsis desertii	Dermacoccus abysii ^c		
Amycolatopsis vastitatis	Dermacoccus barathri		
Blastococcus atacamensis	Dermacoccus profundi		
Geodermatophilus chilensis	Williamsia marianensis		
Lentzea chajnantorensis ^c			
Micromonospora acroterricola			
Micromonospora arida			
Micromonospora inaquosa			
Pseudonocardia nigra			
Modestobacter caceresii			
Streptomyces asenjonii ^c			
Streptomyces atacamensis			
Streptomyces bullii ^c			
Streptomyces desertii			
Streptomyces leeuwenhoekii ^c			

^{*}Uncharacterized members of the phylum *Actinobacteria* (sensu Goodfellow 2012) have been isolated from highly acidic habitats and permaforest soils.

identified from diverse extremophilic micro-organisms inhabiting different extreme habitats. However, over a subsequent 8-year period, taxonomically diverse extremophilic and extremotolerant micro-organisms were the source of nearly 200 new specialized metabolites (Fig. 6), the most frequently isolated classes of specialized metabolites were N-containing compounds and polyketides, many of which were produced by filamentous actinobacteria and fungi (Fig. 6). It is also encouraging that these micro-organisms synthesized a broad range of bioactive compounds with a skew towards the production of antibacterial and anticancer agents (Fig. 7). In turn,

micro-organisms isolated from permafrost soils synthesized a broader range of chemical compounds than those from the other extreme habitats (Fig. 8). In contrast, strains isolated from all of the extreme biomes, apart from the highly acidic habitats, were the source of many N-containing metabolites such as alkaloids and peptides. However, relatively little activity was shown by micro-organisms isolated from saline and hypersaline habitats or from high-temperature environments. In this context, it would be interesting to establish the extent of microbial diversity within and between diverse extreme biomes using culture-dependant procedures to determine the

^aFilamentious actinobacteria.

^bNovel specialized metabolites produced by members of these species.

Table 2 Examples of fungi isolated from selected extreme biomes and assigned to established genera and associated novel or validly named species^a

Atacama Desert soils	Permaforest soils	Deep-sea sediments	Saline/hypersaline habitats
Genera	Genera	Genera	Genera
Alternaria	Aspergillus	Aspergillus	Aspergillus
Amandinea	Cladospora	Cryptococcus	Cladosporium
Aspergillus	Cladosporium	Pichia	Emericella
Buellia	Geomyces	Graphium	Eurotium
Caloplaca	Oidiodendron	Penicillium	Hortea
Cladosporium	Penicillium	Rhodotorula	Penicillium
Diploicia	Thielavia		Trimmatostroma
Fusarium			Wallenia
Myriospora			
Neucatenulostroma			
Penicillium			
Rhizocarpon			
Ulocladium			
Species ^b	Species ^b	Species ^b	Species ^b
Amandinea efflorescens	Aspergillus ocraceo	Aspergillus westerdijkiae	Hortea werneckii
Aspergillus atacamensis	Diploicia etaliformis	Penicillium crustosum	T. salinum
Aspergillus salisburgensis	Oidiodendron truneatum		
Diploicia canescens	Penicillium crustosum		
Myriospora smaragula	Penicillium fumiculosum		
Rhizocarpon simillunum			

^aLittle is known about fungi in highly acidic and hot springs habitats.

distribution of gifted microbial taxa sensu Baltz (2017, 2019).

The results of this survey provide further evidence of the value of the taxonomic approach to the discovery of new drugs, as outlined in Fig. 1. It is evident from Tables 1 and 2 that novel species of filamentous actinobacteria and fungi, particularly those isolated from Atacama Desert habitats, are a very good source of new bioactive compounds thereby underpinning the view that these micro-organisms should feature strongly in bioprospecting campaigns (Bull and Goodfellow 2019). Substantial improvements in the taxonomic approach to drug discovery can be expected given developments in the classification and identification of eukaryotes and prokaryotes driven by advances in whole-genome sequencing procedures and associated improvements in bioinformatics as exemplified by Nouiou et al. (2019), increased understanding of the extent of microbial diversity in natural habitats (Bull et al. 2018b) coupled with developments designed to provide chemical dereplication (Bull and Goodfellow 2019).

It can also be anticipated that improvements in search and discovering pipelines will be promoted in no small measure by focusing heavily on novel culturable microorganisms with large genomes, as advocated by Baltz (2017, 2019). In this context, future bioprospecting campaigns should not only be focused on micro-organisms

like actinobacteria and fungi that are known to have a prosperity to synthesize antibiotics of therapeutic value (Bérdy 2012; Newman and Cragg 2016; Zhang *et al.* 2018), but also on representatives of under-explored micro-organisms with genomes rich in NP-BGCs, such as cyanobacteria, frankiae, ktedonobacteria and myxobacteria, representatives of all of these taxa are known to be attractive candidates for drug discovery programmes (Dixit and Suseela 2013; Micallef *et al.* 2015; Baltz 2019; Nouioui *et al.* 2019).

It can be concluded that there are strong grounds for believing that microbial NPs will continue to be a source of new therapeutic agents, an optimism we share with others (Genilloud 2017; Baltz 2017, 2019; Bull and Goodfellow 2019). In particular, there are good reasons for believing that extremophilic and extremotolerant microorganisms will have pride of place in the provision of a new generation of clinically significant drugs thereby preventing a return to preantibiotic days of medicine. However, the success of future bioprospecting campaigns will depend upon access to extreme biomes, notably ones like the Atacama Desert, that are known to be reservoirs of gifted micro-organisms, especially Actinobacteria and Cyanobacteria (Bull et al. 2016; Goodfellow et al. 2018; Bull and Goodfellow 2019). However, extreme habitats by their very nature are fragile and hence vulnerable to human activities such as mining and to climate

^bNovel specialized metabolites produced by members of these species.

breakdown, as shown by the decimation of microbial communities in hyperarid core areas in the Atacama Desert due to unprecedented rain (Azua-Bustos *et al.* 2018) and the melting of permafrost soils (Mackelprang *et al.* 2011; Hultman *et al.* 2015). Although concerns along these lines are revisited from time to time (Cockell and Jones 2009; Bull and Goodfellow 2019), there is a crying need for microbiologists and associated institutions to ensure that policy makers promote microbial conservation, especially in habitats known to be the source of gifted micro-organisms.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflict of interest.

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