SELECTIVE ISOLATION, CHARACTERISATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Newcastle upon Tyne for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy by Hong-Joong Kim B.Sc.

> NEWCASTLE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY 093 51117 X MED Thecis L 5145.

.

Department of Microbiology, The Medical School, University of Newcastle upon Tyne

December 1993

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

PUBLICATIONS

E. RAPID ENZYME TESTS

SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

A. AIMS	1
B. AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE GENUS STREPTOSPORANGIUM	5
C. NUMERICAL SYSTEMATICS	17
D. MOLECULAR SYSTEMATICS	35
E. CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA	41
F. SELECTIVE ISOLATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA	62
MATERIALS AND METHODS	
A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION, ENUMERATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA	75
B. NUMERICAL IDENTIFICATION	85
C. SEQUENCING OF 5S RIBOSOMAL RNA	101
D. PYROLYSIS MASS SPECTROMETRY	103
E. RAPID ENZYME TESTS	113
RESULTS	
A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION, ENUMERATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA	122
B. NUMERICAL IDENTIFICATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA	142
C. PYROLYSIS MASS SPECTROMETRY	178
D. 5S RIBOSOMAL RNA SEQUENCING	185

Page Number

DISCUSSION

A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION	197
B. CLASSIFICATION	202
C. IDENTIFICATION	208
D. FUTURE STUDIES	215
REFERENCES	220
APPENDICES	
A. TAXON PROGRAM	286
B. MEDIA AND REAGENTS	292
C. RAW DATA OF PRACTICAL EVALUATION	295
D. RAW DATA OF IDENTIFICATION	297
E. RAW DATA OF RAPID ENZYME TESTS	300

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to sincerely thank my supervisor, Professor Michael Goodfellow for his assistance, guidance and patience during the course of this study.

I am greatly indebted to Dr. Yong-Ha Park of the Genetic Engineering Research Institute in Daejon, Korea for his encouragement, for giving me the opportunity to extend my taxonomic experience and for carrying out the 5S rRNA sequencing studies. I am most grateful to Dr. David Minnikin for his advice and practical assistance in chemotaxonomy as well as to Dr. Alan Ward for his encouragement and discussions on computer-assisted identification. However, I am also indebted to Professor Han of the Department of Biology, Inha University in Inchon, Korea for teaching me the importance of microbiology. Penultimately, I also extend thanks to all in the Department of Microbiology at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

Finally I am extremely grateful for the never ending support and encouragement of my family and friends.

PUBLICATIONS

Some of the work presented in the thesis has been published:

Kim, H-J. and Goodfellow, M. (1993). Computer-assisted identification of *Streptosporangium*. In *Identification of Bacteria: Present Trends-Future Prospects*. Proceedings of the FEMS Meeting in Granada, Spain (abstract).

Chun, J., Atalan, E., Kim, S-B., Kim, H-J., Hamid, M. E., Trujillo, M. E., Magee, J. G., Manfio, G. P., Ward, A. C. and Goodfellow, M. (1993). Rapid identification of streptomycetes by artificial neural network analysis of pyrolysis mass spectra. *FEMS Microbiological Letters* (in press).

SUMMARY

Large numbers of actinomycetes were isolated from composite soil samples using procedures considered to be selective for the isolation of streptosporangia and related sporoactinomycetes from environmental samples. The highest streptosporangial counts were obtained when suspensions of air-dried soil were heated in the presence of yeast extract for 20 minutes at 40°C then plated onto humic acid vitamins agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and incubated for 4 weeks at 30°C. The highest count, $7.94 \pm 1.19 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry soil, were obtained from samples of Ginseng field soil. Representative strains had morphological and chemical properties consistent with their classification in the genus *Streptosporangium*.

Representative isolates and marker strains of the genus *Streptosporangium* were examined for diagnostic features recommended for computer-assisted identification of unknown streptosporangia. Stringent criteria were adopted for positive identifications of both known and unknown strains following a critical evaluation of identification scores obtained for the marker cultures. Sixty-five of the seventy marker strains and twelve of the hundred and thirty six unknown streptosporangia were identified to known streptosporangial taxa. A further nineteen of the isolates were assigned to known taxa using less stringent cut-off points for positive identifications.

5S ribosomal RNA sequences were determined for nine representatives of the genus *Streptosporangium* including centrotype strains of two taxa, clusters 1 and 2, circumscribed in a recent numerical phenetic survey and two Ginseng field soil isolates. The primary and secondary structure of the resultant sequences were of the type characteristic of Gram-positive bacteria with DNA rich in guanine and cytosine. It was evident from the phylogenetic tree that the genus Streptosporangium is heterogeneous as the type strains of Streptosporangium albidum and Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies viridogriseum were sharply separated from the remaining test strains; a result in good agreement with current trends in streptosporangial systematics.

Pilot experiments were designed to determine the potential of Curie point pyrolysis mass spectrometry and rapid fluorogenic enzyme tests in the classification and identification of streptosporangia. The pyrolysis mass spectral data supported the taxonomic integrity of clusters 1 and 2 and showed that *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* subspecies *viridogriseum* had little in common with *bona fide* members of the genus *Streptosporangium*. Pyrolysis data also supported the results of the computer-assisted identification exercise as ten isolates assigned to cluster 1 using stringent cut-off criteria were found to be closely related to representatives of cluster 1. There was evidence that some of the conjugated substrates based on the fluorophores 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin and 4-methylumbelliferone have potential as taxonomic markers for the classification of streptosporangia and related actinomycetes.

INTRODUCTION

A. AIMS

Actinomycetes are an unique source of high value bioactive products, notably antibiotics, enzymes, enzyme inhibitors and vitamins. In particular, they account for sixty percent, that is, more than seven thousand of the naturally occurring antibiotics that have been discovered (Table 1, page 2). Approaches to the search for, and discovery of, new bioactive compounds are generally based on screening both naturally occurring actinomycetes and genetically manipulated strains. Current efforts to find the next generation of new antibiotics of therapeutic value are compromised as the probability of discovering new compounds is declining as the number of known antibiotics is increasing (Okami and Hotta, 1988). It is, therefore, important in search and discovery programmes to screen novel and rare actinomycetes in order to raise the probability of finding novel antibiotics (Nolan and Cross, 1988; Bull *et al.*, 1992).

Given recent developments in microbial systematics it is now possible to recognise and characterise rare and novel actinomycetes derived from the application of selective isolation procedures by detecting key phenetic taxonomic markers (O'Donnell, 1986, 1988; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Bull *et al.*, 1992). In addition, molecular taxonomic methods, such as nucleic acid hybridisation, sequencing and fingerprinting techniques, are available for the accurate description of patent strains (Stackebrandt and Goodfellow, 1991). In addition, information in numerical taxonomic databases can be used to design media formulations for the selective isolation of specific fractions of the actinomycete community from soil and other natural habitats (Vickers *et al.*, 1984; Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Williams and Vickers, 1988; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Bull *et al.*, 1992). Screening methods, which are increasingly target

Genus	1974	1980	1984	1988	1993
Streptomyces	1934	2784	3477	4876	5645
Micromonospora	41	129	269	398	535
Nocardia	45	74	107	262	287
Actinomadura	-	16	51	164	248
Actinoplanes	6	40	95	146	169
Streptoverticillium	19	41	64	138	169
Streptosporangium **	7	20	26	39	57
Saccharopolyspora	-	4	33	44	55
Dactylosporangium	-	4	19	31	40
Amycolatopsis	-	-	-	-	23
Kibdelosporangium	-	-	-	7	18
Actinosynnema	-	-	5	14	17
Microbispora **	4	6	6	10	15
Streptoalloteichus	-	3	4	12	14
Kitasatosporia	-	-	-	11	14
Planobispora **	-	-	-	-	10
Microtetraspora **	-	-	-	-	4
Planomonospora **	-	-	-	-	2

 Table 1
 Number of antibiotics produced by members of selected actinomycete

 genera*

* Data from Bérdy (1974, 1984), Nisbet (1982) and Bérdy database (August, 1993; Data from Medha Athalye, Smithklime Beechams, Brockham Park, Betchworth, Surrey, u.K.).

** Members of the family Streptosporangiaceae (Goodfellow et al., 1990a).

directed, are also important in the search for new products (Okami and Hotta, 1988; Bull et al., 1992).

There is evidence that the genus *Streptosporangium* may become an increasingly rich source of commercially significant products, notably antibiotics (Table 2, page 4). In addition, cystathionine γ -lyase has been detected in a strain of *Streptosporangium* (Nagasawa *et al.*, 1984). This enzyme catalyses the α , γ -elimination reaction of L-cystathionine and also the γ -replacement of L-homoserine in the presence of various thiol compounds (Kanzaki *et al.*, 1986a). An efficient method based on the reaction of γ -replacement has been developed for the preparation of L-cystathionine (Kanzaki *et al.*, 1986b), a product with potential value as it has been shown to be deficient in the brains of homocystinuric patients (Gerritsen and Waisman, 1964). The procedure described by Kanzaki and his colleagues allows the total conversion of L-cysteine into L-cystathionine and *O*-succinyl-L-homoserine.

The discovery of additional commercially significant natural products from *Streptosporangium* strains is hindered by the lack of effective procedures for the selective isolation, classification and identification of streptosporangia from environmental samples (Goodfellow, 1991; Hayakawa *et al.*, 1991). Current isolation methods are empirical and depend upon drastic, heat pretreatment of air dried soil samples and the plating out of serial dilutions onto basal media supplemented with selective agents (Nonomura and Ohara 1969a, b; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988). Little attempt has been made to evaluate the effectiveness of these selective isolation procedures partly because of the poor taxonomy of the genus *Streptosporangium*.

In a comprehensive chemical and numerical phenetic survey of the genus Streptosporangium marker and fresh isolates were assigned to five major, seven minor and eighteen single membered clusters (Whitham, 1988; Whitham et al.,

Table 2	Members	of	the	genus	Streptosporangium	known	to	produce	novel
bioactive	compounds	5							

Name	Product	Reference
Streptosporangium albidum	Aculescimycin	Murata et al. (1989)
"Streptosporangium brasiliense"	Selenomycin	U.S. patent 3,683,074
Streptosporangium fragile	Anthracycline	Shearer et al. (1983)
	fragilomycin complex	U.S. patent 4,293,546
"Streptosporangium indica"	Antimicrobial agent	Rao et al. (1987)
"Streptosporangium karnatakensis"	Antimicrobial agent	
Streptosporangium pseudovulgare	Antitumour antibiotics	Umezawa et al. (1976)
	Sporamycin	Komiyama <i>et al</i> . (1977)
"Streptosporangium sibiricum"	Sibiromycin	Brazhnikova et al.(1972)
Streptosporangium violaceochromogenes	Platomycins A and B	Takasawa <i>et al.</i> (1975)
	Victomycin	Kawamoto et al. (1975)
Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. kofuense	Chloramphenicol	Tamura <i>et al</i> . (1971)
Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. viridogriseum	Sporaviridin	Okuda <i>et al</i> . (1966a, b)
"Streptosporangium sp."	Cystathionine γ-lyase	Nagasawa et al. (1984)

", Species not on the Approved Lists of Bacterial Names (November, 1993).

1993). The results underpinned the taxonomic integrity of the genus *Streptosporangium* and most of its constituent species but indicated that the taxon was heterogeneous. Information from the numerical taxonomic database was used to generate a theoretically sound frequency matrix for the computer-assisted identification of unknown environmental isolates belonging to the genus.

The initial aim of the present project was to evaluate the selectivity of procedures currently recommended for the selective isolation of streptosporangia from environmental samples (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a; Nonomura, 1989). Representative isolates and marker strains of numerically circumscribed clusters containing streptosporangia (Whitham *et al.*, 1993) were then examined for properties considered to be diagnostic for the identification of streptosporangia in order to evaluate the computer-assisted procedure (Whitham, 1988). The taxonomic status of authentic and putatively novel species of *Streptosporangium* were then evaluated using a rapid automated enzymatic procedure (Hamid *et al.*, 1993) and Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry (Magee, 1993a, b). Finally, the phylogenetic relationships of representative streptosporangia were the subject of 5S ribosomal RNA sequencing studies carried out in collaboration with Dr. Y-H. Park of the Genetic Engineering Research Institute in Daejon, Korea.

B. AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE GENUS STREPTOSPORANGIUM

Couch (1955a) proposed the genus *Streptosporangium* for sporangiate actinomycetes that formed nonmotile sporangiospores on abundant aerial hyphae. Initially, only one species, *Streptosporangium roseum*, was recognised. Additional taxa were added to the genus which now includes fourteen validly described species (Table 3, page 6; Nonomura, 1989; Mertz and Yao, 1990). Members of these taxa characteristically form aerial hyphae that carry, on either

Taxon	Authors	Habitat	Type Strain
Streptosporangium albidum	Furumai et al. (1968)	Soil, Mount Tonigawa, Japan	ATCC 25243
Streptosporangium album	Nonomura and Ohara (1960)	Soil, Japan	DSM 43023
Streptosporangium amethystogenes	Nonomura and Ohara (1960)	Soil, Japan	ATCC 33327
Streptosporangium carneum	Mertz and Yao (1990)	Soil, River Tana Nairobi, Kenya	NRRL 18437
Streptosporangium corrugatum	Williams and Sharples (1976)	Beach sand, Freshfield, Lancashire, U.K.	ATCC 29331
Streptosporangium fragile	Shearer et al. (1983)	Soil, Anaikota, Sri Lanka	ATCC 31519
Streptosporangium longisporum	Schäfer (1969)	Steppe soil, Turkey	ATCC 25212
Streptosporangium nondiastaticum	Nonomura and Ohara (1969b)	Soil, Japan	ATCC 27101
Streptosporangium pseudovulgare	Nonomura and Ohara (1969b)	Soil, Japan	ATCC 27100
Streptosporangium roseum	Couch (1955a)	Vegetable garden soil	ATCC 12428
Streptosporangium violaceochromogenes	Kawamoto et al. (1975)	Swamp soil, Japan	ATCC 21807
Streptosporangium viridialbum	Nonomura and Ohara (1960)	Soil, Yotei, Hokkaido, Japan	ATCC 33328
Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. kofuense	Nonomura and Ohara (1969b)	Soil, Japan	ATCC 27102
Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. viridogriseum	Okuda <i>et al</i> . (1966a)	Soil, Japan	ATCC 25242
Streptosporangium vulgare	Nonomura and Ohara (1960)	Soil, paddy field, Anjo, Aichi Prefecture, Japan	ATCC 33329

Table 3 Validly described species and subspecies of the genus Streptosporangium

ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.; DSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Mascheroder Weg 1B, D-38124 Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany; NRRL, Northern Research and Development Division, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.

short or long sporangiophores, single or clustered spore vesicles which are commonly 7 to 20µm, but may be up to 40µm, in diameter.

Spore vesicles contain coiled chains of arthrospores that are formed by septation of an unbranched, spiral hypha within each expanded sporangiophore sheath (Vobis and Kothe, 1985). Since spore formation is not endogenous, the term "spore vesicle" has greater precision than the original term "sporangium" (Cross 1970; Sharples *et al.*, 1974; Goodfellow, 1991). Studies on spore maturation have shown that the spores in both spore vesicles and spore chains are formed in essentially the same way. In each case, spores are differentiated by fragmentation of a hypha within a sheath, the latter either expands to form the envelope of the spore vesicle or remains around the spore chain (Lechevalier *et al.*, 1966; Sharples *et al.*, 1974; Vobis and Kothe, 1985; Goodfellow, 1991).

Streptosporangia have a wall chemotype III (M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970a), that is, they have meso-diaminopimelic acid in the wall peptidoglycan but do not contain characteristic sugars other than madurose (3-Omethyl-D-galactose; Lechevalier and Gerber, 1970) which can be detected in whole-organism hydrolysates. The peptidoglycan is of the Al γ type (Schleifer and Kandler, 1972). The organisms are rich in iso-, anteiso-, saturated, unsaturated, and methyl-branched fatty acids (pattern 3C; Kroppenstedt, 1985; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993), contain dihydrogenated and tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units as predominant isoprenologues (Kroppenstedt, 1985; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993), and have phospholipid patterns characterised by phosphatidylethanolamine, glucosamine-containing lipids together with diphosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol (phospholipid pattern IV; Lechevalier et al., 1977, 1981; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993). The DNA base composition is between 69 and 71

mol % guanine (G) plus cytosine (C) (Jones and Bradley, 1964; Tsyganov et al., 1966; Yamaguchi, 1967; Farina and Bradley, 1970; Stackebrandt et al., 1993).

Streptosporangium species can be distinguished on the basis of spore vesicle size, sporangiophore length, spore shape, and aerial spore mass and substrate mycelium pigmentation (Table 4, page 9). They may also be subdivided according to the nature of their vesicular walls. At one extreme, the spore vesicular membrane of Streptosporangium fragile is so thin that is cannot be detected by light microscopy (Shearer et al., 1983); this may lead to difficulty in differentiating such organisms from Actinomadura and Microtetraspora, as some strains may produce "pseudosporangia" covered by a slimy substance (Nonomura and Ohara, 1971b). In contrast, the spore vesicles of Streptosporangium albidum and Streptosporangium viridogriseum have thick and strong walls that enclose a "sheathed" chain of spores (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b). The genus Kibdelosporangium (Shearer et al., 1986) bears a close morphological resemblance to these streptosporangia but has a wall chemotype IV, that is, strains contained meso-diaminopimelic acid and the sugars arabinose and galactose (M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970a). The wall components of Streptosporangium albidus and Streptosporangium viridogriseum strains need to be re-examined to clarify the relationship of these organisms to the genus Kibdelosporangium and other taxa assigned to the family Pseudonocardiaceae (Embley et al., 1988). Streptosporangium corrugatum produces characteristically small, club-shaped spore vesicles and those of the remaining species thin vesicular membranes that are readily disrupted in water (Lechevalier et al., 1966a; Williams et al., 1973; Sharples et al., 1974).

Streptosporangium strains usually grow well between 25°C and 30°C though Streptosporangium nondiastaticum and Streptosporangium pseudovulgare grow better at 42°C and 55°C, respectively (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b).

	S album	S albidum	S amethystogenes	Scarneum	S corrugatum	S fragile	S longisporum	S nondiastaticum	S pseudovulgare	S roseum	S violaceochromogenes	S viridialbum	S viridogriseum subsp. viridogriseum	S viridogriseum subsp. kofuense	S vulgare
Colour of substrate mycelium															
Brown-black	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Red or orange	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
Yellowish brown to brown	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Colour of spore mass															
Greenish gray	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
Pink	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	•	-	-	+
White	+	+	•	•	+	-	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spore vesicle size															
1-5 μm	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6-10 µm	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	•	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
11-20 µm	-	(+)	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	(+)	-	-	-	+	-
21-30 µm	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	•	-
31-50 µm	-	-	-	(+)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Sporangiophore size															
Short (10 µm)	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Long (50 µm)	-	+	-	+	-	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
Spore shape															
Spherical-oval	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
Rod	-	-	•	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Soluble pigments ^a	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	•	•	-
B vitamin required	+	-	+	•	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	•	+
Growth at:															
42°C	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-
50°C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	•	-	+	(+)	-
Gelatin liquefaction	+	-	-	-	ND	-	ND	+	+	+	(+)	a	+	+	a
Iodinin production	•	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nitrate reduction	-	+	+	-	-	+	(+)	+	+	+	+	<u>م</u>	+	-	-
Starch hydrolysis	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	Ŧ	-	Ŧ	-	Ŧ
Utilisation of:		ND									ND	_	_	_	+
Adonitol	+	ND	+	•	+	-	+	+	-	Ŧ	ND	-	-	-	÷
Arabinose	+	ND	ND	-	Ŧ	Ŧ	Ŧ	- -	-	+	ND	-	+	+	+
Gluceni	-	ND	- ND	-	:		-	-	+	+	ND	-	+	+	+
Inorital	•	ND		-	-	-	-	-	2	+	(+)	+	+	+	+
Mannitol	-	ND	ND	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	ND	+	+	+	-
Demaces	-	ND	+	-	-		-	-		+	(+)	+	+	(+)	+
Turner	-	ND	ND	ND		Ţ	-	+	+	+	ŇĎ	+	-	÷	+

Table 4 Characteristics differentiating validly described species of the genus Streptosporangium*

* Data taken from Nonomura (1989), Mertz and Yao (1990), Goodfellow (1991) and Whitham et al.(1993).

Symbols: +, positive reaction; (+), weak positive reaction; -, negative reaction; d, doubtful; ND, not determined.

^aOther than pale yellow-brown.

"Streptosporangium album subsp. thermophilus" (Manachini et al., 1965) is a thermophilic organism that was wrongly classified as it belongs to the genus *Thermoactinomyces* (Goodfellow and Cross, 1984). Most Streptosporangium strains grow well at pH 6.8 to 7.0.

Differences in gelatin liquefaction, nitrate reduction, starch hydrolysis and the production of iodinin crystals have also been recommended for the identification of streptosporangia. However, little credence can be placed in the predictiveness of such properties given the small sample of strains and tests examined. Nevertheless the status of most validly described species of *Streptosporangium* was supported in the numerical phenetic survey of Whitham *et al.* (1993) though it was evident that the *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* strains clustered apart from the other streptosporangia.

Little is known about the metabolism and genetics of streptosporangia. developed for regeneration protocols have been Protoplasting and Streptosporangium viridogriseum (Oh et al., 1980); plasmids have also been isolated from this organism (Fare et al., 1983) though attempts to isolate phage unsuccessful (Prauser, 1984). Plasmid pSg V-1 from have been Streptosporangium viridogriseum had an estimated Mr of 54 x 10⁶ whereas the pSg B-1 plasmid was found to be phenotypically cryptic. An unusual expressed trait resembling phage plaques has been associated with the Streptosporangium viridogriseum plasmid pSg V-1.

Nonomura and Ohara (1969a) demonstrated that streptosporangia were components of the actinomycete community in soil. Previous workers had only isolated these organisms infrequently from soil, dung (Couch, 1955a) and leaf litter (Van Brummelen and Went, 1957; Potekhina, 1965), but streptosporangial populations of 10⁴ to 10⁶ colony-forming units (cfu) per gram dry weight of sample were reported for various Japanese soils (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a;

Nonomura, 1984). Recently, Hayakawa *et al.* (1991) recovered 10^5 streptosporangial colory forming units/g dry weight samples from vegetable field soil in Japan by plating suspensions of heat pretreated air dried soil onto HV agar supplemented with leucomycin and nalidixic acid. The organisms were abundant in Japanese soils rich in humus and with an acidic reaction (Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988).

Streptosporangia have also been isolated from lake sediments (Willoughby, 1969a; Johnston and Cross, 1976), beach sand (Williams and Sharples, 1976), pasture and woodland soils (Whitham *et al.*, 1993), and one strain, "*Streptosporangium bovinum*", was reported from infected bovine hooves (Chaves Batista *et al.*, 1963). "*Streptosporangium indianensis*" Gupta, 1965, isolated from an Indian soil, was transferred to the genus *Streptomyces* as *Streptomyces indiaensis* (Kudo and Seino, 1987) as it does not form true spore vesicles (Schäfer, 1969) and has morphological and chemical properties characteristic of streptomycetes (Kudo and Seino, 1987; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). It seems likely that the original author mistook spore aggregates, resulting from autolysis of sporulating aerial hyphae, for spore vesicles. Similarly, strains labelled *Streptosporangium* type 1 from stream water (Willoughby, 1969b) probably belong to the genus *Actinoplanes* given their morphological properties and capacity to form motile spores (Goodfellow and Cross, 1984).

Couch (1955a) classified *Streptosporangium* in the family "Actinosporangiaceae" together with sporangiate actinomycetes belonging to the genus Actinoplanes. The family "Actinosporangiaceae" was subsequently renamed Actinoplanaceae (Couch, 1955b). In addition to Actinoplanes, the type genus, this taxon encompassed the genera Amorphosporangium, Ampullariella, Dactylosporangium, Kitasatoa, Pilimelia, Planobispora, Planomonospora, Spirillospora and Streptosporangium (Couch and Bland, 1974). Members of all of

these genera were considered to form spore vesicles (sporangia). It was subsequently shown that Planobispora, Planomonospora, Spirillospora and Streptosporangium formed a DNA homology group that was readily separated from a second aggregate group that encompassed the genera Actinoplanes, Ampullariella and Dactylosporangium (Farina and Bradley, 1970). The two groups were also separated by chemotaxonomic markers. Organisms assigned to the first group contained madurose and had a wall chemotype III whereas those in the second group had a wall chemotype II, that is, they contained meso- and/or hydroxy diaminopimelic acid and glycine (Lechevalier et al., 1971). The genera Actinoplanes, Dactylosporangium, Micromonospora and Pilimelia are now known to have many properties in common and are classified in the family Micromonosporaceae (Krassilnikov, 1938; Goodfellow et al., 1990a). In the meantime the genus Kitasatoa has become a synonym of the genus Streptomyces (Goodfellow et al., 1986) and the genera Amorphosporangium and Ampullariella have been reduced to synonyms of the genus Actinoplanes (Stackebrandt and Kroppenstedt, 1987).

Goodfellow and Cross (1984) assigned the oligosporic genera Actinomadura (H.A. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970), Microbispora (Nonomura and Ohara, 1957) and Microtetraspora (Thiemann et al., 1968) and Beretta. 1968), the sporangiate genera Planobispora (Thiemann and Planomonospora (Thiemann et al., 1967), Spirillospora (Couch, 1963) and Streptosporangium (Couch, 1955a) to an aggregate group, the maduromycetes. Apart from Spirillospora, these taxa form a recognisable suprageneric group based on 16S ribosomal RNA cataloguing and sequencing data (Stackebrandt, 1986). The genus Spirillospora is currently considered to be a genus in search of a family (Stackebrandt et al., 1981; Goodfellow, 1986, 1989a).

The taxonomic status of the genera assigned to the maduromycetes was formalised with the proposal that *Streptosporangium* be recognised as the type genus of a new suprageneric taxon, the family *Streptosporangiaceae* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1990a). In addition to the type genus, this family was introduced to accommodate the genera *Microbispora*, *Microtetraspora* (including the *Actinomadura pusilla* group; Kroppenstedt *et al.*, 1990), *Planobispora*, *Planomonospora* and tentatively *Spirillospora*. Recently, a seventh member, *Herbidospora*, has been added (Kudo *et al.*, 1993). Members of the family *Streptosporangiaceae*, which may also include the genus *Planotetraspora* (Runmao *et al.*, 1993), have a pattern of chemical and molecular taxonomic properties that distinguishes them from all other actinomycete families (Goodfellow, 1989a; Kudo *et al.*, 1993; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1993).

Streptosporangiaceae strains have many chemical features in common but form a morphologically diverse group (Table 5, pages 14 to 15). Nevertheless, strains that bear spore vesicles (*Planobispora*, *Planomonospora* and Streptosporangium) are closely related to organisms that form paired (*Microbispora*) or longer spore chains (*Herbidospora* and *Microtetraspora*) but have little in common with sporangiate actinomycetes (*Actinoplanes*, *Dactylosporangium* and *Pilimelia*) classified in the family *Micromonosporaceae* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1988, 1990a; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1981, 1983).

It is now apparent that the genus *Streptosporangium* is heterogeneous given scanning electron microscopy studies on the morphology of spores and spore vesicles (Nonomura, 1989), analysis of the electrophoretic mobility of ribosomal protein AT-L30 (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992) and analyses of 16S rDNA (Kemmering *et al.*, 1993) and 5S rRNA (Kudo *et al.*, 1993). Stackebrandt *et al.* (1993) found that while representative streptosporangia had many chemical properties in common they fell into two groups on the basis of chemical

	Drogeobid19H	Microbispora	Μίςτοιειταspora	Planobisora	viodsonomonald	Spirillospora	ากมา่ฐานอาจqeoiqอาi2
Morphological characters							
Substrate mycelium	STABLE	STABLE	STABLE	STABLE	STABLE	STABLE	STABLE
Acrial mycelium-spores:							
Absent or in chains	B.	+	+	,			
Sporangiophores		ı	ï	+	+	+	+
Spore per chain-spore vesicle	MANY	OWT	TWO TO MANY	OWT	ONE	MANY	MANY
Spore motility	ı	ı	ì	+	+	+	ŧ
Temperature range	MESOPHILIC	MESOPHILIC &	MESOPHILIC &	MESOPHILIC	MESOPHILIC	MESOPHILIC	MESOPHILLC
		THERMOPHILIC	THERMOPHILIC				
Chemical characters							
Wall chemotype ^b	11	III	Ш	Ш	ш	Ш	Ш
Peptidoglycan type c	Alγ	Αlγ	AIγ	Alγ	Aly	AIY	Aly
Characteristic sugar	MADUROSE	MADUROSE	MADUROSE	MADUROSE	MADUROSE	MADUROSE	MADUROSE
Fatty acid profile d	3c	સ	3c	3c	3c	3a	3c
Predominant menaquinone (MK-) ^e	-10 (H4)	(P H) 6-	(¥H) 6-	-9 (H ₂ , H ₄)	(P H) 6-	-9 (H4, H ₆)	-9 (H ₂ , H ₄)
Phospholipid pattern f	Ŋ	IV	Ŋ	Ŋ	IV	1/1	IV
Mole% G+C of DNA	66-71	67-74	64-69	70-71	72	71-73	69-71

g
tinu
Son
Š
ble
2

* Data from Goodfellow (1989a, b, 1991), Goodfellow et al.(1990a) Kroppenstedt et al.(1990) and Kudo et al.(1993). ^a Symbols : +, present; -, absent. ^b Major constituents : alanine, glutamic acid, glucosamine, meso-diaminopimelic acid and muramic acid (M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970b).

^c A, cross-linkage between positions 3 and 4 of adjacent peptide subunits; 1, peptide bridge absent; y, meso-diaminopimelic acid at position 3 of tetrapeptide subunits (Schleifer and Kandler, 1972). d Saturated fatty acids, unsaturated fatty acids, iso-fatty acids, anteiso-fatty acids (variable) and methyl-branched fatty acids (Kroppenstedt, 1985). ^e Herbidospora strains contain tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with ten isoprene units saturated at sites III and IX (Kudo et al., 1993); organisms in the remaining taxa contain tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units saturated at sites III and VIII (Kroppenstedt, 1982).

f Diagnostic phospholipid patterns: I, phosphatidylglycerol (variable); II, only phosphatidylethanolamine; VI, phospholipids containing glucosamine (with phosphatidylmethylethanolamine variable) (Lechevalier et al., 1977).

differences. Most species, including Streptosporangium corrugatum and Streptosporangium roseum, had a phospholipid pattern type IV and predominant menaquinones of the MK-9 (H_2) and MK-9 (II, VIII- H_4), MK-9 and/or MK-9(H_6) type. The second group, which contained Streptosporangium albidum and the subspecies of Streptosporangium viridogriseum, were characterised by principal isoprenoid quinones of the MK-9 (II, III-H₄) type and phospholipids typical of pattern II. These results are in excellent agreement with corresponding 16S rRNA sequencing data (Kemmering et al., 1993). Stackebrandt and his co-workers proposed that Streptosporangium albidum, Streptosporangium viridogriseum viridogriseum subspecies subspecies kofuense and Streptosporangium viridogriseum be assigned to a new genus, Kutzneria, as Kutzneria albida, Kutzneria viridogrisea and Kutzneria kofuensis. There is a wealth of evidence to Kutzneria the classification of the genus in the family support Pseudonocardiaceae (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Kemmering et al., 1993; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993) though additional work is needed to determine the relationship of this taxon with established members of the family.

The proposal for the genus *Kutzneria* leaves *Streptosporangium* as a homogeneous genus encompassing twelve validly described species. Improved phenotypic tests are needed both for the circumscription of new and established species of *Streptosporangium* and for the rapid identification of streptosporangia if the full potential of these organisms as sources of commercially significant natural products is to be realised.

C. NUMERICAL SYSTEMATICS

1. CLASSIFICATION

It has been repeatedly shown in actinomycete systematics that overreliance on morphological properties can lead to the circumscription of markedly heterogeneous taxa (Bousfield and Goodfellow, 1976; Williams et al., 1983a; Goodfellow and Cross, 1984; Kroppenstedt et al., 1990). The family Actinoplanaceae (Couch, 1955b; Couch and Bland, 1974) is a case in point as organisms subsequently shown to be unrelated were assigned to this taxon solely on the basis of a capacity to form spore vesicles. Similarly, strains shown to be only distantly related were classified in the genus *Streptosporangium* only on the basis of a few chemical and morphological properties (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Kemmerling et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993). Taxonomies based on single characteristics, or a series of single characteristics, are termed monothetic classifications (Sneath, 1962). These artificial classifications are notoriously unreliable as they have a low information content and cannot readily accommodate strain variation due to mutation or test error (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). It can, for instance, be difficult to distinguish spore vesicles from aggregates of spores in some actinomycetes (Nonomura and Ohara, 1971b; Nonomura, 1989).

The structural weaknesses of monothetic classifications led some bacterial systematists to believe that stable taxonomies could only be achieved when many bacteria were examined for a large balanced set of properties. Such numerical taxonomies have a high information content and are often described as general purpose classifications *sensu* Gilmour (1937) since they can be of value to many different microbiologists (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). Sneath (1957a) noted that scientific classification was based upon the assumption that there is a natural order to the microbial world that can be discovered by careful investigation.

A reliable and relatively quick way of establishing centres of variation amongst bacteria is to examine many strains for a large number of equally weighted characters. This is the basis of the numerical taxonomic method introduced to bacteriology by P.H.A. Sneath (1957a, b) and subsequently widely applied (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Goodfellow and Dickinson, 1985; Macdonell and Colwell, 1985; Sackin and Jones, 1993). The theoretical basis of numerical taxonomy is well documented (Sneath, 1971, 1972; Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Goodfellow, 1977; Sneath, 1978a, b; Sackin and Jones, 1993) and will only be briefly described here. An outline of the operational procedure involved is given in Figure 1, page 19.

Classifications derived from an examination of a large number of organisms and many characters are polythetic as they have high information contents and are based on a complete set of recorded characters not on the presence or absence of series of single characters. Polythetic classifications can accommodate a degree of strain variation and are objective in the sense that they are not sensitive to the addition of more strains or characters.

The entities to be classified, such as strains, species or genera, are referred to collectively as operational taxonomic units (OTU's). The latter should include type strains, well studied reference strains and duplicated cultures to provide a check on test error. In practice, numerical phenetic studies should be based on at least sixty but preferably more strains (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Sackin and Jones, 1993). It is important to select tests that yield characters that are genetically stable and not sensitive to experimental or observational uncertainties (O'Brien and Colwell, 1987). The usual practice is to choose a set of biochemical, cultural, morphological and physiological characters to represent the entire phenome, that is, the genome and phenotype (Sneath, 1978a, b). It has been recommended that Figure 1 Operational numerical taxonomic procedure

SELECTION OF OTU'S t individuals COLLECTION OF DATA n characters on t individuals CODING AND/OR SCALING OF DATA RAW DATA MATRIX L ESTIMATION OF TEST ERROR L

FINAL DATA MATRIX

لا CLUSTERING

(hierarchic)

STRUCTURE

dendrogram, shaded diagram

↓ REPRESENTATION OF TAXONOMIC

REPRESENTATION OF TAXONOMIC STRUCTURE

Ľ

ORDINATION (non-hierarchic)

1

2 or 3 dimensional diagrams or models

EVALUATION

↓ EVALUATION

cluster overlap, cophenetic correlation, intra- and intergroup similarity

t

	*			¥			
ANALYSIS O	FRELATIONSHIP	S	DEFINITION OF TAXA AND LINK				
K	\downarrow	Ы		ĸ	لا الا		
MULTI-	DISCRIMINANT	TAXON	SEL	ECTION OF	IDENTIFICATION		
DIMENSIONAL	ANALYSES	RADIUS	REPRI	ESENTATIVE	SCHEMES		
ANALYSES		MODEL	STR	RAINS FOR			
		FU		HER STUDY			
			K	R			
		HYPOTHE	ETICAL CLUSTER				
		MEDIA	N	CENTROTYPE			
		ORGAN	ISM				

between 100 and 200 characters should be studied with a lower limit of about 60 (Sackin and Jones, 1993).

The similarities or dissimilarities between test strains can be estimated once the final data matrix has been obtained. Many different resemblance coefficients have been used but only a few have found favour in microbial taxonomy (Sneath, 1972, 1978a; Austin and Colwell, 1977; Sackin and Jones, 1993). The two most commonly used resemblance coefficients are the simple matching (S_{sm} ; Sokal and Michener, 1958) and the Jaccard (S_J ; Jaccard, 1908) coefficients which measure similarity between OTU's based on binary data. The S_{sm} is used to calculate similarities based on both positive and negative matches whereas with the S_J coefficient negative matches are ignored. Thus, taking two OTU's, x and y, data for all the character states can be summarised as shown below:



 $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{d}$

Thus, the S_{sm} coefficient can be defined as Sxy = (a + d) / n, that is, the ratio of the total number of matches to the total number of characters included in the data matrix. Similarly, the S_J coefficient can be defined as Sxy = a / (n - d), that is, the ratio of the total number of positive matches to the total number of characters.

A third and particularly useful coefficient used to estimate relationships is the pattern difference coefficient (D_p ; Sneath, 1968). This measures dissimilarity between strains and omits components of dissimilarity due to differences in vigour. Sneath (1968) divided the total difference between two OTU's into two components termed "vigour" and "pattern" differences. The pattern difference coefficient corresponds to the proportion of the total number of differences between OTU's (D_T) minus the number of differences due to vigour (D_v). These values are defined by the following equations:

$$D_T = \frac{c+b}{n} \qquad \qquad D_V = \frac{c-b}{n}$$

The D_p coefficient is expressed as $D_p^2 = D_T^2 - D_v^2 = 4bc / n^2$ in order that the terms are additive and D_p is a positive value.

 D_p values can be converted to a measure of similarity, S_p , by using the formula:

$$S_p = (1 - D_p) \times 100$$

Conversion of D_p to similarity values (S_p) facilitates comparisons with classifications based upon the S_{sm} and S_J coefficients. The pattern coefficient has been effectively used in studies on *Actinomadura* (Athalye *et al.*, 1985), *Actinoplanes* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1990a), *Mycobacterium* (Runyon *et al.*, 1974) and *Streptosporangium* (Whitham *et al.*, 1993) where test strains have included both slow and fast growing organisms.

Operational taxonomic units are assigned to groups (clusters) on the basis of shared similarities. Several techniques are available for clustering organisms into groups (Austin and Colwell, 1977; Sackin and Jones, 1993). The single linkage method is the simplest clustering algorithm as the similarity between two clusters is defined as that of the most similar pair, only one pair per cluster being considered (Sneath, 1957b; Sackin and Jones, 1993). Thus, two clusters may join merely because two constituent OTU's share a higher overall similarity with one another than with any of the remaining test strains. With the single linkage algorithm, groups of OTU's tend to be linked at relatively low similarities by "chains" of OTU's lying between them. Consequently, this method fails to resolve relatively distinct groups should "intermediate" OTU's be present.

The most commonly used algorithm is the average linkage method, the most popular variant of which is the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic averages (UPGMA; Sokal and Michener, 1958). This algorithm gives equal weight to all of the clusters formed regardless of the numbers of OTU's they contain (Sneath, 1978a). The similarity between two clusters is defined as the average of the similarities between all pairs of OTU's from each cluster. In general, clusters formed using average linkage algorithms are more compact than those based on the single linkage technique.

Hierarchical clustering techniques impose structures on data that may or may not be true representations of the original relationships between OTU's as implied by their similarity values. The suitability of test data for hierarchical clustering can be assessed by determining the cophenetic correlation coefficient (r; Sokal and Rohlf, 1962; Sneath, 1978a; Sackin and Jones, 1993). The cophenetic correlation value between OTU's is the difference between their actual similarities, calculated using any of the various similarity or distance coefficients, and their observed similarities as seen on a hierarchical dendrogram. In practice, complete agreement between dendrograms and resemblance matrices cannot be achieved given the taxonomic distortion introduced when representing multidimensional data in two dimensional form. Typical cophenetic correlation values vary from 0.6 to 0.95 (Jones and Sackin, 1980; Sackin and Jones, 1993). Scores above 0.85 are considered good whereas those below 0.7 imply that only limited confidence can be given to relationships depicted in dendrograms. Farris (1969) demonstrated that of all possible clustering algorithms the UPGMA technique gave the highest cophenetic correlation values. This observation helps to explain why the UPGMA algorithm is widely employed in numerical phenetic studies.

Once OTU's have been assigned to individual clusters several calculations can be performed to yield taxonomically useful information. The compactness of clusters and the degree of separation between them can be determined from intraand inter- cluster similarities, respectively. In addition the 95% taxonomic radius of each cluster can be calculated. The latter represents the distance from the centroid of each cluster within which 95% of the members of the cluster would be expected to fall assuming a Gaussian distribution of strains. A high intra-cluster similarity and low 95% taxonomic radius is indicative of a tight, homogeneous cluster and high inter-cluster similarity denotes poor separation of clusters.

Numerical taxonomies, irrespective of the statistics used, are only as good as the data upon which they are based. Test error in polythetic taxonomies, although less serious than in monothetic classifications, serves to lower observed similarities between OTU's and if high erodes the taxonomic structure of the classification (Sneath and Johnson, 1972; Jones and Sackin, 1980; Sackin and Jones, 1993). It is now common practice in numerical taxonomic studies to determine test error by examining duplicated cultures under code and using the average probability of error in an analysis of test variance (Sneath and Johnson, 1972). The assessment of test error is especially important if data from more than one operator is used to generate a numerical classification. In general, interoperator generation tends to be higher, with values of 8% to 15% (Sneath and Johnson, 1972; Sneath, 1974), than intra-operator test error where values are usually below 4% (Sneath, 1974; Whitham *et al.*, 1993).

Taxonomic structure can also be determined using ordination techniques. Principal components and principal coordinates analyses are two of several ordination techniques available for this purpose (Alderson, 1985). Principal

component analysis (PCA) was first proposed for use with continuous data but the technique can also be applied to binary data (Gower, 1966). Each OTU is represented as a point in multidimensional space where the number of dimensions is equal to the number of variables examined. The points are then projected onto a line through space the direction of which is calculated to represent the maximum variation between OTU's. This line is referred to as the first principal component. A second line is then plotted to account for as much of the remaining variation as possible. Additional principal components are determined in the same way. Scores for the first two or three principal components are often plotted on orthogonal axes and the distribution of OTU's in the 2 or 3 dimensions may reveal valuable information on the taxonomic structure of the OTU's (Dunn and Everitt, 1982). Principal component analysis is only suitable when the distances between OTU's in the original multidimensional data are Euclidean.

An alternative ordination technique known as multidimensional scaling is concerned with the distribution of points in Euclidean space. This method reflects the relationships between OTU's whether Euclidean or not and is achieved using principal coordinates analysis. The results obtained are the same as for PCA when the observed distances are Euclidean. The products of principal coordinates analysis can also be represented in the form of two or three-dimensional plots. The method is considered satisfactory if the variation in the plotted principal coordinates is at least 40% of the original total variation (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Alderson, 1985).

Ordination techniques have been used successfully to represent relationships between large groups but such analyses can distort affinities between close neighbours (Alderson, 1985). In contrast, hierarchical clustering methods are reliable when depicting relationships between closely related organisms but do

not always satisfactorily represent affinities between large heterogeneous groups (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Sneath, 1978a).

Numerical classifications need to be interpreted with care as similarity values between strains can be distorted by factors such as test and sampling error, the statistics used, and failure to allow for differences in growth rates and metabolic activity (Sneath and Johnson, 1972; Goodfellow et al., 1979, 1990a). Most confidence can usually be placed in the major centres of variation defined in numerical analyses, it is the relationships of strains lying towards the periphery of clusters that are not always clear (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). It is, therefore, important to evaluate numerical taxonomies in the context of other taxonomic methods such as chemotaxonomic and molecular systematics. It can also be important to identify OTU's that are most typical of each cluster and therefore suitable for representing clusters in additional studies. The OTU which is the most typical of a phenon and lies closest to the centroid of the cluster is the centrotype, this organism shows the highest average similarity of all the OTU's in Centrotype, type and additional representative strains should be the cluster. included where appropriate in analyses designed to evaluate numerical taxonomies.

In most numerical taxonomic surveys the majority of test strains have been assigned to a small number of major clusters that are often equated with taxospecies (Goodfellow and Dickinson, 1985; Goodfellow *et al.*, 1990a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). Single membered clusters that include only a few strains tend to be overlooked. These minor or single membered clusters, however, may represent nuclei of novel groups, genetically unstable strains or organisms of established taxa lacking plasmids (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1987a), and need to be given more consideration when interpreting numerical taxonomies.

2. IDENTIFICATION

Numerical taxonomic surveys provide data on the test reactions of strains within each taxon circumscribed in the classification. Results are usually expressed as the percentage of the strains in each cluster that give a positive result for the characters used to generate the taxonomy. Diagnostic characters can then be selected from the percentage positive frequency table, that is, by *a posteriori* weighting, and used to generate dichotomous keys, diagnostic tables and computer identification matrices. Computer-assisted identification is preferred to conventional keys and tables as it is relatively quick and simple (Lapage *et al.*, 1970; Hill, 1974; Priest and Williams, 1993) with chances of misidentification due to erroneous results greatly reduced (Sneath, 1974a).

Surprisingly few numerical classifications have been supported by probabilistic identification schemes. Theoretically sound, workable schemes are available for the identification of slow-growing mycobacteria (Wayne *et al.*, 1980), neutrophilic streptomycetes (Williams *et al.*, 1983b; Langham *et al.*, 1989), streptosporangia (Whitham, 1988), streptoverticillia (Locci *et al.*, 1986), vibrios (Dawson and Sneath, 1985; Bryant *et al.*, 1986), aerobic, endospore-forming bacilli (Priest and Alexander, 1988; Alexander and Priest, 1990) and for bacteria isolated from Alaskan outer continental shelf regions (Davis *et al.*, 1983). Probabilistic identification schemes using less comprehensive data than is provided by numerical phenetic studies are also available for the identification of Gramnegative aerobic rods (Bascomb *et al.*, 1973), anaerobic bacteria (Kelley and Kellog, 1978) and aerobic endospore-forming bacilli (Willemse-Collinet *et al.*, 1980).

The first stage in the generation of a frequency matrix is the selection of a small number of diagnostic tests that are sufficient to differentiate all of the taxa in the numerical taxonomic database. Programs available for this purpose include

CHARSEP (Sneath, 1979b) and DIACHAR (Sneath, 1980a). CHARSEP is used to calculate values for five separation indices, the most useful of which, the VSP index, gives high scores for presumptive diagnostic tests. The DIACHAR program is used to calculate diagnostic scores for each of the characters included in the database with tests then being ranked in order of descending score. The DIACHAR program has been included in the TAXON program which was written in order to facilitate analysis of numerical taxonomic data (Ward, unpublished data, Appendix A). A sound frequency matrix contains sufficient information to define each taxon by several diagnostic properties.

The importance of evaluating identification matrices has been stressed (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Sneath, 1978b; Williams *et al.*, 1985b; Priest and Williams, 1993). The computer program OVERMAT (Sneath, 1980c) can be used to determine the degree of overlap between taxa represented in identification matrices. Unknown strains cannot be unambiguously identified when there is considerable overlap between clusters. OVERMAT determines both the disjunction index (W) for each pair of taxa (Vg) from the percentage positive data. Any pair of taxa which overlap by more than a chosen cut-off value (Vo), usually 1%, will have a value for W which is less than that for the cut-off point. Further tests selected using the DIACHAR program are then added to the matrix in order to distinguish between taxa that overlap by more than the chosen cut-off value.

The computer program MOSTTYP (Sneath, 1980b) is used to calculate identification scores for the most typical organisms, that is, the hypothetical median organism (HMO), in each constituent cluster. When identification matrices are sound the HMO of each cluster will be assigned to its taxon with very high identification scores. The calculation of identification scores for HMO's can be achieved using the procedure COMPARE in the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A). Probabilistic identification matrices can be

further assessed by treating strains included in the original numerical taxonomic study as known organisms then calculating identification scores using the original classification data obtained for the diagnostic tests.

The MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1979a) is often used to obtain the best identification scores for known or unknown strains against defined groups in frequency matrices (Williams *et al.*, 1983b; Dawson and Sneath, 1985; Locci *et al.*, 1986; Priest and Alexander, 1988; Alexander and Priest, 1990). Three of the five identification coefficients included in this program are commonly used:

(i) Willcox probability (Willcox *et al.*, 1973). This is the likelihood of an unknown (u) against taxon J divided by the sum of the likelihood's of u against all q taxa. Scores approaching 1.0 denote a good fit between the unknown to a group in the frequency matrix.

Willcox probability =
$$\sum_{U_i} / \sum_{j=1}^{q} L_{U_j}$$

where $\sum_{U_i} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} [U_i + P_i J - 1]$

for the m characters considered, where U_i is the character *i* and P_{iJ} is the proportion of positives for character *i* of taxon J (Sneath, 1974).

(ii) Taxonomic distance (d): This expresses the distance of an unknown (u) from the centroid of the group with which it is being compared hence low scores indicate relatedness.

$$d = \sqrt{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} (U_i - P_{iJ})^2 / m\right]}$$

The taxonomic distance should not be significantly more than the 95% taxonomic radius of the cluster (Williams *et al.*, 1983b).

(iii) The standard error of taxonomic distance (S.E. [d]). This coefficient is based on the assumption that the organisms are in hyperspherical normal clusters. An acceptable score is less than about 2.0 to 3.0, and about half of the members of a taxon will have negative scores, that is, they are closer to the centroid than average.

The criteria chosen for a successful identification are somewhat arbitrary (Williams *et al.*, 1985a; Priest and Williams, 1993). Those adopted by Williams *et al.* (1983b) for the identification of streptomycetes were:

(i) A Willcox probability greater than 0.850 with low scores for taxonomic distance and its standard error.

(ii) All first scores significantly better than those for the next best two alternative clusters.

(iii) A small number of characters of the unknown listed as being atypical of those of the cluster in which it was placed.

All of these criteria were derived from the application of the MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1979a). More stringent Willcox probabilities have been recommended for the identification of unknown Gram-negative bacteria (Lapage *et al.*, 1973), corynebacteria (Hill *et al.*, 1978) and slow growing mycobacteria (Wayne *et al.*, 1980).

The algorithms used to calculate Willcox probability and taxonomic distance values are part of the IDENTIFY procedure in the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A). Two additional values, the 95%
taxonomic radius of clusters and the Gaussian distance probability coefficient, can also be used for the identification of unknown strains to taxa included in probabilistic identification matrices. The Gaussian distance probability is a measure of the percentage probability of members of the cluster to which the unknown strain is being compared lying further away from the centroid of that cluster than the unknown strain. The derivation of these two additional coefficients is given in Figure 2, page 31.

The two additional identification values offer some advantages over the existing coefficients as the homogeneity and compactness of each cluster within a frequency matrix is expressed as a numerical value. A high taxonomic distance may be acceptable if the cluster to which an unknown strain is identified is heterogeneous or contains a relatively small number of strains and therefore has a large 95% taxonomic radius. In contrast, compact clusters, that is, those containing a large number of strains with a very high overall similarity will require a low taxonomic distance for good identification. The definition of an acceptable identification should therefore include a comparison between the taxonomic distance of an unknown strain from the cluster centroid and the 95% taxonomic radius of the cluster.

Probabilistic identification procedures allow a probability to be fixed to an identification so that a measure of confidence can be placed in the identification of unknown organisms. In general, such identifications are not normally affected by an occasional erroneous result. Numerical identification procedures can also cope with missing information, that is, adequate identifications can be obtained when only a proportion of tests have been performed. Automated procedures for microbial identification and commercial identification kits are based on the concepts underpinning numerical identification as they require an unknown





C, cluster centroid; f, number of strains; TR, 95% taxonomic radius; TD, taxonomic distance from cluster centroid; TDu, taxonomic distance of u from cluster centroid and u, unknown strain.

The figure shows a single cluster represented as a number of strains (.) whose phenetic position in multidimensional space is represented in two dimensions. The lower part of the figure shows how the 95% taxonomic radius of the cluster was found using a one-tailed test; a Gaussian distribution of strains is assumed.

The position of the unknown strain (u) is shown. The area under the Gaussian distribution curve having a greater taxonomic distance away from the cluster centroid is hatched. This value, the Gaussian distance probability, is expressed as a percentage of the total area under the curve to give the percent probability of a strain lying further away from the cluster centroid than u.

organism to be compared against information in databases (Priest and Williams, 1993).

3. COMPUTER-ASSISTED CLASSIFICATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF *STREPTOSPORANGIUM* AND RELATED TAXA

a. Classification

Numerical taxonomic procedures have been successfully used in the reclassification of several actinomycete taxa, notably Actinomadura (Athalye et al., 1981), Actinomyces (Schofield and Schaal, 1981), Actinoplanes (Goodfellow et al., 1990a), Corynebacterium (Jones, 1975), Gordona (Goodfellow et al., 1991), Mycobacterium (Goodfellow and Wayne, 1982), Nocardia (Goodfellow, 1971; Orchard and Goodfellow, 1980), Rhodococcus (Goodfellow et al., 1990b), Streptomyces (Williams et al., 1983a; Kämpfer et al., 1991), Thermomonospora (McCarthy and Cross, 1984) and Tsukamurella (Goodfellow et al., 1991). In contrast, relatively few numerical taxonomic surveys have included, let alone focused on streptosporangia and related strains.

Members of the family *Streptosporangiaceae* have featured, albeit peripherally, in several broadly based numerical phenetic studies (Silvestri *et al.*, 1962; Jones and Bradley, 1964; Goodfellow and Pirouz, 1982) but little credence can be given to numerical taxonomic relationships based on single representatives of specific taxa (Wilkinson and Jones, 1977; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). This is borne out by the fact that *Streptosporangium* strains included in broadly based studies have been reported to have relatively high overall similarities with organisms as taxonomically diverse as *Nocardia* (Silvestri *et al.*, 1962), *Actinoplanes* and *Micromonospora* (Jones and Bradley, 1964) and *Thermomonospora* and *Spirillospora* (Goodfellow and Pirouz, 1982).

It has already been pointed out that streptosporangia and related actinomycetes were the subject of an extensive numerical phenetic survey (Whitham, 1988; Whitham et al., 1993). One hundred and twenty-two streptosporangia, including isolates from natural habitats, and 37 marker strains of Microbispora. Microtetraspora, Planobispora, Planomonospora and Streptosporangium were examined for 199 unit characters. The data were examined using the pattern, simple matching and Jaccard coefficients and clustering achieved with average (UPGMA), complete and single linkage clustering algorithms. Two reduced data sets were also examined using the same proximity coefficients and the UPGMA clustering algorithm. Good agreement was obtained between the classifications based on the combined data set and with the latter minus the antibiotic sensitivity data. Cluster composition was not markedly affected by the statistics used or by test error, which was low at 2.4%. The product of the Dp, UPGMA analysis on the whole data set was considered in detail and the five aggregate groups defined were equated with the genera Microbispora, Microtetraspora, Planobispora and Planomonospora, and Streptosporangium. The streptosporangia were recovered in five major, seven minor and twenty single membered clusters. Ten of the multimembered clusters contained putatively novel environmental isolates.

b. Identification

Identification of actinomycetes can be considered as a two-fold process (Goodfellow, 1986, 1989a). Reliable criteria are needed to assign unknown organisms to family and generic rank prior to the use of diagnostic tests for identification to species level and below. Identification to the genus level and above can usually be achieved by using a combination of morphological and chemical properties (Lechevalier, 1989), but few reliable and well tested schemes are available for the separation of species and biotypes. Most of the recommended procedures tend to be labour intensive and hence are of little value for ecological studies that involve many strains.

Members of the family Streptosporangiaceae can be distinguished from all other actinomycetes using a combination of chemical and morphological features. Unidimensional thin-layer chromatographic analysis of whole-organism hydrolysates is used to determine whether an organism contains diaminopimelic acid and, if so, whether this component is in the IL or meso- form (Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1980; Kroppenstedt, 1985). The presence of meso-diaminopimelic acid and madurose with the absence of other diarateristic sugars serves to separate Streptosporangiaceae strains from those of Actinoplanes and related genera, Nocardia and related genera, Pseudonocardia and related genera, Nocardiopsis and Thermomonospora, but not from the genera Dermatophilus and Frankia. The latter can readily be distinguished from Streptosporangium and allied taxa on morphological grounds.

In an extension of the survey outlined above a frequency matrix was generated for the identification of unknown *Streptosporangium* strains. Twentysix characters, selected using the DIACHAR program (Sneath, 1980a), served to distinguish between twelve multimembered numerically circumscribed clusters encompassing streptosporangia. Application of the OVERMAT (Sneath, 1980c) and MOSTTYP (Sneath, 1980b) programs showed the frequency matrix to be theoretically sound.

D. MOLECULAR SYSTEMATICS

The bacterial genome is a rich source of taxonomic data (Stackebrandt and Goodfellow, 1991; Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993; Palleroni, 1993). DNA sequencing of large sections of the genome should eventually provide data of great value for bacterial systematics but large-scale sequencing studies are currently time-consuming and expensive. However, encouraging results have been obtained from comparative sequence analyses of genes encoding elongation factors EF-Tu and β -subunits of F₁ F₀ type ATP synthases (Amann *et al.*, 1988; Schleifer and Ludwig, 1989; Ludwig *et al.*, 1993).

One of the major limitations of taxonomic methods such as chemotaxonomy is that they are sensitive to changes in the growth regime of the test organisms (O'Donnell, 1988a, b; Suzuki et al., 1993). Thus, when comparing bacteria for chemical markers, such as the discontinuous contribution of fatty acids, it is important that any variation observed is an expression of genetic differences and not a result of the differential effects of the growth conditions. This problem can be contained by growing cultures under identical conditions and, in some cases, to the same stage of the growth cycle (Saddler et al., 1986), but this approach is difficult, indeed sometimes impossible, when physiologically diverse organisms are being compared. In sharp contrast, the chemical composition of chromosomal DNA and RNA is not affected by growth conditions though the amounts of these macromolecules may fluctuate with growth rate. Nucleic acids are, therefore, the only macromolecules that can be used to compare and contrast very diverse microorganisms (Stackebrandt and Goodfellow, 1991).

The bacterial chromosome can be analysed at two levels:

(i) The gross composition of the four nucleotide bases in DNA can be estimated. The guanine (G) plus cytosine (C) content in bacterial DNA varies from 24 to 76 mol% (Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993).

(ii) Sequence relatedness between DNA macromolecules from two bacteria can be estimated by determining the extent of renaturation of DNA molecules from the two strains in DNA "reassociation" or relatedness experiments (Johnson, 1985b, 1991; Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993).

The % G+C content of DNA has been determined for members of many bacterial taxa using well described methods (Johnson, 1985a; Owen and Pitcher, 1985; Tamaoka, 1993). Indeed, the analysis of the mean nucleotide composition of DNA (De Ley, 1970; Johnson, 1985 a, b; Tamaoka, 1993) can be considered to be an integral part of the minimal description of bacterial taxa (Lévy-Frébault and It is, however, important that the results of % G+C Portaels, 1992). determinations be interpreted in the light of other taxonomic data as unrelated organisms can have identical base compositions. Generally, strains with DNA base compositions that differ by more than 5% mol G+C should not be classified in the same species and those that differ by more than 10% should not be assigned to the same genus (De Ley, 1970; Owen and Pitcher, 1985; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). Conversely, two organisms that have DNA with widely different base compositions will only be distantly related. In the first instance, DNA base compositions of representatives of numerically circumscribed clusters provide a way of assessing their homogeneity.

Assessment of base sequence similarity between DNA from two organisms may be readily achieved by DNA reassociation experiments where DNA is rendered into single strands by alkaline or thermal denaturation and subsequently allowed to reanneal in the presence of a second denaturated DNA molecule

(Johnson, 1985b, 1991). If the nucleotide sequences of the two DNA samples are homologous, hybrid duplexes will be formed by base pairing. In contrast, duplex formation will be negligible if there are few sequences in common. The amount of molecular hybrid formed and its thermal stability provides a measure of homology. Heterologous duplexes are less stable than their homologous counterparts due to imperfect base pair matching. It has been estimated that if 1% of the bases are unpaired within a heteroduplex then its thermal melting temperature (T_m value) is lowered by 1 to 1.5% (Britten and Kohne, 1966).

It has been recommended that genomic species should encompass strains with approximately 70% or more DNA:DNA relatedness with a difference of 5°C or less in thermal stability (ΔT_m ; Wayne *et al.*, 1987). Values from 30 to 70% reflect a moderate degree of relationship while values become increasingly unreliable once they fall below the 30% level. DNA relatedness experiments, therefore, provide a quantitative estimate of DNA sequence relatedness between organisms and have become the gold standard for the recognition of bacterial species (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993).

Several detailed protocols are recommended for the determination of DNA relatedness (Owen and Pitcher, 1985; Johnson, 1985b, 1991; Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993). In all cases it is important that DNA reassociation assays be carefully standardised if reproducible results are to be obtained since the extent and specificity of reassociation is influenced by external conditions and the physical state of the DNA. Given careful attention to these parameters DNA reassociation studies are usually accurate and repeatable with congruent results being obtained.

DNA reassociation techniques have limitations. In particular, they do not lend themselves to rapid, automated procedures. Further, due to the labour intensive nature of the work, full similarity (reassociation) matrices with estimates of DNA relatedness between each and every strain are rare (Grimont *et al.*, 1982; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). Most DNA:DNA relatedness studies tend to be restricted to comparisons between judiciously chosen reference strains and a variety of test organisms. Generally, this approach is reliable but it is important that reference strains are representative of the taxa under study (Hartford and Sneath, 1988).

DNA relatedness studies have contributed to improved classification of several actinomycete taxa, notably rhodococci (Zakrzewska-Czerwínska *et al.*, 1988), "sporangiate" actinomycetes (Farina and Bradley, 1970; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1981) and streptomycetes (Mordarski *et al.*, 1986; Labeda and Lyons, 1991a, b; Labeda, 1992). DNA:DNA pairing studies, however, are mainly of value in establishing relationships between closely related species as DNA relatedness values fall to low levels, below 20%, for species that are only moderately different phenotypically (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993).

Ribosomal (r) RNA sequencing analyses and DNA:rRNA pairing studies have been widely used to establish suprageneric relationships between bacteria (Woese *et al.*, 1985; Woese, 1987; Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993) as base sequences of rRNA cistrons are more highly conserved than most genes in the bacterial genome (Doi and Igarashi, 1965; Dubnau *et al.*, 1965). The methods used to determine DNA:RNA similarities have been extensively reviewed (Kilpper-Bälz, 1991). DNA:rRNA hybridisation techniques have not been as widely used as DNA:DNA relatedness procedures despite their undoubted significance in unravelling relationships between taxa within the class *Proteobacteria* (De Vos *et al.*, 1989).

A major breakthrough in determining relationships between distantly related bacteria was achieved by sequence analysis of linear rRNA. Initially, partial catalogues of oligonucleotide sequences, derived from T1 ribonuclease

digestion of purified 16S rRNA, were generated for test strains (Fox *et al.*, 1977a, b, 1980; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1980, 1985). Oligonucleotides produced by the digestion procedure were sequenced in their entirety to give nucleotide catalogues. An average catalogue consisted of about 80 fragments (7-20 nucleotides in length) that were evenly distributed over the primary structure accounting for between 35 and 45% of a complete sequence. The relationship between any two given strains was expressed as a similarity coefficient (S_{AB}) calculated on the basis of the proportion of identical nucleotides in the respective catalogues. The resultant matrices of S_{AB} values were examined using appropriate algorithms to generate dendrograms. As new catalogues became available they were compared to all previous catalogues regardless of the laboratory of origin. This continually growing database represented a significant advantage over hybridisation methods as the latter rely on comparisons against a few judiciously chosen reference strains usually at one point in time.

The need to derive more information from 16S rRNA, and to extend sequencing studies to the larger 23S rRNA macromolecules, led to the development of the reverse transcriptase sequencing technique (Qu *et al.*, 1983; Lane *et al.*, 1985). This method was derived from the deoxynucleotide chain-terminating, copying method of Sanger *et al.* (1977). In this method an oligonucleotide is annealed to a template nucleic acid under conditions such that it anneals at only one location. The oligonucleotide serves as a primer for the synthesis of a DNA copy of the template extending from the 3' terminus of the primer that is incorporated into the reverse transcript. The template strand is copied from 3' to 5' and the synthesised DNA strand from 5' to 3'. Inclusion of low levels of one dideoxynucleotide triphosphate in the reaction together with all four deoxynucleotide triphosphates results in the random termination of reverse transcriptase at positions corresponding to the nucleotide component of that

dideoxynucleotide in the template strand. The sequences obtained can be used to calculate homology values for the construction of phylogenetic trees, and to choose primers for amplification of 16S DNA genes using the polymerase chain reaction (Saiki *et al.*, 1988; Ludwig, 1991).

5S rRNA has also been sequenced for taxonomic purposes (Fox and Stackebrandt, 1987; Hori and Osawa, 1986; Stackebrandt and Liesack, 1993) but the small size of this molecule has tended to detract from its value in measuring distant phylogenetic relationships. Nevertheless, comparative 5S rRNA sequencing studies have been used to clarify relationships between closely related bacteria, including actinomycetes (Park *et al.*, 1987a, b, 1991, 1993). Two techniques are applied to achieve the necessary base-specific cleaves of RNA, namely the chemical (Peattie, 1979; Waldmann *et al.*, 1987; Zhang *et al.*, 1987) and enzymatic methods (Donis-Keller *et al.*, 1977; Krupp and Gross, 1979, 1983).

The genus Streptosporangium has been the subject of few molecular Stackebrandt et al. (1993) undertook 16S rDNA / RNA systematic studies. analyses of five members of the genus Streptosporangium. The type species Streptosporangium Streptosporangium roseum, nondiastaticum and Streptosporangium pseudovulgare formed an highly related cluster with Streptosporangium corrugatum peripherally associated. In contrast. Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies viridogriseum fell within the radiation of the family Pseudonocardiaceae showing a close similarity to Saccharothrix australiensis. The results were in good agreement with those of an earlier study on the electrophoretic mobility of ribosomal proteins which also showed that streptosporangia could be assigned to three groups (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992). The first group contained Streptosporangium albidum, Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies kofuense and Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies viridogriseum, the second Streptosporangium album,

Streptosporangium amethystogenes, Streptosporangium fragile, Streptosporangium nondiastaticum, Streptosporangium roseum, Streptosporangium violaceochromogenes and Streptosporangium vulgare, and the third Streptosporangium corrugatum. Kudo et al. (1993) carried out 5S rRNA sequencing studies on Herbidospora strains and found that one of them had very similar sequences to those of Streptosporangium roseum and Planobispora longispora strains.

E. CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA

1. RAPID ENZYME TESTS

a. Background

The discontinuous distribution of enzymes between members of microbial species can provide information of value for classification and identification (Manafi *et al.*, 1991; Goodfellow and James, 1993; James, 1993). Indeed, for the best part of a century, diagnostic tests have been used which are dependent on the presence or absence of particular enzymes. Most early enzymatic tests were applied empirically, their underlying biochemical basis only becoming clear at a later date. Early biochemical tests included examination for enzymes of the hydrolase, lyase and oxidoreductase groups, as well as for the end-products of metabolic pathways.

The use of enzymes as taxonomic markers offers advantages over some other taxonomic methods. These include ease of performance, flexibility in a variety of situations such as in agar and liquid media, ability to test diverse organisms in the same study, for example, fast and slow growing organisms in the same microtitre plate, and the capacity to acquire data quickly. In addition, tests designed to detect individual enzymes may be rapidly performed and are simple in operation often without the need for reagent additions. One of the outstanding properties of enzymes is their specificity. Some enzymes have almost absolute specificity for a given substrate and do not attack even closely related molecules; others are less so and act on a class of compounds. The specificity of enzymes combined with their ability to catalyse reactions of substrates at low concentrations is significant in biochemical evaluation. As with other bacterial proteins, the type of enzyme produced by members of a particular taxon is an expression of their genetic potential though microorganisms can regulate the amount and activity of the enzymes that they produce. Thus, for example, enzyme tests carried out on an organism grown on different culture media can give differing results due to the induction of catabolic enzymes or the repression of biosynthetic pathways hence standardisation of enzyme test procedures is essential.

b. Enzymes as Taxonomic Markers

Enzymes are not distributed uniformly amongst prokaryotes hence their discontinuous distribution can be weighted for classification and identification. Among the oxidoreductases, catalase, cytochrome oxidase and nitrate reductase have long been useful for classification and identification. Catalase is present in most cytochrome containing aerobic and facultatively anaerobic bacteria, with the notable exception of *Streptococcus* species, and is responsible for the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide to water and oxygen. The usual test procedure is simply to add hydrogen peroxide to a colony and observe the emission of oxygen bubbles (McFaddin, 1980). However, aromatic amines and phenols may also be used as oxygen acceptors. Hanker and Rabin (1975) developed a test whereby dopamine and phenylenediamine were oxidised to a coloured derivative by hydrogen peroxide in the presence of catalase.

The cytochrome oxidase enzyme mediates the oxidation of reduced cytochrome by molecular oxygen which in turn acts as an electron acceptor in the terminal of the stage electron transfer system. In this test. tetramethylphenylenediamine is oxidised by molecular oxygen in the presence of cytochrome C to give a coloured compound, Wurster's blue (Kovacs, 1956). Nitrate reductase catalyses the reduction of nitrate to nitrite. The nitrite reductase test relies on the formation of an azo dye from nitrite, sulphanilic acid and naphthylamine (Bachmann and Weaver, 1951).

Enzymes of the lyase group that are commonly used in systematics include decarboxylases, tryptophanase and tryptophan deaminase. The decarboxylase enzymes are numerous and each is totally specific for a given substrate. In bacterial classification and identification arginine, lysine and ornithine are generally used since they are decarboxylated to produce diamines which may be readily detected using a pH indicator. Tryptophanase and tryptophan deaminase form products which may be readily detected. Indole produced by the former reacts with 4-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde to give a red-violet compound (McFaddin, 1980) and phenylpyruvic acid produced by the latter complexes with ferric chloride to produce a green colouration (Blazevic and Ederer, 1975).

One of the first tests to be used in bacterial classification which involved the detection of a hydrolase enzyme was that for β -glucosidase. The naturally occurring compound esculin (6-O- β -D-glucosyloxy-7-hydroxycoumarin) was used as the test substrate (Meyer and Schönfeld, 1926). This compound is cleaved in the presence of β -glucosidase and the 6, 7-dihydroxycoumarin (esculetin) released forms a dark-brown chelate with ferric ions in the growth medium.

In the search for new diagnostic tests chromogenic hydrolase substrates developed for biochemical applications were adapted for bacterial identification. Phenolphthalein diphosphate has been used to detect alkaline phosphatase activity (Lewis, 1961) and O-nitrophenyl- β -D-glucoside has been employed as a rapid test for lactose fermenting bacteria (Lowe, 1962). Muftic (1967) demonstrated the value of aminopeptidases in the classification of mycobacteria; naphthylamide substrates were employed and free naphthylamine released in the reaction was visualised with a diazonium salt.

Fluorescent techniques provide a much more sensitive way of detecting enzyme activity than colorimetric based procedures. The latter may be adapted for fluorometry by adding a fluorophore with a spectrum that is quenched by a product of the enzymatic reaction or by using fluorescent indicators, notably 7amino-4-methylcoumarin (7-AMC) and 4-methylumbelliferone (4-MU). When conjugated derivatives of these molecules are cleaved by the relevant hydrolytic enzyme the parent molecules are released. The latter are intensely fluorescent in the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum whereas the corresponding derivatives are only weakly fluorescent in this region (Figure 3, page 45).

Maddocks and Greenan (1975) introduced a simple test procedure that involved the use of 4-methylumbelliferyl glucosides to differentiate between *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains. A restricted number of fluorogenic probes have been used to classify and identify actinomycetes, notably gordonae (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1991), mycobacteria (Grange, 1978; Grange and Clark, 1977; Slosarek, 1980), streptomycetes (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1987b) and a range of carboxydotrophic and mycolic acid containing actinomycetes (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1988, 1990b, 1991; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993). The ability of actinomycetes to produce endo- and exo-peptidases from 7-amino-4methylcoumarin conjugated substrates has also been demonstrated (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1987c, 1990b, 1991). These preliminary studies indicate that fluorogenic probes prepared from 7-AMC and 4-MU provide a simple, rapid and inexpensive way of detecting specific enzymes in small amounts of whole actinomycetes.



Figure 3 Cleavage of conjugated substrates to release (a) 7-amino-4methylcoumarin and (b) 4-methylumbelliferone.

Abbreviation: R, fatty acid or sugar; R', amino acid or peptide chain.

c. Types of Biochemical Tests

1) Colorimetric Liquid Media

Originally most biochemical tests were carried out using bottles or tubes containing broth test media. Preparation time and costs made it impossible to carry out effective test schemes routinely on large numbers of isolates and in an effort to solve the problem diagnostic companies developed test kits. The latter are usually based on a series of microcupules containing dehydrated sterile media. A suspension of test organism is added to these and the strip or plate incubated. After reagent addition, if required, colour formation is estimated visually or measured using a colorimeter. Most tests in kits used to be of the classical biochemical type but these have been replaced by chromogenic hydrolase substrates. Esterase and glycosidase substrates are usually based on *para*nitrophenol although absorption of the free chromophore is fairly weak making it difficult to see low levels of hydrolysis with the naked eye.

In the Zyme kit marketed by API (API System S.A., La Balme Les Grottes, France) the esterase and glycosidase substrates are based on naphthylamine. The free amine or phenol released in the reactions are coupled with a diazonium salt to produce a strongly absorbing chromophore. Zyme kits have found widespread use in the classification and identification of various groups of actinomycetes, including *Actinomyces* (Kilian, 1978), *Brevibacterium* (Freney *et al.*, 1991), *Gordona* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1991), *Nocardia* (Boiron and Provost, 1990), *Rhodococcus* (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1991), *Streptomyces* (Kämpfer *et al.*, 1991a, b) and carboxydotrophic actinomycetes (O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993). This system provides information on nineteen enzyme activities in four hours. Encouraging results have also been obtained with the API Coryne strip developed for the identification of Gram-positive rods, notably clinically important brevibacteria and corynebacteria (Freney *et al.*, 1991).

2) Multipoint Inoculated Agar Plates

Many biochemical tests are carried out using agar plates. An indicator incorporated in the medium or a reagent added after incubation leads to the production of coloured rings around positive test colonies. With multipoint inoculation devices up to forty different microbial strains may be inoculated onto a single agar plate leading to inexpensive data acquisition.

Mast (Mast International Ltd., Bootle, U.K.) market an identification system based on agar plates. Results may be interpreted by eye, more objectively, using an image analyser. Unfortunately, some reaction products readily diffuse through the media and confusion can occur if a coloured zone spreads over adjacent colonies. Tests that generate highly insoluble products are, therefore, preferred. Esculin hydrolysis is useful in this respect as the ferric-esculetin complex produced is poorly soluble and forms an easily discernible ring around positive colonies. Another chelating compound, 8-hydroxyquinoline, has been used for enzyme testing (Fishman and Green, 1955). It produces a highly insoluble black chelate with a large molar extinction coefficient. James and Yeoman (1987, 1988) examined members of the family *Enterobacteriaceae* with 8-hydroxyquinoline- β -D-glucoside and 8-hydroxyquinoline- β -D-glucuronide in agar plates and achieved much more compact zones around positive colonies than were obtained with esculin.

3) Fluorometric Testing

Fluorescence of molecules is caused by absorption of electromagnetic radiation, i.e. ultraviolet, visible and infra-red, leading to promotion of electrons from the ground to an excited state. The latter has a finite lifetime during which some loss of vibrational energy occurs. The residual energy is either lost by collisional deactivation or by re-emission of radiant energy (fluorescence). The

loss of vibrational energy means that fluorescence energy is less than the energy of absorption and the wavelength maximum correspondingly longer than the absorption maximum. Absorption of energy leads to electronic excitation.

In most cases substrate specificity is wide enough to permit a variety of groups on one side of the bond to be broken. Artificial substrates may thus be used with a chromophore or fluorophore attached to the group of interest. A chromophore should have strong absorption capacity to maximise sensitivity and it is beneficial if this absorption is in the visible spectrum. Generally, wavelength and intensity of absorption are increased if conjugation in the molecule is increased. Electron donating groups such as the halogens also increase the wavelength of absorption. If, however, another molecule is attached to the amino or hydroxy groups the electron donating effect is reduced and absorption is at a lower wavelength. A substrate formed by such a linkage will have a lower wavelength of absorption than the free chromophore so that enzyme activity may be readily followed.

Fluorescence is enhanced by electronic conjugation and by the planarity (flat, stable nature) of the molecule. It is for this reason that most highly fluorescent substances have rigid aromatic ring structures. Fluorescent emission is shifted to longer wavelength by electron donating groups and fluorogenic substrates may be created in a similar manner to their chromogenic counterparts. The coumarinic compounds 7-AMC and 4-MU have structural features which predispose towards fluorescence. These include planarity, rigidity, electron delocalisation *via* an efficient conjugation system and the presence of at least one electron releasing group.

A restricted range of 4-MU linked substrates have been used in the classification and identification of actinomycetes including mycobacteria (Grange, 1978; Grange and Clark, 1977; Hamid *et al.*, 1993), renibacteria (Goodfellow *et*

al., 1985) and streptomycetes (Goodfellow et al., 1987b). Kenneth et al. (1992) have developed a rapid and sensitive assay for chitinolytic activity based on the use of fluorogenic 4-methylumbelliferone glycosides of N-acetylglucosamine oligosaccharides in order to characterise the enzymes associated with chitinolytic microorganisms, notably exo- and endo-chitinases and N-acetylglucosamine. Similarly, enzyme activity profiles of mycobacteria and related actinomycetes have been obtained using peptide hydrolase substrates based on 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin (Goodfellow et al., 1987c; Hamid et al., 1993).

Fully automated systems are needed to determine the full potential of rapid enzyme tests in bacterial systematics. Microscan (Sacramento, California, U.S.A.) and Sensititre Ltd. (East Grinstead, U.K.) market automated systems. With the Sensititre procedure conjugated enzyme substrates are held in microtitre plates and after inoculation results are read quantitatively using a fluorometric plate reader attached to a computer for instant data acquisition. The raw data are interpreted using appropriate software. A variant of the Sensititre system has been developed and applied to the classification and identification of rapidly growing mycobacteria and nocardiae (Hamid *et al.*, 1993). This latter procedure was used in the present study to assign unidentified streptosporangia from soil to artificial groups.

d. Enzymes as Taxonomic Markers in Streptosporangial Systematics

Little attempt has been made to determine the enzymatic profile of representatives of the genus *Streptosporangium*. The restricted number of enzyme tests currently used in streptosporangial systematics (Nonomura, 1989; Goodfellow, 1991) can be attributed to the traditional emphasis placed on morphological and physiological criteria and to the problem of detecting small amounts of end product in large volumes of test media.

The most comprehensive study to date was carried out by Whitham et al. (1993) who examined one hundred and twenty-two streptosporangia, including isolates from soil, and 37 marker strains of Microbispora, Microtetraspora, Planobispora, Planomonospora and Streptosporangium, for their ability to cleave twenty-six 4-MU conjugated derivatives. Some of the tests were of presumptive diagnostic value for the delineation of the taxa classified in the family Streptosporangiaceae. Most of the microbisporae were characterised by their ability to cleave $4MU-\beta$ -D-glucuronide; the planobisporae and planomonosporae were unusual in cleaving 4MU-pyrophosphate. All of the streptosporangia were active against 4MU-2-acetamido-2-deoxy- β -D-galactopyranoside, 4MU- β -Dfucopyranoside, $4MU-\beta$ -D-galactopyranoside, $4MU-\alpha$ -D-glucopyranoside and 4MU- β -D-glucopyranoside, but gave different patterns of reaction with 4MU-2acetamido-2-deoxy- β -D-glucopyranoside, 4MU-N-acetyl- β -D-glucosamide, $4MU-\alpha$ -L-arabinofuranoside. $4MU-\alpha$ -L-arabinopyranoside, 4MU-β-Dcellobiopyranoside, $4MU-\alpha$ -D-galactopyranoside, $4MU-\beta$ -D-glucuronide, $4MU-\alpha$ -D-mannopyranoside, 4MU-β-D-mannopyranoside, 4MU-bisphosphate, 4MUpyrophosphate, 4MU-heptanoate, 4MU-nonanoate and 4MU-palmitate indicating that these enzymes were of potential value for the classification and identification of streptosporangia.

2. CHEMOSYSTEMATICS

Simple rapid methods have been developed to detect the distribution of taxonomically useful components of the bacterial wall peptidoglycan. These qualitative techniques are widely used for primary classification and identification of actinomycetes as they can be applied to large numbers of strains (Schaal, 1985; Williams *et al.*, 1989; Suzuki *et al.*, 1993). More analytical techniques have been used to elucidate the primary structure of actinomycete cell walls but they involve

procedures that are not readily applicable to more than a few strains (Schleifer and Kandler, 1972; Schleifer and Seidl, 1985; Kodama *et al.*, 1992; Hancock, 1993). However, quantitative data on wall amino acid composition can be obtained relatively quickly by gas chromatography (O'Donnell *et al.*, 1985).

Qualitative analyses of components of cell walls and whole-organisms led to the classification of actinomycetes into eight aggregate groups or wall chemotypes based on the discontinuous distribution of major wall amino acids and sugars (Table 6, page 52; Becker *et al.*, 1965; Lechevalier *et al.*,1966b; Lechevalier and Gerber, 1970; M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970a, b; Minnikin and O'Donnell, 1984; Suzuki *et al.*, 1993). Members of the family *Streptosporangiaceae* contain *meso*-DAP as the major wall diamino acid but lack any characteristic sugars and hence belong to wall chemotype III (M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970a, b). The isomers of diaminopimelic acid are key chemical markers particular since the detection of the LL-isomer distinguishes streptomycetes from all other sporoactinomycetes. Current methods for the detection of DAP by thin layer chromatography (TLC) are not satisfactory as it can be difficult to distinguish the LL-, DD- and *meso*-DAP isomers from one another on TLC plates.

Peptidoglycans have been classified according to their chemical composition by Ghuysen (1968) and Schleifer and Kandler (1972). Both classifications stress the importance of the mode of cross linkage, but the tridigital system proposed by Schleifer and Kandler (1972) is the one that is commonly used (Suzuki *et al.*, 1993). The variation in peptidoglycan composition has provided invaluable information for the reclassification of actinomycetes (Goodfellow and Cross, 1984), notably for the so called coryneform actinomycetes (Goodfellow, 1989a). Members of the family *Streptosporangiaceae*

Wall Chemotype	Major Constituents**	Families / Genera
Ι	LL-diaminopimelic acid, glycine	Streptomycetaceae
П	meso-diaminopimelic acid, glycine	Micromonosporaceae
ША	meso- diaminopimelic acid, madurose	Dermatophilaceae Frankiaceae Streptosporangiaceae
ШВ	meso- diaminopimelic acid	Brevibacteriaceae Thermomonosporaceae
IV A	<i>meso</i> - diaminopimelic acid, arabinose, galactose, mycolic acids	Corynebacteriaceae Mycobacteriaceae Nocardiaceae
IV B	<i>meso</i> - diaminopimelic acid, arabinose, galactose	Pseudonocardiaceae
v	lysine, ornithine	Actinomyces israelii
VI	lysine (aspartic acid, galactose)***	Microbacterium Oeskovia
VII	diaminobutyric acid, glycine (lysine)	Agromyces Clavibacter
VIII	ornithine	Curtobacterium Cellulomonas

Table 6 Cell wall chemotypes of some actinomycete taxa*

*, Data modified from M.P. Lechevalier and Lechevalier (1970b) and Goodfellow and O'Donnell (1989).

, All wall preparations contain major amounts of alanine and glutamic acid; *, variable constituents.

have a peptidoglycan type A1 γ (Schleifer and Kandler, 1972; Nonomura, 1989; Goodfellow, 1991).

Lipid analyses have yielded valuable data for bacterial classification and identification (Mayer *et al.*, 1985; Tornabene, 1985; Jantzen and Bryn, 1993), especially for actinomycete systematics (Minnikin, 1982; Minnikin and O'Donnell, 1984; O'Donnell, 1985, 1988a, b; Saddler *et al.*, 1987; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993; Suzuki *et al.*, 1993). Most attention has focused on the use of fatty acids, isoprenoid quinones and polar lipids as chemical markers.

A functional plasma membrane requires the presence of a suitable mixture of both relatively fluid and solid fatty acids esterified to polar head groups. Several different types of fatty acid mixtures are found in actinomycetes. At one extreme, straight chain fatty acids occur with fluid monounsaturated components and acids biosynthetically derived from unsaturated fatty acids such as tuberculostearic and cyclopropane acids (e.g. *Actinomyces, Corynebacterium* and *Mycobacterium*). In contrast, other actinomycetes have *iso-* fatty acids as their main relatively solid base although smaller amounts of straight chain components are usually present. The fluid elements in patterns of this type are composed solely of *anteiso-*fatty acids (e.g. *Actinopolyspora, Cellulomonas, Oerskovia, Thermomonospora, Saccharomonospora* and *Streptomyces*).

Members of the genus *Streptosporangium* have complex fatty acid patterns consisting of major amounts of saturated straight chain, *iso-* and methyl- branched fatty acids and minor and variable amounts of unsaturated and *anteiso-* acids, respectively (Kroppenstedt, 1985; Poschner *et al.*, 1985; Kudo *et al.*, 1993; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). There is also evidence that quantitative analyses of fatty acids extracted from representative strains of the family *Streptosporangiaceae* grown under carefully standard conditions will yield valuable data for the

classification and identification of the constituent taxa (Mertz and Yao, 1990; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993).

Information of value for actinomycete systematics has also been derived from two-dimensional thin-layer chromatographic analyses of polar lipids (Minnikin and O'Donnell, 1984; Suzuki et al., 1993). These lipids form the structural basis of bacterial plasma membranes, phospholipids are the most common type found in actinomycetes. Phospholipids commonly detected in actinomycete wall envelopes include phosphatidylglycerol (PG). diphosphatidylglycerol (DPG), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE)and phosphatidylinositol (PI). PE. Methylated derivatives of such as phosphatidylmethylethanolamine (PME) and phosphatidylcholine (PC) are less commonly encountered. Other polar lipids of diagnostic potential which lack phosphorus groups include the amphipatic glycolipids and acylated long-chain ornithine and lysine amides (Minnikin and O'Donnell, 1984). Actinomycetes have been assigned to five groups on the basis of the discontinuous distribution of certain nitrogenous phospholipids (Lechevalier et al., 1977, 1981; Goodfellow, 1989b).

Polar lipid data provide further evidence of a close relationship between the genera Microbispora, Microtetraspora, Streptosporangium, Planobispora and *Planomonospora*; strains in these taxa have a type IV phospholipid pattern sensu Lechevalier et al. (1977), that is, they contain glucosamine. Whitham et al. (1993) found that nearly all of their streptosporangia contained major amounts of diphosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylglycerol with most also characterised of phosphatidylinositol, by the presence phosphatidylinositol mannosides and phosphatidylmethylethanolamine. Similar findings were reported from earlier studies (Kroppenstedt, 1985; Mertz and Yao, 1990) though the failure of some investigators (Lechevalier et al., 1977;

Hasegawa *et al.*, 1979) to detect phosphatidylglycerol can be attributed to the use of different media and cultivation regimes.

Actinomycetes can also be assigned to several aggregate groups on the basis of the types of menaquinones found in their plasma membranes. Menaquinones vary in the length and degree of hydrogenation of double bonds of their isoprene units (Collins and Jones, 1981; Collins, 1993; Suzuki et al., 1993). Initial menaquinone analyses provided qualitative or semi-quantitative information (Minnikin et al., 1978; Minnikin and O'Donnell, 1984) but it is now commonplace to derive quantitative profiles by using high performance liquid chromatography (Collins et al., 1984; Kroppenstedt, 1982, 1985; Suzuki et al., 1993). Quantitative menaquinone data, however, have to be interpreted with care as Saddler et al. (1986) found that the menaquinone composition of Streptomyces cyaneus NCIB 9616 varied at different stages of the growth cycle. Most Streptosporangiaceae strains have profiles rich in MK-9 (H₀), MK-9 (H₂) and MK-9 (H₄) (Poschner et al., 1985; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993). Members of the genus Streptosporangium are characterised by the presence of major amounts of di- and tetra-hydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units (Collins et al., 1984; Kroppenstedt, 1985; Mertz and Yao, 1990; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993).

The sites of hydrogenation of the isoprenyl side chains of menaquinones also provide useful taxonomic information. Prior to the application of mass spectromet^{ry}/mass spectromet^{ry} (MS/MS; Tamaoka, 1987) the hydrogenated positions of bacterial menaquinones were determined by NMR analysis. Di-, tetra-, hexa- and octahydrogenated menaquinones tend to be hydrogenated at positions 'II', 'II and III', 'II, III and VIII', and 'II, III, VIII and IX', respectively (Suzuki *et al.*, 1993). The order of hydrogenation would appear to be 'II >III >VIII >IX'. Streptosporangia contain major amounts of tetrahydrogenated menaquinones with nine isoprene units hydrogenated at positions II and VIII (Stackebrandt et al., 1993).

3. PYROLYSIS MASS SPECTROMETRY

The need to classify, identify and type microorganisms is a central theme in microbiology but many of the methods currently used for these purposes are complex, expensive in labour and materials and quite often give poor reproducibility. There is a real need to develop rapid, reproducible and costeffective methods for the classification, identification and typing of microorganisms. It has already been demonstrated that chemical and molecular techniques have helped to generate a lot of new information for microbial classification and identification (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993) and have provided valuable data for the revision of many bacterial taxa, including those assigned to the order Actinomycetales (Williams et al., 1989; Kroppenstedt et al., 1990; Manchester et al., 1990; Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993). However, many of these techniques are relatively expensive in both cost per sample and in time. This is not the case with analytical chemical techniques, notably Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry (Magee, 1993a, b).

Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry (PyMS) of whole-organisms was introduced by Meuzelaar (1974) to facilitate rapid characterisation and identification of microorganisms. Pyrolysis, the thermal degradation of material in an inert atmosphere or vacuum, leads to the production of volatile fragments from non-volatile materials such as microorganisms. Under controlled conditions the breakdown is reproducible and the fragments are characteristic of the original material hence the pyrolysate is a "fingerprint" of the original sample. Following pyrolysis, the fragments are ionised then separated by mass spectrometry. The method involves organisms taken directly from growth media. Sample preparation and total running time are very fast and inexpensive. The analytical system for pyrolysis and data acquisition can also be automated thereby allowing the pyrolysis of multiple samples.

Pyrolysis mass spectrometry was first used to investigate complex biopolymers such as albumin and pepsin (Zemany, 1952). Interest soon waned in PyMS as workers turned to pyrolysis gas-liquid chromatography (PyGS) as this system was less expensive (Davison *et al.*, 1954). Pyrolysis gas-liquid chromatography was used to separate molecules on the basis of their relative polarity, that is, the constituent components of the pyrolysate were separated by the difference in retention time of each fragment in the chromatographic column. This system was used in the late 1960's and early 70's (Gutteridge and Norris, 1979) but it's application to microbial systematics was limited given problems of long-term reproducibility, lack of speed and inadequate data handling facilities (Gutteridge, 1987). An automated PyGC system was subsequently developed, but not used, for the detection of possible extra-terrestrial life in the Surveyor series of lunar landings (Wilson *et al.*, 1962).

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) later developed a pyrolysis mass spectrometer for the detection of microorganisms in dust samples on Mars. The technique involved heating lunar dust samples and analysing the resultant degradative products but convincing traces of organic material were not found (Gutteridge and Norris, 1979). An improved pyrolysis mass spectrometer was introduced by Meuzelaar and Kistemaker (1973) for the characterisation of complex biological samples including microorganisms. The procedure was seen as rapid, universally applicable, and relevant for the characterisation of organisms at generic, specific and subspecific levels but the two commercially available machines gave data that were poorly reproducible. In addition, the cost of running the instruments was high and the analysis of samples could not be achieved in less than 5 minutes.

A major breakthrough in pyrolysis mass spectrometry came with the introduction of the Horizon PyMS-200X, an instrument based on the PyMS quadrupole mass spectrometric system of Prutee Limited (Aries *et al.*, 1986). The superior performance of this machine over the earlier models can be attributed to an improved electron multiplier, which led to faster analysis times (2 minutes per sample), enhanced reproducibility and an upgraded statistical package for data analysis. The operational procedure has been described in detail by Magee (1993a, b) and hence will not be considered here.

Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry is increasingly being applied in microbial systematics (Magee, 1993a, b). The procedure has been used to confirm the homogeneity within and discrimination between taxa circumscribed using conventional taxonomic methods (French et al., 1989). Good correlation was found when PyMS data were compared with those obtained using conventional clustering techniques, for example, in comparative taxonomic studies of Fusobacterium ulcerans (Adriaans and Shah, 1988; Magee et al., 1989b). In some (1979) instances. however. as Gutteridge and Norris anticipated, pyroclassifications differ from more conventionally based taxonomies thereby providing another perspective on the classification of test organisms (Hindmarch et al., 1990).

Excellent results have been obtained in applications of PyMS to microbial identification. Pyrolysis mass spectrometric identification of clinically significant mycobacteria (Wieten *et al.*, 1981a, b; 1983) was shown to be reliable given > 90% agreement with conventional procedures in discriminating between organisms in the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex. In these studies challenge sets were compared with marker organisms included in each batch of analyses, a technique

termed operational fingerprinting. Identification of staphylococci to species using the PyMS procedure also showed around 90% agreement with conventional identification systems (Magee *et al.*, 1983; Hindmarch and Magee, 1987). Saddler *et al.* (1989) used PyMS in the selection of unusual actinomycetes for pharmacological screening programmes.

The most important application of Curie-point PyMS, to date, has been in the area of microbial epidemiology (Magee, 1993a). A broad range of species have been studied including *Bacteroides ureolyticus* (Duerden *et al.*, 1989), *Candida albicans* (Magee *et al.*, 1988), *Mycobacterium xenopi* (Sisson *et al.*, 1992), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Sisson *et al.*, 1991), *Salmonella enteritidis* (Freeman *et al.*, 1990a) and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (Freeman *et al.*, 1991). Studies of three *Streptococcus pyogenes* outbreaks (Magee *et al.*, 1989a; Freeman *et al.*, 1990b) showed almost total agreement with conventional typing; interest in this species reflects the dire consequences of misjudgement in potential hospital outbreaks. Many authors cite the speed and lack of necessity for species-specific modification of methods with PyMS as clear advantages over traditional techniques.

The application of PyMS to actinomycete systematics has mainly been restricted to examination of a few clinically significant isolates. Meuzelaar et al.(1976) were able to distinguish between several mycobacterial species but were unable to show differences between Mycobacterium avium, Mycobacterium bovis and Mycobacterium xenopii strains. Wieten et al.(1981a, b) was able to separate Mycobacterium bovis, Mycobacterium bovis BCG and Mycobacterium tuberculosis strains using a PyMS generated database derived from a small set of molecular masses. Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry has also been used to characterise Mycobacterium kansasii (Wieten et al., 1979), Mycobacterium leprae

(Wieten et al., 1982) and Mycobacterium strains (Sisson et al., 1992), and to distinguish between Corynebacterium species (Hindmarch et al., 1990).

Pyrolysis mass spectrometry has also been used in the classification, identification and typing of industrially significant actinomycetes (Saddler et al., 1988; Sanglier et al., 1992). Sanglier et al. (1992) pyrolysed members of representative actinomycete genera in order to study the effects of media design, incubation time, sample preparation and the effects of sporulating versus nonsporulating actinomycete strains on experimental data. It was concluded that reproducible data could be obtained given vigorous standardisation of growth and These workers were also able to distinguish between pyrolysis conditions. actinomycete strains at and below the species level. In particular, representatives of three closely related Streptomyces species, namely Streptomyces albidoflavus, Streptomyces anulatus and Streptomyces halstedii were distinguished. The separation of these numerically circumscribed streptomycete species (Williams et al., 1983a; Kämpfer et al., 1991a; Goodfellow et al., 1992) suggests that PyMS may be a useful way of evaluating clusters defined in numerical taxonomic surveys.

It is essential to perform multivariate statistical analyses to interpret pyrolysis mass spectral data. The mathematical procedure involves several stages; pre-processing to remove the effects of variation in the amount of sample analysed; univariate analysis to remove masses with poor reproducibility and some form of multivariate analysis to resolve the complex statistical structure of the remaining data to yield results that can be used for either classification or identification. It can be difficult to represent the large amounts of information derived from PyMS studies and this may necessitate further processing to obtain three dimensional scatter plots and dendrograms. Much of this data handling can now be rapidly performed on micro-computers using commercial software. Statistical packages used to analyse PyMS data include ARTHUR (Kowalski, 1975), BMDP (Dixon, 1975), GENSTAT (Nelder, 1979) SIMCA (Wold, 1976) and SPSS (Nie *et al.*, 1975).

The multivariate technique, principle components analysis, is commonly used to analyse PyMS data. Principle components analysis involves data reduction to obtain a two or three dimensional graphical representation of multidimensional data in order to display relationships within datasets and to detect outliers (Gutteridge *et al.*, 1979; McFie and Gutteridge, 1982; Shute *et al.*, 1985; Magee, 1993a, b). Canonical variate analysis is used in PyMS to determine relationships between the groups defined by principle components analysis. In PyMS analysis replicate samples, usually three, of a single strain are considered as a group. Canonical variate analysis minimises intra-replicate variation and maximises differences between strains.

The use of artificial neural networks (ANNs) for the analysis of pyrolysis mass spectral data provides an even more robust and effective approach towards pattern recognition (Goodacre *et al.*, 1992; Chun *et al.*, 1993a, b; Freeman *et al.*, 1993). Artificial neural networks are composed of processing elements which are analogous to neurons in the brain. Each of the processing elements (PE) has a number of weighted inputs that are summed to give the internal activation level of the PEs. Artificial neural networks use many processing elements which are usually arranged in three layers: an input layer, one or more hidden layers and an output layer. Such networks learn by modifying the weights or strengths of the connections between the PEs though finding ways of teaching/training networks were a major stumbling block during early research (Morris and Boddy, 1992). The artificial neural network system offers considerable advantages over current practice in the analysis of PyMS data as it is not necessary to examine duplicate or triplicate samples or to analyse reference and unknown strains in a single run.

Artificial neural networks are increasingly being used to detect complex, non-linear relationships in multivariate data. They have been used to analyse data generated by PyMS (Goodacre *et al.*, 1992) in order to discriminate between bacterial species (Bungay and Bungay, 1991), in fermentation control (Lant *et al.*, 1990), and in gene (Wu *et al.*, 1990) and protein classification (Qian and Sejnowski, 1988; Wu *et al.*, 1991). In the case of bacterial identification the underlying rationale is that it is possible to acquire sets of multivariate data from representatives of taxa and train ANNs using the known identities as the derived outputs. Once neural networks have been trained they can be used to discriminate between the taxa under study (Chun *et al.*, 1993a, b; Freeman *et al.*, 1993). Artificial neural networks have been shown to provide a rapid, reliable and costeffective method of identifying *Streptomyces* species (Chun *et al.*, 1993a, b).

F. SELECTIVE ISOLATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA

1. BACKGROUND

Actinomycetes are a successful group of bacteria that live in a variety of natural and man-made environments. Most are strict saprophytes but some form parasitic or mutualistic associations with animals and plants (Goodfellow and Williams, 1983; Williams *et al.*, 1984b; Schaal and Lee, 1992). The primary natural reservoir of actinomycetes is soil where strains are believed to have a role in the recycling of nutrients (Williams *et al.*, 1984b; McCarthy and Williams, 1992). Soil particles carrying spores are widely dispersed which means that actinomycetes can be isolated from most natural habitats.

Actinomycetes are usually isolated from environmental samples by applying appropriate selective pressures at various stages of the dilution plate procedure (Williams and Wellington, 1982; Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and Williams, 1986; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Bull *et al.*, 1992). Samples may be taken at random or from habitats where the microbial community is adapted to relatively extreme external factors. It is usually necessary to eliminate or reduce fungal and unwanted bacterial growth on isolation media in order to selectively isolate actinomycetes from natural habitats. Fungal contaminants are usually controlled by supplementing isolation media with antifungal antibiotics such as cycloheximide (actidione; Phillips and Hanel, 1950; Cork and Chase, 1956; Porter *et al.*, 1960), nystatin or pimaricin (Porter *et al.*, 1960; Tsao and Thieleke, 1966).

2. CHOICE OF ENVIRONMENTAL SAMPLES

Many thousands of actinomycetes have been isolated from the environment but relatively little is known about the ecological or geographical distribution of even the better known neutrophilic streptomycetes (Goodfellow and Simpson, 1987; Bull et al., 1992). Ecological studies have been few in number and have tended to concentrate on the detailed taxonomic analysis of a limited number of strains isolated from a few environmental samples (Orchard and Goodfellow, 1980; Goodfellow et al., 1990a; Whitham et al., 1993). The lack of convincing evidence for the production of antibiotics and other useful metabolites in nature compounds this problem (Williams, 1982). Given this situation, it is difficult to predict the sites where particular actinomycete taxa or strains occur. Notable exceptions include the association of thermotolerant and thermophilic actinomycetes involved in the turnover of self-heating composts and other vegetable material (Lacey, 1988) and the coprophilous life cycle of *Rhodococcus* coprophilus (Rowbotham and Cross, 1977). Nevertheless the selection of macroor micro- habitats as a source of commercially useful actinomycetes remains something of a lottery.

3. PRETREATMENT OF SAMPLES

A wide range of pretreatment regimes have been used to enhance the isolation of actinomycetes from environmental samples (Cross, 1982; Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989). These include physical and chemical treatments or enrichments of samples. Many pretreatment regimes exert a clear selectivity for the isolation of members of particular actinomycete taxa, but the scientific basis for their action is rarely evident. A novel pretreatment method involves the addition of a mixture of polyvalent streptomycete phage to soil suspensions to selectively reduce the growth of streptomycete colonies on isolation plates and thereby raise the proportion of other genera isolated (Williams and Vickers, 1988).

Membrane filtration and centrifugation can be used to concentrate actinomycete propagules in soil, water and sediment samples (Trolldenier, 1966; Goodfellow and Haynes, 1984). Similarly, nutrient enrichment of environmental samples and soil suspensions have been used to increase the number of streptomycetes and streptosporangia prior to isolation (Williams and Mayfield, 1971; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988). A useful departure from the dilution plate procedure involves the isolation of thermophilic actinomycetes from dry, selfheating plant material. The latter is shaken in a wind tunnel (Gregory and Lacey, 1963) or sedimentation chamber (Lacey and Dutkiewicz, 1976) and the spore clouds obtained impacted onto surface-dried isolation plates held in an Andersen (1958) sampler. This method has been successfully used to isolate mycolateless wall chemotype IV actinomycetes which are a source of several important antibiotics (Whitehead, 1989).

Hirsch and Christenson (1983) used membrane filters to reduce the number of contaminating bacteria on isolation plates. Soil dilutions were inoculated onto the surface of membrane filters placed onto the surface of isolation media. After incubation for three days, the filters were removed and the plates re-incubated for a further seven days. Actinomycete spores can germinate and grow through pores in membrane filters onto the media below whereas non-mycelial bacteria are restricted to the upper surface of filters and are therefore removed with them.

A variety of baiting procedures have been developed for the selective isolation of specific actinomycetes from environmental samples. The "baits", once colonised, are removed and placed onto plates of nutrient media for subsequent culturing and examination. A variety of baits have been employed for the isolation of members of the genera *Planobispora, Planomonospora, Spirillospora* and *Streptosporangium* (Couch, 1954; Schäfer, 1973; Goodfellow, 1991a). A method based on the chemotactic response of motile spores was successfully used to isolate *Spirillospora* strains from soil (Palleroni, 1980).

Actinomycete propagules are more resistant to desiccation than most vegetative bacteria so that the simple practice of air-drying soil samples, prior to plating suspensions onto suitable selective media, can significantly increase the chances of isolating spore-forming actinomycetes, especially when isolation media are not highly selective (Meiklejohn, 1957; Williams et al., 1972; Hunter, 1978; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988; Hayakawa et al., 1991). Resistance to desiccation is usually accompanied by a measure of heat resistance; dry soils can be heated to over 100°C to reduce the number of unwanted bacteria in order to enhance the recovery of rare actinomycetes (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a; Athalye et al., 1981). Less extreme heat pretreatment regimes have been recommended for the isolation of micromonosporae (Goodfellow and Haynes, 1984), nocardiae (Orchard, 1975), rhodococci (Rowbotham and Cross, 1977) and streptomycetes (Williams et al., 1972; Goodfellow and Haynes, 1984). It is not known why actinomycete propagules such as spores (e.g. streptomycetes), spore vesicles (e.g. streptosporangia) and hyphal fragments (e.g. rhodococci) are more resistant to
heat and desiccation than vegetative cells of Gram negative bacteria. Some of the physical pretreatments used to isolate members of the family *Streptosporangiaceae* are shown in Table 7, page 67.

The effectiveness of chemical pretreatment regimes depends on the higher resistance of actinomycete propagules to antimicrobial compounds such as chlorine (Burman *et al.*, 1969), phenol (Speer and Lynch, 1969; Pantier *et al.*, 1979; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988) and quaternary ammonium compounds (Phillips and Kaplan, 1976; Du Moulin and Stottmeier, 1978). Although toxic, such compounds have been found useful in the reduction of unwanted bacteria on isolation plates. Sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%) and yeast extract (6%) have also been used inhibit the growth of bacteria, they enhance germination of actinomycete spores (Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988).

4. CHOICE OF ISOLATION MEDIA

The selectivity of an isolation medium is influenced by its nutrient composition, pH, the addition of selective inhibitors and by incubation conditions (Williams *et al.*,1984a; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a). These factors determine which fractions of natural populations from environmental samples will compete successfully and thereby be recovered on selective isolation media. Innumerable media formulations have been recommended for the isolation of actinomycetes in general and for selected genera in particular.

Surprisingly, many "general" or "non-selective" media were designed without regard either to the nutrient properties or tolerances of the target actinomycetes. Thus, media such as colloidal chitin (Lingappa and Lockwood, 1961; Hsu and Lockwood, 1975), half-strength nutrient (Gregory and Lacey, 1963), glucose-asparagine (Crook *et al.*, 1950), glycerol-arginine (Benedict *et al.*, 1955), M3 (Rowbotham and Cross, 1977) and starch-casein-nitrate agars (Küster

Treatment	Substrate	Isolation Medium	Isolates	References
Baiting				
Paspalum grass	Soil	3%, w/v agar	Streptosporangium (also Actinoplanes)	Couch (1954, 1955a, 1963)
Pollen	Soil and water	3%, w/v agar	Spirillospora (also Actinoplanes)	
Pollen and hair	Soil	3%, w/v agar	Planobispora, Planomonospora	Bland and Couch (1981)
Chloride ions	Soil	Starch-casein agar	Spirillospora (also Actinoplanes)	Palleroni (1980)
Physical				
Air-dry and heat at 100°C or 120°C for 1 hour	Soil	Arginine-vitamins agar supplemented with actidione and nystatin (50 µg/ml)	Microbispora, Sireptosporangium	Nonomura and Ohara (1969a, b)
Air-dry and heat at 100°C or 120°C for 1 hour	Soil	Glucose-asparagine with soil extract agar supplemented with actidione (50 µg/ml) and polymixin B (4 µg/ml)	Microtetraspora	Nonomura and Ohara (1971a, b)
Air-dry and heat at 120°C for 1 hour and treated 10 ⁻¹ dilution with 1.5% phenol	Soil	Humic acid-vitamins agar supplemented with actidione (50 µg/ml) and nalidixic acid (30 µg/ml)	Microbispora	Hayakawa and Nonomura (1988)
Air-dry and heat at 120°C for 1 hour	Soil	Humic acid-vitamins agar supplemented with actidione (50 µg/ml) and nalidixic acid (30 µg/ml)	Streptosporangium (also Dactylosporangium)	Nonomura (1984), Hayakawa and Nonomura (1988)
Air-dry and heat at 120°C for 1 hour and treated 10 ⁻¹ dilution with 0.01% benzethonium chloride	Soil	Humic æcid-vitamins agar supplemented with leucomycin (1.0 μg/ml) and nalidixic acid (30 μg/ml)	Streptosporangium	Hayakawa <i>et al.</i> (1991)
Desiccate at 28°C for 1 week	Soil	Y east extract agar supplemented with actidione (50 μ g/ml) and nystatin (50 μ g/ml)	Herbidospora	Kudo et al. (1993)

and Williams, 1964) are widely used though little attempt has been made to evaluate their effectiveness (Williams *et al.*, 1984a). This point was clearly demonstrated when the use of various objectively formulated selective media resulted in the isolation of different streptomycete species from the same sand dune sample (Vickers *et al.*, 1984). The media recommended by Nonomura and Ohara (1969a, b) for the isolation of *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* were empirical.

It is now apparent that most "non-selective" media recommended for the isolation of actinomycetes are selective for streptomycetes, notably for those belonging to the *Streptomyces albidoflavus* (griseus) group (Vickers *et al.*, 1984). This observation helps to explain why actinomycetes such as streptosporangia have only occasionally been isolated on conventional isolation media such as cellulose, chitin, starch-ammonium or starch-casein agars (Van Brummelen and Went, 1957; Potekhina, 1965; Willoughby, 1969b; Williams and Sharples, 1976).

5. TAXONOMIC APPROACH TO SELECTIVE ISOLATION

Selective media can be designed on objective criteria given recent improvements in actinomycete systematics (Vickers *et al.*, 1984; Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Bull *et al.*, 1992). Indeed, numerical taxonomic databases, which contain extensive information on the biochemical, nutritional, physiological and antibiotic sensitivity profiles of constituent actinomycete taxa are ideal resources for the formulation of isolation media deemed selective for industrially significant actinomycete taxa. Further, improved diagnostic methods allow selective isolation media to be evaluated as representative colonies can be identified with confidence.

a. Formulation and Evaluation of New Selective Media

The discovery that Diagnostic Sensitivity Test agar supplemented with tetracyclines was selective for Nocardia asteroides (Orchard and Goodfellow, 1974) was based on antibiotic sensitivity data (Orchard, 1975; Orchard and Goodfellow, 1974) and the product of an earlier numerical phenetic survey (Orchard and Goodfellow, 1980). A logical extension of this work was to visually scan percentage positive frequency tables for antibiotics that could form the basis of selective isolation media. In one such numerical taxonomic survey streptoverticillia were found to have a higher resistance to neomycin and oxytetracycline than neutrophilic streptomycetes (Williams et al., 1985a). This observation raised the possibility of reducing the number of streptomycetes, and other unwanted bacteria on isolation plates, with a view to isolating streptoverticillia, a commercially significant group of actinomycetes rarely recovered on "non-selective" isolation media. Hanka et al. (1985) were able to raise the proportion of Streptoverticillium colonies on isolation plates using an agar medium supplemented with oxytetracycline and the membrane-filter stripping method of Hirsch and Christenson (1983). Hanka and Schaadt (1988) further enhanced the recovery of streptoverticillia by the addition of lysozyme, as well as oxytetracycline, to the agar medium.

Another approach to selective isolation involves tailoring media to the nutritional requirements of target organisms. This has also been achieved by taking the relevant information from numerical taxonomic databases. The most extensive studies have been carried out by Williams and his colleagues (Vickerset al., 1984; Williams et al., 1984a; Williams and Vickers, 1988) who used particular combinations of carbohydrate and amino acid, with and without antibacterial antibiotics, to favour the growth of uncommon streptomycetes previously shown to be a promising source of antibiotically active metabolites, or

69

to discourage the growth of the ubiquitous *Streptomyces albidoflavus*. The selective agents were chosen objectively by examining the neutrophilic streptomycete database (Williams *et al.*, 1983b) using the DIACHAR program (Sneath, 1980a). The highest diagnostic scores were given by characters which were all positive or negative for strains in one cluster when compared with all of the other numerically defined taxa (Vickers *et al.*, 1984).

Other workers have also used the growth responses of actinomycetes to sole nitrogen and/or carbon sources to selectively isolate other antibioticproducing taxa. To this end, selective media have been designed to isolate specific fractions of the acidophilic streptomycete microflora (Goodfellow and Simpson, 1987) and mycolateless wall chemotype IV actinomycetes (Whitehead, 1989) found in natural habitats (Table 8, page 71).

It is essential to evaluate, and if necessary modify, computer-generated media formulations by altering combinations of selective agents in order to enhance the recovery of target organisms (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989). With neutrophilic streptomycetes, the employment of objectively designed media, and subsequent computer-assisted identification of isolates, showed that it was possible to increase the number of particular species and decrease others but not with all of the soils tested (Vickers *et al.*, 1984). It was noted that some species increased or decreased in a manner that could not be predicted by comparison with information in the data matrix. This is not altogether surprising for the surface of an isolation plate is the site of intense competition between many bacterial colonies and the outcome of the struggle for survival will not only be influenced by the composition of the medium but also by the mix of species in the inoculum that are able to grow. This apparent problem can be turned to good advantage when selective pressures generated by the medium reveal the presence of rare and novel species in soil samples. Thus, the role of computer-assisted

Table 8 Objectively formulated media based on selective agents derived fromnumerical taxonomic databases using the DIACHAR program

Selective Agents	Target Strains	References
Adenine and streptomycin	'Saccharopolyspora'-like organisms	Goodfellow (unpublished data)
Raffinose and histidine	Streptomyces chromofuscus, S. cyaneus and S. rochei	Vickers <i>et al.</i> (1984), Williams <i>et al.</i> (1984a)
Rifampicin	Streptomyces atroolivaceus, S. diastaticus	Vickers <i>et al.</i> (1984), Williams <i>et al.</i> (1984a)
Sodium chloride	Streptomyces albidoflavus, S. atroolivaceus	Williams and Vickers (1988)
Rifampicin	Acidophilic streptomycetes- cluster 25	Simpson (1987)
Butylene glycol, chlorotetracycline HCl and sodium chloride	Rhodococcus rhodochrous- cluster 8	Thomas (1991)
Arginine, glycerol and starch	Streptomyces lividans	Herron and Wellington (1990)
Neomycin, streptomycin, thiostrepton, viomycin	Streptomyces lividans	Wellington et al. (1990)
Aminobutyric acid and rhamnose	Streptomyces albidoflavus, S. violaceusniger	Williams and Vickers (1988)

methods in the development of targeted selective media must not be underestimated. Indeed, such methods are a vital element for the isolation of novel and target isolates from natural habitats.

6. INCUBATION REGIMES

The temperature and length of incubation also contribute to selectivity. Incubation at 25°C to 30°C favours mesophilic bacteria and incubation at 55°C enhances the chances of isolating thermotolerant and thermophilic actinomycetes. Novel and unusual isolates may be overlooked unless incubation periods are extended. Nonomura and Ohara (1971a) succeeded in isolating several new species of less common actinomycete genera when they incubated isolation plates at 30°C and 40°C for up to one month. Little attention has been paid to the selective isolation of psychrophilic, anaerobic or autotrophic actinomycetes which represent potential sources of commercially important novel compounds. However, large numbers of carboxydotrophic actinomycetes have been isolated using carbon monoxide as a sole carbon source and shown to form a distinct and taxonomically diverse group (Falconer *et al.*, 1993; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993).

7. SELECTION OF COLONIES

The ability to recognise members of actinomycete taxa on primary isolation plates requires the use of a microscope fitted with a high powered, long working distance objective. Continued developments in image analysis and the application of sophisticated software may pave the way for automated systems capable of recognising certain colony types directly on isolation plates. However, in general, it is not possible to distinguish between members of species of the same genus on isolation plates, a fact which may result in serious duplication and wasted effort in industrial screening programmes. Much subsequent duplication of effort can be avoided by a preliminary grouping of isolates. With some genera this can be achieved very easily. Thus, most streptomycete soil isolates, grouped together on the basis of their easily determined pigmentation characteristics, were identified to same cluster (taxospecies) in a frequency matrix designed for the identification of unknown streptomycetes (Williams and Vickers, 1988).

8. SELECTIVE ISOLATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA

Isolation procedures may combine one or more selective regimes (Goodfellow and Williams, 1986; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989). Thus, enrichment or pretreatment of environmental samples is often followed by incubation on an appropriate selective isolation medium. Nonomura and Ohara (1969a) introduced a combined technique for the selective isolation of streptosporangia from soil. Air-dried soil samples were passed through a 2mm sieve, ground using a pestle and mortar, spread on filter paper and heated in a hot air oven at 120°C for one hour prior to the preparation of soil dilutions and surface incubation of arginine-vitamins (AV) agar plates (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a). Inoculated plates were incubated at 30°C for four to six weeks when colonies bearing spore vesicles on an abundant aerial mycelium, that is, streptosporangia, were observed on isolation plates.

Nonomura and Ohara (1969a) isolated streptosporangia from several Japanese soils using arginine-vitamins (AV) medium in numbers up to 2.0 x 10⁴ colony forming units per gram dry weight of soil. They also recovered large numbers of *Microbispora* strains, 2.8 x 10⁴ colony forming units per gram dry weight, from the same soils. Hayakawa and Nonomura (1987a, b) successfully used humic acid-vitamins agar for the isolation of large numbers of actinomycetes belonging to the genera *Dactylosporangium*, *Microbispora*, *Micromonospora*, *Microtetraspora*, *Nocardia*, *Streptomyces*, *Streptosporangium* and

73

Thermomonospora. Humic acid-vitamins (HV) agar supplemented with nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and cycloheximide (50mg/l) was subsequently used to selectively isolate *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* strains (Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988). Recently, Hayakawa *et al.* (1991) introduced a new procedure for the selective isolation of streptosporangia which involved heat pretreatment (120°C/1hour) of air-dried soil with benzethonium chloride (0.01%) prior to plating out onto HV agar supplemented with leucomycin (1mg/l) and nalidixic acid 30mg/l. Little attempt has been made to evaluate the effectiveness of these procedures for the selective isolation of streptosporangia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION, ENUMERATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA 1. ENVIRONMENTAL SAMPLES

Soil samples collected from diverse habitats were used to prepare composite samples (Table 9, page 76) that were used for the isolation of streptosporangia.

2. SOIL REACTION

The pH of all of the soil samples was determined using the method of Reed and Cummings (1945). Each sample (*ca.* 20-25g) of fresh material was placed into a 100 ml beaker and deionized water added slowly while agitating until the sample was thoroughly wetted, that is, when a thin layer of water had appeared on the surface of the sample. Samples prepared in this way were left to equilibrate for one hour when the pH was determined using a glass electrode pH meter (Model 292, Pye Unicam Ltd., Cambridge, England, U.K.). The electrode was pushed well down into the sample and the reading allowed to stabilise before being taken. The final pH was taken as an average of several readings since small local variations may exist within samples.

3. PRETREATMENT AND DILUTION PLATE PROCEDURES

The composite soil samples were dried at room temperature for four weeks. Some of the samples were then heated at 120°C for an hour in a hot air oven (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a). A series of dilutions were made as shown in Table 10, page 77 using both heat pretreated and non-heat pretreated preparations.

Composite soil samples (ca 1g) were accurately weighed and aseptically added to sterile Universal bottles of known weight. Both treated and untreated

Number of Laboratory Soil	Source	Time of Sampling
433-434	Garden soil, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan	May, 1989
435-436	Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan	May, 1989
443-444	Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India	April, 1990
482-489	Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia	July, 1991
512-513	Rim of crater, Mount Bromo, Bromo, Indonesia	July, 1991
515-516	Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia	July, 1991
576-577	Soil rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K.	September, 1991
579-581	Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea	September, 1991
583-584	Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea	September, 1991
585-587	Ginseng field (young plant), Kumsan, Republic of Korea	September, 1991
604-605	Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea	September, 1991
A2	Subtropical rainforest soil, Brazil	

Table 9 Source of soil samples used for selective isolation of streptosporangia

Table 10 Pretreatment and dilution plate regimes* used for the selective isolation of members of the genera *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* from diverse composite soil samples

Pretreatment of Soil	10 ⁻¹ Dilution
Heat 120°C/1hour	Saline solution (0.9ml, 0.85%, w/v)
Heat 120°C/1hour	Phenol (0.9ml, 1.5%, w/v, 30°C/30 minutes)
Sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v, 40°C/20minutes)	Saline solution (0.9ml, 0.85%, w/v)
Yeast extract (6%, w/v, 40°C/20minutes)	Saline solution (0.9ml, 0.85%, w/v)

*, Procedure recommended by Nonomura and Hayakawa (1988).

10⁻¹ suspensions were shaken on a Griffin flask shaker (Griffin and George Ltd., Manchester, England, U.K.) for 30 minutes at speed setting 8 to disperse bacteria. Tenfold dilutions of the suspensions were made by transferring 1ml samples aseptically, using automatic pipettes (P1000; Gilson, Anachem Ltd., Luton, Bedfordshire, England, U.K.) fitted with sterile tips, to sterile test tubes containing 9.0 ml of sterile saline solution (0.85%, w/v) and mixing on a Vortex mixer (Fisons Scientific Apparatus Ltd., Loughborough, Leicestershire, England, U.K.).

Aliquots (0.1ml) of each dilution were aseptically pipetted, using an automatic pipette (P200; Gilson, Anachem Ltd.) fitted with sterile tips, onto the surface of humic acid and vitamins (HV) agar (Nonomura, 1984; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a) supplemented with nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and actidione (50mg/l) (Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988). Four plates were prepared for each dilution, aliquots (0.1 ml) of the 10⁻¹ to10⁻⁴ dilutions were dispersed over room dried agar surfaces of the isolation medium (Vickers and Williams, 1987), using sterile glass spreaders. Inoculated plates were incubated at 30°C for up to four weeks. The number of target organisms, and the total number of actinomycetes, growing on the isolation plates were recorded and expressed as the mean number of colony forming units (cfu) per gram dry weight soil.

4. SELECTION, PURIFICATION AND MAINTENANCE OF ISOLATES

After incubation, isolation plates were examined both by eye and using a binocular microscope fitted with long distance objectives (X400, magnification; Nikon Kogaku K.K., Tokyo, Japan). Organisms were tentatively assigned to the genus *Microbispora* if they produced aerial hyphae with sporophores bearing two spores, to the genus *Microtetraspora* if aerial hyphae carried four spores, to the genus *Streptosporangium* if spore vesicles were detected on aerial hyphae, and to a catch all group labelled "unknown actinomycetes" if they did not fall into any of

the previous catagories. It was observed that many of the organisms growing on the selective isolation plates had long spore chains like those characteristic for some *Microtetraspora*, *Saccharopolyspora* and *Streptomyces* species; these organisms were categorised as "unknown actinomycetes". Photographs were taken of thirty-six putative streptosporangia growing on isolation plates using a Nikon camera (35mm, Nikon Kokaku K.K., Tokyo, Japan) fitted to the binocular microscope.

One hundred and fifty-three putative streptosporangia, that is, all that were detected, were taken from the isolation plates (Table 20, pages 133 to 136) using sterile tooth-picks and inoculated onto HV agar plates (Nonomura, 1984; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a), which were incubated at 30°C for two weeks. All of the strains were checked for purity both by eye and the using the binocular microscope, single colonies were then picked from the plates using sterile loops and inoculated onto HV plates (Nonomura, 1984; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a) which were incubated for two weeks at 30°C. This procedure was repeated until pure cultures of all of the isolates were obtained. In addition, 46 randomly selected unknown strains growing on isolation plates were purified and maintained as frozen glycerol suspensions (Table 11, page 80).

The pure cultures were maintained on modified Bennett's agar slopes (Agrawal, unpublished data) and stored at room temperature. Each slope was used to inoculate two modified Bennett's agar plates that were incubated at 30°C for 10 days. Glycerol suspensions were prepared by scraping aerial and substrate mycelium from the incubated plates and making heavy suspensions in 1.5ml of glycerol (20%, v/v, BDH) in each of two Cryo vials (2.5ml; Whatman Ltd., Maidstone, England, U.K.) that were stored at -25°C (Wellington and Williams, 1978). One glycerol suspension was used as a working suspension and the other kept as a stock culture. The frozen glycerol suspensions served as both a

Table 11 Source of unknown actinomycetes isolated using HV agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and incubated at 30°C for 4 weeks

Strain Number (A)	Soil Numbers	Selective Isolation Procedure
001, 003-005, 007, 009-011	433-434	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
013-015, 018-021		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
022-024, 026, 029- 030		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
033-036, 039, 041- 042		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
046-047, 049	443-444	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
050-052, 055		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
056-058, 061-062		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
064-067, 069-070		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)

convenient means of long term preservation and as a source of instant inoculum. Working inocula were obtained by thawing glycerol suspensions at room temperature for about 15 minutes when they were treated as conventional broth cultures. After use, the glycerol suspensions were promptly frozen and stored once again at -25°C. Although repeated freezing and thawing decreases cell viability, this method of preservation compares favourably with other techniques for storing cultures, including lyophilisation (Wellington and Williams, 1978).

5. CHARACTERISATION

a. Analysis for Diaminopimelic Acid

1) Growth and Harvesting

One hundred and thirty-six of the 153 putative streptosporangia (Table 12, pages 82 to 83) and the 46 unknown actinomycetes (Table11, page 80) were examined for the presence of isomers of diaminopimelic acid. Thawed glycerol suspensions were used to inoculate sterile cellulose nitrate membrane filters (0.45 μ m pore size, 47mm diameter; Whatman Ltd., Maidstone, England, U.K.) which had been placed in the centre of Petri dishes on modified Bennett's agar plates (Agrawal, unpublished data) which were incubated for 2 weeks at 30°C. After incubation, the test strains were scraped from the surfaces of the membrane filters and put into sterile Universal bottles. The samples were kept in a freezer (-20°C) for 1hour then lyophilised (Edward's High Vacuum, Model EF03, Crawley, England, U.K.).

2) Whole-Organism Hydrolysis

Dried biomass (ca 20mg) was hydrolysed with 1ml of 6N HCl in a screwcapped tube at 100°C for 18 hours. After cooling, the hydrolysate was filtered (Whatman No.1 Filter Paper, Whatman Ltd., Maidstone, England, U.K.) and Table 12 Source of *Streptosporangium* isolates examined for the presence of diaminopimelic acid and for diagnostic characters needed for numerical identification

Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers	Selective Isolation Procedure
001-002	585-587	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
005-006		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
008		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
009-011		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
012-017, 019-024	579-581	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
025-033		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
034-051		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
052-087		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
090-092	583-584	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
093-094, 096-097		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
098-099		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
100-103		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
104	443-444	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
105-106		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)

Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers	Selective Isolation Procedure
107-109	433-434	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
111		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
112-114	435-436	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
115-116		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
117-118	482-489	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
122		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
123-124		Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
125-126, 128-129		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
130-132, 133	515-516	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
135		Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour and treated with phenol (1.5% w/v; 30°C/30minutes)
138-141		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
143	604-605	Dried soil heated at 120°C/1hour
144, 146-147		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
148-149	576-577	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)
150-153		Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6% w/v; 40°C/20minutes)

Table 12 continued

washed twice with 1ml sterile distilled water. The combined filtrates were concentrated to dryness using a vacuum pump. The dried extract was dissolved in 1ml of distilled water and dried again until the smell of HCl was lost. The residue was then redissolved in distilled water (0.3ml) and transferred to an Eppendorf tube.

3) One-Dimensional Thin Layer Chromatography

Eight or nine samples of residue were applied as aliquots (5μ) onto the base line of a cellulose TLC plate (20x20cm, Merck 5716, Merck Ltd., Warwickshire, England, U.K.). In addition, a standard was also applied, namely 5μ and teamers of α,ϵ -diaminopimelic acid (Sigma 1377). The plates were developed in methanol:water:10N HCl:pyridine (80:26.25:3.75:10, v/v) for up to 4 hours, that is, until the solvent front had nearly reached the top of the plate. The plates were dried in a fume cupboard and spots visualised by spraying with ninhydrin in acetone (0.2%, w/v) followed by heating at 100°C for 5 minutes. The diaminopimelic isomers were detected after about 3 minutes as brown coloured spots; the remaining amino acids were visualised as blue-violet coloured spots. The spots corresponding to the diaminopimelic acid isomers became yellow after 24 hours.

b. Morphological Studies

Three of the putative *Streptosporangium* strains, namely HJ47, HJ84 and HJ94, isolated from Ginseng field soil (Kumsan, Republic of Korea), were examined to determine the morphology of spore vesicles using a Scanning Electron Microscope (Cambridge S240, Cambridge Instrument Ltd., Cambridge, England, U.K.). All of the test strains produced abundant aerial mycelium on arginine-vitamins (AV) agar plates (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a).

Plugs (5 mm diameter) of the agar medium were taken from plates of the test strains grown on AV agar for 2 weeks at 30°C, placed into 2 ml of gluteraldehyde (25%) /Ca codylate (1M) held in bijoux bottles and kept in the fixative solution for 3 hours at 20°C. The fixed samples were dehydrated in a graded alcohol series (10%, 25%, 50%, 75%, 90%, 100%) for 10 minutes consecutively, then dried in a Biorad Critical Point Drier (BIORAD CDP750, VG Microtech Ltd., East Sussex, England, U.K.) using liquid CO₂ as the transition fluid. The plugs were then mounted onto stubs using 'silver dag' adhesive and coated with gold by means of a Polaron Sputter Coater (E 5100, Fisons Instruments Ltd., East Sussex, England, U.K.). The gold-coated specimens were observed by Scanning Electron Microscopy using a accelerating voltage of 12KV and photographed. Photographs were taken with an amplication range of 638X to 11.6KX magnification.

B. NUMERICAL IDENTIFICATION

1. PRACTICAL EVALUATION OF THE STREPTOSPORANGIUM FREQUENCY MATRIX

Seventy strains representing the twelve major *Streptosporangium* clusters (Table 13, pages 86 to 90) defined in the numerical taxonomic survey of *Streptosporangium* and related taxa (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) were examined under code for each of the diagnostic tests recommended for the computer-assisted identification of streptosporangia (Whitham, 1988; Table 14, pages 91 to 93). All of the test strains were examined in duplicate. Identification scores were determined using the IDENTIFY procedure in the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A).

Table 13 Designation and source of strains representing twelve multimember streptosporangial clusters used to evaluate the Streptosporangium frequency matrix*

Cluster Number	Name of Cluster and Designation	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source	Time of Sampling
AGGREGA	(TE GROUP A (Streptosportingium spp.)			
1 (Streptosp	orangium sp.)			
	166**	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	256, 263, 266		Plot 9, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	320		Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	101, 104, 106, 117, 121, 127, 128, 129, 143, 144, 145a, 153, 159, 165, 179, 218, 220, 222, 224, 235, 245, 253		Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
	353, 354		Adjacent to River Wear, North-east Durham, England, U.K.	May 1986
	369		Burton Bushes, Beverley Westwood, Hull, England, U.K.	May 1986

۰.

Table 13 (continued			
Cluster	Name of Cluster	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source	Time of Sampling
Number	and Designation			
2 (Streptos	porangium sp.)			
	269, 270, 271, 274	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 3, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	282, 286, 292 * *, 303		Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	115		Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
	366		Burton Bushes, Beverley Westwood, Hull, England, U.K.	May 1986
3 (Strepto:	sporangium sp.)			
	541, 547	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 9, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
4 (Strepto	sporangium sp.)			
	116**, 161, 163, 254, 375	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
5 (Streptu	rsporangium sp.)			
	168	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
6 (Strept	osporangium sp.)			
	169	Streptosporangium sp.	Ptot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984

.

,

Table 13 cc	ntinued			
Cluster Number	Name of Cluster and Designation	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source	Time of Sampling
	136, 141**, 148, 227, 251	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
	393		Burton Bushes, Beverley Westwood, Hull, England, U.K.	May 1986
7 (Streptospo	mangium sp.)			
	226**, 232	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
8 (Streptospi	orangium sp.)			
	170	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	276		Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.	October 1984
	209, 213**		Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
	355		Adjacent to river Wear, North-east Durham, England, U.K.	May 1986
9 (Streptosp	vorangium roseum / Streptosporangium vulgare)	·		
	005**T	Streptosporangium roseum Couch, 1955a	DSM 43021; A. Seino, KCC A-0005; K. Tubaki, NI 9100; J.N. Couch (ATCC 12428; CBS 313.56; IFO 3776; RIA 470)	

Table 13 co	ntinued			
Cluster Number	Name of Cluster and Designation	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source	Time of Sampling
	min rysignment			
	007 ^T	Streptosporangium vulgare Nonomura and Ohara, 1960	DSM 43802; G. Vobis, MB-T9; H. Nonomura, FYU S-1. Soil, paddy field, Anjo, Aichi, Prefecture, Japan. (ATCC 33329; CBS 344.61; IFO 13985; KCC A-0028; NRRL B-2633; RIA	
10 (Streptosp longisporum)	rorangium amethystogenes / Streptosporangium)	corrugatum / Streptosporangi	un,	
	001T	Streptosporangium amethystogenes Nonomura and Ohara, 1960	DSM 43179; A. Seino, KCC A-0026; H. Nonomura, FYU S-5. Soil. (ATCC 33327; CBS 429.61; NRRL B-2639; RIA 764)	
	002**T	Streptosporangium corrugatum Williams and Sharples, 1976	DSM 43316; S. T. Williams, E-90. Beach sand. (ATCC 29331; NCIB 11120)	
11 (Streptos	porangium sp.)			
	126**, 155	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986
12 (Streptos	porangium sp.)			
	182**, 194	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.	March 1986

*, Clusters and frequency matrix generated by Whitham (1988). **,Centrotype strains of the cluster; T, Type strain.

Aberdeen, U.K.; NRRL, Northern Research and Development Division, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.; Company Limited, 6-48 Jujodai, 1-Chome, Kita-ku, Tokyo 114, Japan; NCIB, National Collection of Industrial Bacteria, St. Machar Drive, Abbreviations: ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.; CBS, Centraalbureau voor Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany; FYU, Department of Fermentation Industries, Yamanashi University, Motoganagi-cho, Kofu-shi, Schimmelcultures, Baarn, Netherlands; DSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Mascheroder Weg 1B, D-38124, Yamanashi-ken, Japan; IFO, Institute of Fermentation, 4-54 Juso Nishino-machi, Higashiyodogawa-ku, Osaka, Japan; KCC, Kaken Chemical RIA, Research Institute for Ampelology, Budapest, Hungary.

.ds uni8uv1ods01də11S	12	2	0 10 00	0
.ds muignorootootqsvig	11	2	0 100	100
jousisborum S amethystosenes/ corrugatum	10	m	67 0	67
s Losenu / Mussor S	6	2	20 80 0	0
.qs muignoroqeoiq9112	×	S	0 100	0
.qs muignoroqeoiq9112	٢	2	0 00 00	2
.qs muignoroqeoiq9112	6	7	0 1100	0
.qs muignoroqootqortS	2	3	0 00 0	>
.qs muignoroqeoiqeita.	4	S	0 100	ŝ
.qs muignoroqeoiqeri2	E	e	0 100	0
.ds unisuvodsoidəlis	3	23	0 56 55	70
.ds muignorogeoidaris		57	0 12 0	8
	CLUSTER	R OF STRAINS	TEST n TTESTS	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	CHARACTER	NUMBE	BIOCHEMICAL Urease productio DEGRADATION DNA Keratin Keratin	DIGICII

Table 14 Percentage positive frequency matrix for the twelve multimember streptosporangial clusters*

CHARACTER	CLUSTER	1	3	ŝ	4	Ś	6	٢	œ	6	10	11	12
NUMBE	R OF STRAINS	57	23	3	s	3	7	2	5	2	3	2	2
MORPHOLOGIC Aerial mycelium (pink	CAL TESTS colour:	95	100	100	8	100	0	0	0	50	33	100	0
white		ŝ	0	0	4	0	100	100	100	50	67	0	100
Sole carbon and (Galactose	energy sources:	85	95	100	0	67	86	100	100	100	0	0	100
Mannitol		85	0	100	100	100	100	100	100	0	33	100	100
Turanose		11	71	33	0	67	100	100	90	100	33	100	100
PHYSIOLOGICA Growth at 37°C	AL TESTS	33	95	33	0	33	11	0	100	50	0	0	100
Growth in the ab B-vitamins	bsence of:	0	ŝ	0	20	33	86	100	40	100	33	0	0
Growth in the pr	resence of:	٢	ç	5	101	c	×.	c	ç	01	57	01	2
Sodium chloride	(40 p/)	~ 0	de	òc	3.0	• c			3 c	30	6 c	3 0	
Thallous acetate	(5 mg/l)	6 6	ò	0	, 20 ,	33	11	20 20	0	100	100	100	01
Resistance to ant A minoplycosides	ttbiotics (µg/ml) s:												
Gentamycin sult	phate(5)	36	81	0	40	33	0	0	20	100	100	0	0
Neomycin sulph	late(25)	0	38	0	0	33	0	0	0	100	0	0	0
Neomycin sulph	nate(0.5)	<u>98</u>	100	0	8	100	100	<u>100</u>	100	100	33	100	10
Streptomycin su	ılphate(25)	95	76	100	100	33	0	0	100	100	0	100	0

Table 14 continued													
CHARACTER	CLUSTER	1	7	£	4	5	9	٢	×	6	10	11	12
NUMBER	t OF STRAINS	57	23	8	2	я	7	2	5	2	3	2	2
β-Lactams i)Cephalosporins:		¢	à	c	c	007	ç	c			¢	c	c
Cetoxitin (250) Cephaloridine (50)		76	<u>e</u> 8	00	001	<u>8</u> 8	<u>8</u>	00	88	38	- 0	00	00
Cephradine (500)		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	100	0
II)Penicillins: Amoxicillin (250)		88	91	33	100	100	100	0	100	100	0	100	0
iii)Others: Clavulanic acid (2	(20)	95	91	0	80	67	100	100	100	0	0	0	100
Rifampicins: Rifampicin (0.5)		100	95	100	100	100	86	0	80	0	33	100	0
Miscellaneous: Fusidic acid (5) Fusidic acid (0.5)		2 62	0 81	0 100	00 100	33 100	0 57	100 100	00	00	00	100 0	100 100

*, Clusters defined by Whitham (1988).

.

2. IDENTIFICATION OF UNKNOWN STREPTOSPORANGIA

One hundred and thirty-six putative streptosporangia from diverse soil samples (Table 12, pages 82 to 83) were examined in duplicate as described above.

3. CHARACTERISATION OF STRAINS

All of the test strains, that is, the marker strains and fresh isolates, were examined for twenty-six unit characters (Whitham, 1988). Tests were repeated where ambiguous or clearly unexpected results were obtained. Details of media, their preparation and sterilisation are given in Appendix B. Unless otherwise stated, all tests were carried out at pH 7.0.

Where possible, tests were carried out using a multipoint inoculation procedure that involved the use of an automatic multipoint inoculator (Denley-Tech; Denley Instruments Ltd., Daux Road, Billingshurst, Sussex, England, U.K.). This apparatus allows standardised, multiple surface inoculation of 90mm diameter Petri dishes (Sterilin Ltd., Teddington, Middlesex, England, U.K.) with either twenty, twenty-five or thirty different organisms. In this study, the multipoint inoculator was used with an inoculation head that contained twenty pins for culture transfer and a marker pin that provided a reference point to orientate plates. Inocula were pipetted into sterile, inverted Oxoid caps held in an ordered array within a metal template placed inside the base of a 100mm square plastic dish (Sterilin Ltd., Teddington, Middlesex, England, U.K.). For each group of twelve test strains inoculated, control plates of the appropriate basal medium were seeded at the beginning and end of the inoculation procedure. This practice was followed throughout to eliminate false negative results due to loss of inoculum.

a. Biochemical Test

1) Urea

Urea is a product of amino acid metabolism. The hydrolysis of urea was detected using the medium and method of Gordon (1966). Broth cultures were incubated at 30°C and examined after 7, 14, 21, and 28 days. The test medium contained the indicator phenol red. The hydrolysis of urea results in the formation of ammonia and carbon dioxide:

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{Urease} & & & \\ \text{NH}_2\text{CONH}_2 + & \text{H}_2\text{O} & & \\ & & & \\ \text{Urea} & \text{Water} & \text{Ammonia Carbon Dioxide} \end{array}$

The consequential change in pH from neutral to alkaline is detected by the phenol red indicator.

b. Degradation Test

1) Keratin

Keratin is a highly insoluble protein found in hair, wool, horn and skin. Keratin (5g/l) was incorporated into AV agar (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a), care being taken to ensure an even distribution of this insoluble compound. Clearing of the compound from under and around the area of test strain growth was taken to denote a positive result. Plates were examined after incubation for 7, 14, 21 and 28 days at 30°C to detect the breakdown of the substrate.

2) Starch

Starch occurs principally as the main reserve polysaccharide in plants and is a composite molecule consisting of α -D-glucopyranose subunits in two different structural configurations; amylose, a linear molecule with α -1,4-linkages and amylopectin, a α -1,4-linked backbone with α -1,6-branches. Both α and β amylases degrade starch. α -Amylases randomly cleave the α -1,4-glucosidic linkages so that amylose, for example, is broken down initially to dextrins and then to a mixture of maltose and glucose. β -Amylases act on linear α -1,4-linked glucans and cleave alternate bonds from the non-reducing end of the chain forming maltose.

The production of extracellular amylases was detected in AV agar (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a) supplemented with potato starch (10g/l). The inoculated plates were incubated for 14 days at 30°C when those supporting good growth were flooded with Lugol's iodine (Cowan and Steel, 1974). Iodine complexes with amylose to form a dark blue starch-iodine complex whereas dextrins, maltose and glucose are unable to do so. A positive result was indicated by a zone of clearing around the area of growth.

3) Deoxyribonucleic Acid

DNA is a linear polymer of deoxyribonucleotides where the adjacent residues are linked by 3', 5' -phosphodiester bridges. Each residue in the chain is linked to one of several nitrogenous bases, namely adenine, thymine, cytosine and guanine and, in some instances, modifications of these bases. All bacteria possess intracellular nucleases for the manipulation of their own nucleic acids but only some produce the extracellular enzymes capable of specific or non-specific hydrolysis of extracellular nucleic acids.

The degradation of DNA was detected using Bacto DNase Test Agar (Difco) which contains DNA at 2 g/l. Inoculated plates were incubated for 14 days at 30°C and checked for good growth before flooding with a molar solution of hydrochloric acid. This test depends on the ability of the deoxyribonucleases to reduce the viscosity of solutions of the appropriate semi-purified nucleic acid extracts. Degradation products from nuclease treated nucleic acids are acid soluble whereas native DNA is precipitated by the addition of 1M HCl. Thus, the

diffusion of any nucleases into the growth medium from a test strain results in a clear zone around and under the colonies after addition of the acid. Zones of clearing were scored as positive results.

c. Morphological Tests

The test strains were grown on oatmeal agar (Küster, 1959) at 30°C for 3 weeks when aerial mycelial pigmentation was recorded using a binocular plate microscope (Nikon Kogaku K.K. Tokyo, Japan) at X40 magnification. The colours of the aerial mycelium were recorded and assigned to two colour groups, namely pink and white.

d. Nutritional Tests

The test strains were examined for their ability to utilise three compounds, D(+)galactose, mannitol and turanose, as the sole source of carbon for energy and growth. These carbon sources (10g/l) were prepared as aqueous solutions and sterilised by steaming at 100°C for 30 minutes on three consecutive days. The sterilised test compounds were added to sterile, molten carbon utilisation agar (ISP 9 medium; Appendix B) recommended by Shirling and Gottlieb (1966).

Inocula were prepared from test strains grown on sterile cellulose nitrate membrane filters (0.45 μ m pore size, 47mm diameter; Whatman Ltd., Maidstone, England, U.K.) which had been placed in the centre of Petri dishes on AV medium (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a), inoculation was for two weeks at 30°C. After incubation, aerial mycelia and spores were transferred to 2ml saline solution (0.85%, w/v) in bijoux bottles. The freshly prepared saline suspensions were used to inoculate Petri dishes containing carbon utilisation agar supplemented with a carbon source, plates of basal medium supplemented with glucose (10g/l), the positive control, and plates of basal medium alone, the negative control.

Inoculations were carried out using the multipoint inoculation procedure described earlier with twelve organisms per Petri dish. Inoculated plates were incubated at 30°C and examined for growth after 7, 14 and 21 days. When scoring the plates, growth on the test medium was compared with that on both the positive and negative controls. Growth, when greater than that on the negative control, was scored as positive and growth that was equal to or less than that on the negative control was scored as a negative result.

e. Physiological Tests

1) Growth in The Absence of B-Vitamins

The test strains were examined for their ability to grow on AV agar (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a) without B-vitamins. Plates were inoculated from saline suspensions (0.85%, w/v) using the multipoint procedure then incubated at 30°C for 14 days. After incubation, plates were scored by comparison with growth on a control plate of AV medium alone. Growth was scored as a positive result.

2) Growth in The Presence of Chemical Inhibitors

The test strains were examined for their ability to grow on AV agar (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a) supplemented with one of three chemical inhibitors, namely phenyl ethanol (1.0ml/l), sodium chloride (40g/l) and thallous acetate (0.005g/l). Plates were inoculated from saline suspensions (0.85%, w/v) using the multipoint procedure then incubated at 30°C for 14 days. After incubation, plates were scored by comparison with growth on a control plate of AV medium alone. Growth was scored as a positive result.

3) Resistance to Antibiotics

The test strains were examined for their ability to grow in the presence of antibiotics. All but one of the antibiotics were sterilised by Seitz-filtration of aqueous solutions. Rifampicin was dissolved in dimethylformamide (0.2ml; BDH Laboratory Supplies, Warwickshire, England, U.K.) and then added to the appropriate amount of sterile distilled water.

The sterilised antibiotics were added to molten, cooled AV agar, at pH 7.0, to give the appropriate concentrations. Media were dispensed into Petri dishes and inoculated immediately after setting. Plates were inoculated using the automatic multipoint inoculator using suspensions of spores and mycelial fragments in sterile saline solution (0.85%, w/v). Inoculated plates were incubated at 25°C then examined for growth after 4, 7 and 14 days. Growth of cultures in the presence of each antibiotic was compared to that on a control plate consisting of the basal medium alone. Cultures showing resistance were scored positive.

4) Tolerance to Temperature

Organisms were tested for their ability to grow at 37° C. The test strains were inoculated from saline suspensions (0.85%, w/v), using the multipoint inoculation procedure, onto AV agar medium (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a). Inoculated plates were incubated at 37° C for 14 days and examined for growth against the control plate of AV medium alone. Growth was scored as positive, lack of growth indicated a negative result provided the organism grew on the control plate.

4. CODING AND COMPUTATION

All of the tests were binary and hence were scored "1" for a positive result and "0" for a negative one. The binary test results were typed in a +/- format as input to the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A) and run on a IBM personal computer; data were stored on hard disc. The results of the duplicated cultures were analysed and the test reproducibility expressed as the test variance (Si²;formula 15; Sneath and Johnson, 1972). The +/- results in the final data matrix were analysed using the IDENTIFY procedure in the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A).

5. DETERMINATION OF IDENTIFICATION SCORES

The test strains were identified as far as possible using the frequency matrix (Table14, pages 91 to 93) and algorithms modified from the MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1979a) and incorporated into the IDENTIFY procedure in the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A). IDENTIFY provides the best identification scores for known and unknown strains against a frequency matrix consisting of q taxa and m unit characters. Percentages in the frequency matrix, with 0 changed to 1 and 100 to 99% (Lapage *et al.*, 1970), are converted into proportions, Pij, for the ith character of taxon j. The character state values of an unknown organism (u) are compared with each taxon in turn and identification coefficients calculated and printed out for all of the clusters. Four identification coefficients were calculated, namely Willcox probability, taxonomic distance (d), the 95% taxonomic radius and Gaussian distance probability.

C. SEQUENCING OF 5S RIBOSOMAL RNA

1. TEST STRAINS

Glycerol suspensions of the test strains (Table 15, page 102) were used to inoculate modified Bennett's agar plates (Agrawal, unpublished) which were incubated at 30°C for 7 days. After incubation, the strains were checked for purity by eye and used to inoculate 200ml of modified Bennett's broths in 500ml long neck flasks which were shaken at 30°C for 5 days on a orbital incubator at 200 rpm. Test strains were harvested using a Beckmann centrifuge (Rotor JA10) at 10,000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4°C.

2. PREPARATION AND SEQUENCING OF 5S rRNA

Wet biomass (ca 5g) was homogenised with aluminium oxide (2g), mixed with 7ml of buffer containing 10mM Tris hydrochloride (pH 7.5), 10mM MgCl₂, 0.1M KCl and 10µg of DNase 100mg/ml for 10 minutes at 4°C then centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. Ethanol was then added to the aqueous phase which was kept at -20°C. The resultant precipitate was dissolved in 7ml of buffer containing 10mM Tris hydrochloride (pH 7.5), 10mM MgCl₂, 0.1M KCl and 10ml of phenol and the preparation centrifuged at 7,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 20°C. The resultant supernatant was kept in ethanol at -20°C. This procedure was repeated to yield more rRNA. The RNA preparation was examined by electrophoresis on a 12% polyacrylamide gel containing 7M urea, 0.1M Trisborate (pH 8.3) and 1mM EDTA. The electrophoresed preparation was stained with ethidium bromide(20mg/l), and the 5S rRNA band excised and eluted with 0.5M ammonium acetate-0.1mM EDTA-sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.1%, w/v) at 37°C.

The ³²P labelling of the 5' terminus of was done with $[\gamma - {}^{32}P]ATP$ and polynucleotide kinase after pretreatment of the 5S rRNA with alkaline

٠
Strain Number	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source
TW 006	Streptosporangium albidum (Furumai et al., 1968)	DSM 43870; T. Okuda, MCRL-048; soil, Japan. (ATCC 25243; IFO 13901; KCTC 9237)
TW 001	Streptosporangium amethystogenes (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43179; A. Seino, KCC A-0026; H. Nonomura, FYU S5; soil. (ATCC 33327; CBS 429.61; NRRL B-2639; RIA 764)
TW 004	<i>Streptosporangium</i> <i>pseudovulgare</i> (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	DSM 43181; A. Seino, KCC A-0115; H. Nonomura, FYU, S2-32; soil. (ATCC 27100; CBS 881.70; IFO 13991; KCTC 9239)
TW 021	Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. viridogriseum (Okuda et al., 1966a)	DSM 43850; ATCC 25242
TW 007	Streptosporangium vulgare (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43802; G. Vobis, MB-T9; H. Nonomura, FYU S-1; paddy field, Anjo, Aichi Prefecture, Japan. (ATCC 33329; CBS 433.61; KCC A-0028; NRRL B-2633; RIA 765)
TW 166	Streptosporangium sp.	Centrotype strain of cluster 1; Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
TW 292	Streptosporangium sp.	Centrotype strain of cluster 2; Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
HJ 011	Streptosporangium strain	Unidentified strain, Ginseng field (young plant), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
HJ 090	Streptosporangium strain	Identified to cluster 1; Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea

Table 15 History of the strains examined in the 5S rRNA sequencing studies

Abbreviations: ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.; CBS, Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Baarn, Netherlands; DSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Mascheroder Weg 1B, D-38124, Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany; FYU, Department of Fermentation Industries, Yamanashi University, Motoganagicho, Kofu-shi, Yamanashi-ken, Japan; IFO, Institute of Fermentation, 4-54 Juso Nishino-machi, Higashiyodogawa-ku, Osaka, Japan; KCC, Kaken Chemical Company Limited, 6-48 Jujodai, 1-Chome, Kita-ku, Tokyo 114, Japan; KCTC, Korean Collection of Type Cultures, Genetic Engineering Research Institute, Korean Institute of Science and Technology, Republic of Korea; NRRL, Northern Research and Development Division, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.; RIA, Research Institute for Ampelology, Budapest, Hungary. phosphatase (Donis-Keller, 1980). The ³²P labelling of the 3' terminus was performed with [5'-³²P] pCp with RNA ligase (Peattie, 1979). The 5'- or 3'-end labelled 5S rRNAs were digested completely by nuclease P_1 or RNase T_2 using thin-layer cellulose plates and autoradiographs (Kuchino et al., 1979).

5S rRNA secondary structure models were constructed using the method of Tinoco et al. (1971), as adapted by Hori and Osawa (1986).

3. PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS

The evolutionary distance, *Knuc*, and the standard error of *Knuc*, σ_k , between sequences were calculated after Kimura (1980). *Knuc* corresponds to the number of base substitutions per nucleotide site that have occurred in the course of evolution:

$$Knuc = -\frac{1}{2}\log e[(1-2P-Q)(1-2Q)^{1/2}]$$

where P and Q are the fractions of nucleotide sites showing transition- and transversion-type differences, respectively. A phylogenetic tree was generated by applying the weighted pair group average clustering method with mean averages algorithm (Sneath and Sokal, 1973) to the *Knuc* values to determine the branching order and relative evolution distances.

D. PYROLYSIS MASS SPECTROMETRY

1. TEST STRAINS

Experiments were carried out to evaluate the status of clusters recovered in the numerical phenetic survey of Whitham (1988) and to determine the quality of some of the results obtained in the computer-assisted identification procedure. The strain histories of all of the test strains are shown in Table 16, pages 105 to 108. All of the strains were maintained as frozen glycerol suspensions as described earlier.

(i) Experiment 1: The aim of this experiment was to determine whether representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) could be separated by using Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry.

(ii) Experiment 2: This experiment was designed to determine the relationships between representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and type strains of *Streptosporangium* species.

(iii) Experiment 3: The aim of this experiment was to determine whether isolates identified to clusters 1 and 2 grouped with representatives of the respective taxa.

2. GROWTH CONDITIONS

Glycerol stock cultures were used to inoculate sterile polyvinyl membrane filters (0.45 mm, HV type; Millipore) placed over a medium originally designed to inhibit the sporulation of streptomycetes (20 g, Casamino acids; 20 g, starch; 4 g, yeast extract; 18 g, Bacto agar; 1 litre distilled water; pH 6.4-6.6; Sanglier *et al.*, 1992). Duplicated preparations were incubated for 3 days at 30°C and the growth obtained used to inoculate a further set of plates which were incubated under identical conditions.

3. PREPARATION AND ANALYSIS OF SAMPLES

Pyrolysis foils and tubes (Horizon Instruments, Heathfield, East Sussex, England, UK.) were washed in acetone and dried overnight at 27°C. Single foils were inserted, with flamed forceps, into pyrolysis tubes so as to protrude about 6

Table	16	Source of	strains	examined by	^v Curie	point	pyrolysis	mass s	pectrometry
-------	----	-----------	---------	-------------	--------------------	-------	-----------	--------	-------------

Strain Number	Strain History / Source
EXPERIMENT 1	
a) Cluster 1 (Streptosporangium	sp.)
166*, 167	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
256	Plot 9, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
100, 101, 109, 117, 118, 121, 124, 127, 131, 140, 142, 145a, 159, 179, 225, 235, 245	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
369	Burton Bushes, Beverley Westwood, Hull, U.K.
b) Cluster 2 (Streptosporangium s	sp.)
269, 272, 273, 274, 275, 398, 399	Plot 3, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
281, 287, 292*, 303, 308	Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
13	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
66	Burton Bushes, Beverley Westwood, Hull, U.K.
EXPERIMENT 2	
) Cluster 1 (Strentosnorangium si	p.)

166*	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
101, 109, 118, 124, 142,	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
145a, 179, 225, 245	

Table 16 continued

Strain Number	Strain History / Source
b) Cluster 2 (Streptosporangius	<i>n</i> sp.)
272, 273, 274, 275, 399	Plot 3, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
287, 292*, 303, 308	Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
113	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
c) Type Strains	
Streptosporangium albidum (Furumai et al., 1968)	DSM 43870; T. Okuda, MCRL-048; soil, Japan. (ATCC 25243; IFO 13901)
Streptosporangium amethystogenes (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43179; A. Seino, KCC A-0026; H. Nonomura, FYU S5; soil. (ATCC 33327; CBS 429.61; NRRL B-2639; RIA 764)
Streptosporangium corrugatum (Williams and Sharples, 1976)	DSM 43316; S.T. Williams, E90; beach sand. (ATCC 29331; NCIB 11120)
Streptosporangium fragile (Shearer et al., 1983)	ATCC 31519; IFO 14311
Streptosporangium nondiastaticur Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	n DSM 43848; ATCC 27101
Streptosporangium pseudovulgare Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	DSM 43181; A. Seino, KCC A-0115; H. Nonomura, FYU, S2-32; soil. (ATCC 27100; CBS 881.70)
Treptosporangium roseum Couch, 1955a)	DSM 43021; A. Seino, KCC A-0005; K. Tubaki, NI 9100; J. N. Couch, UNCC 27B; vegetable garden soil. (ATCC 12428; CBS 313.56; IFO 3776; RIA 470)
treptosporangium iolaceochromogenes (Kawamoto t al, 1975)	DSM 43849; Kyowa Fermentation Industry, MK-49: soil swamp, Japan. (ATCC 21807)
treptosporangium viridialbum Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43801; G. Vobis, MB-T8; H. Nonomura, FYU S-20; soil, Yotei, Hokkaido, Japan. (ATCC 33328; CBS 432.61; KCC A-0027; NRRL B-2636; RIA 768)

Table 16 continued

Strain Number	Strain History / Source
Streptosporangium viridogriseu subsp. viridogriseum (Okuda et 1966a)	m DSM 43850. (ATCC 25242) al.,
Streptosporangium vulgare (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43802; G. Vobis, MB-T9; H. Nonomura, FYU S-1; paddy field, Anjo, Aichi Prefecture, Japan. (ATCC 33329; CBS 433.61; KCC A- 0028; NRRL B-2633; RIA 765)
EXPERIMENT 3	
a) Cluster 1 (Streptosporangium	<i>n</i> sp.)
166*	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
101, 109, 118, 124, 142, 145a, 179, 225, 245	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
b) Cluster 2 (Streptosporangiun	r sp.)
272, 273, 274, 275, 399	Plot 3, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
287, 292*, 303, 308	Plot 10, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
113	Oak copse, Corbridge, Northumberland, England, U.K.
c) Isolates identified to cluster1	(Streptosporangium sp.)
20, 36, 55, 56,	Ginseng field, Kumsan, Republic of Korea
90, 98	
107, 112	Woodland Soil, Tokyo, Japan
123, 125	Rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia
d) Isolates identified to cluster2	(Streptosporangium sp.)
21, 91	Ginseng field, Kumsan, Republic of Korea
26, 129	Rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia

•

Table 16 continued

Strain Number	Strain History / Source	
e) Unidentified isolates		-
9, 14, 64, 93	Ginseng field, Kumsan, Korea	
131	Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia	
149	Soil rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K.	

*Centrotype strain.

Abbreviations: ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.; CBS, Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Baarn, Netherlands; DSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Mascheroder, Weg 1B, D-38124, Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany; FYU, Department of Fermentation Industries, Yamanashi University, Motoganagi-cho, Kofu-shi, Yamanashi-ken, Japan; IFO, Institute of Fermentation, 4-54 Juso Nishino-machi, Higashiyodogawa-ku, Osaka, Japan; KCC, Kaken Chemical Company Limited, 6-48 Jujodai, 1-Chome, Kita-ku, Tokyo 114, Japan; NCIB, National Collection of Industrial Bacteria, St. Machar Drive, Aberdeen, U.K.; NRRL, Northern Research and Development Division, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.; RIA, Research Institute for Ampelology, Budapest, Hungary.

mm from the mouth. For each strain, small amounts of biomass (*ca.* 50 μ g) were taken from different areas of the inoculated plate, using sterile disposable plastic loops, and smeared uniformly onto the surface of the protruding foils. The assembled tubes plus foils were placed in an oven at 80°C for 15 minutes to dry the biomass onto the foils. The dried foils were then inserted into the tubes, using a stainless steel depth gauge, so that the tip of the foils lay 10 mm from the mouth of the tubes. Viton O-ring collars (Horizon Instruments) were positioned 2mm from the edge of the tubes which were loaded onto the PyMS carousel. Each strain was examined in triplicate in order to follow the mass characteristicity discriminate analysis routines.

Pyrolysis was carried out using a Horizon Instruments PyMS 200X mass spectrometer (Aries *et al.*, 1986; Ottley and Maddock, 1986). Prior to the analysis, the inlet heater was set at 160°C and the heated tube loader at 120°C. The assembled tubes were loaded sequentially into the pyrolysis chamber by a robotic arm. Curie-point pyrolysis was carried out at 530°C for 2.4 seconds under vacuum with a temperature rise time of 0.6 of a second. The volatile pyrolysis products were ionised by collision with a crossing beam of low-energy (20eV) electrons and the ions separated in the quadrupole mass spectrometer that scanned the pyrolysate at 0.35 second intervals. Integrated ion counts at unit mass intervals from 51 to 200 were recorded on hard disc together with the pyrolysis sequence number and total ions count for each sample.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

The GENSTAT statistical package (Nelder, 1979) was used to carry out the multivariate statistical analyses. PYSTAT, a program developed for the PyMS 200X by Horizon Instruments, was used to convert the raw PyMS data into a form suitable for analysis, and to provide instructions to GENSTAT as to which analysis steps were to be carried out. PYSTAT was also used to pre-treat data for analysis on the OPUS V IBM-PC compatible microcomputer. The major steps involved in these procedures are shown in Figure 4, page 111.

The molecular structure of microorganisms shows a high degree of similarity hence pyrolysis mass spectra from different microorganisms are very similar and cannot be differentiated and identified by simple observation. Although the PyMS-200X can scan down to a mass-charge ratio of 11 these low mass ions tend to be derived from gases and water which are not only common derivatives from many organic molecules but may also be derived from leaks and filament oxidation. This problem was overcome in the present study by omitting standard masses below 50 from the analyses (Berkeley *et al.*, 1991).

The quantitative ion count for masses from a particular sample depend upon molecular composition and sample size. It is important to control the sample size as mass ion counts can saturate the detector or at low levels are subject to sensitivity and random fluctuation effects. Consequently, samples with total mass ion counts exceeding 3.000.000 or less than 800.000 were excluded from the analyses. To correct for smaller changes in sample size raw data were normalised such that;

$$M_{IJ}^{C} = (m_{ij} / \sum_{i=51}^{200} m_{ij}) x 100$$

where m_{ij}^c is the corrected mass ion intensity for sample j mass ion i as a percentage of the total ion intensity, and m_{ij} is the mass ion intensity for sample j mass ion i.

Within any set of spectra some mass ion peaks may show little change between spectra from different organisms while others may show large variations between spectra from duplicated samples. Mass ion peaks that are reproducible



Figure 4 Major steps in handling pyrolysis mass spectrometric data showing the functions performed by the PYSTAT and GENSTAT programs.

within duplicates but vary across spectra from different organisms best distinguish between organisms. Eshuis *et al.* (1977) proposed characteristicity, the ratio of outer variance to inner variance (Kruskal 1964*a*, *b*), as a measure of this discrimination. Consequently, data sets were reduced by selecting the 30 mass ions with the highest characteristicity values. The data needed to calculate the inner variance were derived from the triplicate samples.

After data reduction on the smaller set of masses, re-normalisation changes the normalised mass spectra and re-calculation of characteristicity gives new characteristicity values. In an iterative re-normalisation procedure the whole data set was normalised and the characteristicity values calculated, the five lowest characteristicity masses were removed and the data set re-normalised and the characteristicity recalculated. The average characteristicity of the remaining masses was calculated and the process of removing masses and recalculating repeated until the average characteristicity did not increase any more. This set of masses is, in some senses, the most characteristic set of masses.

The reduced data set was then analysed by principal components analysis. Plots of the first two or three principal components were produced as plots of the spectral scores, the position of the pyrolysis spectra on the principal component axes. A plot of the mass loadings for the axes gave information about the contribution of masses to the principal component axes. Canonical variate analyses of all of the principal components accounting for more the 0.1% of the total variance was carried out to give a combined principal component-canonical variate analysis (PC-CVA). The data from PC-CVA were plotted as Mahalanobis distances. The Mahalanobis distance matrix was standardised by dividing the maximum intergroup distance and was treated as an ordinary Euclidean distance then converted to a similarity matrix (Gutteridge *et al.*, 1985). The values in the

similarity matrix were examined using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetric averages algorithm (Sneath and Sokal, 1973).

E. RAPID ENZYME TESTS

1. TEST STRAINS AND SUBSTRATES

The 159 test strains included the centrotype strains of clusters 1, 2, 4, 6, 8 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993), 18 type strains representing validly described species of the genera *Microbispora*, *Microtetraspora*, *Planobispora*, *Streptomyces* and *Streptosporangium* and 136 putative streptosporangia from soil; seventeen of the strains were duplicated in order to determine test error. The source and strains histories of the test organisms are given in Table 17, pages 114 to 116. The names and sources of the thirty-six 4-methylumbelliferone (4-MU) and thirty-five 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin (7-AMC) derivatives examined are given in Table 18, pages 117 to 118.

2. ENZYME TESTS

The conjugated substrates were dissolved in 0.5ml of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma), apart from 4MU-lignocerate, 4MU-palmitate and 4MU-stearate which were solubilised in a few drops of acetic acid and DMSO (0.5ml). The conjugated derivatives were then diluted in absolute alcohol to give a final concentration of 5 x 10⁻⁴M. All stock solutions were stored at -25°C. Aliquots of each of the substrates (50 μ l) were transferred to the wells of 96 welled microtitre plates (Sensititre Ltd., East Grinstead, Sussex, England, U.K.) using an eight chanelled automatic pipette and the solvent evaporated by leaving the plates in a laminar flow cabinet for 30 minutes. The plates were then sealed with a plastic cover (Sensititre Ltd.) and stored at 4°C until required. Plates were allowed to equilibrate to room temperature prior to inoculation.

 Table 17 Test strains examined using the rapid enzyme tests

Strain Number	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source
A. Streptosporangium HJ 001-002, 005-006 008, 009*, 010-011	n isolates , Streptosporangium sp.	Ginseng field (young plant), Kumsan, Korea
HJ 012-015, 016*, 017, 019-020, 021*, 022-027, 028*, 029- 030, 031*, 032-034, 035*, 036-040, 041*, 042-051, 052*, 053- 062, 063*, 064-076, 077*, 078-084, 085*, 086-087, 090-093, 094*, 096-098, 099*, 100-103		Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
HJ 104-105, 106*		Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India
HJ 107-109, 111		Garden soil, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan
HJ 112-116		Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan
HJ 117-118, 122-126, 128, 129*		Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia
HJ 130-132, 133, 135, 138-141		Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
HJ 143-144, 146-147		Woodland soil, Moun Sorak, Republic of Korea
HJ 148-153		Soil rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K.
B Centrotype strains	of numerically circumse	ribed clusters
TW 166 (cluster 1)	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 5, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
TW 292 (cluster 2)	Streptosporangium sp.	Plot 3, Cockle Park Experimental Farm, Northumberland, England, U.K.
TW116 (cluster 4)	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, England, U.K.
TW141 (cluster 6)	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, England, U.K.
TW213 (cluster 8)	Streptosporangium sp.	Oak copse, Corbridge, England, U.K.

Table 1 / continued	Tabl	e 17	continue	d
---------------------	------	------	----------	---

Strain Number	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source
C. Marker strains	3	
TW 038	<i>Microbispora</i> <i>chromogenes</i> (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43165; A.Seino, KCC A-0022; H.Nonomura, FYU, M22; soil. (CBS 304.61; DSM 43165; KCC 3022; NRRL B-2634)
TW 029	<i>Microbispora rosea</i> (Nonomura and Ohara, 1957)	S.T. Williams, Department of Genetics and Microbiology, Liverpool University, Liverpool, U.K.; E6, Japanese soil
TW 041	<i>Microtetraspora fusca</i> (Thiemann <i>et al.</i> , 1968)	DSM 43841; A.Seino, KCC A-3188; RIA 924; J.E. Thiemann, T457; soil. (ATCC 23058; CBS 623.67; IFO 13915)
TW 030	Microtetraspora glauca (Thiemann et al., 1968)	S.T. Williams, E63; ATCC 23057; J.E.Thiemann, T158; italian soil. (CBS 624.27; DSM 43311; KCC A-0300; RIA 925)
TW 023	<i>Microtetraspora</i> niveoalba (Nonomura and Ohara, 1971b)	DSM 43174; A. Seino. KCC A-0149; H.Nonomura, FYU Mt3; soil. (ATCC 27301; CBS 834.70; DSM 43174)
TW 032	<i>Planobispora</i> <i>longispora</i> (Thiemann and Beretta, 1968)	DSM 43041; A.Seino, KCC A-0092; J.E.Thiemann Pb-1075; soil, shore Uramaco, Venezuela. (ATCC 23867; CBS 115.69; IFO 13879)
TW 008	Streptomyces indiaensis (Gupta et al., 1965)	DSM 43803; G. Vobis, MB-T10; T. Frumai, MCRL; K.C. Gupta, RRI. (ATCC 33330; KCC A-0053)
FW 006*	<i>Streptosporangium albidum</i> (Furumai <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> ,1968)	DSM 43870; T. Okuda, MCRL-048; soil, Japan. (ATCC 25243; IFO 13901)
FW 010	<i>Streptosporangium album</i> (Nonomura and Ohara 1960)	DSM 43023; A.Seino, KCC A-0025; H. Nonomura, FYU, S2-32; soil, Japan. (ATCC 27100; CBS 881.70)
rw 001*	Streptosporangium amethystogenes (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43179; A. Seino, KCC A-0026; H. Nonomura, FYU S5; soil. (ATCC 33327; CBS 429.61; NRRL B-2639; RIA 764)

Strain Number	Strain Identity	Strain History / Source
TW 002	Streptosporangium corrugatum (Willams and Sharples, 1976)	DSM 43316; S.T. Williams, E90; beach sand. (ATCC 29331; NCIB 11120)
TW 009	Streptosporangium fragile (Shearer et al., 1983)	ATCC 31519; IFO 14311
TW 022	Streoptosporangium nondiastaticum (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	DSM 43848; ATCC 27101; H. Nonomura, S 2-31; soil
TW 004	Streptosporangium pseudovulgare (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	DSM 43181; A. Seino, KCC A-0115; H. Nonomura, FYU, S2-32; soil. (ATCC 27100; CBS 881.70)
TW 005	Streptosporangium roseum (Couch, 1955a)	DSM 43021; A. Seino, KCC A-0005; K. Tubaki, NI 9100; J. N. Couch, UNCC 27B; vegetable garden soil. (ATCC 12428; CBS 313.56; IFO 3776; RIA 470)
TW 020	<i>Streptosporangium</i> <i>viridogriseum</i> subsp. <i>kofuense</i> (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969b)	DSM 43851; ATCC 27102
TW 021	<i>Streptosporangium viridogriseum</i> subsp. <i>viridogriseum</i> (Okuda <i>et al.</i> , 1966a)	DSM 43850; ATCC 25242
FW 007	<i>Streptosporangium</i> <i>vulgare</i> (Nonomura and Ohara, 1960)	DSM 43802; G. Vobis, MB-T9; H. Nonomura, FYU S-1; paddy field, Anjo, Aichi Prefecture, Japan. (ATCC 33329; CBS 433.61; KCC A-0028; NRRL B-2633; RIA 765)

Table 17 continued

* Duplicated strain

Abbreviations: ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, 12301 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.; CBS, Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Baarn, Netherlands; DSM, Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen, Mascheroder, Weg 1B, D-38124, Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany; FYU, Department of Fermentation Industries, Yamanashi University, Motoganagi-cho, Kofu-shi, Yamanashi-ken, Japan; IFO, Institute of Fermentation, 4-54 Juso Nishino-machi, Higashiyodogawa-ku, Osaka, Japan; KCC, Kaken Chemical Company Limited, 6-48 Jujodai, 1-Chome, Kita-ku, Tokyo 114, Japan; NCIB, National Collection of Industrial Bacteria, St. Machar Drive, Aberdeen, U.K.; NRRL, Northern Research and Development Division, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.; RIA, Research Institute for Ampelology, Budapest, Hungary.

Table 18The name and source of the 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin and 4-methylumbelliferone enzyme substrates used in the rapid enzyme tests

Substrates	Source	Substrates	Source
7-amino-4-methylcoumarin (7AMC)		4-Methylumbelliferone (4MU)	
1) Endopeptidase substrates		1) Glycosides	
Boc-L-Leucine-glycine-L-arginine- 7AMC	Bachem	4MU-2-Acetamido-4,6-o-benzylidene- 2-deoxy-β-D-glucopyranoside	Sigma
Boc-L-Valine-L-leucine-L-lysine- 7AMC	Bachem	4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D- galactopyranoside	NBS
Boc-L-Valine-L-proline-L-arginine- HCI-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D- glucopyranoside	NBS
Boc- <i>iso</i> -L-Leucine-L-glutamine- glycine-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC	Nova	4MU-N-Acetyl-β-D-galactosamine	Sigma
Bz-L-Valine-glycine-L-arginine- HCl-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-N-Acetyl-β-D-glucosamine	Sigma
Glutaryl-glycine-glycine-L- phenylalanine-7AMC	Nova	4MU-β-D-Cellobiopyranoside	Sigma
Succinyl-glycine-L-proline-7AMC	Nova	4MU-α-L-Fucopyranoside	NBS
Succinyl-L-leucine-L-tyrosine- 7AMC	Nova	4MU-β-D-Fucoside	Sigma
Succinyl-L-alanine-L-alanine-L- phenylalanine-7AMC	Nova	4MU-β-L-Fucoside	Sigma
Succinyl-L-leucine-L-leucine-L- valine-L-tyrosine-7AMC	Nova	4MU-α-D-Galactoside	Sigma
Z-L-Arginine-L-arginine-7AMC	CRB	4MU-β-D-Galactoside	Sigma
Z-Glycine-L-proline-7AMC	CRB	4MU-α-D-Glucoside	Sigma
Z-L-Glycine-glycine-L-leucine- 7AMC	Nova	4MU-β-D-Glucoside	Sigma
2) Other peptidase substrate		4MU-α-D-Glucuronide	Sigma
L-Lysine-L-alanine-7AMC	Sigma	4MU-β-D-Maltoside	AJ
L-Alanine-L-phenylalanine-L- lysine-2TFA-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-α-D-Mannopyranoside	Sigma
3) Exopeptidase substrates		4MU-β-D-Mannopyranoside	Sigma
L-Alanine-7AMC	Sigma	4MU-β-D-Ribofuranoside	AJ

Table 18 continued

Substrates	Source	Substrates	Source
β-Alanine-TFA-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-2,3,5-Trio-o-benzyl-α-L- arabinofuranoside	Sigma
D-Alanine-TFA-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-β-D-Xyloside	Sigma
L-Arginine-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-β-D-Xylopyranoside	KL
Asparate-7AMC	Bachem	2) Inorganic esters	
L-Asparagine-TFA-7AMC	Sigma	4MU-Phosphate	Sigma
L-Cysteine(Bzl)-7MAC	Bachem	4MU-Pyrophosphate	KL
L-Glutamine-HCl-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Sulphate	Sigma
L-Glycine-HBr-7AMC	Bachem	bis-(4MU)-phosphate	AJ
L-Histidine-7AMC	Bachem	3) Organic esters	
iso-Leucine-TFA-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-(protected) Acetate	AJ
L-Leucine-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Eicosanoate	AJ
L-Methionine-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Elaidate	KL
L-Proline-HBr-7AMC	CRB	4MU-Heptanoate	KL
L-Pyroglutamate-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Laurate	KL
L-Serine-HCI-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Lignocerate	NBS
L-Tyrosine-7AMC	Bachern	4MU-Myristate	AJ
L-Valine-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Palmitate	Sigma
L-Glycine-L-proline-HBr-7AMC	Bachem	4MU-Pentadecanoate	AJ
L-Arginine-L-arginine-3HCl-7AMC	CRB	4MU-Stearate	Sigma
		4MU-Octadecanoate	AJ

Boc, tert-butyloxycarbonyl; Bz, benzoyl; Bzl, benzyl; HBr, hydrogen bromide; HCl, hydrochloride; TFA, trifluoroacetate; Z, benzyloxycarbonyl.

AJ, A.L.James, School of Chemistry and Life Science, University of Northumbria at Newcastle, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE1 8ST, U.K.; Bachem, Bachem Feinchemikalien AG Ltd., Hauptstrasse 144, CH-4416 Bubendorf, Switzerland; CRB, Cambridge Research Biochemicals Ltd., 3 Heathcoat Building, Highfields Science Park, Nottingham, NG7 2QJ; KL, Koch-Light Ltd., Rookwood Way, Haverhill, Suffolk, CB9 8PB, U.K.; NBS, New Brunswick Scientific Ltd., Edison House, 163 Dixons Hill Road, North Mymms, Hatfield AL9 7JE, U.K.; Nova, Calbiochem-Novabiochem Ltd., 3 Heathcoat Building, Highfields Science Park, Nottingham, NG7 2QJ, U.K. The tests strains were examined for their ability to degrade the 71 conjugated fluorogenic substrates. The organisms were inoculated onto the centre of sterile cellulose nitrate membrane filters (0.45 μ m pore size, 47mm diameter; Whatman Ltd., Maidstone, England, U.K.) that had been aseptically placed in the centre of modified Bennett's agar plates (Agrawal, unpublished data); the membranes were allowed to absorb surface water and the resultant plates incubated at 30°C for 7 days.

After incubation, growth was removed from the surface of the cellulose nitrate membrane filters and transferred to universal bottles containing 15 ml of 0.1M MOPS buffer (pH 7.5) and about ten sterile glass beads (Jencon Scientific Ltd., Leighton Buzzard, Bedfordshire, England, U.K.; gauge 5mm diameter). The preparations were agitated on a Vortex mixer (Fisons Scientific Apparatus Ltd., Loughborough, Leicestershire, England, U.K.) and the homogeneous suspensions obtained adjusted to 0.2 turbidity on a colorimeter at 600 nm. This procedure yielded suspensions of between ca. 6.2 x 10⁷ to 10⁸ viable colony forming units per ml.

Homogenised suspensions of each test strain (100µl) were inoculated into wells of the microtitre plates (Sensititre Ltd.) using an eight channel automatic pipette. The plates contained negative controls, that is, wells with only inoculum and substrate with buffer, respectively. Inoculated plates were resealed and incubated at 30°C for 24 hours and the results read using an automatic fluorescent plate reader (Sensititre Ltd.) at a wavelength of 366 nm. The reader was allowed to warm-up for 30 minutes and calibrated against an internal standard before the analyses. A negative control plate inoculated with MOPS buffer (pH7.5) was read both at the beginning and at the end of the analyses in order to provide readings for background fluorescence and autofluorescence of the compounds. The results were collected on a PC-AT microcomputer via dedicated software (Sensititre Ltd.).

3. DATA ANALYSIS

a) Automatic Data Collection

The results of the enzyme tests were collected on an IBM PC computer and analysed using Quattropro 4.0 (Borland International Inc.). The tests were coded positive when the difference in fluorescent intensities between test and negative control wells that contained only cell inoculum and substrate with buffer was more than 0 [$R_p = V_r - V_c - V_{s+b}$ (R_p ,positive result; V_r , resultant reaction between test strain and enzyme substrate; V_c , value of cell inoculum alone; V_{s+b} , value of substrate with 0.1Mol MOPS buffer)].

b) Numerical Classification

All of the tests were scored + for a positive and - for a negative result. The binary test data were typed in a +/- format as input into the TAXON program (Ward, unpublished data; Appendix A). The +/- results in the final data matrix were converted to a binary format (1/0) and written to a DOS text file using the TAXON program and analysed using the CLUSTAN 2.1 statistical computer package (Clustan Ltd., Scotland, U.K.). The CLUSTAN procedure HIERARCHY was used to examine the data using the D_p, SJ and S_{sm} coefficients. Clustering was achieved using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic averages (UPGMA; Sneath and Sokal, 1973) algorithm.

c) Test Error

Seventeen strains were examined in duplicate (Table 17, pages 114 to 116) and an estimate of test variance calculated (formula 15; Sneath and Johnson,

1972); this was used to estimate the average probability (p) of an erroneous test result (Formula 4; Sneath and Johnson, 1972).

RESULTS

A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION, ENUMERATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA 1. ENUMERATION

The numbers of presumptive microbisporae, microtetrasporae, streptosporangia and unidentified sporoactinomycetes isolated from the composite soil samples on humic acid vitamins agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) are shown in Table 19, pages 123 to 129. Typical selective isolation plates supporting the growth of streptosporangia are shown in Figure 5, page 130.

It is evident from the information in Table 19 that *Microbispora*, *Microtetraspora* and *Streptosporangium* strains are widely distributed in the soils examined though they were not isolated from the composite soil sample collected from around Mount Bromo in Indonesia or from the sample of Brazilian rainforest soil, that is, from the soils with bulk pH values of 3.8. The highest actinomycete counts were consistently recorded from the soil samples that were subject to the less extreme pretreatment regimes, namely when 10^{-1} dilutions were heated in the presence of the germicide sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) or the spore germinant yeast extract (6%, w/v). The highest counts were recorded for the composite 8 sample (soils 579-581) that was pretreated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) for 20 minutes at 40°C prior to dilution and plating out onto HV agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and incubated for 4 weeks at 30°C.

In nearly all cases, streptosporangia were isolated from dried soil samples pretreated at 120°C for an hour and from 10⁻¹ dilutions of soil treated with yeast extract at 40°C for 20 minutes. In general, the higher counts were recorded using

Table 19 Number of Microbispo	ra, Microtetrasp	ora, Str	eptospo	rangium	and ot	her soil ;	actinomy	/cetes (c	olony
forming units per gram dry weight	soil) isolated fro	m divers	se soil s	amples a	fter pre	treatment	and dil	ution ont	, HV
agar supplemented with actidione (.	50mg/l) and nalid	lixic acio	d (30mg	g/l) and ir	ncubate	d at 30°C	for 4 we	eks	
a) Comparison of pretreatment regi	mes								
		Colo	ony Forr	ning Uni	ts Per G	iram Dry	Weight	Soil	
Pretreatment	Primary Target	Microbisp	ora	Microtetra	tspora	Streptospo	rangium	Other Acti	nomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	TSD	X10 ³	tSD	X10 ³	₽SD	X10 ³	±SD
Pretreatment with dry heat at 120°C for 1 hour	Microbispora, Streptosporangium	16.4	1.2	3.5	0.3	21.1	2.5	582.2	39.6
Pretreatment with dry heat at 120°C for 1hour and phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes	Microbispora	23.0	1.14	0.7	0.1	5.8	0.7	394	20.6
Pretreatment with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes	actinomycetes	29.4	5.8	8.0	0.6	26.9	5.1	1358.4	56.1
Pretreatment with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20minutes	actinomycetes	216.3	16.4	94.9	6.9	166.6	20.4	3246.7	126

b) Comparison of composite soil s	samples pretreated	l with d	ry heat a	at 120°C	for 1hou	ы			
		Col	ony Forn	ning Unit	s Per Gra	m Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	spora	Microtet	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	TSD	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	TSD
1. Composite soil, 433-434, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan (pH 6.3)	Microbispora, Streptosporangium	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	6.5	10.6	45	20
2. Composite soil, 435-436, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan (pH 4.6)		1.1	6.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	35	12
3. Composite soil, 443-444, Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India (pH 6.4)		1.1	6.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	63	33
4. Composite soil, 482-489, Rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia (pH 6.2)		1.9	1.9	0.3	0.3	7.2	10.2	56	28

able 19 b) continued	

		Col	ony For	ning Unit	s Per Gra	m Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	spora	Microtet	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	₽SD	X10 ³	tSD	X103	US+
5. Composite soil, 512-513, Rim of crater, Mount Bromo, Indonesia (pH 3.8)	Microbispora, Streptosporangium	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.2	0.2
6. Composite soil, 515-516, Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia (pH 6.2)		0.9	1.0	0.3	0.3	1.0	0.9	43	7.0
7. Composite soil, 576-577, Soils rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K. (pH 5.9)		1.0	6.0	0.1	0.1	0	0	23	1.0
8. Composite soil, 579-581, Ginseng soil (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 5.9)		4.6	4.7	1.0	0.9	3.5	3.8	83	53

		Col	ony Forn	aing Unit	s Per Gra	un Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	pora	Microtet	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	tSD	X10 ³	TSD	X10 ³	tSD	X10 ³	±SD
9. Composite soil, 583-584, Ginseng soil (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 6.2)	Microbispora, Streptosporangium	2.6	2.9	0.3	0.3	1.1	6.0	157	160
10. Composite soil, 585-587, Ginseng soil (young plant), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 5.8)		1.8	1.9	0.3	0.3	1.0	6.0	42	19
11. Composite soil, 604-605, Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea (pH 5.8)		1.1	6.0	6.0	1.0	0.3	0.3	32	12
12. Soil, A2, Rainforest soil, Brazil (pH 3.8)		0	0	0	0	0	0	3.0	3.0

Table 19 b) continued

c) Comparison of composite soil s	amples pretreate	d with ye	east extr	act (6%,	w/v) at	40°C for	20 minu	tes	
		Col	ony Form	ning Unit	s Per Gra	m Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	pora	Microtet	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	TSD	X10 ³	TSD
1. Composite soil, 433-434, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan (pH 6.3)	soil actinomycetes	21.9	16.2	13.8	6.5	3.8	2.2	265	35
2. Composite soil, 435-436, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan (pH 4.6)		8.9	9.6	1.1	0.9	3.8	2.2	303	157
3. Composite soil, 443-444, Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India (pH 6.4)		7.5	4.3	5.6	3.2	3.8	2.2	285	95
4. Composite soil, 482-489, Rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia (pH 6.2)		9.3	9.3	1.8	1.9	13.8	6.5	316	19

		Cold	ony Form	iing Unit	s Per Gra	m Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	pora	Microtet	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	đS±	X10 ³	₹SD
5. Composite soil, 512-513, Rim of crater, Mount Bromo, Indonesia (pH 3.8)	soil actinomycetes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.7	6.0
6. Composite soil, 515-516, Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia (pH 6.2)		20.0	17.3	8.1	9.7	16.3	19.5	332	112
7. Composite soil, 576-577, Soils rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K. (pH 5.9)		15.6	5.4	13.8	6.5	11.9	7.6	233	39
8. Composite soil, 579-581, Ginseng soil (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 5.9)	-	61.8	7.6	23.8	15.2	79.4	11.9	428	143

Table 19 c) continued

		Colc	ony Form	uing Units	s Per Gra	m Dry W	eight Soil		
Composite Soil Sample	Primary Target	Microbis	pora	Microteti	raspora	Streptosp	orangium	Other Ac	tinomycetes
	Organism(s)	X10 ³	tSD	X10 ³	τSD	X10 ³	TSD	X10 ³	₹SD
 Composite soil, 583-584, Ginseng soil (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 6.2) 	soil actinomycetes	35.6	22.7	5.6	3.2	11.9	7.6	423	204
10. Composite soil, 585-587, Ginseng soil (young plant), Kumsan, Republic of Korea (pH 5.8)		23.8	15.2	13.8	65.0	10.0	86.6	369	89
11. Composite soil, 604-605, Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea (pH 5.8)		11.9	7.6	7.5	4.3	11.9	7.6	247	09
12. Soil, A2, Rainforest soil, Brazil (pH 3.8)		0	0	0	0	0	0	45	48

Table 19 c) continued

129

Figure 5 Streptosporangia growing on humic acid vitamins agar plates supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and incubated for 4 weeks at 30°C.

Representative colonies of streptosporangia are indicated by an asterisk.

1

.



the latter procedure. The highest count, $7.94 \pm 1.19 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, was recorded from a sample of composite soil 8 which had been the subject of the pretreatment regime involving yeast extract prior to plating out onto HV agar and incubation at 30°C for 4 weeks. In this instance, the streptosporangia accounted for almost 40% of the sporoactinomycetes growing on the isolation plates. However, in most cases, streptosporangia accounted for less than 5% of the actinomycetes growing on isolation plates (Table 19, pages 123-129). Indeed, the vast majority of the colonies growing on isolation plates were assigned to the "catch-all" group, namely the "other actinomycetes". It was subsequently shown that most of the organisms belonging to this group were streptomycetes.

The highest numbers of microbisporae and microtetrasporae were also recorded from soil suspensions treated with yeast extract and heated for 20 minutes at 40°C. It is also evident (Table 19, pages 123 to 129) that heat pretreated soil subsequently treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes favoured the growth of microbisporae as opposed to microtetrasporae and streptosporangia. Nevertheless, the highest counts of microbisporae, $6.18 \pm 0.76 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, were recorded from suspensions of composite soil 8 treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) for 20 minutes at 40°C. The highest counts of microtetrasporae, $2.38 \pm 1.52 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, were also recorded from suspensions of composite soil 8 treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes.

2. SELECTION AND PURIFICATION

Presumptive streptosporangial colonies growing on humic acid vitamins (HV) agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) were

examined for the presence of spore vesicles (sporangia) using a Nikon Optiphot binocular light microscope fitted with a long distance objective (X400 magnification). One hundred and fifty-three presumptively identified streptosporangia were picked from the isolation plates using sterile tooth-picks and inoculated onto HV agar plates which were incubated for two weeks at 30°C. The resultant cultures were examined for purity both by eye and using the Nikon Optiphot binocular light microscope (X400 magnification) and single colonies used to inoculate further HV plates which were also incubated for two weeks at 30°C. This procedure was repeated until all of the isolates were in pure culture. The sources and procedures used to isolate all of the test strains are given in Table 20, pages 133 to 136. In subsequent studies, 136 of the presumptive streptosporangia were examined for the presence of isomers of diaminopimelic acid in whole-organism hydrolysates, screened against diagnostic tests included in a computer-assisted procedure designed for the identification of streptosporangia and examined using a battery of rapid enzyme tests to determine their enzymatic profiles.

3. CHARACTERISATION

a. Morphological Studies

All of the isolates presumptively identified as streptosporangia produced spore vesicles (Figures 6a to 6f, pages 137 to 139). Scanning electron micrographs of three of the test strains (HJ 047, HJ 084 and HJ 094) are shown in Figure 7, pages 140 to 141.

b. Diaminopimelic Acid Analysis of Soil Isolates

The LL- and *meso*-diaminopimelic acid standards were clearly separated on the cellulose TLC plates. All of the presumptive streptosporangia contained

regimes			
Strain Number (HJ)	Pretreatment Regime	Soil Number	Source
001*, 002*, 003, 004	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	585-587	Ginseng field (young plant), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
005*, 006*, 007	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes		
008*	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
009*, 010*, 011*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
012*, 013*, 014*.**, 015*, 016*.**, 017*.**, 018, 019*.**, 020*.**, 021*.**, 022*, 023*.**, 024*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	579-581	Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
025****,026****,027****, 028****,029*,030*,031****, 032****,033*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes		
034*, 035****, 036****, 037*, 038*, 039*, 040****, 041*, 042****, 043*, 044****, 045****, 046*, 047*.+', 048****, 049*, 050*, 051*	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		

Table 20 Source of presumptive streptosporangia isolated on HV agar incubated at 30°C for 4 weeks following various pretreatment

Table 20 continued			
Strain Number (HJ)	Pretreatment Regime	Soil Number	Source
052*, 053****, 054****, 055*, 056*, 057*, 058****, 059*, 060*, 061*, 062*, 063*, 064*, 065*, 066*, 067*, 068****, 069****, 070*, 071*, 072*, 073*, 074*, 075*, 076*, 077*, 078*, 079*, 080*, 081*, 082*, 083*, 084*++, 085*, 086*, 087*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes	579-581	Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
088, 089, 090*, 091*, 092*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	583-584	Ginseng field (post harvest), Kumsan, Republic of Korea
093*,094*,+,095,096*,097*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes		
****660	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
100*, 101*, 102*, 103*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
104*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	443-444	Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India
105*, 106*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
107*, 108*, 109*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	433-434	Garden soil, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan
110, 111*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		

Table 20 continued			
Strain Number (HJ)	Pretreatment Regime	Soil Number	Source
112*, 113*,**, 114* 115*,**, 116*,**	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes	435-436	Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan
117*, 118*•**, 119, 120, 121 122*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes	482-489	Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia
123*, 124*,**	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
125*·**, 126*·**, 127, 128*, 129*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
130*,**, 131*, 132*,**, 133*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	515-516	Garden soil, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
134, 135*;**, 136	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes		
137	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
138*, 139*, 140*, 141*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40° C for 20 minutes		
142, 143*	Dried soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour	604-605	Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea
144*, 145, 146*, 147*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		

Table 20 continued			
Strain Number (HJ)	Pretreatment Regime	Soil Number	Source
148*, 149*	Dried soil treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 400C for 20 minutes	576-577	Soil rich in humus, Keswick, England, U.K.
150*, 151*, 152*, 153*	Dried soil treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes		
* Strains examined for th	le presence of diaminopimelic acid and scre	ened against (the diagnostic and rapid enzyme tests.

* Strains examined for the presence of spore vesicles.

+ Strains examined in the SEM studies.
Figure 6a Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 14 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 6b Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 45 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 6c Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 48 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 6d Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 69 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 6e Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 99 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 6f Spore vesicles of isolate HJ 135 growing on HV agar after 4 weeks at 30° (X400 magnification)



Figure 7a Morphology of spore vesicles of *Streptosporangium* isolates HJ 047 (11,4KX)



Figure 7b Morphology of spore vesicles of *Streptosporangium* isolates HJ 084 (683KX)



Figure 7c Morphology of spore vesicles of *Streptosporangium* isolates HJ 094 (6,57KX)



Figure 7d Morphology of spore vesicles of Streptosporangium isolates HJ 094 (11,6KX)



meso-diaminopimelic acid, and all of the 46 unknown actinomycetes LLdiaminopimelic acid (Figure 8, page 143).

c. Conclusions

It is evident from the chemical and morphological studies that strains presumptively identified as streptosporangia can be classified in this genus with considerable confidence. Similarly, most of the unknown actinomycetes have chemical and morphological properties consistent with their classification in the genus *Streptomyces* (Williams *et al.*, 1989).

B. NUMERICAL IDENTIFICATION OF STREPTOSPORANGIA 1. PRACTICAL EVALUATION OF THE FREQUENCY MATRIX

All seventy representatives of the twelve major streptosporangial clusters circumscribed in the numerical phenetic survey of Whitham (1988) were unambiguously assigned to their parent cluster with high identification scores (Table 21, pages 144 to 156). In all cases the identification scores of strains assigned to their parent cluster were much better than the two next best alternatives. The ten centrotype strains, namely TW 166 (cluster 1), TW 292 (cluster 2), TW 116 (cluster 4), TW 141(cluster 6), TW 226 (cluster 7), TW 213 (cluster 8), TW 005 (cluster 9), TW 002 (cluster 10), TW 126 (cluster 11) and TW 182 (cluster 12) had high Willcox probabilities (> 0.9999 in all but one instance), taxonomic distances smaller than the 95% taxonomic radius and high Gaussian distance probability values (range 51.2-100, apart from strain TW 005 with a value of 1.98).

Similarly, all thirty representatives of cluster 1 showed high Willcox probabilities (range 0.9844-0.9999), taxonomic distances smaller than the 95% taxonomic radius and high Gaussian distance probability values (range 7.561-

Figure 8 Identification of diaminopimelic acid isomers by one dimensional thin layer chromatography of whole-organism hydrolysates of test strains using the solvent system methanol:water:10N HCl:pyridine = 80:26.25:3.75:10, v/v.

Plate A

Plate B

tracks (from left to right)
1. α , ε -diaminopimelic acid
2. HJ 104
3. A 001
4. HJ 105
5. A 003
6. α , ε -diaminopimelic acid
7. HJ 106
8. HJ 107
9. A 004
10. HJ 108

11. α , ε -diaminopimelic acid

Plate C

tracks (from left to right)

1. α	ε, ε-diaminopimelic acid	1.	α , ε -diaminopimelic acid
2. HJ 03	34	2. HJ	143
3. HJ 03	5	3. HJ	144
4. HJ 03	6	4. HJ	146
5. HJ 03	7	5. HJ	147
6. HJ 03	8	6. HJ	148
7. HJ 03	9	7. HJ	149
8. HJ 04	ю	8. HJ	150
9. HJ 04	1	9. HJ	151
10. HJ 0	42	10. HJ	152
11.	α, ε-diaminopimelic acid	11. [α , ϵ -diaminopimelic acid

1.	α , ϵ -diaminopimelic acid
2. HJ	109
3. A	005
4. A (007
5. A (009
6.	α , ϵ -diaminopimelic acid
7. HJ	111
8. HJ	112
9. A (010

tracks (from left to right)

11. α , ε -diaminopimelic acid

Plate D

10. A 011

tracks (from left to right)





Plate B



Plate C





LL-DAP, LL-diaminopimelic acid; meso-DAP, meso-diaminopimelic acid; OH-DAP, 2,6-diamino-3-hydroxypimelic acid.

Table 21 Identification scores recorded for representatives of the major clusters of streptosporangia using the frequency matrix of Whitham (1988)

		Best Three Identification	S					
Cluster	Strain Number	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
1 Streptosporangium sp.	101	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 9 %	00000 000000	0.2293 0.4268 0.4682	0.3629 0.3575 0.3575	94.420 0.041	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	104	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 104	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.2692 0.3742 0.4351	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	0.005 73.395 1.997	Yes
l Streptosporangium sp.	106	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 2	0.9998 0.0002 0.0000	0.2143 0.3839 0.4260	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	97.459 1.096 0.130	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	117	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	6666.0 0000.0	0.3039 0.4925 0.4543	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	41.463 0.000 0.000	Yes
1 Sireptosporangium sp.	121	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 2 1	0000'0 6000'0	0.3229 0.4341 0.5069	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	24.932 0.021 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	127	Sireptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 6 4	0.9983 0.0016 0.0000	0.3409 0.4159 0.5145	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	13.309 0.104 0.000	Yes

I

		Best Three Identification	S					
Cluster	Strain Numb er	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(JTW)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
1 Streptosporangium sp.	128	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 2 0	6666'0 0000'0	0.2016 0.3619 0.4374	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	98.815 6.890	Ycs
1 Streptosporangium sp.	129	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0.9615 0.0384 0.0000	0.3310 0.3801 0.5544	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.010 19.133 1.395 0.000	No
1 Streptosporangium sp.	143	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 4 11	0.9844 0.0133 0.0023	0.3039 0.3259 0.3364	0.3186 0.3186 0.1212	41.465 3.248 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	144	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	105	0000.0 0000.0	0.2692 0.4268 0.4408	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	73.395 0.041 0.038	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	145A	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 4	0.000 0.0001 0.0000	0.2591 0.3792 0.4086	0.3629 0.3687 0.3186	80.727 2.896 0.002	Ycs
1 Streptosporangium sp.	153	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 7 4	0.0002 0.0002 0.0000	0.3448 0.4782 0.4524	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	11.399 0.000 0.000	Yes

		Best Three Identification	S					
Cluster	Strain Number	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
l Streptosporangium sp.	159	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 1 2 2	0.9928 0.0068 0.0002	0.3188 0.3618 0.4117	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	28.212 4.018 0.381	Yes
l Streptosporangium sp.	165	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0000.0 0000.0	0.3813 0.5072 0.5069	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000	No
l Streptosporangium sp.	166*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0.0006 0.0006 0.0000	0.2566 0.3839 0.4817	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	82.386 1.096 0.001	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	179	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 2 1	6666.0 0000.0	0.2566 0.4832 0.4262	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	82.391 0.000 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	218	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	00000 00000 00000	0.2642 0.4159 0.3958	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	77.192 0.104 1.100	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	220	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 4 v	0.9985 0.0012 0.0001	0.2591 0.3259 0.3792	0.3629 0.3186 0.3687	80.727 3.249 2.896	Yes

		Best Three Identification	IS					
Cluster	Strain	Cluster			Iden	ntification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(ML)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
l Streptosporangium sp.	222	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	0.0002	0.3310 0.4353 0.4086	0.3629 0.3575 0.3196	19.133 0.019	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	224	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1	00000.0 00000.0	0.3848 0.4558 0.5098	0.3629 0.2052 0.3161	0.000 0.000 0.000	Ň
1 Streptosporangium sp.	235	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	351	6666.0 0000.0	0.3167 0.4677 0.4809	0.3629 0.3575 0.2514	29.943 0.001 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	245	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	6666.0 0000.0 0000.0	0.2617 0.4457 0.4351	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	78.995 0.007 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	253	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 6 4	0.9877 0.0122 0.0000	0.3146 0.3717 0.4764	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	31.734 2.307 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	256	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 5	0.9868 0.0130 0.0001	0.2433 0.3055 0.4048	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	88.459 44.507 0.251	Yes

		Best Three Identification:						
Cluster	Strain Number	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(ML)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
1 Streptosporangium sp.	263	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	99999 0.0000.0 0.0000.0	0.2765 0.4416 0.3794	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	67.3021 0.010 0.045	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	266	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0000.0 0000.0	0.2882 0.4268 0.5193	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	56.513 0.041 0.000	Yes
l Streptosporangium sp.	320	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 2 2	0.9996 0.0003 0.0000	0.2765 0.3619 0.4457	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	67.302 6.890 0.007	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	353	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.3543 0.4716 0.4948	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	7.561 0.000 0.000	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	354	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0.9992 0.0004 0.0004	0.2995 0.4048 0.3792	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	45.652 0.251 2.896	Yes
1 Streptosporangium sp.	369	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 5 1	0.0001 0.0001 0.0001	0.2264 0.3619 0.3933	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	95.170 6.890 0.581	Yes

		Best Three Identification	IS					
Cluster	Strain Number	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	Wilkcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
2 Streptosporangium sp.	115	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	00000 00000 00000	0.1955 0.4551 0.4564	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	99.026 0.011 0.005	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	269	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	0000.0 0000.0	0.1705 0.4130 0.4408	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	99.842 0.213 0.038	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	270	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	0000.0 0000.0	0.1705 0.4130 0.4408	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	99.842 0.213 0.038	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	271	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	s 1 2	6666.0 0000.0 0000.0	0.2454 0.4529 0.4551	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	86.678 0.007 0.011	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	274	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 2 2	0.9889 0.0109 0.0001	0.2835 0.3449 0.4153	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	56.952 14.058 0.179	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	282	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - 0	0000.0 0000.0	0.1955 0.4226 0.3958	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	99.026 0.101 1.100	Ycs

		Best Three Identification	S					
Cluster	Strain	Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
2 Streptosporangium sp.	286	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 2 1	0.9872 0.0126 0.0001	0.2899 0.3449 0.4425	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	50.724 14.058 0.018	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	292*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 - 5	6666.0 0000.0	0.1705 0.4130 0.4408	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	90.010 99.842 0.213 0.038	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	303	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	99999 000000 000000	0.1705 0.4130 0.4408	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	99.841 0.213 0.038	Yes
2 Streptosporangium sp.	366	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 5 2	99999 0000.0 0000.0	0.1955 0.4551 0.4564	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	99.026 0.011 0.005	Yes
3 Streptosporangium sp.	541	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	€ − 4	0.0000 0.00000 0.00000	0.2069 0.4279 0.4852	0.2514 0.3629 0.3186	46.365 0.065 0.000	Yes
3 Streptosporangium sp.	547	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	ю н	0000.0 0000.0	0.1732 0.4416 0.5193	0.2514 0.3629 0.3687	86.161 0.019 0.000	Yes

		Best Three Identifications	(4)					
Cluster	Strain	Cluster			Iden	ntification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(WT)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
4 Streptosporangium sp.	116*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 - 2	99999 000000 000000	0.2322 0.4056 0.4551	0.3186 0.3629 0.3687	77.000 0.370 0.011	Yes
4 Streptosporangium sp.	161	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 1 9	000000 000000	0.2150 0.4425 0.4997	0.3186 0.3629 0.3161	88.747 0.000 0.000	Yes
4 Streptosporangium sp.	163	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 1 11	0000.0 0000.0	0.2482 0.4178 0.4342	0.3186 0.3629 0.1212	61.690 0.147 0.000	Yes
4 Streptosporangium sp.	254	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 - 6	6666°0 0000°0	0.2322 0.4826 0.5361	0.3186 0.3629 0.3161	000. <i>TT</i> 0.000 0.000	Yes
4 Streptosporangium sp.	375	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 – 6	00000 000000 000000	0.3039 0.4659 0.4252	0.3186 0.3629 0.2514	10.762 0.002 0.000	Yes
5 Streptosporangium sp.	168	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 1 2	6666.0 0000.0	0.2616 0.4365 0.4793	0.3687 0.3629 0.3575	81.782 0.031 0.000	Yes

		Best Three Identification.	S					
Cluster	Strain	Cluster			Iden	ntification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	W illcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
6 Streptosporangium sp.	136	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	8 7 6	0000.0 0000.0	0.2079 0.4558 0.4633	0.3161 0.2052 0.2743	91.348 0.000 0.000	Yes
6 Streptosporangium sp.	141*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	v œ v	6666°0 0000°0	0.1636 0.4207 0.4817	0.3161 0.2743 0.3687	99.529 0.000 0.000	Yes
6 Streptosporangium sp.	148	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	\$ V \$	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.2858 0.3958 0.4207	0.3161 0.3687 0.2743	21.113 1.100 0.000	Yes
6 Streptosporangium sp.	169	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	6 8	00000 0.0000	0.3545 0.4558 0.4724	0.3161 0.2052 0.2743	0.336 0.000 0.000	Ň
6 Streptosporangium sp.	227	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 5 6	6666.0 0000.0	0.2554 0.4107 0.4470	0.3161 0.3687 0.3629	51.756 0.407 0.012	Yes
6 Streptosporangium sp	. 251	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	756	6666.0 0000.0 0000.0	0.1458 0.4408 0.4558	0.3161 0.3687 0.2052	006.69 0.038 0.000	Yes

		Best Three Identification	IS					
Cluster	Strain Number	Cluster			Ider	ttification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(TW)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
6 Streptosporangium sp.	393	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	w v w	66660 0000.0 0000.0	0.3044 0.4817 0.4876	0.3161 0.3687 0.2743	9.343 0.001 0.000	Yes
7 Streptosporangium sp.	226*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	7 6 12	6666.0 0000.0	0.1390 0.4100 0.4342	0.2052 0.3161 0.1212	88.300 0.001 0.000	Yes
7 Streptosporangium sp.	232	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	7 6 12	6666.0 0000.0	0.1390 0.4714 0.5138	0.2052 0.3161 0.1212	88.300 0.000 0.000	Yes
8 Streptosporangium sp.	170	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	w v w	99999 000000 000000	0.1620 0.3676 0.4817	0.2743 0.3161 0.3687	97.466 0.106 0.001	Yes
8 Streptosporangium sp.	209	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	00 VO VO	0000.0 0.0000.0	0.2221 0.4157 0.5193	0.2743 0.3161 0.3687	51.176 0.001 0.000	Yes

I

		Best Three Identification	ß					
Cluster	Strain Numb er	Cluster			Iden	tification Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(ML)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
8 Streptosporangium sp.	213*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2000	0000.0 0000.0	0.2221 0.4772 0.5193	0.2743 0.3161 0.3687	51.176 0.000 0.000	Yes
8 Streptosporangium sp.	276	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	∿ ¢ ∞	0000.0 0000.0	0.1620 0.4475 0.4817	0.2743 0.3161 0.3687	97.466 0.000 0.001	Yes
8 Streptosporangium sp.	355	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	9 7 8	6666.0 0000.0	0.2543 0.4613 0.4772	0.2743 0.3575 0.3161	15.749 0.001 0.000	Yes
9 Streptosporangium roseum	005*;**	Streptosporangium roseum/S. vulgare Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 00	6666.0 0000.0	0.2761 0.5871 0.5831	0.2637 0.2743 0.2143	0.000	No
9 Streptosporangium vulgare	•••	Streptosporangium roseum/S. vulgare Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	6 6 9 9	99999 00000.0 0.0000.0	0.5630	0.2637 0.3575 0.3687	0.000 72.566 0.000 0.000	Yes

		Strain Identified	Yes		Yes		Yes	Yes
		Gaussian Distance Probability	25.776	0.000 0.000	63.615	0.000	100 0.000 0.010	100 0.000 0.10
	tification Scores	95% Taxonomic Radius	0.3687	0.3161 0.2052	0.3687	0.2052 0.3161	0.1212 0.3186 0.3629	0.1212 0.3186 0.3629
	Ide	Taxonomic Distance	0.3270	0.5605 0.5664	0.2851	0.5988 0.6159	0.0100 0.4360 0.4491	0.0100 0.4360 0.4491
		W illcox Probability	6666.0	0.0000	6666.0	0.0000	6666.0 0000.0 000000	6666.0 0000.0 0000.0
Best Three Identifications	Cluster	Number	10 Prum	6 7	10	7 7 6	1 4 -	11 4 1
		Name	Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S.corrugatuml S.longispo	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S	o- corregutanto-storgispo Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.
	Strain Number	(WI	001**		002*,**		126*	155
	Cluster	Number Name of Strain	10 Streptosporangium amethystogenes		10 Streptosporangium corrugatum		11 Streptosporangium sp.	11 Streptosporangium sp.

		Best Three Identification	S					
Cluster	Strain	Cluster			Iden	iffication Scores		
Number Name of Strain	(WT)	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonemic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability	Strain Identified
12 Streptosporangium sp.	182*	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	12 7 6	6666-0 0000.0 0.0000.0	0.1944 0.4955 0.5653	0.1212 0.2052 0.3161	0.000	Yes
12 Streptosporangium sp.	194	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	12 7 6	66666 0 0000 0 0000 0	0.0944 0.4955 0.5653	0.1212 0.2052 0.3161	100 0.000 0.000	Yes
*, Centrotype strain.	**, Type strair							

 \bigcirc

98.815), apart from strain TW 224 which had a high Willcox probability score (0.9999) but a taxonomic distance larger than 95% taxonomic radius and a low Gaussian distance probability. The raw data obtained for all of the test strains are given in Appendix C.

Given the high identification scores obtained with the marker strains it was decided in the first instance that stringent criteria should be set for a positive identification of both known and unknown strains, namely:

(i) a Willcox probability score of 0.9700 or above.

(ii) a taxonomic distance score below the 95% taxonomic radius score.

(iii) high Gaussian probability scores signifying that there was not any significant overlap between the cluster strains were assigned to and the immediate next best alternatives.

(iv) the best identification scores to be much better than the two next best alternatives

Sixty-five of the seventy marker strains fulfilled these cut-off criteria for a positive identification. Three of the four exceptions, namely strains TW 224 (cluster 1), TW 165 (cluster 1), TW 169 (cluster 6) and TW 005 (cluster 9) had Willcox probabilities above 0.9999 but showed taxonomic distance values somewhat above the 95% taxonomic radius scores. The remaining organism, strain TW 129 showed similar identification scores but in this case the Willcox probability was relatively low at 0.9615.

2. IDENTIFICATION OF UNKNOWN STREPTOSPORANGIA

Twelve out of the one hundred and thirty-six unknown streptosporangia were identified to known clusters using the stringent cut-off criteria mentioned above. Ten of the strains were identified to cluster 1 (*Streptosporangium* sp.) and two to cluster 2 (*Streptosporangium* sp.; Table 22, pages 159 to 177). The raw data recorded for all of these strains are given in Appendix D.

A further nineteen organisms were identified to known clusters using less stringent cut-off criteria, namely strains HJ 005, HJ 010, HJ 011, HJ 012, HJ 020, HJ 021, HJ 032, HJ 036, HJ 053, HJ 055, HJ 056, HJ 068, HJ 087, HJ 092, HJ 096, HJ 097, HJ 113, HJ 126 and HJ 129. These strains showed high Willcox probabilities (>0.9700) and had taxonomic distances just above the 95% taxonomic radius (Taxonomic distance - 95% taxonomic radius < 0.13). Twelve of the nineteen strains were identified to cluster 1 (*Streptosporangium* sp.) and the remaining seven to cluster 2 (*Streptosporangium* sp.). The balance of one hundred and five strains were not identified using either of the cut-off points chosen for a positive identification. Table 22 Identification scores recorded for streptosporangia isolated from diverse soils

		Best Three Identification	SI				
		Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores	
Strain Numbe (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising A Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
	A. STRAINS ME	ETING CRITERIA	FOR A POS	ITIVE IDENTI	FICATION		
060	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan. Republic of Korea	Streptosporangium sp.	(666610	0.2460	0.3629	88.213
	Heat	streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 5	0.0000	0.4395 0.4682	0.3575 0.3687	0.013 0.003
160		Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.9999	0.1705	0.3575	99.842
		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.000 0.0000	0.4130 0.4408	0.3629 0.3687	0.213
860	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest)	Streptosporangium sp.	1	6666.0	0.2460	0.3629	88 213
	Numsan, Kepublic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate ^b	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	61 IV	0.0000	0.4395	0.3575	0.013
			5		004-0	0.308/	0.003
105	443-444, Garden soil, IMTECH Chandivarh India	Streptosporangium sp.	5	6666.0	0.1705	0.3575	99.842
	Yeast extract ^c	streptosporanguum sp. Streptosporangium sp.		0.0000 0.0000	0.4130 0.4408	0.3629 0.3687	0.213
107	433 434, Garden soil, Hibuya Park	Streptosporangium sp.	1	0.9996	0 2765	0 3670	
	lokyo, Japan Uzet	Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.0004	0.3619	0.3687	6 890
	11Cal	Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.0000	0.4457	0.3575	0.007
108		Streptosporangium sp.	1	9666.0	0.2765	0.3629	CUE 19
		Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.0004	0.3619	0.3687	6.890
		Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.0000	0.4457	0.3575	0.007
109		Streptosporangium sp.	1	9666.0	0.2765	0.3629	CUE 292
		Streptosporangium sp.	S	0.0004	0.3619	0.3687	6.890
		Sireptosporangium sp.	2	0.0000	0.4457	0.3575	0.007

continued
3
Table

		Best Three Identification:	s				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
112	435-436, Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 94	1666.0 0.0000	0.3229 0.4341	0.3629 0.3575 0.3575	24.932 0.021
116	rica. 435-436. Garden soil. Tsukuha	Streptospot unglum sp. Streptosporaneium sp.	n –	0000 U	600C.U	0 3676 D	41.463
	University, Tsukuba, Japan Vaniversity, Tsukuba, Japan	Streptosporangium sp.	1 61 4	000000	0.4925	0.3575	0.000
	ז גמאו רארו מרו	in spinopolaria and	ſ	0000-0		1000.0	110.0
118	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini. Indonesia	Streptosporangium sp. Strentosporangium sp.	- 10	0.0008	0.2264	0.3629 0.3687	95.170 6.890
	Heat	Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.001	0.3933	0.3575	0.581
123	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil. Mart Baini Tralanasia	Streptosporangium sp.	(6666-0 1000 0	0.2692	0.3629	73.395
	Nuclear point, fuctores a Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp.	4	0.0000	0.4262	0.3186	0.000
125	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil,	Streptosporangium sp.	1	1666:0	0.3229	0.3629	24.932
	Meru Betini, Indonesia	Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.000	0.4341	0.3575	0.021
	Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.0000	0.5069	0.3687	0.000
â	. STRAINS PRESUMPTIVELY IDENTI DISTANC	FIED ON THE BAS ES JUST ABOVE 1	IS OF HIGH THE 95% TA	I WILLCOX PH	KOBABILITI NDIUS	ES WITH TAX	ONOMIC
005	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant)	Streptosporangium sp.	1	0.9986	0.4440	0.3629	0.016

803	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant)	Streptosporangium sp.	1	0.9986	0.4440	0.3629	0.016
	Kumsan, Republic of Korea	Streptosporangium sp.	7	0.0014	0.5118	0.3575	0.000
	Heat and phenol ^d	Streptosporangium sp.	9	0.0000	0.5405	0.3161	0.000
010	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant)	Streptosporangium sp.	T	0.9975	0.4673	0.3629	0.002
	Kumsan, Republic of Korea	Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.0025	0.5020	0.3575	0.000
	Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp.	ŝ	0.0000	0.5315	0.3687	0.000

•

ð
ğ
Ē
- N
ŭ
S.
ple
La

		Best Three Identifications	74				
		Cluster			Iden	tification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
011	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Y east extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	3 - 6	0.9987 0.0006 0.0005	0.4887 0.5061 0.5751	0.3629 0.2514 0.3575	0000 000000 000000
012	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenesi S.corrugatumiS.longispo	1 2 10	0.0007 0.0007 0.0000	0.4693 0.5287 0.5551	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.001 0.000 0.000
020		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	8 5 1	0.9959 0.0028 0.0008	0.4630 0.4797 0.4884	0.3629 0.3575 0.2743	0.002 0.000 0.000
021		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseum/S. vulgare Streptosporangium sp.	00 V	0.9912 0.0087 0.0001	0.4419 0.4765 0.5435	0.3575 0.2637 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000
032	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	3 7 1	0.0000 0.0000 0.0000	0.4535 0.5474 0.5421	0.3629 0.3575 0.2514	0.006 0.000 0.000
036	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporungium sp. Streptosporungium sp. Streptosporungium sp.	-04	0.9867 0.0133 0.0001	0.4446 0.4440 0.4844	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	0.015 0.008 0.000
053	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 - 2	0.9739 0.0211 0.0039	0.4280 0.5073 0.4817	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.037 0.000 0.001

		Best Three Identification	US				
		Cluster			Ider	tification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Wilkox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
055	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 -	0.9997 0.0003	0.4558 0.5057	0.3629 0.3575	0.005 0.000
056		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 -0,	0.0000 0.9997 0.0003	0.5436 0.4558 0.5057	0.3186 0.3629 0.3575	0.000 0.005 0.000
068		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.		0.0000 0.9994 0.0005	0.5436 0.4644 0.5129	0.3186 0.3629 0.3575	0.000 0.002 0.000
087		Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium roseumdS.vulgare	. 9-9	0.000 0.0013 0.000	0.5145 0.5565 0.5145	0.3186 0.3575 0.3629 0.2637	0.000 0.006 0.000 0.000
092	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 2 1	0.9997 0.0002 0.0000	0.4729 0.5210 0.5435	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.001
960	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 0 1	0.9994 0.0005 0.0001	0.3890 0.4948 0.5395	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
60		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 2 2	0.0005 0.0005 0.0001	0.3890 0.4948 0.5395	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.781 0.000 0.000
113	435-436, Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	0.9995 0.0005 0.0000	0.3916 0.5098 0.4772	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	0.966 0.000 0.000

continued
3
Table

		Best Three Identification	ß				
		Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	
126	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1	0.9992 0.0006 0.0002	0.4672 0.5551 0.5745	0.3575 0.3687 0.3620	0.00
129		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 5 2	0. <i>977</i> 8 0.01 <i>95</i> 0.0027	0.3693 0.4269 0.4721	0.3687 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.121 0.001
		C. UNIDENTI	IFIED STRAI	SN			
001	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 1 5	0.8259 0.0889 0.0849	0.4690 0.5202 0.4700	0.3687 0.3629 0.3575	0.003 0.000 0.001
002		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 1 5	0.8259 0.0889 0.0849	0.4690 0.5202 0.4700	0.3687 0.3629 0.3575	0.003 0.000 0.000
906	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - 0	0.7856 0.2096 0.0048	0.4207 0.4859 0.4948	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.070 0.000 0.000
800	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	7 4	0.9361 0.0639 0.0000	0.5015 0.5010 0.5364	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	00000
600	585-587, Ginseng field (young plant) Kumsan, Republic of Korca Y east extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 5	0.4401 0.4342 0.1044	0.5138 0.5764 0.5544	0.1212 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000

continued
53
Table

		Best Three Identification	SI				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
013	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2	0.9804 0.0193	0.5964 0.6690	0.3575 0.3629	0.000
014		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	80 4	0.7520 0.2406	0.5603	0.3186 0.2743 0.2743	0.000 0.000 0.000
015		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	· 2 1 2	0.0051	0.5517 0.6365 0.6305	0.3186 0.3575 0.3629	0.000
016		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 12	0.8300 0.1532 0.0165	0.5861	0.1212 0.3629 0.1212	00000
017		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S.corrugatumlS.longisp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 10 <i>01um</i> 2	0.0004	0.5536	0.3687 0.3687 0.3687	0000.0
019		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	6 1 12	0.7158 0.2820 0.0017	0.4656 0.5158 0.4757	0.3161 0.3161 0.3629 0.1212	000.0 00000 00000 00000
022		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 1 12	0.9934 0.0051 0.0013	0.5517 0.6365 0.5492	0.3575 0.3629 0.1212	00000
023		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	0.5673 0.2628 0.1698	0.5023 0.5576 0.5435	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0000 0000

continued
22
Table

		Best Three Identification	SI				
		Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
024	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korca Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 2	0.8447 0.1553 0.0002	0.5138 0.4984 0.5544	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000
025	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 9 5	0.8447 0.1553 0.0002	0.5138 0.4984 0.5544	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	000.0 000.0
026		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	-04	0.9505 0.0476 0.0005	0.5390 0.5321 0.5364	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	000.0 000.0 000.0
027		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 7 1	0.9818 0.0181 0.0000	0.5517 0.5510 0.6089	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000.0
028		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseundS.vulgare	0 - 6	0.5172 0.2415 0.2369	0.5314 0.5546 0.5145	0.3575 0.3629 0.2637	0.000 0.0000 0.0000
029		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	0.9689 0.0311 0.0000	0.4791 0.4777 0.5364	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	0.000 0.000 0.000
030		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseundS.vulgare Streptosporangium sp.	1 6 2	0.9288 0.0495 0.0208	0.5289 0.5145 0.5583	0.3629 0.2637 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000
031		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	v a	0.7963 0.2035 0.0001	0.4690 0.4452 0.5498	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0.003 0.007 0.000

5	Į
2	j
Ē	Ì
∵ <u>∓</u>	1
2	
2	ì
0	l
0	Ì
¢)
Р	ò
्रत	j
F	

		Best Three Identification	SA.				
		Cluster			Ider	stification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising t Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
033	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 1 2	0.6921 0.2900 7710.0	0.5031 0.5326 0.5435	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 000.0 00000
034	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 25	0.8222 0.1707 0.0064	0.4551 0.4347 0.5143	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0.011 0.020 0.000
035		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 2 1	0.8222 0.1707 0.0064	0.4551 0.4347 0.5143	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0.011 0.020 0.000
037		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 2 1	1000°0 1000°0	0.4955 0.5551 0.6011	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
038		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	0.6921 0.2900 0.0177	0.5031 0.5326 0.5435	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000
660		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 5 1	1000.0 1000.0	0.4955 0.5551 0.6011	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
040		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	155	0.4226 0.3342 0.2432	0.5881 0.5731 0.5988	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
041		Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp.	v - 2	0.9885 0.0107 0.0008	0.4968 0.5745 0.5771	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0000 00000

g
nc
Ē
S
3
ble
Tal

		Best Three Identifications					
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
042	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 - 2	0.9885 0.0107 0.0008	0.4968 0.5745 0.5771	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000
043		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 2 2	0.9975 0.0010 0.0006	0.5543 0.6089 0.6605	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
044		Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S. corrugatumS. longisp Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	10 10 1 6	0.7126 0.1591 0.1257	0.5201 0.5666 0.5361	0.3687 0.3629 0.3161	0.000 0.000 0.000
045		Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S.corrugatundS.longispo Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	10 57 <i>um</i> 2	0.6798 0.3202 0.0000	0.4825 0.5285 0.6217	0.3687 0.3629 0.3575	0.001 0.000 0.000
046		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	0.6614 0.3282 0.010 4	0.5246 0.5075 0.5226	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	0.000 0.000 0.000
047		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - 4	0.9600 0.0369 0.0002	0.5118 0.5770 0.5364	0.3575 0.3629 0.3186	0.000 0.000 0.000
048		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 - 5	0.6921 0.2900 0.0177	0.5031 0.5326 0.5435	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000

		Best Three Identification	IS				
		Cluster			Ide	atification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
049	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 9 2	0.9818 0.0181 0.0000	0.5517 0.5510 0.6080	0.3629 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000
050		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 - 0	0.7595 0.2371 0.0024	0.4447 0.5007 0.5075	0.300 0.3186 0.3629	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
051		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 74	0.9567 0.0362 0.0000	0.5118 0.5103 0.5684	0.3629 0.3575 0.5776	0000
052	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 4	0.6614 0.3282 0.0104	0.5246 0.5075 0.5226	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	000.0
054		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 7 4	0.7910 0.2089 0.0001	0.5291 0.5189 0.5364	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	000.0
057		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S. corrugatum/S. longisf Streptosporangium sp.	1 10 10 11	0.7090 0.2882 0.0020	0.5323	0.3687 0.3687 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000
058		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 1 2	0.9690 0.0286 0.0024	0.5182 0.5844 0.5364	0.3575 0.3629 0.3186	0000 00000 00000
059		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 4 0	0.8386 0.1177 0.0436	0.5228 0.4852 0.5277	0.3629 0.3186 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000

		Best Three Identification	SL				
		Cluster			Ider	tification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
090	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Y east extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 1	0.9893 0.0107 0.0000	0.5434 0.6114 0.5825	0.3575 0.3629 0.31212	00000
061		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - v	0.9978 0.0012 0.0010	0.5964 0.6734 0.6796	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	000.0 0000.0 0000.0
062		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 12	0.8446 0.1553 0.0001	0.5493 0.5349 0.5492	0.3629 0.3575 0.1717	000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 00
063		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	s - 1 s	0.9214 0.0429 0.0357	0.4846 0.5553 0.5193	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0000 00000 000000
064		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 - 5	0.5293 0.4703 0.0004	0.5593 0.5848 0.6193	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	00000
065		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	6 2 1	0.9703 0.0248 0.0033	0.5184 0.5049 0.5145	0.3629 0.3575 0.3161	00000
066		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 5 5	0.9930 0.0063 0.0006	0.5393 0.5989 0.6279	0.3575 0.3687 0.3629	0.0000000000000000000000000000000000000
067		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseumlS.vulgare Streptosporangium sp.	vo -	0.6200 0.3400 0.0203	0.4948 0.4765 0.5505	0.3687 0.2637 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000

continued
22
Table

		Best Three Identification	IS				
		Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
690	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium roseum/S.vulgare Streptosporangium sp.	6 7	0.6874 0.2886	0.4765 0.5235	0.2637 0.3575	0.000.0
070		Sireptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium so	- 0-4	0.0239 0.6921 0.2900	0.5534 0.5031 0.5326	0.3629 0.3575 0.3575	0.000
071		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - V	0.7856 0.2096 0.0048	0.4207 0.4859 0.4948	0.3675 0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000
072		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 0 v	0.8722 0.120 4 0.0075	0.4840 0.4661 0.4948	0.3629 0.3575 0.3687	0.000
073		Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S. corrugatum/S. longis Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	10 <i>vorum</i> 1	0.5176 0.2904 0.1920	0.4948 0.5380 0.5607	0.3687 0.3575 0.3575	0.000 0.00
074		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 0	0.8545 0.0980 0.0413	0.5536 0.5001 0.5474	0.3629 0.3186 0.3575	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
075		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S. corrugatum/S. longisj Streptosporangium sp.	1 10 2	0.7853 0.1439 0.0701	0.5548 0.5323 0.5597	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	0.000 000.0 000.0

continued
3
Table

		Best Three Identification	S				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Wilkox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
076	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	v - v	0.8053 0.1943 0.0004	0.4641 0.4965 0.5315	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	000.0 000.0
<i>LT</i> 0		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 0 1	0.5368 0.4626 0.0006	0.4879 0.4689 0.5001	0.3629 0.3575 0.3186	000.0 100.0
078		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseumJS. vulgare	- 76	0.5045 0.4951 0.0004	0.5339 0.5175 0.5499	0.3629 0.3575 0.2637	0000 00000 00000
610		Siteptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 1 2	0.6921 0.2900 0.0177	0.4641 0.4660 0.5076	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.001 0.000 0.000
080		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S. corrugatum/S. longii Streptosporangium sp.	1 10 sporum 6	0.9897 0.0099 0.0003	0.5248 0.5076 0.5513	0.3629 0.3687 0.3161	0.000 000.00 0000.00
081		Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp.	0 - v	0.8053 0.1943 0.0004	0.4641 0.4965 0.5315	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.001 0.000 0.000
082		Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp.	- 7 N	0.7963 0.2035 0.0001	0.4690 0.4452 0.5489	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0.003 0.007 0.000
continued							

22							
Table							

Best Three Identifications

		Cluster			Iden	ttification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising r Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
083	579-581, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium amethystogenes/	1 10	0.9587 0.0403	0.4935 0.4956	0.3629 0.3687	0.000
		S. corrugatum/S. longisp Streptosporangium sp.	orum 2	0.0011	0.5448	0.3575	0.000
084		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - v	0.5539 0.4098 0.0731	0.4582 0.5034 0.4648	0.3575 0.3629	0.002
085		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 5 2 -	0.0004	0.4117 0.3890 0.3890	0.3687 0.3575 0.3575	0.000
086		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - 10	0.2818	0.4939 0.5251 0.571	0.3629 0.3629 0.3627	100.0 000.0
093	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsau, Republic of Korea Heat and phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 2 2	0.4226 0.3342 0.2432	0.5551 0.5393 0.5664	0.3687 0.3687 0.3575 0.3620	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
0 94		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseum/S. vulgare	- 6	0.9154 0.0492	0.5505 0.5145	0.2637	0.000
		Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.0336	0.5501	0.3575	0.000
660	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 6 1	0.5191 0.4549 0.0216	0.4895 0.4351 0.4758	0.3629 0.3161 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000

Table 22 continued

		Best Three Identification	SU				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising - Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
100	583-584, Ginseng field (post harvest) Kumsan, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sn.	2 5 6	0.7419 0.1760 0.0745	0.5138 0.5544	0.1212 0.3687	0.000
101		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	, v v –	0.9852	0.5308	0.3161 0.3687 0.3687	00000
102		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 20 -	0.09852 0.0142 0.0006	0.5308 0.5308 0.5308	0.3687 0.3687 0.3687	00000
103		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	561	0.5191 0.4549 0.0216	0.4895 0.4351 0.4758	0.3629 0.3161 0.3575	0000 00000 00000 00000 00000 00000
104	443-444, Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India Heat	Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp.	7 8 1	0.8156 0.0738 0.0000	0.5850 0.5603 0.4342	0.3629 0.2743 0.1212	000.0
106	443-444, Garden soil, IMTECH, Chandigarh, India Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium roseundS.vulgare Streptosporangium sp.	06 -	0.6762 0.3097 0.0084	0.4947 0.4765 0.5388	0.3575 0.2637 0.3629	0000.0
111	433-434, Garden soil, Hibuya Park, Tokyo, Japan. Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 2 1	0.5686 0.29 6 9 0.1296	0.5659 0.5569 0.6164	0.3687 0.3575 0.3629	0000 0000 0000
114	435-436, Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan Heat	Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp.	5 1 4	0.8083 0.1775 0.0122	0.3958 0.4455 0.4360	0.3687 0.3629 0.3186	1.100 0.014 0.000

Table 22 continued

		Best Three Identification	SU				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
115	435-436, Garden soil, Tsukuba University, Tsukuba, Japan Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	4 10	0.7351 0.2450 0.0198	0.4360 0.4551 0.5125	0.3186 0.3687 0.3687	0.000 0.011
117	482 489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. amethystogenes/ S. corrugatundS.longisp. Streptosporangium so.	1 10 <i>orum</i> 11	0.7090 0.2882 0.0000	0.5323	0.3687	00000
122	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia Heat and Phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 5 6	0.17419 0.1760 0.0745	0.5138 0.5544 0.5647	0.1212 0.3687 03161	0000 00000 00000
124	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp. Sireptosporangium sp.	4 S L	0.7351 0.2450 0.0198	0.4360 0.4551 0.5125	0.3186 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000
128	482-489, Tropical rainforest soil, Meru Betini, Indonesia Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	0 - v	0.7856 0.2096 0.0048	0.4207 0.4859 0.4948	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000
130	515-516, Garden soil, Yokyakarta, Indonesia Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	00 77	0.7381 0.1160 0.0949	0.5524 0.5256 0.5023	0.3629 0.2743 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000
131		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	5 5 6	0.7419 0.1760 0.0745	0.5138 0.5544 0.5647	0.1212 0.3687 0.3161	0.000 0.000 0.000
132		Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp.	- 4 8	0.6155 0.2339 0.0896	0.5985 0.5506 0.5671	0.3629 0.3186 0.2743	0.000 0.000 0.000

	C	1
	ē	S
	Ē	3
	C	1
•	Ē	í
	Ĉ	1
	C	2
	Č	Ì
,	~	1
2		ì
	1	
	¢	ł
	Ĉ	2
	ā	7
	~	

		Best Three Identifications	20				
		Cluster			Ider	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising t Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
133	515-516, Garden soil, Yokyakarta, Indonesia Heat	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	11	0.0160 0.0160 0.038	0.5825 0.5492 0.6184	0.1212 0.1212 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000
135	515-516, Garden soil, Yokyakarta, Indonesia Heat and Phenol	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	s - 1	0.5958 0.2077 0.1960	0.5085 0.5456 0.5069	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.000 0.000 0.000
138	515-516, Garden soil, Yokyakarta, Indonesia Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	و 1	0.4073 0.2405 0.1932	0.5647 0.5771 0.6077	0.3161 0.3687 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
139		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	- 5 6	0.4073 0.2405 0.1932	0.5647 0.5771 0.6077	0.3161 0.3687 0.3629	000.0 000.0
140		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	e 1 5	0.8251 0.1548 0.0180	0.5255 0.5985 0.5647	0.3575 0.3629 0.3161	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
141		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	3 1 12	0.6317 0.2312 0.1241	0.5538 0.6217 0.5492	0.2514 0.3629 0.1212	0.000 0.000 0.000
143	604-605, Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea Heat	Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S.corrugatum/S.longisp Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	10 10 1 3	0.7033 0.2727 0.0123	0.5881 0.6292 0.5868	0.3687 0.3629 0.2514	000.0 000.0 000.0
144	604-605, Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korca Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	6 1 2	0.8251 0.1548 0.0180	0.5255 0.5985 0.5647	0.3575 0.3629 0.3161	000.0 000.0

B
2
Tri
ō
3
<u></u> <i>G</i>
ğ
Lal

		Best Three Identification	22				
		Cluster			Ide	ntification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distan <i>c</i> e	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
146	604-605, Woodland soil, Mount Sorak, Republic of Korea Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	3 1 12	0.6317 0.2312 0.1241	0.5538 0.6217 0.5492	0.2514 0.3629 0.1212	000.0 0.000
147		Streptosporangium amethystogenesl S.corrugatum/S.longispo Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	10 27um 3	0.7033 0.2727 0.0123	0.5881 0.6292 0.5868	0.3687 0.3629 0.2514	0.000 000.0 000.0
148	576-577, Soil rich in humus Keswick, England, U.K. Sodium dodecyl sulphate	Streptosporangium Streptosporangium amethystogenes/ S.corrugatundS.longisp Streptosporangium sp.	1 10 <i>orum</i> 2	0.5732 0.4265 0.0003	0.4914 0.4825 0.5758	0.3629 0.3687 0.3575	0.001 0.001 0.000
149		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	12 6 1	0.5915 0.4085 0.0000	0.4342 0.4942 0.5764	0.1212 0.3161 0.3629	0.000 0.000 0.000
150	576-577, Soil rich in humus Keswick, England, U.K. Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	2 I 2	0.5533 0.4391 0.0044	0.4757 0.5383 0.5808	0.1212 0.3629 0.3575	0.000 0.000 0.000
151		Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp. Streptosporanzium sp.	0 - 2	0.5906 0.4092 0.0002	0.4038 0.4558 0.4948	0.3575 0.3629 0.3687	0.270 0.005 0.000
152		Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp. Streptosporangium sp.	1 1 2	0.5533 0.4391 0.0044	0.4757 0.5383 0.5808	0.1212 0.3629 0.3575	000.0 000.0

Table 22 continued

		Best Three Identification	S.				
		Cluster			Iden	tification Scores	
Strain Number (HJ)	Soil Numbers Comprising Composite Soil samples and Pretreatment Regimes	Name	Number	Willcox Probability	Taxonomic Distance	95% Taxonomic Radius	Gaussian Distance Probability
153	576-577, Soil rich in humus	Streptosporangium sp.	2	0.7856	0.3732	0.3575	2.122
	Keswick, England, U.K.	Streptosporangium sp.	1	0.2096	0.4455	0.3629	0.014
	Yeast extract	Streptosporangium sp.	5	0.0048	0.4551	0.3687	0.011

^a, Dry soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour; ^b, Dry soil suspension (10⁻¹) treated with sodium dodecyl sulphate (0.05%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes; c, Dry soil suspension treated with yeast extract (6%, w/v) at 40°C for 20 minutes; ^d, Dry soil heated at 120°C for 1 hour and then treated with phenol (1.5%, w/v) at 30°C for 30 minutes.

C. PYROLYSIS MASS SPECTROMETRY

The pyrolysis mass spectral data support the taxonomic integrity of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Figure 9, page 179). It is also evident that cluster 1 accommodates more variation than cluster 2 (Figures 9 and 10, pages 179 and 180) and that representatives of clusters 1 and 2 had little in common with the type strains of validly described species of *Streptosporangium* (Figures 11 and 12, pages 181 and 182), apart from *Streptosporangium roseum* TW 005 which was loosely associated with representatives of these clusters. It is also evident that the type strain of *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* subspecies *viridogriseum* has little in common with *bona fide* members of the genus *Streptosporangium*.

Six of the twelve isolates identified to cluster 1 using the stringent cut-off criteria were recovered in the group corresponding to this cluster. It is even more encouraging, however, that four of the ten organisms identified to cluster 1 in the computer-assisted identification using less stringent criteria, namely strains a020, a036, a055 and a056, were closely associated with the representatives of this taxon. Similarly, organisms identified to cluster 2 using the less stringent criteria, namely strains HJ 021, HJ 126 and HJ 129, were associated with the representatives of this taxon. The unidentified strains were assigned to two groups (Figures 13 and 14, pages 183 and 184). The group comprising strains c009, c131 and c149 was sharply separated from all of the remaining test strains (Figure 14, page, 184).



Figure 9 Ordination plot along the first two canonical variate axes showing the mean position of the representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (see Table 16, pages 105 to 108; Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). The first two axes accounted for 76% of the variation between strains.

▲ Representatives of cluster 1; ■ Representatives of cluster 2; * Centrotype strains.



Figure 10 Dendrogram representing the relationships found between representative *Streptosporangium* strains from clusters 1 and 2 (see Table 16, pages 105 to 108; Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). The dendrogram is based on similarity values derived from Mahalanobis distances with clustering achieved using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic averages algorithm.

*, Centrotype strains.



First Canonical Variate

Figure 11 Ordination plot along the first two canonical variate axes showing the mean position of the representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and type strains of validly described *Streptosporangium* species (see Table 16, pages 105 to 108). The first two axes accounted 67% of the variation between strains.

▲ Representatives of cluster 1, ■ Representatives of cluster 2; *, Centrotype strains and Type strains.



Figure 12 Dendrogram representing the relationships found between representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and the type strains of validly described *Streptosporangium* species (see Table 16, pages 105-108). The dendrogram is based on similarity values derived from Mahalanobis distances with clustering achieved using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic average algorithm.

S, Streptosporangium; *, Centrotype strains.



Figure 13 Ordination plot along the first two canonical variate axes showing the mean position of representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and isolates identified to clusters 1 and 2 together with unidentified strains (see Table 16, pages 105 to 108). The first two axes accounted for 71% of the variation between strains.

A Representatives of cluster 1; Representatives of cluster 2;
Strains identified to cluster 2;
Unidentified strains; * Centrotype strains.



Figure 14 Dendrogram representing the relationships found between representatives of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 (Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) and isolates identified to clusters 1 and 2 together with unidentified strains (see Table 16, pages 105 to 108). The dendrogram is based on similarity values derived from Mahalanobis distances with clustering achieved using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic averages algorithm.

A, representatives of cluster 1; B, representatives of cluster 2; a, representative isolates identified to cluster 1; b, representative isolates identified to cluster 2; c, representative unidentified isolates; *, centrotype strains.

D. 5S RIBOSOMAL RNA SEQUENCING

The 5S ribosomal RNA of all nine test strains consisted of 120 nucleotides with the same sequences being found in some of the loop regions of the secondary structure, namely regions bLc, c'Lb', b'Ld (Figure 15, page 186). The secondary structure models that were obtained are exemplified by the model for *Streptosporangium vulgare* TW 007 (Figure 16, page 187).

The 5S rRNA sequences of the strains were aligned by juxtaposing the defined secondary structures which were then divided into fifteen regions (Figure 15, page 186). *Streptosporangium* strain HJ 090 (cluster 1) had the same 5S rRNA nucleotide sequence as the centrotype strain (TW 292) of streptosporangial cluster 2 (Whitham, 1988; Table 23, page 188). In contrast, *Streptosporangium albidum* TW 006 and *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* subspecies *viridogriseum* TW 021 showed low homology values with the remaining test strains. It is evident from the phylogenetic tree (Figure 17, page 189) that these latter organisms form a distinct evolutionary line. Strain HJ 011, which was identified to cluster 1 in the computer-assisted identification exercise based on the less stringent identification criteria, showed a low similarity with the other strains.

STRAIN NAME			NUMBER		10		20		30	64
Streptosporangiu	ım albidun		TW 006*	on no	GGUGGU	3000G	CGGAGGG	GAAAC	GCCCGG	UCCCAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangiu	um pseudo	vulgare	TW 004*	UUUAC	GOCOGU 1	JAUG (JCGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangiu	um isolate		HJ 011	uu no	GGUGGU (CAUA (BCGUGAGG	GAAAC	GCCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangiu	um isolate		060 TH	UUCAC	GGCGGU 1	UAUG (3CGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangi	um amethy	stogenes	TW 001*	UUCAO	GGCGGU 1	UAUG (3CGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangi	um vulgarı	8)	TW 007*	AUUAC	CGCCGCU 1	UAUG (JCGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangi	um sp.		TW 166	UU AC	CGCGGU 1	UAUG (GCGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangi	um sp.		TW 292	UUCAC	CGCGGU	UAUG (GCGAAGGG	GAAAC	ACCCGG	UUACAUUCCGAAC
Streptosporangi viridoeriseum	um viridog	priseum subsp.	TW 021*	o nn	GGUGGU	GUUG	GCGGAGGG	GAAAC	GCCCGG	UCCCAUUCCGAAC
0	ł				A	aLb	B	bLc	J	cLc'
50		60	70		80	6		100		110 120
CCGGAAGC	UAAG	CCCUCCUGC	GCCGAL	JGGUA	CUGCACUC	GUGA	GGGUGUG	G GAGA	GUAGGAC	GCUGCCGAACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAGC	CCCGAL	JGGUA	CUGCACCG	GGGA	COGUGUG	G GAGA	GUAGGUC	GCCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGC	UAAG	CCUUACAG	C GCCGAL	NGGUA	CUGCAGGG	GGGA	CCCUGUG	G GAGA	GUAGGAC	GCCGCCGAACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAG	C GCCGAI	UGGUA	CUGCACCG	GGGA	CGGUGUG	G GAGA	NGUAGGUC	GCCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAG	C GCCGAI	UGGUA	CUGCACCC	GGGA	CGGUGUG	G GAGA	NGUAGGUC	ACCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAG	C GCCGAI	UGGUA	CUGCACCC	GGGA	CGGUGUC	G GAGA	NGUAGGUC	GCCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAG	C GCCGAI	NGGUA	CUGCACCC	GGGA	CGGUGUC	G GAGA	AGUAGGUC	GCCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGU	UAAG	CUCUUCAG	c GCCGAI	NGGUA	CUGCACCC	GGGA	CGGUGUC	3G GAG/	AGUAGGUC	GCCGCCGGACA
CCGGAAGC	UAAG	cccuccue	c GCCGA	NGGUA	CUGCACUC	C GUGA	GGGUGUC	GAG/	AGUAGGAC	GCUGCCGAACA
IJ	c'Lb'	B	1.9	P	D	qrq,	Ō	-	d'La'	Α'
Figure 15 S	equence	e alignment o	f 5S rRNA:	s from 5	marker an	d 4 unide	ntified strai	ns of <i>Stre</i>	ptosporang	jium.
Base paired	regions	: A, A', B, B'	, C, C', D a	nd D'; lc	op regions	: aLb, bL	c, cLc', c'Lb	i, b'Ld, d	Ld' and d'L	a'; *, type strain.



Figure 16 Secondary structure model of the 5S rRNA of Streptosporangium vulgare TW 007.

*, Base pairing.

Strain Name	Number		5	e B	4	S	9	L	∞	6
1. Streptosporangium albidum	TW 006*	100								
2. Streptosporangium pseudovulgare	TW 004*	60	100							
3. Streptosporangium isolate	HJ 011	72	62	100						
4. Streptosporangium isolate	060 (H	59	98	60	100					
5. Streptosporangium amethystogenes	TW 001*	57	76	59	98	100				
6. Streptosporangium vulgare	TW 007*	59	98	60	76	95	100			
7. Streptosporangium sp.	TW 166**	72	87	73	87	85	87	100		
8. Streptosporangium sp.	TW 292**	59	98	60	100	98	76	87	100	
9. Streptosporangium viridogriseum subsp. viridogriseum	TW 021*	86	60	58	60	58	58	60	60	100

Table 23 Homology percentage matrix of 5S rRNA sequences of Streptosporangium strains

*, Type strain; **, centrotype strain.



Figure 17 Phylogenetic tree showing relationships among selected streptosporangia based on 5S rRNA sequence data. *, Type strains; +, centrotype strains (Whitham, 1988; Whitham et al., 1993).

E. RAPID ENZYME TESTS

Inclusion of the seventeen duplicated strains in the fluorogenic enzyme tests enabled experimental test error to calculated (Table 24, pages 191 to 193). The average probability of an erroneous test result (p) calculated from the pooled variance (Si^{2}) for all of the strains was 0.29%. The percentage positive frequencies for each of the conjugated fluorogenic substrates for all of the test strains is given in Table 24, pages 191 to 193. Twenty-two 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin and seven 4-methylumbelliferone substrates were deleted from the final data matrix as they were not of any differential value. The final data matrix, therefore, contained information on 142 strains and 42 tests. The raw enzymatic data for all of the test strains is given in Appendix D.

Very little taxonomic structure was obtained when the information in the final database was examined using the D_p , S_J and S_{sm} coefficients and the UPGMA algorithm. This somewhat disappointing result can be attributed to the small number of unit characters involved. It was, however, encouraging that some of the test strains can be distinguished by their capacity to cleave particular conjugated substrates (Table 25, pages 194 to 196).

Table 24 Test error calculated from comparison of the rapid enzyme test data from the seventeen duplicated cultures together with the percentage positive values for all of the test strains

Substrate	Agreement between Duplicated Strains (%)	Test Variance (Si ²)	% of Strains Positive+
A. 7-amino-4-methylcoumarins (7AMC)			
Endopeptidase substrates			
Boc- <i>iso</i> -L-Leucine-L-glutamine-glycine-L-arginine-HCl- 7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Boc-L-Leucine-glycine-L-arginine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Boc-L-Valine-L-leucine-L-lysine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Boc-L-Valine-L-proline-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Bz-L-Valine-glycine-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Glutaryl-glycine-glycine-L-phenylalanine-7AMC	100	0.000	98
Succinyl-L-alanine-L-alanine-L-phenylalanine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Succinyl-glycine-L-proline-7AMC	100	0.000	99
Succinyl-L-leucine-L-leucine-L-valine-L-tyrosine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Succinyl-L-leucine-L-tyrosine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Z-L-Arginine-L-arginine-7AMC	100	0.000	98
Z-Glycine-glycine-L-leucine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Z-Glycine-L-proline-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Exopeptidase substrates		•	
D-Alanine-TFA-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Alanine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
β-Alanine-TFA-7AMC	100	0.000	99
L-Arginine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Arginine-L-arginine-3HCl-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Asparagine-TFA-7AMC	100	0.000	96
Asparate-7AMC	100	0.000	52
L-Cysteine(Bzl)-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Glutamine-HCI-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
Glycine-HBr-7AMC	100	0.000	91

Substrate	Agreement between Duplicated Strains (%)	Test Variance (Si ²)	% of Strains Positive+
Glycine-L-proline-HBr-7AMC	100	0.000	99
L-Histidine-7AMC	100	0.000	99
iso-L-Leucine-TFA-7AMC	100	0.000	94
L-Leucine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Methionine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Proline-HBr-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Pyroglutamate-7AMC	100	0.000	76
L-Serine-HCl-7AMC	100	0.000	97
L-Tyrosine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Valine-7AMC	100	0.000	99
Other peptidase substrates			
L-Alanine-L-phenylalanine-L-lysine-2TFA-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
L-Lysine-L-alanine-7AMC*	100	0.000	100
B. 4-Methylumbebelliferones (4MU)			
Glycosides			
4MU-2-Acetamido-4,6-o-benzylidene-2-deoxy-β-D- glucopyranoside	100	0.000	97 83
4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D-galactopyranoside	93.72	0.009	02
4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D-glucopyranoside	100	0.000	90
4MU-N-Acetyl-β-D-galactosamine	100	0.000	95
4MU-N-Acetyl-β-D-glucosamine	100	0.000	89
4MU-β-D-Cellobiopyranoside	100	0.000	99
4MU- α -L-Fucopyranoside	100	0.000	95
4MU-β-D-Fucoside	100	0.000	99
4MU-β-L-Fucoside	100	0.000	99
4MU-α-D-Galactoside	100	0.000	94
4MU-β-D-Galactoside	100	0.000	99
4MU-α-D-Glucoside*	100	0.000	100
4MU-β-D-Glucoside*	100	0.000	100
4MU-a-D-Glucuronide	96.97	0.029	82

Table 24 continued

Table 24 continued

Substrate	Agreement between Duplicated Strains (%)	Test Variance (Si ²)	% of Strains Positive+
4MU-β-D-Maltoside	96.97	0.029	96
4MU-α-D-Mannopyranoside	100	0.000	97
4MU-β-D-Mannopyranoside	100	0.000	57
4MU-β-D-Ribofuranoside	100	0.000	62
4MU-2,3,5-Trio-o-benzyl- α -L-arabinofuranoside	100	0.000	99
4MU-β-D-Xylopyranoside	100	0.000	98
4MU-β-D-Xyloside	100	0.000	99
Inorganic esters			
Bis-(4MU)-Phosphate	100	0.000	96
4MU-Phosphate*	100	0.000	100
4MU-Pyrophosphate	100	0.000	99
4MU-Sulphate	100	0.000	94
Organic esters			
4MU-Eicosanoate*	100	0.000	100
4MU-Elaidate*	100	0.000	100
4MU-Heptanoate*	100	0.000	100
4MU-Laurate	100	0.000	97
4MU-Lignocerate	96.97	0.029	94
4MU-Myristate	96.97	0.029	77
4MU-Octadecanoate	100	0.000	74
4MU-Palmitate	100	0.000	97
4MU-Pentadecanoate	100	0.000	60
4MU-Protected acetate*	100	0.029	100
4MU-Stearate	100	0.000	98

+, Data for duplicated strains not included.

*, Tests for which all of test strains gave positive results.

Abbreviations: Boc, tert-butyloxycarbonyl; Bz, benzoyl; Bzl, benzyl; HBr, hydrogen bromide; HCl, hydrochloride; TFA, trifluoroacetate; Z, benzyloxycarbonyl.

ethylcoumarin and 4-methylumbelliferone derivatives.	Streptosporangium album" Streptosporangium amethystogenes" Streptosporangium corrugatum" Streptosporangium vordiastaticum" Microtetraspora fluar sp.=e (TW141) Streptosporangium vulgare" Microtetraspora fluar sp.=e (TW141) Streptosporangium sp.=e (TW141) St	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1			1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	
arin ar	*2118072 muignorogeniz	1			1	1	0 1
m	*nuna corrugatum corrugatum	1			1	-	0
ylco	* 2019201010112 million amilano representation and anti-	1			1	1	-
leth	*nudb muignorogeoideri2	1			1	1	1
-4-m	*mubidio muignoroqeo12	1			-	1	1
Streptosporangium to cleave 7-amino-		Strain Numbers	A. 7-amino-4-methylcoumarins (7AMC)	Endopeptidase substrates	Glutaryl-glycine-glycine-L- phenylalanine-7AMC	Succinyl-glycine-L-proline-7AMC	Z-L-Arginine-L-arginine-7AMC

Table 25 Ability of centrotype strains of the streptosporangial clusters (Whitham, 1988; Whitham et al., 1993) and type

strains of validly described species of the genera Microbispora, Microtetraspora, Planobispora, Streptomyces and

ped
ntin
25 cc
Table

Strain Numbers	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-				-	-	-	-	-	-		-			_
Exopeptidase substrates																						
Asparate-7AMC	0	1	1	0	0	1		-		-	-	1			-	-		-	c	-	-	c
Glycine-HBr-7AMC	1	1	1		0	1	1		_	0			-	·	·	-	« 		> 			> -
iso-L-Leucine-TFA-7AMC	1		7	1	0	1					-				C	•	4 🚗					
L-Pyroglutamate-7AMC	1			1	0	-	1			_			0	•	ò	• ••••		-				
L-Serine-HCI-7AMC	1	-	1	1	1	1	1			-	1		-	-) O	• ••••	•					
B. 4-Methyhumbelliferone (4MU)																				I	I	ı
Glycosides																						
4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-β-D- galactopyranoside	1	1	1		-	-	1			-	0	1	1		-	1	1	Ţ	-	-		1
4MU-N-Acetyl-β-D-glucosamine	1	1	1		1		1	-		-	0			-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-
4MU-α-D-Galactoside	1	1			1	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	0			-	•					
4MU-α-D-Glucuronide	1	1	-	1	1	1	0	1		_	-	1	0	1	0	0		•	•			
4MU-β-D-Mannopyranoside	Π	-		1	1	0	0	1		_	****	0	1	1	0	-		· 				
4MU-B-D-Ribofuranoside	0		1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1		0						- 0	
Inorganic ester																						
4MU-Sulphate	1	1		1	1	1	1	1		-	0		0	1		1			-	-		
Organic esters																			1	•		•
4MU-Laurate	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-			-	-	-	-
4MU-Lignocerate	1		1	1	*****	1	-	1		-			0				·	•	•			- 0
												1	,	•	•	>	-	-	-	-	-	>

continued
Table 25 (

Suain Numbers	-	-	-	1		1	, ,		-	_	T.	1		1	I	1	1	-	-	-	1	_
4MU-Myristate	0	-	-	-	-	-		0						0	0	-	0	c	-	-		-
4MU-Octadecanoate	1	1	1	Ħ	0	1			-				-	, ,			~ -	~ -	•		> -	
4.MU-Pentadecanoate	1	1	1	-	-	0	-	-			0			• •	~ -	•	•			> -		> -
								ĺ)	l	>	•	4	•	•	•	-	4	>	-

Boc, tert-butyloxycarbonyl; Bz, benzoyl; Bzl, benzyl; HBr, hydrogen bromide; HCl, hydrochloride; TFA, trifluoroacetate; Z, benzyloxycarbonyl.

*, Type strains.

**, Centrotype strains: TW166 (cluster 1), TW292 (cluster 2), TW116 (cluster 4), TW141 (cluster 6) and TW213 (cluster 8) (Whitham, 1988; Whitham et al., 1993).

DISCUSSION

A. SELECTIVE ISOLATION

There is compelling evidence to show that the discovery of previously unknown bioactive compounds occurs when rare and novel microorganisms, notably actinomycetes, are examined using new and existing screening systems (Nolan and Cross, 1988; Okami and Hotta, 1988). Members of the order *Actinomycetales* have been the most widely exploited group of microorganisms in terms of biotechnological applications (Cross, 1982; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Labeda and Shearer, 1991). Antibiotics, enzymes and enzyme inhibitors of commercial importance have been produced by large-scale cultivation of members of this taxon for the past 50 years with new products being discovered, patented and marketed every year. There is, therefore, a strong incentive to use natural, in addition to genetically engineered, microorganisms in pharmacological screening programmes designed to discover replacement antibiotics and biopharmaceutics needed to meet growing consumer demand for natural products (Bull *et al.*, 1992).

The numerical predominance of streptomycetes in soils explains why the majority of secondary metabolites from actinomycetes discovered and developed in the 1950s and 1960s were from these organisms. The capacity of streptomycetes to produce new natural products remains unsurpassed though members of other actinomycete genera are becoming increasingly important as a source of novel products (Okami and Hotta, 1988; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Labeda and Shearer, 1991). It is, therefore, important that new isolation procedures are developed to ensure a steady supply of novel and uncommon actinomycetes for both high and low throughput screens.

It is difficult to know which kinds of actinomycetes should be selected for screening since commercially important products such as antibiotics and enzymes are produced by members of taxonomically diverse genera. It can be useful to know whether there is any relationship between the class of compound sought and specific taxa. Actinoplanes strains, for instance, are known to be a source of polyether ionophore antibiotics, Actinomadura strains produce depsipeptides and Micromonospora strains aminoglycoside, ansamacrolide and macrolide antibiotics (Labeda and Shearer, 1991). It may, however, be much more productive, in terms of the discovery of novel compounds, to screen actinomycete groups that have received relatively little attention. Members of the family Streptosporangiaceae, including the type genus, Streptosporangium, can be cited to exemplify this point. Little is known about the occurrence, numbers, kinds or activities of such organisms in natural habitats (Goodfellow, 1991).

There are several reasons why the extent of actinomycete diversity in natural environments is underestimated. These include difficulties in achieving a representative sample of actinomycetes from heterogeneous substrates such as soil (Hopkins *et al.*, 1991), absence of accepted criteria for delineating species and genera (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993), and a lack of objective and effective selective isolation procedures (Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989; Bull *et al.*, 1992). However, given developments in actinomycete systematics it is now possible to develop reliable strategies for the selective isolation, classification and identification of members of specific taxa and to recognise and characterise novel organisms.

It is important that taxonomy reflects the extent of the natural diversity of actinomycetes in natural habitats. In practice, the number of species in a genus is still markedly influenced by the aims of the taxonomist, the extent to which the taxon has been studied, the criteria used to define the species, and the ease by which strains can be brought into pure culture (Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989, 1993). The fact that there are over 150

described taxospecies of *Streptomyces* (Williams *et al.*, 1989) but only 15 validly described species of *Streptosporangium* may merely be due to the current preeminence of the former in actinomycete biology.

One of the primary aims of the present investigation was to further unravel the extent of variation encompassed by the genus *Streptosporangium* by evaluating the taxonomic databases generated by Whitham (1988) for the classification and identification of these organisms. In particular, Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry was used to evaluate the taxonomic integrity of representative numerically circumscribed clusters of streptosporangia and to check the identity of strains examined using the numerical identification procedure. Experiments were also carried out to determine the value of fluorogenic enzyme tests in the rapid circumscription of streptosporangia isolated from natural habitats.

The selectivity of isolation procedures for actinomycetes is influenced by factors that include the nature of pretreatment regimes and the selectivity of isolation media and incubation conditions. Innumerable procedures have been recommended for the selective isolation of specific actinomycete genera from natural habitats (Cross, 1982; Williams and Wellington, 1982; Nolan and Cross, 1988) but little attempt has been made to determine their effectiveness. The importance of evaluating how effective selective isolation procedures are was underlined in the present investigation when it was demonstrated that the vast majority of the actinomycetes from pretreated soil growing on HV agar supplemented with actidione (50mg/l) and nalidixic acid (30mg/l) and incubated for 4 weeks at 30°C were streptomycetes.

In the present investigation streptosporangia were isolated from ten of the twelve composite soil samples using selective isolation procedures (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a; Nonomura, 1984; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a; Nonomura

199

and Hayakawa, 1988) that involved the application of various pretreatment regimes prior to plating soil dilutions onto HV agar supplemented with actidione and nalidixic acid. Streptosporangial colonies were recognised by their capacity to produce spore vesicles on an abundant aerial mycelium. The numbers of streptosporangia fell within the range $3.8 \pm 2.2 \times 10^3$ to $7.9 \pm 1.19 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, but there was no obvious correlation between the counts and the pH, moisture content or organic matter content of the composite soil samples. Counts within the recorded range are similar to those reported by Nonomura and his colleagues for Japanese soils (Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1960, 1969a, b; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a, b; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988; Hayakawa *et al.*, 1991). The failure to isolate streptosporangia from the acidic Mount Bromo (Indonesia) and Brazilian rainforest soils suggests that these organisms cannot cope with low pH regimes. Slightly acidic, humic rich garden soils are considered to offer favourable habitats for streptosporangia (Nonomura, 1984; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988).

The highest actinomycete counts, including those for streptosporangia, were consistently found with the composite soil samples that were subject to the less extreme pretreatment regimes, namely the heat pretreatment of 10⁻¹ dilutions of air dried soil in the presence of either sodium dodecyl sulphate or yeast extract. The highest actinomycete counts were recorded for composite soil 8, that is, post-harvested Ginseng soil, that was pretreated with yeast extract for 20 minutes at 40°C prior to dilution and plating onto HV agar supplemented with actidione and nalidixic acid and incubation at 30°C for 4 weeks. Previous studies have also shown that there is a marked decrease in streptosporangial numbers when dried soil is heated at 120°C for an hour (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a, b; Whitham, 1988). The results of the present study show that it is no longer necessary to use

such drastic pretreatment regimes for the selective isolation of streptosporangia and related organisms from environmental samples.

The highest numbers of microbisporae and microtetrasporae were also observed on isolation plates seeded with soil suspensions containing yeast extract and heated for 20 minutes at 40°C. It was also evident that heat pretreated soil (120°C for an hour) treated with phenol at 30°C for half an hour favoured the growth of microbisporae as opposed to microtetrasporae and streptosporangia; similar results were reported by Nonomura and Hayakawa (1988). Nevertheless, the highest counts of microbisporae, $6.18 \pm 0.76 \times 10^4$ colony forming units per gram dry weight soil, were obtained with suspensions of composite soil 8 pretreated with yeast extract. It is evident from the present study that this latter procedure is the most effective one of those studied for isolating microbisporae, microtetrasporae and streptosporangia from soil.

It is evident both from this and earlier investigations (Couch, 1955a; Nonomura and Ohara, 1960; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a, b; Nonomura and Hayakawa, 1988; Hayakawa *et al.*, 1991; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) that streptosporangia are more common and widely distributed in soil than was suggested by early studies (Van Brummelen and Went, 1957; Potekhina, 1965). Nevertheless, it is evident from the present study that the vast majority of actinomycetes growing on HV isolation plates, irrespective of the pretreatment regime, are almost invariably streptomycetes. Clearly more effective procedures are needed for the selective isolation of streptosporangia from natural habitats. It is possible that treating dried soil with a solution of benzethonium chloride prior to preparing a dilution series and plating onto HV agar will reduce the number of streptomycetes and thereby foster the recovery of streptosporangia (Hayakawa *et al.*, 1991).

201

B. CLASSIFICATION

The family Streptosporangiaceae forms a distinct phyletic line (Stackebrandt and Schleifer, 1984; Stackebrandt, 1986; Kudo et al., 1993; Ochi et al., 1993) that encompasses six genera defined primarily by a few judiciously chosen morphological and chemical properties. Stackebrandt et al. (1993) found that while streptosporangia share a number of chemical and morphological features they fell into two groups based on the discontinuous distribution of some chemical markers known to be a value in actinomycete systematics (Goodfellow, 1989; Suzuki et al., 1993). All of their test strains were known to have a wall chemotype III (Lechevalier and Lechevalier, 1970), a fatty acid pattern 3c (Kroppenstedt, 1985), 2-hydroxy fatty acids (Kroppenstedt and Goodfellow, 1991) and DNA rich in guanine plus cytosine (Nonomura, 1989). The majority of species, including Streptosporangium roseum, the type species, had a phospholipid pattern type IV (Lechevalier et al., 1977) and predominant menaquinones of the MK-9 (H₂) and MK-9 (II, VIII-H₄), MK-9 and /or MK-9 whereas the type strains of Streptosporangium albidum, (H₆) type Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies kofuense and Streptosporangium viridogriseum subspecies viridogriseum had a phospholipid pattern type II and principal menaquinones of the MK-9 (II, III- H_4) type. The division of the genus into two groups is supported by scanning electron microscopy studies on the morphology of spores and spore vesicles (Nonomura, 1989), electrophoretic mobility of ribosomal protein AT-L30 (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992) and the results of 16S rDNA (Kemmerling et al., 1993) and 5S rRNA sequencing analyses (Kudo et al., 1993).

The 5S rRNA sequencing and Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometric analyses carried out in the present investigation provided further evidence of the heterogeneity of the genus *Streptosporangium*. Bacterial 5S rRNAs can be assigned to three groups based on differences in their primary and secondary structures (Hori and Osawa, 1986; Park *et al.*, 1987a, b, 1991, 1993). Those from Gram-positive bacteria with a low genomic G+C content (< 55 mol %) usually have 116 nucleotides, five base-pairs and a U-U mismatch in the D-D' helix. Ribosomal RNAs from actinomycetes and Gram-negative bacteria have around 120 nucleotides and eight base-pairs in the D-D' region. It was clear from the primary and secondary structures of the 5S rRNAs that all nine test strains had sequences belonging to the 120 nucleotide group typical of actinomycetes (Simoncsits, 1980; Dekio *et al.*, 1984; Dams *et al.*, 1987; Park *et al.*, 1987a, b, 1991, 1993).

The phylogenetic tree generated from the 5S rRNA sequence data showed that representatives of the five validly described species of *Streptosporangium* formed two phyletic lines, one containing the type strains of *Streptosporangium* amethystogenes, *Streptosporangium pseudovulgare* and *Streptosporangium* and *streptosporangium viridogriseum* subspecies viridogriseum. These findings confirm and extend the earlier 5S rRNA sequencing studies of Kudo et al. (1993). They also provide further evidence that small rRNA sequencing studies can be used to establish fine evolutionary relationships between prokaryotes (Hori and Osawa, 1986; Van den Eynde et al., 1990), including actinomycetes (Dekio et al., 1984; Park et al., 1987a, b, 1991, 1993).

The type strain of Streptosporangium viridogriseum was found as an outlier when representative strains of Streptosporangium were analysed by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. Nine of the remaining ten type strains were assigned two broad groups, one containing Streptosporangium albidum, to Streptosporangium corrugatum, Streptosporangium amethystogenes, Streptosporangium nondiastaticum, Streptosporangium pseudovulgare and

203

Streptosporangium vulgare, and the second Streptosporangium fragile, Streptosporangium violaceochromogenes and Streptosporangium viridialbum. The recovery of the type strain of Streptosporangium albidum in the first group is puzzling as it is clear from other studies that this organism is closely related to Streptosporangium viridogriseum (Mertz and Yao, 1990; Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Stackebrandt et al., 1993). The remaining organism, the type strain of Streptosporangium roseum, formed a single membered cluster. These data provide further evidence that pyrolysis mass spectrometry can be used as a quick and effective way of evaluating the taxonomic integrity of actinomycete taxa (Hindmarch et al., 1990; Sanglier et al., 1992).

The clustering of *Streptosporangium* species according to the chemotaxonomic and morphological features outlined above is in excellent agreement with the phylogenetic analysis of representatives of the two clusters (Kemmerling *et al.*, 1993). 16S rDNA analysis indicated a close similarity between *Streptosporangium roseum*, *Streptosporangium nondiastaticum* and *Streptosporangium pseudovulgare*, *Streptosporangium corrugatum* was also associated with this group. In contrast, the type strain of *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* subspecies *viridogriseum* showed a closer similarity to members of the family *Pseudonocardiaceae* than to other *Streptosporangium* species.

It is evident from the present and earlier studies (Nonomura, 1989; Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Kemmerling *et al.*, 1993; Kudo *et al.*, 1993; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1993; Whitham *et al.*, 1993) that *Streptosporangium albidum* and *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* cannot be retained within the genus *Streptosporangium*. Differences in the primary structure of 5S and 16S rRNA, as well as in chemotaxonomic properties, between members of the two streptosporangial groups are greater than those found to separate genera of the family *Streptosporangiaceae*. In light of these findings the genus Streptosporangium should be restricted to Streptosporangium roseum and its relatives, namely Streptosporangium album, Streptosporangium amethystogenes, Streptosporangium carneum, Streptosporangium corrugatum, Streptosporangium fragile, Streptosporangium longisporum, Streptosporangium nondiastaticum, Streptosporangium pseudovulgare, Streptosporangium violaceochromogenes, Streptosporangium viridialbum and Streptosporangium vulgare. It is, however, possible that additional studies will support the exclusion of Streptosporangium corrugatum from the genus as substantial differences exist between this organism and Streptosporangium roseum in the primary structure of 16S rRNA (Kemmerling et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993) and in the amino acid sequence of the AT-L30 protein (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992).

It is clear from both phenotypic and genotypic data that Streptosporangium viridogriseum should be classified in the family Pseudonocardiaceae, adjacent to but distinct from Saccharothrix australiensis (Kemmerling et al., 1993; Kudo et al., 1993; Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993). Streptosporangium albidum and Streptosporangium viridogriseum form a distinct taxon but can be separated on the basis of chemical and DNA relatedness data (Stackebrandt et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993; Whitham et al., 1993). Consequently, there is a wealth of evidence to support the proposal that Streptosporangium albidum and Streptosporangium viridogriseum be classified in the genus Kutzneria as proposed by Stackebrandt et al., (1993).

The proposal for the genus *Kutzneria* leaves the genus *Streptosporangium* as a relatively homogeneous taxon with characteristic genotypic and phenotypic properties. The exclusion of the two species from the genus *Streptosporangium* together with additional information on *bona fide* members of the taxon justify an emendation of this genus.

Emended description of *Streptosporangium* Couch 1955, 148^{AL}

Strep.to.spotan'gi.um. Gr.adj. streptos twisted; Gr. n. spora a seed; Gr.n. angeion a vessel; M.L.neut.n. Streptosporangium spore coiled within a sporangium.

The description is based on the characteristics given by Nonomura (1989), Stackebrandt *et al.* (1993) and Whitham *et al.* (1993) together with information from the present study.

Aerobic, Gram-positive, non-acid fast actinomycetes that form a stable branched mycelium. Globose spore vesicles, up to 10 μ m in diameter, are formed on aerial hyphae. Sporangiophores are produced by septation of a coiled, unbranched hypha within the spore vesicle; they are oval, spherical or rod shaped (0.2-1.3 x 0.2-1.5 μ m) and non-motile. Some strains require B vitamins for growth. All are mesophilic and chemoorganotrophic with an oxidative type of metabolism.

Streptosporangia degrade casein and gelatin, produce hydrogen sulphide, use cellobiose as a sole carbon source and grow in the presence of crystal violet (0.001%, w/v). They also cleave a range of conjugated substrates that include Boc-*iso*-L-leucine-L-glutamine-glycine-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC, Boc-L-leucine-Boc-L-valine-L-leucine-L-lysine-7AMC, Boc-Lglycine-L-arginine-7AMC, valine-L-proline-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC, Bz-L-valine-glycine-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC, succinyl-L-alanine-L-alanine-L-phenylalanine-7AMC, succinyl-L-leucine-L-leucine-L-valine-L-tyrosine-7AMC, succinyl-L-leucine-L-tyrosine-7AMC, Zglycine-glycine-L-leucine-7AMC, Z-glycine-L-proline-7AMC (endopeptidases); D-alanine-TFA-7AMC, L-alanine-7AMC, L-arginine-7AMC, L-arginine-Larginine-3HCl-7AMC, L-cysteine(Bzl)-7AMC, L-glutamine-HCl-7AMC, Lleucine-7AMC, L-methionine-7AMC, L-proline-HBr-7AMC, L-tyrosine-7AMC (exopeptidases); L-alanine-L-phenylalanine-L-lysine-2TFA-7AMC, L-lysine-L- $4MU-\beta$ -D-fucopyranoside, alanine-7AMC (other peptidases); 4MU-

206

~\$

galactopyranoside, $4MU-\alpha$ -D-glucopyranoside, $4MU-\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside, $4MU-\alpha$ -D-glucoside, $4MU-\beta$ -D-glucoside (glycosides); 4MU-phosphate (inorganic ester); 4MU-eicosanoate, 4MU-elaidate, 4MU-heptanoate and 4MU-protected acetate (organic esters).

Cell walls contain N-acetylated muramic acid, *meso*-diaminopimelic acid but no characteristic sugars. Whole-organism hydrolysates contain madurose. Major phospholipids include diphosphatidylglycerol, hydroxyphosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylinositol, phosphatidylinositol mannosides and a n-acetylglucosamine containing phospholipid but no phosphatidylcholine. Predominant menaquinones are MK-9 (H₂) and MK-9 (II, VIII-H₄), MK-9 and/ or MK-9 (H₆). Complex mixtures of straight and branched chain fatty acids are formed. The mol % G+C of the DNA is 69-71 (Tm). The primary habitat is soil.

The type species is *Streptosporangium roseum* Couch 1955, 151^{AL}.

All twelve of the validly described species of *Streptosporangium* mentioned earlier have properties consistent with their assignment to this revised taxon. Numerical and chemical data also support the taxonomic integrity of these species (Mertz and Yao, 1990; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1993; Whitham *et al.*, 1993).

The species concept remains a difficult theme in prokaryotic systematics (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). Early definitions of actinomycete species were often based on monothetic groups described on the basis of a few morphological, pigmentation and biochemical features. This concept of speciation is clearly flawed as strains which vary in key characters will be misclassified. It is, however, now good practice to distinguish a taxospecies, a group of strains that share a high proportion of properties from a genomic species, a group of organisms which share high DNA relatedness values. It can be anticipated that the application of polyphasic taxonomy, that is, the use of a comprehensive set of
phenetic and genomic data for the circumscription of species will lead to better classifications and hence to more reliable methods for the identification of prokaryotic species (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993).

The emended genus *Streptosporangium* is well circumscribed given an impressive set of data derived from extensive chemical, molecular and numerical taxonomic studies (Ochi and Miyadoh, 1992; Kemmerling *et al.*, 1993; Stackebrandt *et al.*, 1993; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). In contrast, the circumscription and definition of *Streptosporangium* species is still weak with the majority of species regarded as taxospecies (Whitham *et al.*, 1993). However, the extensive numerical taxonomic survey of streptosporangia carried out by Whitham and his colleagues was never meant to be an end in itself but as a means to an end.

It is widely acknowledged that relationships expressed in numerical taxonomies can be distorted by factors such as test and strain selection, test error and by the genetic instability of the organisms under examination (Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1993). It is important, therefore, that numerical taxonomies are checked in light of independent taxonomic features derived from the application of other modern taxonomic techniques, that is, by adopting the polyphasic approach to classification (Colwell, 1970; Murray *et al.*, 1990). In the present study, the pyrolysis mass spectral data support the taxonomic integrity of streptosporangial clusters 1 and 2 as defined by Whitham *et al.* (1993). These data, taken together with those from an earlier study on streptomycetes (Sanglier *et al.*, 1992) indicate that pyrolysis mass spectrometry can be used as a rapid and reliable way of determining the taxonomic status of numerically defined clusters.

C. IDENTIFICATION

Good classification is a prerequisite of accurate identification. This means that the quality of a frequency matrix is only as good as the classification from which it was derived. It is necessary in practice to have at least as many tests as taxa in frequency matrices (Sneath and Chater, 1978; Priest and Williams, 1993). The frequency matrix generated by Whitham (1988) fulfils this latter criterion. This matrix, which is based on twelve numerically defined clusters and twenty-six diagnostic tests, was shown to be theoretically sound. In addition, it was used together with the MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1979a) in the identification of a small number of unknown streptosporangia from soil (Whitham, 1988). One of the primary aims of the present investigation was to extend these preliminary studies.

It has repeatedly been stressed that experience is needed to interpret identification scores based on Willcox probabilities, taxonomic distances and standard errors of taxonomic distances (Lapage *et al.*, 1973; Sneath, 1978; Williams *et al.*, 1983b; Priest and Williams, 1993). Thus, use of Willcox probabilities alone can lead to false positive results for unknown strains when data for the unknown taxon/ taxa are not included in the frequency matrix (Willcox *et al.*, 1973; Priest and Williams, 1993). Such anomalous results can be attributed to the normalisation process in the calculation of this coefficient. Values for taxonomic distance and its standard error are not deceptive in this way (Sneath, 1979a). In the present study, the application of the 95% taxonomic radius and Gaussian probability coefficients proved useful in the definition of acceptable identification scores.

The need to evaluate frequency matrices using strains that were not used in their construction has also been emphasised (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Williams *et al.*, 1983b; Langham *et al.*, 1989; Priest and Williams, 1993). The percentage of unknown strains identified partly reflects the choice of cut-off points and the state of the taxonomy of the organisms under study. Consequently, the criteria chosen for a successful identification tend to be somewhat arbitrary (Williams *et al.*, 1985a; Priest and Williams, 1993). As stated earlier, the widely adopted criteria for the identification of streptomycetes are Willcox probabilities greater than 0.850, low scores for taxonomic distance and its standard error, all scores significantly better than those for the next best alternatives, and a small number of characters of the unknown cited as being atypical of those of the cluster to which it has been assigned. More stringent criteria have been recommended for the identification of aerobic endospore-forming bacilli (Priest and Alexander, 1988), "coryneform" bacteria (Hill *et al.*, 1978), mycobacteria (Wayne *et al.*, 1980) and Gram-negative bacteria (Lapage *et al.*, 1973; Dawson and Sneath, 1985; Homes, 1986a, b).

The MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1979a) and the frequency matrix of Williams *et al.* (1983b) have been used to identify unknown neutrophilic streptomycetes from several distinct natural habitats and to evaluate media formulated for the selective isolation of uncommon and rare streptomycetes (Vickers *et al.*, 1984; Williams *et al.*, 1984a; Goodfellow and O'Donnell, 1989). Thus, 81% of neutrophilic streptomycetes from soil (Williams *et al.*, 1983b; Langham *et al.*, 1989), 44% from freshwater habitats (Stanton, 1984), 70% from marine sediments (Goodfellow and Haynes, 1984) and 30% of alkalitolerant streptomycetes have been identified using these procedures (Saddler, 1988). Corresponding studies have been carried out on bacteria other than streptomycetes.

Probabilistic identification of Gram-negative isolates has been especially effective. Of more than nine hundred strains of fermentative Gram-negative bacteria and over six hundred strains of non-fermenters, 98% (Holmes *et al.*, 1986a) and 92% (Holmes *et al.*, 1986b) respectively were identified using the Willcox probability coefficient at > 0.999. Similarly, of nearly two hundred and fifty vibrios isolated from freshwater habitats, most (72% at a Willcox probability > 0.999 or 79% at Willcox probability > 0.990) were identified using a 50-test

matrix (Dawson and Sneath, 1985). Results from similar studies on Gram-positive bacteria have not been so encouraging. Hill *et al.* (1978) only identified half of nearly three hundred strains of "coryneform" bacteria using a Willcox probability of > 0.999. Similarly, mycobacteria (47% of 298 strains at > 0.99; Wayne *et al.*, 1980) and aerobic, endospore-forming bacilli (70% of 58 strains at > 0.95; Priest and Alexander, 1988) have proved difficult to identify.

Two related explanations can be offered to account for the low identification values cited above. First, the nature of the unidentified isolates. It seems probable that almost all of these isolates are representatives of undescribed species that were not included in the frequency matrix. It is, of course, possible that some will be atypical strains of established species but these are probably a minority. Genera such as *Bacillus* and *Streptomyces* have been overclassified in the past but are now underclassified with many new species awaiting description (Sanglier *et al.*, 1992; Labeda and Lyons, 1991a, b; Atalan, 1993; Priest, 1993).

A second reason is that some taxospecies, such as *Bacillus megaterium* (Hunger and Claus, 1981), *Bacillus polymyxa* (Nakamura, 1987a), *Bacillus subtilis* (Nakamura, 1987b, 1989), *Streptomyces cyaneus* (Labeda and Lyons, 1991a), *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* and *Streptomyces violaceusniger* (Labeda and Lyons, 1991b) are species-groups. Probabilistic identification to such taxa will almost invariably result in low scores given the variation encompassed by the taxon and overlap with neighbouring taxa. Thus, poor identification is a function of inadequate classification as mentioned earlier. In contrast, Gram-negative genera of medical interest have been extensively studied with relatively few species awaiting description. Such species are homogeneous and in most cases comprehensive phenotypic descriptions have been supported by DNA homology studies.

In the present investigation, the frequency matrix recommended by Whitham (1988) was comprehensively evaluated using seventy representatives of the twelve major *Streptosporangium* clusters defined in the initial numerical taxonomic survey (Whitham *et al.*, 1993). The identification scores obtained for these organisms were critically examined and cut-off points set for the identification of both marker strains and unknown isolates derived from the selective isolation studies. Sixty-five of the seventy marker strains were assigned to their parent clusters using stringent identification criteria, namely Willcox probability scores of 0.9700 or above, taxonomic distance scores below the corresponding 95% taxonomic radius scores, high Gaussian probability scores signifying that there was no significant overlap between the cluster strains were assigned to with the best identification scores being much better than the two next best alternatives. These cut-off criteria for a positive identification of streptosporangia are similar to those recommended by Whitham (1988).

The final logical step in the practical evaluation of a frequency matrix is to isolate new strains and attempt to identify them. In the present investigation, twelve of the one hundred and thirty-six unknown streptosporangia, isolated from a range of composite soils using several isolation procedures, were identified to known clusters using the stringent cut-off criteria mentioned earlier. Ten of the isolates were identified to cluster 1 (*Streptosporangium* sp.) and two to cluster 2 (*Streptosporangium* sp.). An additional twelve strains were assigned to cluster 1 and seven to cluster 2 using less stringent cut-off points. The remaining one hundred and five strains, that is, 77% of the isolates were not identified.

Surprisingly little attention has been given to validating identifications derived from probabilistic methods. In most cases identifications based on Willcox probabilities, either alone or in combination with other identification coefficients, have been accepted at face value. However, as mentioned earlier,

212

Willcox probability scores can sometimes be erroneously high for an unknown strain, when data for the appropriate taxon are not in the identification matrix. It is, therefore, important to obtain some information on the validity of the identifications. In the investigations carried out by Holmes *et al.* (1986a, b) identifications were validated using conventional identification schemes. This approach is sound for well classified taxa, such as constituents of the family *Enterobacteriaceae*, but is not practicable in the case of actinomycetes and aerobic, endospore-forming bacilli which are underclassified.

In an elegant study, DNA reassociation was used as an absolute measure of relatedness by which to assess phenetic identifications of unknown, aerobic endospore-forming bacilli (Priest and Williams, 1993). Representative isolates identified to various *Bacillus* species, namely *Bacillus amylolyticus, Bacillus circulans, Bacillus glucanolyticus, Bacillus lautus, Bacillus pabuli* and *Bacillus validus*, were compared against labelled DNA from reference strains. In all cases, the test strains showed more than 70% sequence similarity to DNA from the appropriate reference strain and less than 30% similarity to DNA from other reference strains. Thus, the phenotypic identifications were thoroughly validated. Other taxonomic methods, such as whole-organism protein electrophoresis, which are congruous with DNA similarity, could be used in place of DNA reassociation.

In the present study, fourteen of the thirty-one isolates identified to either clusters 1 or 2, and five unidentified streptosporangia, were compared with representatives of the two clusters using Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry. All six of the representative isolates identified to cluster 1 using the stringent cut-off criteria grouped with the representative strains of this cluster. In addition, the four representative isolates assigned to cluster 1 using the less stringent cut-off criteria were also recovered with the cluster 1 strains. Similarly, the identifications of the four isolates assigned to cluster 2 were validated by the PyMS data. In

contrast, the five unidentified isolates were assigned to two groups, one of which was sharply separated from clusters 1 and 2. These preliminary results are most encouraging as they suggest that Curie-point pyrolysis mass spectrometry can be used to validate phenotypic identifications and to set cut-off points for positive identification of strains in computer-assisted identification systems. It can also be concluded that the ability to analyse small amounts of bacterial growth with minimal sample preparation to obtain, in minutes, fingerprint data that can be used to validate phenotypic identifications is unparalleled by other taxonomic methods, including molecular fingerprinting techniques.

Rapid and reproducible tests are needed to distinguish between validly described species of *Streptosporangium* and to classify novel isolates prior to the examination of representative strains using more exacting taxonomic methods that cannot readily be used to classify large numbers of environmental isolates. In the present investigation, known and unidentified streptosporangia were screened against seventy-one fluorogenic enzyme tests using an automated procedure that had been successfully used to classify representatives of closely related fast growing species of mycobacteria (Hamid *et al.*, 1993) and to assign streptomycetes taken from selective isolation plates to three putatively novel species (Atalan, 1993). The low test error of 0.29% recorded for the streptosporangia compared favourably with the corresponding figures from the earlier studies (p 5.8%, Hamid *et al.*, 1993; p 4.9%, Atalan, 1993).

The results of the present study are in good agreement with those from previous investigations as they show that rapid enzyme tests based on the fluorophores 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin (7AMC) and 4-methylumbelliferone (4MU) provided data of value for the classification and identification of actinomycetes (Goodfellow *et al.*, 1987b, c, 1988, 1990b, 1991; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1993; Whitham *et al.*, 1993). It has already been pointed out that some of the

rapid enzyme tests provide data that can be used to strengthen the definition of the genus *Streptosporangium*, others have potential for the circumscription of streptosporangial species. It was, however, disappointing that only forty-two of the seventy-one tests, that is, 59%, gave data of differential value; consequently there was insufficient information in the database to assign the unidentified isolates to artificial groups. Clearly additional enzymatic tests are needed for artificial grouping of streptosporangia isolated from natural habitats. Possible areas of development have been considered in recent review articles (Manafi *et al.*, 1991; Goodfellow and James, 1993; James, 1993).

D. FUTURE STUDIES

The results of the present study show that the emended genus *Streptosporangium* is a well defined taxon. It is evident from the numerical phenetic data that the revised genus is grossly underspeciated and that minimal standards are needed to delineate both existing and putatively novel species. Additional comparative taxonomic studies need to be carried out on well chosen representative strains to determine the most appropriate methods likely to be of value. A number of powerful chemical and molecular techniques, such as ribotyping and quantitative analyses of cellular fatty acids and whole-organism proteins, can be expected to yield high quality data for improved classification. In addition, representatives of existing and presumptively new taxospecies should be the subject of DNA relatedness studies.

The application of suitable chemical and molecular methods on representatives of the genus *Streptosporangium* should help unravel the diversity encompassing by this taxon. This is turn will help in the development of improved methods for the identification of unknown streptosporangia and thereby facilitate the taxonomic approach to selective isolation of specific fractions of the streptosporangial community from natural habitats. In the first instance, selective media for this purpose should be formulated using information in the taxonomic database generated by Whitham (1988).

The current procedures used to determine the number and types of streptosporangia in soil invariably involve plating out tenfold dilutions of pretreated environmental samples onto selective media. The results of such experiments are influenced by the properties of the environmental samples, the effect of extraction and recovery procedures, competition on isolation plates and difficulties in identifying isolates. It seems likely, however, that more effective representative sampling of streptosporangia would be achieved using the dispersion and differential centrifugation technique introduced by Hopkins et al. (1991). This technique has been shown to be three to twelve times more effective in extracting streptomycete propagules from a range of soil samples than the conventional reciprocal shaking procedure (Atalan, 1993). These results suggest that actinomycete-soil interactions may be major limitations to quantitatively sampling and that the use of sodium cholate, Tris buffer and mild ultrasonication are effective in breaking down such interactions. It may also be possible to directly identify streptosporangia on isolation plates by examining small samples of colonial growth using pyrolysis mass spectrometry and analysing the resultant data using neural networks.

The results of the fluorogenic enzyme tests, although disappointing, were sufficiently encouraging to suggest that streptosporangia might show species specific patterns. However, additional studies on representative strains and further conjugated substrates are needed to prove the point. Fortunately, there is still scope for the design and synthesis of additional 7AMC and 4MU derivatives in order to extend the range of enzymatic activities detectable (Goodfellow and James, 1993; James, 1993). Thus, the short chain esters of 4MU could be of considerable taxonomic value but their use is currently limited by stability problems. Recently, a protected 4MU-acetate was synthesised by James and found to be more stable than 4MU-acetate. Its value in actinomycete systematics has also been demonstrated. Additional protected esters, including ones for butyrate and propionate, are being synthesised. The range of peptidase substrates that can be obtained is even greater with 7AMC derivatives available for most of the known aminopeptidases and many endopeptidases.

The fluorescence generated by 7AMC and 4MU is intense and usually easily detected. Fluorescence in the blue region has, however, certain disadvantages, particular where organisms produce pigments which fluoresce. Such endogenous fluorescence is generally in this blue region. Alternative fluorophores are available which fluoresce in other regions of the visible spectrum (James, 1993). These include 6-aminoquinoline, resorufin and trifluoroethyl coumarins. These fluoresce in yellow, orange-red and green regions, respectively. The number of substrates based on such fluorophores is currently limited but it is possible that improved methods of synthesis and greater demand may lead to greater availability.

Another potentially valuable area of development could be the search for taxonomically useful enzymatic activities that are not normally included in identification protocols. An example of one such activity has been demonstrated using the compound anthranilonitrile (Whitehead, 1989). This non-fluorescent molecule is converted to the highly fluorescent amide or to the acid by the activity of nitrile hydratases and/ or nitrilases (Figure 18, page 218). Within the family *Pseudonocardiaceae*, *Amycolata* strains were separated from *Amycolatopsis*, *Pseudonocardia* and *Saccharopolyspora* strains by their capacity to form strong blue fluorescence due to the conversion of anthranilonitrile to the amide or acid. Similarly, the conversion of Haloxon (3-chloro-7-hydroxy-4-methylcoumarin-bis-





со₂н

(Nitrilase)

[2-chloroethyl]-phosphate) to 3-chloro-7-hydroxy-4-methylumbelliferone causes an intense sky-blue fluorescence under ultra-violet light. Most representatives of the family *Pseudonocardiaceae* are characterised by their ability to degrade Haloxon, exceptions include *Amycolata autotrophica*, *Amycolatopsis rugosa* and *Saccharomonospora viridis* (Whitehead, 1989).

The application of the strategy outlined above should help highlight minimal standards for the delineation of Streptosporangium species. It will not be possible to effectively apply the taxonomic approach to selective isolation in any subgeneric classification of comprehensive way until the the genus Streptosporangium is clarified. In the meantime representatives of the genus should be isolated from natural habitats using the more "gentle" isolation procedures highlighted in the present investigation and examined in pharmacological screening programmes. In conclusion, it should be remembered that objectively designed isolation procedures and target directed screening techniques still have a pivotal role to play in the search and discovery of novel bioactive compounds even in an era dominated by genetic engineering and molecular biology. Actinomycetes remain good friends with many secrets to share should we take the time and care to study them properly.

REFERENCES

ADRIAANS, B. AND SHAH, H. (1988). Fusabacterium ulcerans sp. nov. from tropical ulcers. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **38**, 447-448.

ALDERSON, G. (1985). The application and relevance of non-hierarchic methods in bacterial taxonomy. In *Computer-Assisted Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M, Jones., D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 227-273. Academic Press, London.

ALEXANDER, B. AND PRIEST, F.G. (1990). Numerical classification and identification of *Bacillus sphaericus* including some strains pathogenic for mosquito larvae. *Journal of General Microbiology* **136**, 367-376.

AMANN, R., LUDWIG, W. AND SCHLEIFER, K.H. (1988). β -subunit of ATPsynthase: a useful marker for studying the phylogenetic relationships of bacteria. Journal of General Microbiology 134, 2815-2821.

ANDERSEN, A.A. (1958). New sampler for the collection, sizing and enumeration of viable airborne particles. *Journal of Bacteriology* **76**, 471-484.

ARIES, R.E., GUTTERIDGE, C.S. AND OTTLEY, T.W. (1986). Evaluation of a low cost, automated pyrolysis mass spectrometer. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* 9, 81-98.

ATALAN, E. (1993). Selective Isolation, Characterisation and Identification of Some Streptomyces Species. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Newcastle upon Tyne. ATHALYE, M., LACEY, L. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1981). Selective isolation and enumeration of actinomycetes using rifampicin. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **51**, 289-298.

ATHALYE, M., GOODFELLOW, M., LACEY, J. AND WHITE, R.P. (1985). Numerical classification of *Actinomadura* and *Nocardiopsis*. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **35**, 86-98.

AUSTIN, B. AND COLWELL, R.R. (1977). Evaluation of some coefficients for use in numerical taxonomy of microorganisms. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* 27, 204-210.

BACKMANN, B. AND WEAVER, R.H. (1951). Rapid microtechniques for identification of cultures. V. Reduction of nitrates to nitrites. *Americal Journal of Clinical Pathology* **21**, 195-196.

BASCOMB, S., LAPAGE, S.P., CURTIS, M.A. AND WILLCOX, W.R. (1973). Identification of bacteria by computer : Identification of reference strains. *Journal* of General Microbiology **77**, 291-315.

BECKER, B., LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1965). Chemical composition of cell wall preparations from strains of various formgenera of aerobic actinomycetes. *Applied Microbiology* **13**, 236-243. BENEDICT, P.G., PRIDHAM, T.G., LINDENFELSER, H.H., HALL, H.H. AND JACKSON, R.W. (1955). Further studies in the evaluation of carbohydrate utilisation tests as aids in the differentiation of species of *Streptomyces*. Applied *Microbiology* **3**, 1-6.

BÉRDY, J. (1974). Recent developments in antibiotic research and classification of antibiotics according to chemical structure. Advances in Applied Microbiology 13, 309-406.

BÉRDY, J. (1984). New ways to obtain antibiotics. Chinese Journal of Antibiotics 7, 272-290.

BERKELEY, R.C.W., GOODACRE, R.C., HELYER, R. AND KELLEY, T. (1991). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry in the identification of micro-organisms. *Laboratory Practice* **39**, 81-83.

BLAND, C.E. AND COUCH, J.N. (1981). The family Actinoplanaceae. In The Prokaryotes, A Handbook of Habitats Isolation and Identification of Bacteria, Volume II (Starr, M.P., Stolp, H., Trüper, H.G., Balows, A. and Schlegel, H.G., Eds.), pp. 2004-2010. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.

BLAZEVIC, D.J. AND EDERER, G.M., Eds. (1975). Indole test. In *Principles* of Biochemical Tests in Diagnostic Microbiology, pp. 63-67. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

BOIRON, P. AND PROVOST, F. (1990). Enzymatic characterisation of *Nocardia* spp. and related bacteria by APIzym profile. *Mycopathologia* **110**, 51-56.

BOUSFIELD, I.J. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1976). The "rhodochrous" complex and its relationship with allied taxa. In *The Biology of the Nocardiae* (Goodfellow, M., Brownell, G.H. and Serrano, J.H., Eds.), pp. 39-65. Academic Press, London.

BRAZHNIKOVA, M.G., KONSTANTINOVA, N.V. AND MESENTSEV, A.S. (1972). Sibiromycin. Isolation and characterisation. *Journal of Antibiotics* 25, 668-673.

BRITTEN, R.J. AND KOHNE, D.E. (1966). Nucleotide sequence repetition in DNA. Carnegie Institute Yearbook 65, 78-106.

BRYANT, T.N., LEE, J.V., WEST, P.A. AND COLWELL, R.R. (1986). A probability matrix for the identification of species of *Vibrio* and related genera. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **61**, 469-480.

BULL, A.T., GOODFELLOW, M. AND SLATER, J.H. (1992). Biodiversity as a source of innovation in biotechnology. *Annual Review of Microbiology* **46**, 219-252.

BUNGAY, H. AND BUNGAY, M.L. (1991). Identifying microorganisms with a neural network. *Binary* 3, 51-52.

BURMAN, N.P., OLIVER, C.W. AND STEVENS, J.K. (1969). Membrane filtration techniques for the isolation from water of coli-aerogenes, *Escherichia coli*, faecal streptococci, *Clostridium perfringens*, actinomycetes and microfungi. In *Isolation Methods for Microbiologists* (Shapton, D.A. and Gould, G.W., Eds.), pp. 127-134. Academic Press, London.

CHAVES-BATISTA, A., SHOME, S.K. AND AMERICO DE RIMA, J. (1984). Streptosporangium bovinum sp. nov. from cattle hoofs. Dermatologia Tropica 2, 49-54.

CHUN, J., ATALAN, E., WARD, A.C. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1993). Artificial neural network analysis of pyrolysis mass spectrometric data in the identification of *Streptomyces* strains. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **107**, 321-326.

CHUN, J., ATALAN, E., KIM, S-B., KIM, H-J., HAMID, M. E., TRUJILLO, M. E., MAGEE, J. G., MANFIO, G. P., WARD, A. C. and GOODFELLOW, M. (1993). Rapid identification of streptomycetes by artificial neural network analysis of pyrolysis mass spectra. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* (in press).

COLLINS, M.D. (1993). Isoprenoid quinones. In *Chemical Methods in Prokaryotic Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 265-309. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

COLLINS, M.D. AND JONES, D. (1981). Distribution of isoprenoid quinone structural types in bacteria and their taxonomic implications. *Microbiological Review* **45**, 316-354.

COLLINS, M.D., FAULKNER, M. AND KEDDIE, R.M. (1984). Menaquinone composition of some sporeforming actinomycetes. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 5, 20-29.

COLWELL, R.R. (1970). Polyphasic taxonomy of bacteria. In *Culture Collections of Microorganisms* (Inzuka, H. and Hasegawa, T., Eds.), pp. 421-436. University of Tokyo Press, Tokyo.

CORKE, C.T. AND CHASE, F.E. (1956). The selective enumeration of actinomycetes in the presence of large numbers of fungi. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* **2**, 12-16.

COUCH, J.N. (1954). The genus Actinoplanes and its relatives. Transaction of the New York Academy of Sciences 16, 315-318.

COUCH, J.N. (1955a). A new genus and family of the Actinomycetales with a revision of the genus Actinoplanes. Journal of the Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society 71, 148-155.

COUCH, J.N. (1955b). Actinosporangiaceae should be Actinoplanaceae. Journal of the Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society 71, 269.

COUCH, J.N. (1963). Some new genera and species of Actinoplanaceae. Journal of the Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society 79, 53-70. COUCH, J.N. AND BLAND, C.E. (1974). The Actinoplanaceae. In Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology, Eighth Edition (Buchanan, R.E. and Gibbons, N.E., Eds.), pp. 706-723. The Williams and Wilkins Company, Baltimore.

COWAN, S.T. AND STEEL, K.J. (1974). Manual for the Identification of Medical Bacteria. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

CROOK, P., CARPENTER, C.C. AND KLENS, P.F. (1950). The use of sodium propionate in isolating Actinomyces from soils. Science 112, 656.

CROSS, T. (1970). The diversity of bacterial spores. Journal of Applied Bacteriology 33, 95-102.

CROSS, T. (1982). Actinomycetes: A continuing source of new metabolites. Developments in Industrial Microbiology 23, 1-18.

DAMS, E., YAMADA, T., DE BAERE, R., HUYSAMANS, E., VANDENBERGHE, A. AND DE WACHTER, R. (1987). Structure of 5S rRNA in actinomycetes and relatives and evolution of eubacteria. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* **25**, 255-260.

DAVIES, A.W., ATLAS, R.M. AND KRICHEVSKY, M.I. (1983). Development of probability matrices for identification of alaskan marine bacteria. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **33**, 803-810. DAVISON, W.H.T., SLANEY, S. AND WRAGG, A.L. (1954). A novel method of identification of polymers. *Chemistry and Industry* **44**, 1356.

DAWSON, C.A. AND SNEATH, P.H.A. (1985). A probability matrix for the identification of vibrios. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **58**, 407-423.

DEKIO, S., YAMASAKI, R., JIDOI, J., HORI, H. AND OSAWA, S. (1984). Secondary structure and phylogeny of *Staphylococcus* and *Micrococcus* 5S rRNAs. *Journal of Bacteriology* **159**, 233-237.

DE LEY, J. (1970). Molecular techniques and application in bacterial taxonomy. In *The Actinomycetales* (Prauser, H., Ed.), pp. 317-327. Gustav Fisher Verlag, Jena.

DE VOS, P., VAN LANDSCHOOT, A., SEGERS, P., TIJTGAT, R., GILLIS, M., BAUWENS, M., ROSSAU, R., GOOR, M., POT, B., KERSTERS, K., LIZZARAGA, P. AND DE LEY, J. (1989). Genotypic relationships and taxonomic localisation of unclassified *Pseudomonas* and *Pseudomonas*-like strains by deoxyribonucleic acid:ribosomal ribonucleic acid hybridisations. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **39**, 35-49.

DIXON, M. (1951). Manometric Methods as Applied to the Measurement of Cell Respiration and Other Processes. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

DOI ,R.H. AND IGARASHI, R.T. (1965). Conservation of ribosomal and messenger ribonucleic acid cistrons in *Bacillus* species. Journal of Bacteriology **90**, 384-390.

DONIS-KELLER, H. (1980). Phy M: An RNase activity specific for U and A residues useful in RNA sequence analysis. *Nucleic Acids Research* **8**, 3133-3142.

DONIS-KELLER, H., MAXAM, A.M. AND GILBERT, W. (1977). Mapping adenines, guanines and pyrimidines in RNA. *Nucleic Acids Research* 4, 2527-2537.

DUBNAU, D., SMITH, I., MORREL, P. AND MARMUR, J. (1965). Gene conservation in *Bacillus* species. I. Conserved genetic and nucleic acid sequence homologies. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the United States of America* 54, 491-498.

DUERDEN, B.I., ELEY, A., GOODWIN, L., MAGEE, J.T., HINDMARCH, J.M. AND BENNETT, K.W. (1989). A comparison of *Bacterioides ureolyticus* isolated from different clinical sources. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **29**, 63-73.

DU MOULIN, G.C. AND STOTTMEIER, K.D. (1978). The use of cetylpyridinium chloride in the decontamination of water for culture of mycobacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **36**, 771-773.

DUNN, G. AND EVERITT, B.S. (1982). An Introduction to Mathmetical Taxonomy. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

EMBLEY, T.M., O'DONNELL, A.G., ROSTRON, J. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1988). Chemotaxonomy of wall chemotype IV actinomycetes which lack mycolic acids. *Journal of Microbiology* **134**, 935-960.

228

ESHUIS, W., KISTMAKER, P.G. AND MEUZELAAR, H.L.C. (1977). Some numerical aspects of reproducibility and specificity. In *Analytical Pyrolysis* (Jones, C.E.R. and Cramers, C.A., Eds.), pp. 151-166. Elsevier Science Publishers BV, Amsterdam.

FALCONER, C., GOODFELLOW, M., O'DONNELL, A.G. AND WILLIAMS, E. (1993). The isolation of carbon monoxide utilising actinomycetes from soils. *FEMS Ecological Letters* (in press).

FARE, L.R., TAYLOR, D.P., TOTH, M.J. AND NASH, C.H. (1983). Physical characterisation of plasmids isolated from *Streptosporangium*. *Plasmid* 9, 240-246.

FARINA, G. AND BRADLEY, S.G. (1970). Reassociation of deoxyribonucleic acids from *Actinoplanes* and other actinomycetes. *Journal of Bacteriology* **102**, 30-35.

FARRIS, J.S. (1969). On the cophenetic correlation coefficient. Systematic Zoology 18, 279-285.

FISHMAN, W.H. AND GREEN, S. (1955). Microanalysis of glucuronide glucuronic acid as applied to β -glucuronidase and glucuronic acid studies. Journal of Biological Chemistry 215, 527-537.

FOX, G.E. AND STACKEBRANDT, E. (1987). The application of 16S rRNA cataloguing and 5S rRNA sequencing in bacterial systematics. *Methods in Microbiology* **19**, 405-458.

229

FOX, G.E., PECHMAN, K.G. AND WOESE, C.R. (1977a). Comparative cataloguing of 16S ribosomal ribonucleic acid: Molecular approach to prokaryotic systematics. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **27**, 44-57.

FOX, G.E., MAGRUM, L.J., BALCH, W.E., WOLFE, R.S. AND WOESE, C.R. (1977b). Classification of methanogenic bacteria by 16S ribosomal RNA characterisation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 74, 4537-4541.

FOX, G.E., STACKEBRANDT, E., HESPEL, R.B., GIBSON, J., MANILOFF, J., DYER, T.A., WOLFE, R.S., BALCH, W.E., TANNER, R.S., MAGRUM, L.J., ZABLEN, L.B., BLAKEMORE, R., GUPTA, R., BONEN, L., LEWIS, B.J., ATAHL, D.A., LUEHRSEN, K.R., CHEN, K.N. AND WOESE, C.R. (1980). The phylogeny of prokaryotes. *Science* **209**, 457-463.

FREEMAN, R., GOODFELLOW, M., GOULD, F.K., HUDSON, S.J. AND LIGHTFOOT, N.F. (1990a). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry for the rapid epidemiological typing of clinically significant bacterial pathogens. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **32**, 283-286.

FREEMAN, R., GOODFELLOW, M., GOULD, F.K. AND HUDSON, S.J. (1990b). Rapid epidemiological typing of clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus* epidermidis: A preliminary study with pyrolysis mass spectrometry. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene, Supplement **21**, 88-89.

FREEMAN, R., GOODFELLOW, M., WARD, A.C., HUDSON, S.J., GOULD, F.K. AND LIGHTFOOT, N.F. (1991). Epidemiological typing of coagulasenegative staphylococci by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **34**, 245-248.

FREEMAN, R., GOODACRE, R., SISSON, P.R., MAGEE, J.G., WARD, A.C. AND LIGHTFOOT, N.F. (1993). Rapid identification of species within the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex with an artificial neural network trained on pyrolysis mass spectra. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* (in press).

FRENCH, , G.L., TALSANIA, H. AND PHILLIPS, I. (1989). Identification of viridans streptococci by pyrolysis-gas chromatography. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **29**, 19-27.

FRENEY, J., DUPERRON, M.T., COURTIER, C., HANSEN, W., ALLARD, F., BOEFGRAS, J.M., MONGET, D. AND FLEURETTE, J. (1991). Evaluation of API Coryne in comparison with conventional methods of identifying coryneform bacteria. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **29**, 38-41.

FURUMAI, T., OGAWA, H. AND OKUDA, T. (1968). Taxonomic study on Streptosporangium albidum nov. sp. Journal of Antibiotics 21, 179-181.

GERRITSEN, T. AND WAISMAN, H.A. (1964). Homocystonuria: Absence of cystathionine in the brain. *Science* 145, 588.

GHUYSEN, J.M. (1968). Use of bacteriolytic enzymes in determination of wall structures and their role in cell metabolism. *Bacteriology Reviews* **32**, 425-464.

GILMOUR, J.S.L. (1937). A taxonomic problem. Nature 139, 1040-1042.

GOODACRE, R., KELL, D.B. AND BIANCHI, G. (1992). Neural networks and olive oil. *Nature* **359**, 594.

GOODFELLOW, M. (1971). Numerical taxonomy of some nocardioform bacteria. Journal of General Microbiology 69, 33-80.

GOODFELLOW, M. (1977). Numerical taxonomy. In CRC Handbook of Microbiology, Volume I. Bacteria, 2nd edition (Laskin, A.I. and Lechevalier, H.A., Eds.), pp. 579-597. CRC Press, Ohio.

GOODFELLOW, M. (1986). Actinomycete systematics: Present state and future prospects. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Szabó, G., Biró, S. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 487-496. Akadémiai Kaidó, Budapest.

GOODFELLOW, M. (1989a). Suprageneric classification of actinomycetes. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, volume IV (Williams, S.T., Sharpe, M.E. and Holt, J.G., Eds.), pp. 2333-2339. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore.

GOODFELLOW, M. (1989b). Maduromycetes. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, volume IV (Williams, S.T., Sharpe, M.E. and Holt, J.G., Eds.), pp. 2509-2510. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore. GOODFELLOW, M. (1991). The family *Streptosporangiaceae*. In *The Prokaryotes, 2nd Edition* (Balows, A., Trüper, H.G., Dworkin, M., Harder, W. and Schleifer, K.H., Eds.), pp.1115-1138. Springer-Verlag, New York.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND PIROUZ, T. (1982). Numerical classification of sporoactinomycetes containing *meso*-diaminopimelic acid in the cell wall. *Journal of General Microbiology* **128**, 503-527.

GOODFELLOW, M., AND WAYNE, L.G. (1982). Taxonomy and nomenclature. In *The Biology of the Mycobacteria, Volume I. Physiology, Identification and Classification* (Ratledge, C. and Stanford, J.S., Eds.), pp.471-521. Academic Press, London.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1983). Ecology of actinomycetes. Annual Review of Microbiology 37, 189-216.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND CROSS, T. (1984). Classification. In *The Biology of the Actinomycetes* (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp. 7-164. Academic Press, London.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND HAYNES, J.A. (1984). Actinomycetes in marine sediments. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Ortiz-Ortiz, L., Bojalil, L.F. and Yakoleff, V., Eds.), pp.452-472. Academic Press, New York.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND DICKINSON, C.H. (1985). Delineation and description of microbial populations using numerical methods. In *Computer* Assisted Bacterial Systematics (Goodfellow, M., Jones, D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 165-225. Academic Press, London.

GOODFELLOW, M., AND WILLIAMS, E. (1986). New strategies for the selective isolation of industrially important bacteria. *Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering Reviews* 4, 213-262.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND SIMPSON, K.E. (1987). Ecology of streptomycetes. Frontiers of Applied Microbiology 2, 97-125.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND O'DONNELL, A. G. (1989). Search and discovery of industrially significant actinomycetes. In *Microbial Products: New Approaches* (Baumberg, S, Rhodes, P.M. and Hunter, I.S., Eds.), pp. 343-383. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge

GOODFELLOW, M. AND JAMES, A.L. (1993). Rapid enzyme tests in the characterisation and identification of microorganisms. In *Identification of Pests* (Hawksworth, D.L., Ed.). C.A.B. International, Wallingford.

GOODFELLOW, M. AND O'DONNELL, A. G. (1993). Roots of bacterial systematics. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 3-54. Academic Press, London.

GOODFELLOW, M., ALDERSON, G. AND LACEY, J. (1979). Numerical taxonomy of *Actinomadura* and related actinomycetes. *Journal of General Microbiology* **112**, 95-111.

GOODFELLOW, M., EMBLEY, T.M. AND AUSTIN, B. (1985). Numerical taxonomy and emended description of *Reinbacterium salmoninarum*. Journal of General Microbiology 131, 2739-2752.

GOODFELLOW, M., WILLIAMS, S.T. AND ALDERSON, G. (1986). Transfer of *Kitasatoa purpurea* Matsumae and Hata to the genus *Streptomyces* as *Streptomyces purpureus* comb. nov. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* **8**, 65-66.

GOODFELLOW, M., HARWOOD, C.R. AND NAHAIE, M.R. (1987a). Impact of plasmids and genetic change on the numerical classification of staphylococci. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene, Series A 266, 60-85.

GOODFELLOW, M., LONSDALE, C., JAMES, A.L. AND MACNAMARA, O.C. (1987b). Rapid biochemical tests for the characterisation of streptomycetes. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **43**, 39-44.

GOODFELLOW, M., THOMAS, E.G. AND JAMES, A.L. (1987c). Characterisation of rhodococci using peptide hydrolase substrates based on 7amino-4-methylcoumarin. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 44, 349-355. GOODFELLOW, M., STACKEBRANDT, E. AND KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. (1988). Chemotaxonomy and actinomycete systematics. In *Biology of Actinomycetes'88* (Okami, Y., Beppu, T. and Ogawara, K., Eds.), pp. 233-238. Japan Scientific Societies Press, Tokyo.

GOODFELLOW, M., STANTON, L.J., SIMPSON, K.E. AND MINNIKIN, D.E. (1990a). Numerical classification of *Actinoplanes* and related genera. *Journal of General Microbiology* **136**, 19-36.

GOODFELLOW, M., THOMAS, E.G., WARD A.C. AND JAMES, A.L. (1990b). Classification and identification of rhodococci. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie 274, 299-315.

GOODFELLOW, M., ZAKRZEWSKA-CZERWINSKA, J., THOMAS, E.G., MORDARSKI, M., WARD, A.C. AND JAMES, A.L. (1991). Polyphasic taxonomic study of the genera *Gordona* and *Tsukamurella* including the description of *Tsukamurella wratislaviensis* sp. nov. *Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie* 275, 162-178.

GOODFELLOW, M., FERGUSON, E.V. AND SANGLIER, J.J. (1992). Numerical classification and identification of *Streptomyces* species. *Gene* **115**, 225-233.

GORDON, R.E. (1966). Some criteria for the recognition of Nocardia madurae (Vincent) Blanchard. Journal of General Microbiology 45, 355-364.

GOWER, J.C. (1966). Some distance properties of latent roots and vector methods in multivariate analysis. *Biometrika* 53, 325-338.

GRANGE, J.M. (1978). Fluorometric assay of mycobacterial group specific hydrolase enzymes. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* **31**, 378-381.

GRANGE, J.M. AND CLARK, K. (1977). Use of methylumbelliferone derivatives in the study of enzyme activities of mycobacteria. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* **30**, 151-153.

GREGORY, P.H. AND LACEY, M.E. (1963). Mycological examination of dust from mouldy hay associated with Farmer's lung disease. *Journal of General Microbiology* **30**, 75-88.

GRIMONT, P.A.D., IRINO, K. AND GRIMONT, F. (1982). The Serratia liquefaciens- S. proteamaculans- S. grimesii complex: DNA relatedness. Current Microbiology 7, 63-68.

GUPTA, K.C. (1965). A new species of the genus *Streptosporangium* isolated from an indian soil. *Journal of Antibiotics* 18, 125-127.

GUTTERIDGE, C.S. (1987). Characterisation of microorganisms by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Methods in Microbiology* **19**, 227-272.

GUTTERIDGE, C.S. AND NORRIS, J.R. (1979). A review of the application of pyrolysis techniques to the identification of microorganisms. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **47**, 5-43.

GUTTERIDGE, C.S., M^cFIE, H.J.H. AND NORRIS, J.R. (1979). Use of principal components analysis for displaying variation between programs of microorganisms. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* 1, 67-76.

GUTTERIDGE, C.S., VALLIS, L. AND M^cFIE, H.J.H. (1985). Numerical methods in the classification of microorganisms by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. In *Computer-Assisted Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M., Jones, D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 369-401. Academic Press, London.

HAMID, M.E., CHUN, J., MAGEE, J. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1993). Rapid characterisation and identification of mycobacteria using fluorogenic enzyme tests. *Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie* (in press).

HANCOCK, I.C. (1993). Analysis of cell wall constituents of Gram-positive bacteria. In *Methods in Prokaryotic Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O`Donnell, A. G., Eds.), pp. 63-84. Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

HANKA, L.J. AND SCHAADT, R.D. (1988). Methods for isolation of streptoverticillia from soils. *Journal of Antibiotics* XLI, 576-578.

HANKA, L.J., RUECKERT, P.W. AND CROSS, T. (1985). A method for isolating strains of the genus *Streptoverticillium* from soil. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **30**, 365-368.

HANKER, S. AND RABIN, A.N. (1975). Colour reaction streak test for catalasepositive microorganisms. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **2**, 463-464. HARTFORD, T. AND SNEATH, P.H.A. (1988). Distortion of taxonomic structure from DNA relationships due to different choice of reference strains. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* **10**, 241-250.

HASEGAWA, T., LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1979). Phospholipid composition of motile actinomycetes. *Journal of General and Applied Microbiology* **25**, 209-213.

HAYAKAWA, M. AND NONOMURA, H. (1987a). Humic acid-vitamin agar, a new medium for the selective isolation of soil actinomycetes. Journal of Fermentation Technology 65, 501-509.

HAYAKAWA, M. AND NONOMURA, H. (1987b). Efficacy of artificial humic acid as a selective nutrient in HV agar used for the isolation of soil actinomycetes. *Journal of Fermentation Technology* **65**, 609-616.

HAYAKAWA, M., KAJIURA, T. AND NONOMURA, H. (1991). New methods for the highly selective isolation of *Streptosporangium* and *Dactylosporangium* from soil. *Journal of Fermentation and Bioengineering* **72**, 327-333.

HERON, P.R. AND WELLINGTON, E.M.H. (1990). New method for extraction of streptomycete spores from soil and application to the study of lysogeny in sterile soil amended and nonsterile soil. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **56**, 1406-1412.

HILL, L.R. (1974). Theoretical aspects of numerical identification. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 24, 494-499.

HILL, L.R., LAPAGE, S.P. AND BOWIE, I.S. (1978). Computer assisted identification of coryneform bacteria. In *Coryneform Bacteria* (Bousfield, I.G. and Callely, A.G., Eds.), pp. 181-215. Academic Press, London.

HINDMARCH, J.M. AND MAGEE, J.T. (1987). The staphylococci: A classification and identification study using pyrolysis gas liquid chromatography. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* 11, 527-538.

HINDMARCH, J.M., MAGEE, J.T., HADFIELD, M.A. AND DUERDEN, B.I. (1990). A pyrolysis mass spectrometry study of *Corynebacterium* spp. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **30**, 137-149.

HIRSCH, C.F. AND CHRISTENSEN, D.L. (1983). Novel method for selective isolation of actinomycetes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **46**, 925-929.

HOLMES, B., PINNING, C.A. AND DAWSON, C.A. (1986a). A probability matrix for the identification of Gram-negative aerobic, non-fermentative bacteria that grow on nutrient agar. *Journal of General Microbiology* **132**, 1827-1842.

HOLMES, B., DAWSON, C.A. AND PINNING, C.A. (1986b). A revised probability matrix for the identification of Gram-negative, rod-shaped fermentative bacteria. *Journal of General Microbiology* **132**, 3113-3125.

HOPKINS, D.W., MACNAUGHTON, S.J. AND O'DONNELL, A.G. (1991). A dispersion and differential centrifugation technique for representatively sampling microorganisms from soil. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 23, 217-225.

HORI, H. AND OSAWA, S. (1986). Evolutionary change in 5S rRNA secondary structure and a phylogenetic tree of 54 5S rRNA species. *BioSystems* 19, 163-172.

HSU, S.C. AND LOCKWOOD, J.L. (1975). Powdered chitin agar as a selective medium for enumeration of actinomycetes in water and soil. *Applied Microbiology* **29**, 422-426.

HUNGER, W. AND CLAUS, D. (1981). Taxonomic studies on Bacillus megaterium and on agarolytic Bacillus strains. In The Aerobic, Endospore-forming Bacteria: Classification and Identification (Berkeley, R.C.W. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 217-240. Academic Press, London.

HUNTER, J. (1978). Actinomycetes of a Salt Marsh. Ph.D. Thesis, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

JACCARD, P. (1908). Nouvelle researches sur la distribution florale. Bulletin de la Societe Vaudoise Science Naturelle 44, 223-270.

JAMES, A.L. (1993). Enzymes in taxonomy and diagnostic bacteriology. In *Chemical Methods in Prokaryote Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 471-492. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

JAMES, A.L. AND YEOMAN, P. (1987). Detection of specific bacterial enzymes by high contrast metal chelate formation. Part I. 8-Hydroxyquinolin- β glucuronide, an alternative to aesculin in the differentiation of *Enterobacteriaceae*. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene **267**, 188-193.

JAMES, A.L. AND YEOMAN, P. (1988). Detection of specific bacterial enzymes by high contrast metal chelate formation. Part II. Specific detection of *Escherichia coli* on multipoint-inoculated plates using 8-hydroxyquinolin- β glucuronide. *Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene* **267**, 316-321.

JANTZEN, E. AND BRYN, K. (1993). Analysis of cellular constituents of Gram-negative bacteria. In *Chemical Methods in Prokaryotic Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 21-61. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

JOHNSON, J.L. (1985a). Determination of DNA base composition. Methods in Microbiology 18, 1-32.

JOHNSON, J.L. (1985b). DNA reassociation and RNA hybridisation of bacterial nucleic acids. *Methods in Microbiology* **18**, 33-74.

JOHNSON, J.L. (1991). Isolation and purification of nucleic acids. In *Nucleic Acid Techniques in Bacterial Systematics* (Stackebrandt, E. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 1-19. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

JOHNSTON, D.W. AND CROSS, T. (1976). The occurrence and distribution of actinomycetes in lakes of the English Lake District. *Freshwater Biology* 6, 457-463.

JONES, D. (1975). A numerical taxonomic study of coryneform and related bacteria. *Journal of Microbiology* 87, 52-96.

JONES, D. AND SACKIN, M.J. (1980). Numerical methods in the classification and identification of bacteria with especial reference to the *Enterobacteriaceae*. In *Microbiological Classification and Identification* (Goodfellow, M. and Board, R.G., Eds.), pp. 73-106. Academic Press, London.

JONES, L.A. AND BRADLEY, S.G. (1964). Phenetic classification of actinomycetes. Developments in Industrial Microbiology 5, 267-272.

KÄMPFER, P., KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. AND WOLFGANG, D. (1991a). A numerical classification of the genera *Streptomyces* and *Streptoverticillium* using miniaturized physiological tests. *Journal of General Microbiology* **137**, 1831-1891.

KÄMPFER, P., RAUHOFF, O. AND DOTT, W. (1991b). Glycosidase profiles of members of the family *Enterobacteriaceae*. Journal of Clinical Microbiology **29**, 2877-2879.
KANZAKI, H., KOBAYASHI, M., NAGASAWA, T.AND YAMADA, H. (1986a). Synthesis of S-substituted L-homocysteine derivatives by cystathionine γ -lyase of Streptomyces phaeochromogenes. Agricultural Biological Chemistry **50**, 391-397.

KANZAKI, H., NAGASAWA, T. AND YAMADA, H. (1986b). Highly efficient production of L-cystathionine from O-succinyl-L-homoserine and L-cysteine by Streptomyces cystathione γ -lyase. Applied Microbiological Biotechnology **25**, 97-100.

KAWAMOTO, I., TAKASAWA, S., OKACHI, R., KOHAKURA, M., TAKAHASHI, I. AND NARA, T. (1975). A new antibiotic victomycin (XK 49-1-B-2) I. Taxonomy and production of the producing organisms. *Journal of Antibiotics* 28, 358-365.

KELLEY, R.W. AND KELLOG, S.T. (1978). Computer assisted identification of anaerobic bacteria. In Applied and Environmental Microbiology 35, 507-511.

KEMMERLING, C., GÜRTLER, H., KROPPENSTEDT, R., TOALSTER, R. AND STACKEBRANDT, E. (1993). Evidence for the phylogenetic heterogeneity of the genus *Streptosporangium*. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* (in press).

KENNETH, J., M^CCREATH, J. AND GOODAY, G.W. (1992). A rapid and sensitive microassay for determination of chitinolytic activity. *Journal of Microbiological Methods* 14, 229-237.

KILIAN, M. (1978). Rapid identification of *Actinomycetaceae* and related bacteria. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **8**, 127-133.

KILPPER-BÄLZ, R. (1991). DNA-rDNA hybridisation. In Nucleic Acid Techniques in Bacterial Systematics (Stackebrandt, E. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 45-68. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

KIMURA, M. (1980). A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. *Journal of Molecular Evolution* **16**, 111-120.

KODAMA, Y., YAMAMOTO, H., AMANO, N. AND AMACHI, T. (1992). Reclassification of two strains of Arthrobacter oxydans and proposal of Arthrobacter nicotinovorans sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 42, 234-239.

KOMIYAMA, K., SUGIMOTO, K., TAKESHIMA, H. AND UMEZAWA, I. (1977). A new antitumour antibiotic, sporamycin. *Journal of Antibiotics* **30**, 202-208.

KOVACS, N. (1956). Identification of *Pseudomonas pyocyanea* by the oxidase reaction. *Nature (London)* **178**, 703.

KOWALSKI, A. (1975). Measurement analysis by pattern recognition. Analytical Chemistry 47, 1152A-1162A. KRASSILNIKOV, N.A. (1938). Ray Fungi and Related Organisms, Actinomycetales. Izdatel'stvo Akademii Nauk SSSR, Moscow.

KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. (1982). Separation of bacterial menaquinones by HPLC using reverse phase (RP 18) and a silver loaded ion exchanger as stationary phases. *Journal of Liquid Chromatography* **5**, 2359-2367.

KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. (1985). Fatty acid and menaquinone analysis of actinomycetes and related organisms. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 173-199. Academic Press, London.

KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1991). The family *Thermomonosporaceae*. In *The Prokaryotes, Second Edition* (Balows, A., Trüper, H.G., Dworkin, M., Harder, W. and Schleifer, K.H., Eds), pp. 1085-1114. Springer Verlag, New York.

KROPPENSTEDT, R.M., STACKEBRANDT, E. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1990). Taxonomic revision of the actinomycete genera Actinomadura and Microtetraspora. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 13, 148-160.

KRUPP, G. AND GROSS, H.J. (1979). Rapid RNA sequencing: Nucleases from *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Neurospora crassa* discriminate between uridine and cytidine. *Nucleic Acids Research* **6**, 3481-3490.

KRUPP, G. AND GROSS, H.J. (1983). Sequence analysis of *in vitro* ³²P-labelled RNA. In *The Modified Nucleosides in Transfer RNA*. II. A Laboratory Manual of Genetic Analysis, Identification and Sequence Determination (Agris, P.F. and Kapper, R.A., Eds.), pp. 11-58. Liss. NewYork.

KRUSKAL, J.B. (1964a). Multidimensional scaling by optimising goodness of fit to a nonmetric hypothesis. *Psychometrika* **29**, 1-27

KRUSKAL, J.B. (1964b). Nonmetric multidimensional scaling: A numerical method. *Psychometrika* 29, 115-129.

KUCHINO, Y., KATO, M., SUGISAKI, H. AND NISHIMURA, S. (1979). Nucleotide sequence of starfish initiator tRNA. *Nucleic Acids Research* 6, 3459-3469.

KUDO, T. AND SEINO, A. (1987). Transfer of Streptosporangium indianense Gupta 1965 to the genus Streptomyces as Streptomyces indiaensis (Gupta 1965) comb. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **37**, 241-244.

KUDO, T., ITOH, T., MIYADOH, S., SHOMURA, T. AND SEINO, A. (1993). Herbidospora gen. nov., a new genus of the family Streptosporangiaceae Goodfellow et al. 1990. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 43, 319-328.

KÜSTER, E. (1959). Outline of a comparative study of criteria used in the characterisation of the actinomycetes. International Bulletin of Bacterial Nomenclature and Taxononomy 9, 97-104.

KÜSTER, E. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1964). Selection of media for isolation of streptomycetes. *Nature (London)* **202**, 928-929.

LABEDA, D.P. (1992). DNA-DNA hybridisation in the systematics of *Streptomyces. Gene* **115**, 249-253.

LABEDA, D.P. AND LYONS, A.J. (1991a). Deoxyribonucleic acid relatedness among species of the 'Streptomyces cyaneus' cluster. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 4, 158-164.

LABEDA, D.P. AND LYONS, A.J. (1991b). The Streptomyces violaceusniger cluster is heterogeneous in DNA relatedness among strains: Emendment of the description of S. violaceusniger and S. hygroscopicus. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **41**, 398-401.

LABEDA, D.P. AND SHEARER, M.C. (1991). Isolation of actinomycetes for biotechnological applications. In *Isolation of Biotechnological Organisms from Nature* (Labeda, D.P., Ed.), pp. 1-19. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., New York.

LACEY, J. (1988). Actinomycetes as biodeteriogens and pollutants of the environment. In *Actinomycetes in Biotechnology* (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp. 359-432. Academic Press, London.

LACEY, J. AND DUTKIEWICZ, J. (1976). Isolation of actinomycetes and fungi from mouldy hay using a sedimentation chamber. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **41**, 315-319.

248

LANE, D.J., PACE, B., OLSEN, G.J., STAHL, D.A., SOGIN, M.L. AND PACE, N.R. (1985). Rapid determination of 16S ribosomal RNA sequences for phylogenetic analysis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **82**, 6955-6959.

LANGHAM, C.D., WILLIAMS, S.T., SNEATH, P.H.A. AND MORTIMER, M. (1989). New probability matrices for identification of *Streptomyces*. Journal of General Microbiology 135, 121-133.

LANT, P.A., WILLIS, M.J., MONTAGUE, G.A., THAM, M.T. AND MORRIS, A.J. (1990). A comparison of adaptive estimation with neural based techniques for bioprocess application. In *Proceedings of 1990 American Control Conference, Volume 3*, pp.2173-2178. AZ:IEEE. Green Valley.

LAPAGE, S.P., BASCOMB, S., WILLCOX, W.R. AND CURTIS, M.A. (1970). Computer identification of bacteria. In Automation Mechanisation and Data Handling in Microbiology (Baillie, A. and Gilbert, R.J., Eds.), pp. 1-22. Academic Press, London.

LAPAGE, S.P., BASCOMB, S., WILLCOX, W.R. AND CURTIS, M.A. (1973). Identification of bacteria by computer: General aspects and perspectives. *Journal* of General Microbiology **77**, 273-290.

LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1989). The actinomycetes III: A practical guide to generic identification of actinomycetes. In *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, Volume IV* (Williams, S.T., Sharpe, M.E. and Holt, G.T., Eds.), pp. 2344-2347. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore.

LECHEVALIER, H.A. AND LECHEVALIER, M.P. (1970). A critical evaluation of the genera of aerobic actinomycetes. In *The Actinomycetales* (Prauser, H., Ed.), pp. 393-405. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Jena.

LECHEVALIER, H.A., LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND HOLBERT, P.E. (1966a). Electron microscopic observation of the sporangial structure of strains of Actinoplanaceae. Journal of Bacteriology 92, 1228-1235.

LECHEVALIER, H.A., LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND BECKER, B. (1966b). Comparison of the chemical composition of cell walls of nocardiae and that of other aerobic actinomycetes. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **16**, 151-160.

LECHEVALIER, H.A., LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND GERBER, N.N. (1971). Chemical composition as a criterion in the classification of actinomycetes. Advances in Applied Microbiology 14, 47-72.

LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND GERBER, N.N. (1970). The identity of 3-Omethyl-D-galactose with madurose. Carbohydrate Research 13, 451-453.

LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1970a). Composition of whole cell hydrolysates as a criterion in the classification of aerobic actinomycetes. In *The Actinomycetales* (Prauser, H., Ed.), pp. 311-316. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Jena.

LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1970b). Chemical composition as a criterion in the classification of aerobic actinomycetes. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **20**, 435-443.

LECHEVALIER, M.P. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1980). The chemotaxonomy of actinomycetes. In *Actinomycete Taxonomy* (Dietz, A. and Thayer, D.W., Eds.), pp. 227-291. Special Publication No.6. Society for Industrial Microbiology. Arlington, VA.

LECHEVALIER, M.P., DeBIÉVRE, C. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1977). Chemotaxonomy of aerobic actinomycetes: Phospholipid composition. Biochemical Systematics and Ecology 5, 249-260.

LECHEVALIER, M.P., STERN, A.E. AND LECHEVALIER, H.A. (1981). Phospholipids in the taxonomy of actinomycetes. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene, Abteilung I, Supplement 11, 111-116.

LÉVY-FRÉBAULT, V.V. AND PORTAELS, F. (1992). Proposal for recommended minimal standards for the genus Mycobacterium and for newly described slowly growing Mycobacterium species. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 42, 315-323.

LEWIS, B. (1961). Phosphate production by staphylococci. A comparison of two methods. *Journal of Medical Laboratory Technology* 18, 112-115.

LINGAPPA, Y. AND LOCKWOOD, J.L. (1961). A chitin medium for isolation, growth and maintenance of actinomycetes. *Nature* 189, 158-159.

LOCCI, R., WILLIAMS, S.T., SCHOFIELD, G.M., VICKERS, J.C., SNEATH, P.H.A. AND MORTIMER, A.M. (1986). A probabilistic approach to the identification of *Streptoverticillium* species. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Szabó, G., Biró, S. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 507-516. Akadémiai Kaidó, Budapest.

LOWE, G.H. (1962). The rapid detection of lactose fermentation in paracolon organisms by the demonstration of β -D-galactosidase. Journal of Medical Laboratory Technology 19, 21-23.

LUDWIG, W. (1991). DNA sequencing in bacterial systematics. In *Nucleic Acid Techniques in Bacterial Systematics* (Stackebrandt, E. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 69-92. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

LUDWIG, W., NEUMAIER, J., KLUGBAUER, N., BROCKMANN, E., ROLLER, C., JILG, S., REETZ, K., SCHACHTNER, I., LUDVIGSEN, A., WALLNER, G., BACHLEITNER, M., FISCHER, U. AND SCHLEIFER, K.H. (1993). Phylogenetic relationships of bacteria based on comparative sequence analysis of elongation factor Tu and ATP-synthase β -subunit genes. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek (in press).

McCARTHY, A.J. AND CROSS, T. (1984). A taxonomic study of *Thermomonospora* and other monosporic actinomycetes. *Journal of Microbiology* **130**, 5-25.

McCARTHY, A.J. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1992). Actinomycetes as agents of biodegradation in the environment-A Review. *Gene* **115**, 189-192.

252

MACDONELL, M.J. AND COLWELL, R.R. (1985). The contribution of numerical taxonomy to the systematics of Gram-negative bacteria. In *Computer-Assisted Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M., Jones, D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 107-135. Academic Press, London.

McFADDIN, J.F. (1980). Biochemical Tests for the Identification of Medical Bacteria, 2nd Edition. Williams and Wilkins Press, Baltimore.

McFIE, H.J.H. AND GUTTERIDGE, C.S. (1982). Comparative studies on some methods for handling quantitative data generated by analytical pyrolysis. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* **4**, 175-204.

MADDOCKS, J.L. AND GREENAN, M.J. (1975). A rapid method for identifying bacterial enzymes. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 28, 686-687.

MAGEE, J.T. (1993a). Whole-organism fingerprinting. In Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 383-427. Academic Press, London.

MAGEE, J.T. (1993b). Analytical fingerprinting methods. In *Methods in Prokaryotic Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 523-553. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

MAGEE, J.T., HINDMARCH, J.M. AND MEECHAN, D.F. (1983). Identification of staphylococci by pyrolysis gas-liquid chromatography. *Journal* of Medical Microbiology 16, 483-495. MAGEE, J.T., HINDMARCH, J.M., DUERDEN, B.I. AND M^CKENZIE, D.W.R. (1988). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry as a method for inter-strain discrimination of *Candida albicans*. *Journal of General Microbiology* **134**, 2841-2847.

MAGEE, J.T., HINDMARCH, J.M., BURNETT, I.A. AND PEASE, A. (1989a). Epidemiological typing of *Streptococcus pyogenes* by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Journal of Mediacal Microbiology* **30**, 273-278.

MAGEE, J.T., HINDMARCH, J.M., BURNETT, K.W., DUERDEN, B.I. AND ARIES, R.E. (1989b). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry study of *Fusobacterium*. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* **28**, 227-236.

MANACHINI, P.L., FERRARI, A. AND CRAVERI, R. (1965). Forme thermofile de Actinoplanaceae. Isolamento et caracteristiche di Streptosporangium album var. thermophilum. Annali di Microbiologia et Enzimologia 15, 129-144.

MANAFI, M., KNEIFEL, W. AND BASCOMB, S. (1991). Fluorogenic and chromogenic substrates used in bacterial diagnostics. *Microbiological Reviews* 55, 335-348.

MANCHESTER, L., POT, B., KERSTERS, K. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1990). Classification of *Streptomyces* and *Streptoverticillium* species by numerical analysis of electrophoretic protein patterns. *Systematic Applied Microbiology* 13, 333-337.

254

MEIKLEJOHN, J. (1957). Numbers of bacteria and actinomycetes in a Kenya soil. *Journal of Soil Science* 8, 240-247.

MERTZ, F.P. AND YAO, R.C. (1990). Streptosporangium carneum sp. nov. isolated from soil. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 40, 247-253.

MEUZELAAR, H.L.A. (1974). Identification of Bacteria by Pyrolysis Gas Chromatography and Pyrolysis Mass Spectrometry. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Amsterdam.

MEUZELAAR, H.L.A. AND KISTEMAKER, P.G. (1973). A technique for fast and reproducible fingerprinting of bacteria by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Annals of Chemistry* **45**, 587-590.

MEUZELAAR, H.L.A., KISTEMAKER, P.G., ESHUIS, W. AND BOERBOOM, H.A.J. (1976). Automated pyrolysis mass spectrometry: Applications to the differentiation of microorganisms. *Proceedings of the 26th Annual Conference on Mass Spectrometry and Allied Topics*, pp. 29-41.

MEYER, E. AND SCHÖNFELD, H. (1926). Uber die Unterschiedung des Enterococcus von Streptococcus viridans und die Beziehungen beider zum Streptococcus lactis. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Parasitenkunde, Infektionskrankheiten und Hygiene, Abteilung I, 99, 496-508.

MEYER, H., THARANATHAN, R.N. AND WECKESSER, J. (1985). Analysis of lipopolysccharides of Gram-negative bacteria. *Methods in Microbiology* 18, 157-207.

MINNIKIN, D.E. (1982). Lipids: complex lipids, their chemistry, biosynthesis and roles. In *The Biology of the Mycobacteria* (Ratledge, C. and Stanford, J.L., Eds.), pp. 95-184. Academic Press, London.

MINNIKIN, D.E. AND O'DONNELL, A.G. (1984). Actinomycete envelope lipid and peptidoglycan composition. In *The Biology of the Actinomycetes* (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp 337-388. Academic Press, London.

MINNIKIN, D.E., COLLINS, M.D. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1978). Menaquinone patterns in the classification of nocardioform and related bacteria. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Parasitenkunde, Infektionskrankheiten und Hygiene. Abteilung I, Supplement 6, 85-90.

MORDARSKI, M., GOODFELLOW, M., WILLIAMS, S.T. AND SNEATH, P.H.A. (1986). Evaluation of species groups in the genus *Streptomyces*. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Szabó, G., Biró, S. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 517-528. Akadémiai Kaidó, Budapest.

MORRIS, C.W. AND BODDY, L. (1992). Intelligent computing in microbiology. *Binary* **4**, 185-188.

MUFTIC, M. (1967). Application of chromogenic substrates to the determination of peptidases in mycobacteria. *Folia Microbiologica* **12**, 500-507.

MURATA, H., KOJIMA. N., HARADA, K-I., SUZUKI, T., IKEMOTO, T., SHIBUYA, T., HANEISHI, T. AND TORIKATA, A. (1989). Structural elucidation of aculescimycin. I. Further purification and glycosidic bond cleavage of aculescimycin. *Journal of Antibiotics* **42**, 691-700.

MURRAY, R.G.E., BRENNER, D.J., COLWELL, R.R., DE VOS, P., GOODFELLOW, M., GRIMONT, P.A.D., PFENNING, N., STACKEBRANDT, E. AND ZAVARZIN, G.A. (1990). Report of the *ad hoc* committee on approaches to taxonomy within the *Proteobacteria*. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **40**, 213-215.

NAGASAWA, T., KANZAKI, H. AND YAMADA, N. (1984). Cystathionine γ -lyase of *Streptomyces phaeochromogenes* - The occurrence of cystathionine γ -lyase in filamentous bacteria and its purification and characterisation. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **259**, 10393-10403.

NAKAMURA, L.K. (1987a). Bacillus polymyxa (Prazmowski) Mace 1989, deoxyribonucleic acid relatedness and base composition. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **37**, 391-397.

NAKAMURA, L.K. (1987b). Deoxyribonucleic acid relatedness of lactosepositive Bacillus subtilis strains and Bacillus amyloliquefaciens. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 37, 444-445.

NAKAMURA, L.K. (1989). Taxonomic relationships of black-pigmented Bacillus subtilis strains and a proposal for Bacillus atrophaeus sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 39, 295-300.

257

NELDER, J.A. (1979). *GENSTAT Reference Manual*. University of Edinburgh: Social Service Program Library.

NIE, N.H., HULL, C.H., JENKINS, J.G., STEINBRENNER, K. AND BENT, D.H. (1975). Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), 2nd Edition. M^cGraw-Hill, New York.

NISBET, L.J. (1982). Current strategies in the search for bioactive microbial metabolites. *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology* **32**, 251-270.

NOLAN, R.D. AND CROSS, T. (1988). Isolation and screening of actinomycetes. In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology (Goodfellow, M, Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp 1-32. Academic Press: London.

NONOMURA, H. (1984). Design of a new medium for isolation of soil actinomycetes. The Actinomycetes 18, 206-209.

NONOMURA, H. (1989). Genus Streptosporangium Couch 1955, 148^{AL}. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, Volume IV (Williams, S.T., Sharpe, M.E. and Holt, J.G., Eds.), pp. 2545-2551. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1957). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. II. Microbispora, a new genus of Streptosporangiaceae. Journal of Fermentation Technology 35, 307-311.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1960). Dustribution of actinomycetes in soil. V. The isolation and classification of the genus *Streptosporangium*. Journal of Fermentation Technology **38**, 405-409.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1969a). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. VI. A culture method effective for preferential isolation and enumeration of *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* strains in soil (part 1). *Journal of Fermentation Technology* **47**, 463-469.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1969b). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. VII. A culture method effective for preferential isolation and enumeration of *Microbispora* and *Streptosporangium* strains in soil (part 2). *Journal of Fermentation Technology* **47**, 701-709.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1971a). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. IX. New species of the genera *Microbispora* and *Microtetraspora* and their isolation methods. *Journal of Fermentation Technology* **49**, 887-894.

NONOMURA, H. AND OHARA, Y. (1971b). Distribution of actinomycetes in soil. XI. Some new species of the genus Actinomadura Lechevalier et al. Journal of Fermentation Technology 49, 904-912.

NONOMURA, H. AND HAYAKAWA, M. (1988). New methods for the selective isolation of soil actinomycetes. In *Biology of Actinomycetes*'88 (Okami, Y., Beppu, Y. and Ogawara, K., Eds.) pp. 288-293. Japan Scientific Societies Press, Tokyo.

O'BRIEN, M. AND COLWELL, R.R. (1987). Characterisation tests for numerical taxonomic studies. *Methods in Microbiology* **19**, 69-104.

OCHI, K. AND MIYADOH, S. (1992). Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis analysis of ribosomal protein AT-L30 from an actinomycete genus, *Streptosporangium. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **42**, 151-155.

OCHI, K., HARAGUCHI, K. AND MIYADOH, S. (1993). A taxonomic review of the genus *Microbispora* by analysis of ribosomal protein AT-L30. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **43**, 58-62.

O'DONNELL, A.G. (1985). Numerical analysis of chemotaxonomic data. In *Computer-Assisted Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M., Jones, D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 403-414. Academic Press, London.

- O'DONNELL, A.G. (1986). Chemical and numerical methods in the classification of novel isolates. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Szabó, G., Biró, S. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 541-549. Akadémiai Kaidó, Budapest.
- V O'DONNELL, A.G. (1988a). Recognition of novel actinomycetes. In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp 69-88. Academic Press, London.

O'DONNELL, A.G. (1988b). Assessment of taxonomic congruence using multivariate statistical techniques. In *Biology of Actinomycetes'88* (Okami, Y., Beppu, T. and Ogawara, H., Eds.), pp 257-262. Japan Scientific Society Press, Tokyo.

O'DONNELL, A.G., MINNIKIN, D.E. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1985). Integrated lipid and wall analyses of actinomycetes. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 131-143. Academic Press, London.

O'DONNELL, A.G., FALCONER, C., GOODFELLOW, M., WARD, A.C. AND WILLIAMS, E. (1993). Biosystematics and diversity amonst novel carboxydotrophic actinomycetes. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* (in press).

OH, Y-K., SPETH, J.L. AND NASH, C.H. (1980). Protoplast fusion with Streptosporanium viridogriseum. Developments in Industrial Microbiology 21, 219-226.

 OKAMI, Y. AND HOTTA, K. (1988). Search and discovery of new antibiotics. In Actinomycetes in Biotechnology (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp 33-67. Academic Press: London.

OKUDA, T., FURUMAI, T., WATANABE, E., OKUGAWA, Y. AND KIMURA, S. (1966a). Actinoplanaceae antibiotics. II. Study of sporaviridin 2. Taxonomic study of the sporaviridin producing microorganism: Streptosporangium viridogriseum sp. nov. Journal of Antibiotics 19, 121-127. OKUDA, T., ITO, Y., YAMAGUCHI, T., FURUMAI, T., SUZUKI, M. AND TSUROKA, M (1966b). Sporaviridin, a new antibiotic produced by *Streptosporangium viridogriseum* nov. sp. *Journal of Antibiotics* **19**, 85-87.

ORCHARD, V.A. (1975). Selective Isolation and Characterisation of Nocardiae. Ph. D. Thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

ORCHARD, V.A. (1978). Effect of irrigation with municipal water or sewage effluent on the biology of soil cores. III. Actinomycete flora. New Zealand Journal of Agricultural Research 21, 21-28.

ORCHARD, V.A. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1974). The selective isolation of *Nocardia* from soil using antibiotics. *Journal of General Microbiology* **85**, 160-162.

ORCHARD, V.A. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1980). Numerical classification of some named strains of *Nocardia asteroides* and related isolates from soil. *Journal of General Microbiology* **118**, 295-312.

OTTLEY, T.W. AND MADDOCK, J. (1986). The use of pyrolysis mass spectrometry. Laboratory Practice 35, 53-55.

OWEN, R.J. AND PITCHER, D. (1985). Methods for the estimating DNA base composition and levels of DNA:DNA hybridisation. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 67-91. Academic Press, Lonodon.

PALLERONI, N.J. (1980). A characteristic method for the isolation of Actinoplanaceae. Archiv für Mikrobiologie 128, 53-55.

PALLERONI, N.J. (1993). Structure of the bacterial genome. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 57-113. Academic Press, London.

PANTIER, J.J., DIEM, H.G. AND DOMMERGUES, Y. (1979). Rapid method to enumerate and isolate soil actinomycetes antagonistic towards rhizobia. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 11, 443-445.

PARK, Y-H., HORI, H., SUZUKI, K., OSAWA, S. AND KOMAGATA, K. (1987a). Phylogenetic analysis of the coryneform bacteria by 5S rRNA sequences. *Journal of Bacteriology* **169**, 1801-1806.

PARK, Y-H., HORI, H., SUZUKI, K., OSAWA, S. AND KOMAGATA, K. (1987b). Nucleotide sequences of 5S ribosomal RNA from *Rhodococcus* erythropolis. Nucleic Acid Reasearch 15, 365.

PARK, Y-H., YIM D-G., KIM, E., KHO, Y-H., MHEEN, T-I., LONSDALE, J. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1991). Classification of acidophilic, neutrotolerlant and neutrophilic streptomycetes by nucleotide sequencing of 5S ribosomal RNA. *Journal of General Microbiology* **137**, 2265-2269. PARK, Y-H., SUZUKI, K-I., YIM, D-G., LEE, K-C., KIM, E., YOON, J., KIM, S., KHO, Y-H., GOODFELLOW, M. AND KOMAGATA, K. (1993). Suprageneric classification of peptidoglycan group B actinomycetes by nucleotide sequencing of 5S ribosomal RNA. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* (in press).

PEATTIE, D.A. (1979). Direct chemical method for sequencing RNA. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 76, 1760-1764.

PHILLIPS, G.B. AND HANEL, E. (1950). Control of mold contaminants on solid media by the use of actidione. *Journal of Bacteriology* **60**, 104-105.

PHILLIPS, B.J. AND KAPLAN, W. (1976). Effect of cetylpyridinium chloride on pathogenic fungi and Nocardia asteroides in sputum. Journal of Clinical Microbiology 3, 272-276

PORTER, J.N., WILHELM, J.J. AND TRESNER, H.D. (1960). A method for the preferential isolation of actinomycetes from soil. *Applied Microbiology* **8**, 174-178.

POSCHNER, J., KROPPENSTEDT, R.M., FISCHER, A. AND STACKEBRANDT, E. (1985). DNA:DNA reassociation and chemotaxonomic studies on Actinomadura, Microtetraspora, Micropolyspora and Nocardiopsis. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 6, 264-270.

POTEKHINA, L.A. (1965). Streptosporangium rubrum n. sp.- A new species of the Streptosporangium genus. Mikrobiologiya 34, 292-299.

PRAUSER, H. (1984). Phage host ranges in the classification and identification of Gram-positive branched and related bacteria. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Ortiz-Ortiz, L., Bojalil, L.F. and Yakoleff, V., Eds.), pp.617-633. Academic Press, New York.

PRIDHAM, T.G. AND GOTTLIEB, D. (1948). The utilisation of carbon compounds by some Actinomycetales as an aid for species determination. Journal of Bacteriology 56, 107-114.

PRIEST, F.G. (1989). Isolation and identification of aerobic endospore forming bacteria. In *Bacillus. Biotechnology Handbooks* (Harwood, C.R., Ed.), pp.27-56. Plenum Press, New York.

PRIEST, F.G. AND ALEXANDER, B. (1988). A frequency matrix for the probabilistic classification of some bacilli. *Journal of General Microbiology* **134**, 3011-3018.

PRIEST, F.G. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1993). Computer-assisted identification. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 361-382. Academic Press, London.

QIAN, N. AND SEJNOWSKI, T.S. (1988). Predicting the secondary structure of globular proteins using neural network models. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 202, 865-884.

QU, L.H., MICHOT, B. AND BACHELLERIE, J.P. (1983). Improved methods for structure probing in large RNA: A rapid "heterogeneous" sequencing approach is coupled to the direct mapping of nuclease accessible sites. Application to the 5' terminal domain of eukaryotic 28S rRNA. *Nucleic Acids Research* II, 5903-5919.

RAO, V.A., PRABHU, K.K., SRIDHAR, B.P., VENKATESWARLU, A. AND ACTOR, P. (1987). Two new species of *Microbispora* from Indian soils: *Microbispora karnartakensis* sp. nov. and *Microbispora indica* sp. nov. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **37**, 181-185.

REED, J.F. AND CUMMINGS, R.W. (1945). Soil reaction-glass electrode and colorimetric methods for determining pH values of soil. *Soil Science* **59**, 97-104.

ROWBOTHAM, T.J. AND CROSS, T. (1977). Ecology of *Rhodococcus* coprophilus and associated actinomycetes in fresh water and agricultural habitats. *Journal of General Microbiology* **100**, 231-240.

RUNMAO, H., GUIZHEN, W. AND JUNYING, L. (1993). A new genus of actinomycetes, *Planotetraspora* gen. nov. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **43**, 468-470.

RUNYON, E.H., WAYNE, L.G. AND KUBICA, G.P. (1974). Mycobacterium Lehmann and Neumann. In Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology, Eighth Edition (Buchanan, R.E. and Gibbons, N.E., Eds.), pp. 681-701. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore. SACKIN, M.J. AND JONES, D. (1993). Computer-assisted classification. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 282-313. Academic Press, London.

SADDLER, G.S. (1988). Classification and Rapid Identification of Streptomyces. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

SADDLER, G.S., GOODFELLOW, M., MINNIKIN, D.E. AND O'DONNELL, A.G. (1986). Influence of the growth cycle on the fatty acid and menaquinone composition of *Streptomyces cyaneus*. Journal of Applied Bacteriology **60**, 51-56.

SADDLER, G.S., O'DONNELL, A.G., GOODFELLOW, M. AND MINNIKIN, D.E. (1987). SIMCA pattern recognition in the analysis of streptomycete fatty acids. *Journal of General Microbiology* **133**, 1137-1147.

SADDLER, G.S., FALCONER, C. AND SANGLIER, J.J. (1988). Preliminary experiments for the selection and identification of actinomycetes by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Actinomycetologia* **2**, S3-S4.

SAIKI, R.K., GELFAND, D.H., STOFFEL, S., SCHARF, S.J., HIGUCHI, R., HORN, G.T., MULLIS, K.B. AND ERLICH, H.A. (1988). Primer-directed enzymatic amplication of DNA with a thermostable DNA polymerase. *Science* 239, 487-491. SANGER, F., NICKLEN, S. AND COULSON, A.R. (1977). DNA sequencing with chain terminating inhibitors. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **74**, 5463-5467.

SANGLIER, J.J., WHITEHEAD, D., SADDLER, G.S., FERGUSON, E.V. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1992). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry as a method for the classification and selection of actinomycetes. *Gene* **115**, 235-242.

SCHAAL, K.P. (1985). Identification of clinically significant actinomycetes and related bacteria using chemical techniques. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 359-382. Academic Press, London.

SCHAAL, K.P. AND LEE, H-J. (1992). Actinomycete infections in humans- A review. Gene 115, 201-211.

SCHÄFER, D. (1969). Eine neue Streptosporangium-Art aus türkischer Steppenerde. Archiv für Mikrobiologie 66, 365-373.

SCHÄFER, D. (1973). Beitrage zur Klassifizerung and Taxonomie der Actinoplanaceae. Ph.D. Dessertation, University of Marburg/Lahn, Federal Republic of Germany.

SCHLEIFER, K.H. AND KANDLER, O. (1972). Peptidoglycan types of bacterial cell walls and their taxonomic implications. *Bacteriological Review* 36, 407-477.

SCHLEIFER, K.H. AND SEIDL, P.H. (1985). Chemical composition and structure of murein. In *Chemical Methods In Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 201-219. Academic Press, London.

SCHLEIFER, K.H. AND LUDWIG, W. (1989). Phylogenetic relationships among bacteria. In *The Hierarchy of Life* (Fernholm, B., Bremer, K. and Jörnwall, H., Eds.), pp. 103-117. Elservier Science Publishers BV, Amsterdam.

SCHOFIELD, G. AND SCHAAL, K.P. (1981). A numerical taxonomic study of members of the *Actinomycetaceae* and related taxa. *Journal of General Microbiology* **127**, 237-259.

SHARPLES, G.P., WILLIAMS, S.T. AND BRADSHAW, R.M. (1974). Spore formation in the Actinoplanaceae (Actinomycetales). Archiv für Microbiologie **101**, 9-20.

SHEARER, M.C., COLMAN, P.M. AND NASH, C.H. (1983). Streptosporangium fragile sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 33, 364-368.

SHEARER, M.C., COLMAN, P.M., FERRARI, R.M., NISBET, L.J. AND NASH, C.H. III (1986). A new genus of the Actinomycetales: Kibdelosporangium aridum gen. nov., sp. nov. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 36, 47-54.

SHIRLING, E.B. AND GOTTLIEB, D. (1966). Methods for characterisation of *Streptomyces* species. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **16**, 313-340.

SHUTE, L.A., BERKELEY, R.C.W., NORRIS, J.R. AND GUTTERIDGE, C.S. (1985). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry in bacterial systematics. In *Chemical Methods in Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and Minnikin, D.E., Eds.), pp. 95-104. Academic Press, London.

SILVESTRI, L., TURRI, M., HILL, L.R. AND GILARDI, E. (1962). A quantitative approach to the systematics of *Actinomycetales* based on overall similarity. *Society of General Microbiology* **12**, 333-360.

SIMONCSITS, A. (1980). 3' Terminal labelling of RNA with beta-³²Ppyrophosphate group and its application to the sequence analysis of 5S RNA from *Streptomyces griseus*. Nucleic Acids Research **8**, 4111-4124.

SIMPSON, K.E. (1987). Selective Isolation and Characterisation of Acidophilic and Neutrotolerlant Actinomycetes. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

SISSON, P.R., FREEMAN, R., LIGHTFOOT, N.F. AND RICHARDSON, I.R. (1991). Incrimination of an environmental source of a case of Legionnaires' disease by Py-MS. *Epidemiological Infections* **107**, 127-132.

SISSON, P.R., FREEMAN, R., MAGEE, J.G. AND LIGHTFOOT, N.F. (1992). Rapid differentiation of *Mycobacterium xenopi* from mycobacteria of the *Mycobacterium avium-intracellulare* complex by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* **45**, 355-370.

SLOSAREK, M. (1980). Fluoroscent method for testing the enzymic activity of mycobacteria. *Folia Microbiology* **25**, 439-441.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1957a). Some thoughts on bacterial classification. Journal of General Microbiology 17, 184-200.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1957b). The application of computers to taxonomy. *Journal* of General Microbiology 17, 201-226.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1962). The construction of taxonomic groups. Symposium of the Society for General Microbiology 12, 289-297.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1968). Vigour and pattern in taxonomy. Journal of General Microbiology 54, 1-11.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1971). Theoretical aspects of microbiological taxonomy. In *International Congress for Microbiology* (Perez-Miravete, A. and Pelaez, D., Eds.), pp. 581-586. Libreria Internacional, S.A., Mexico City.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1972). Computer taxonomy. Methods in Microbiology 4, 29-98. SNEATH, P.H.A. (1974a). Test reproducibility in relation to identification. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 24, 508-523.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1978a). Classification of microorganisms. In *Essays in Microbiology, Section 9* (Norris, J.R. and Richmond, M.H., Eds.), pp. 1-31. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1978b). Identification of microorganisms. In *Essays in Microbiology, section 10* (Norris, J.R. and Richmond, M.H., Eds.), pp. 1-32. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1979a). Basic program for identification of an unknown with presence-absence data against an identification matrix of percentage positive characters. *Computers and Geosciences* 5, 195-213.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1979b). BASIC program for character separation indices from an identification matrix of percentage positive characters. *Computers and Geosciences* 5, 349-357.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1980a). BASIC program for the most diagnostic properties of groups from an identification matrix of percentage positive characters. *Computers and Geosciences* 6, 21-26.

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1980b). BASIC program for determining the best identification scores possible for the most typical example when compared with an identification matrix of percentage positive characters. *Computers and Geosciences* **6**, 27-34.

272

SNEATH, P.H.A. (1980c). BASIC program for determining overlap between groups in an identification matrix of percentage positive characters. *Computers and Geosciences* 6, 267-278.

SNEATH, P.H.A. AND JOHNSON, R. (1972). The influence on numerical taxonomic similarities of errors in microbiological tests. *Journal of General Microbiology* **72**, 377-392.

SNEATH, P.H.A. AND SOKAL, R.R. (1973). Numerical Taxonomy: The Principles and Practice of Numerical Classification. W.H. Freeman, San Francisco.

SNEATH, P.H.A. AND CHATER, A.O. (1978). Information content of keys for identification. In *Essays in Plant Taxonomy* (Street, H.E., Ed.), pp. 79-95. Academic Press, London.

SOKAL, R.R. AND MICHENER, C.D. (1958). A statistical method for evaluating systematic relationships. *Kansas University Science Bulletin* **38**, 1409-1438.

SOKAL, R.R. AND ROHLF, F.J. (1962). The comparison of dendrograms by objective methods. *Taxon* 11, 33-40.

SPEER, J.R. AND LYNCH, D.L. (1969). The isolation of actinomycetes from soils. Transactions III. State Academy of Science 62, 265-272.

STACKEBRANDT, E. (1986). The significance of "wall types" in phylogenetically based taxonomic studies on actinomycetes. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Szabó, G., Biró, S. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.), pp. 497-506. Akadémiai Kaidó, Budapest.

STACKEBRANDT, E. AND SCHLEIFER, K.H. (1984). Molecular systematics of actinomycetes and related organisms. In *Biological, Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Ortiz-Ortiz, L., Bojalil, L.F. and Yakoleff, V., Eds.), pp. 485-504. Academic Press, Orlando.

STACKEBRANDT, E. AND KROPPENSTEDT, R.M. (1987). Union of the genera Actinoplanes Couch, Ampullariella Couch, and Amorphosporangium Couch in a redefined genus Actinoplanes. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 9, 110-114.

 STACKEBRANDT, E. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1991). In Nucleic Acid Techniques in Bacterial Systematics (Stackebrandt, E. and Goodfellow, M., Eds.),
pp. ix-xxix. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

STACKEBRANDT, E. AND LIESACK, W. (1993). Nucleic acids and classification. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 197-202. Academic Press, London.

STACKEBRANDT, E., LEWIS, B.J., AND WOESE, C.R. (1980). The phylogenetic structure of the coryneform group of bacteria. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, Mikrobiologie und Hygiene, Abteilung, I, Originale C, 137-149.

STACKEBRANDT, E., WUNNER-FUSSL, B., FOWLER, V.J. AND SCHLEIFER, K.H. (1981). Deoxyribonucleic acid homologies and ribosomal ribonucleic acid similarities among sporeforming members of the order *Actinomycetales. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **31**, 420-431.

STACKEBRANDT, E., LUDWIG, W., SEEWALDT, E. AND SCHLEIFER, K.H. (1983). Phylogeny of spore forming members of the order Actinomycetales. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology **33**, 173-180.

STACKEBRANDT, E., LUDWIG, W. AND FOX, G.E. (1985). 16S Ribosomal RNA oligonucleotide cataloguing. *Methods in Microbiology* **18**, 75-107.

STACKEBRANDT, E., KROPPENSTEDT, R.M., JAHNKE, K-D., KEMMERING, C. AND GÜRTLER, H. (1993). Transfer of Streptosporangium virodogriseum (Okuda et al., 1966), Streptosporangium subsp. kofuense (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969), Streptosporangium albidum (Furumai et al., 1968) to Kutzneria gen. nov. as Kutzneria viridogrisea comb. nov., Kutzneria kofuensis comb. nov., and Kutzneria albida comb. nov., and emendation of the genus Streptosporangium. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology (in press).

STANTON, L.J. (1984). Actinomycetes Associated with Freshwater Habitats. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

SUZUKI, K., GOODFELLOW, M. AND O'DONNELL, A.G. (1993). Cell envelopes and classification. In *Handbook of New Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O'Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 195-250. Academic Press, London. TAKASAWA, S., KAWAMOTO, I., TAKAHASHI, I., KOHAKURA, M., OKACHI, R., SATA, S., YAMAMOTO, M. AND NARA, T. (1975). Platomycins A and B. I. Taxonomy of the producing strain and production, isolation and biological properties of platomycins. *Journal of Antibiotics* 28, 656-661.

TAMAOKA, J. (1987). Development of New Techniques in Chemotaxonomy and Their Application to the Taxonomy of the Genus Pseudomonas. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Tokyo.

TAMAOKA, J. (1993). Determination of DNA base composition. In *Chemical Methods in Prokaryotic Systematics* (Goodfellow, M. and O`Donnell, A.G., Eds.), pp. 463-470. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

TAMURA, A., TAKEDA, I., NARUTO, S. AND YOSHIMURA, Y. (1971). Chloramphenicol from Streptosporangium viridogriseum var. kofuense. Journal of Antibiotics 24, 270.

THIEMANN, J.N. AND BERETTA, G. (1968). A new genus of the Actinoplanaceae: Planobispora gen. nov. Archiv für Mikrobiologie 82, 157-166.

THIEMANN, J.N., PAGANI, H. AND BERETTA, G. (1967) A new genus of the Actinoplanaceae: Planomonospora gen. nov. Giornale di Microbiologia 15, 27-38.

THIEMANN, J.N., PAGANI, H. AND BERETTA, G. (1968). A new genus of the Actinomycetales: Microtetraspora gen. nov. Journal of General Microbiology **50**, 295-303.

THOMAS, E. (1991). Numerical Classification and Selective Isolation of Rhodococcus and Related Actinomycetes. Ms.C. Thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

TINOCO, I., JR., UHLENBECK, O.C. AND LEVINE, M.D. (1971). Estimation of secondary structure in ribonucleic acids. *Nature (London)* **230**, 362-367.

TONABENE, T.G. (1985). Lipid analysis and the relationship to chemotaxonomy. *Methods in Microbiology* **18**, 209-234.

TROLLDENIER, G. (1966). Uber die eignung enthaltender Nährsubstrate zur Zählung und Isolierlung von Bodenmikroorganismen auf Membranfiltern. Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie. Parasitenkunde, Infektionskrankheiten und Hygiene, Abteilung, II, 120, 496-508.

TSAO, P.H. AND THIELEKE, D.W. (1966). Stimulation of bacteria and actinomycetes by the antibiotic pimaricin in soil dilution plates. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* **12**, 1091-1094.

TSYGANOV, V.A., NAMESTNIKOVA, V.P. AND KRASIKOVA, N.V. (1966). DNA composition in various genera of the Actinomycetales. Mikrobiologiya 35, 92-95. UMEZAWA, I., KAMIYAMA, K., TAKESHITA, H., AWAYA, J. AND OMURA, S. (1976). A new antitumour antibiotic, PO-357. *Journal of Antibiotics* **29**, 1249-1251.

VAN BRUMMELEN, J. AND WENT, J.C. (1957). Streptosporangium isolated from forest litter in the Netherlands. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 23, 385-392.

VAN DEN EYNDE, H., VAN DEN PEER, Y., PERRY J. AND DE WACHTER, R. (1990). 5S rRNA sequences of representatives of the genera *Chlorobium*, *Prosthecochloris*, *Thermomicrobium*, *Cytophaga*, *Flavobacterium*, *Flexibacter* and *Saprospira* and a discussion of the evolution of eubacteria in general. *Journal* of General Microbiology **136**, 11-18.

VICKERS, J.C. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1987). An assessment of plate inoculation procedure for the enumeration and soil isolation of soil streptomycetes. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **35**, 113-117.

VICKERS, J.C., WILLIAMS, S.T. AND ROSS, G.W. (1984). A taxonomic approach to selective isolation of streptomycetes from soil. In *Biological*, *Biochemical and Biomedical Aspects of Actinomycetes* (Ortiz-Ortiz, L., Bojalil, L.F. and Yakoleff, V., Eds.), pp. 553-561. Academic Press, Orlando.

VOBIS, G. AND KOTHE, H.W. (1985). Sporogenesis in sporangiate actinomycetes. Frontiers of Applied Microbiology 1, 25-47.

WALDMANN, R., GROSS, H.J. AND KRUPP. G. (1987). Protocol for rapid chemical RNA sequencing. *Nucleic Acids Research* 15, 7209.

278

WAYNE, L.G., KRICHEVSKI, E.G., LOVE, L.L., JOHNSON, R. AND KRICHEVSKI, M.I. (1980). Taxonomic probability matrix for use with slowly growing mycobacteria. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **30** 528-538.

WAYNE, L.G., BRENNER, D.J., COLWELL, R.R., GRIMONT, P.A.D., KANDLER, O., KRICHEVSKY, M.I., MOORE, L.H., MOORE, W.E.C., MURRAY, R.G.E., STACKEBRANDT, E., STARR, M.P. AND TRÜPER, H.G. (1987). Report of the *ad hoc* committee on reconciliation of approaches to bacterial systematics. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology* **37**, 463-464.

WELLINGTON, E.M.H. AND WILLIAMS, S.T. (1978). Preservation of actinomycete inoculum in frozen glycerol. *Microbios Letters* **6**, 151-159.

WELLINGTON, E.M.H., CRESSWELL, N. AND SAUNDERS, V.A. (1990). Growth and survival of streptomycete inoculants and extent of plasmid transfer in sterile and non-sterile soil. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 56, 1413-1419.

WHITEHEAD, D. (1989). Classification, Selective Isolation and Identification of Members of the Family Pseudonocardiaceae. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

WHITHAM, T.S. (1988). Selective Isolation, Classification and Identification of Streptosporangia. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.
WHITHAM, T.S., ATHALYE, M., MINNIKIN, D.E. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1993). Numerical and chemical classification of *Streoptosporangium* and related actinomycetes. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* (in press).

WIETEN, G., HAVERKAMP, J., ENGEL, H.W. AND TARNOK, I. (1979). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry in mycobacterial taxonomy and identification. In *Twenty-five Years of Mycobacterial Taxonomy* (Kubica, G.P., Wayne, L.G. and Good, L.S., Eds.), pp. 171-189. CDC Press, Atlanta.

WIETEN, G., HAVERKAMP, J., ENGEL, H.W. AND BERWALD, L.G. (1981a). Application of pyrolysis mass spectrometry to the classification and identification of mycobacteria. *Review of Infectious Diseases* **3**, 871-877.

WIETEN, G., HAVERKAMP, J., MEUZELAAR, H.L.A., ENGEL, H.W. AND AND BERWALD, L.G. (1981b). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry: A new method to differentiate between the mycobacteria of the "tuberculosis complex" and other mycobacteria. *Journal of General Microbiology* **122**, 109-118.

WIETEN, G., HAVERKAMP, J., BERWALD, L.G., GROOTHUIS, D.G. AND DRAPER, P. (1982). Pyrolysis mass spectrometry: Its applicability to mycobacteriology, including *Mycobacterium leprae*. Annals of Microbiology **133B**, 15-27.

WIETEN, G., HAVERKAMP, J., GROOTHUIS, D.G., BERWALD, L.G. AND DAVID, H.L. (1983). Classification and identification of *Mycobacterium* africanum by pyrolysis mass spectrometry. Journal of General Microbiology **129**, 3679-3688.

WILKINSON, B.J. AND JONES, D. (1977). A numerical taxonomic survey of Listeria and related bacteria. Journal of General Microbiology **98**, 399-421.

WILLCOX, W.R., LAPAGE, S.P. AND HOLMES, B. (1973). Identification of bacteria by computer: Theory and programming. *Journal of General Microbiology* 77, 317-330.

WILLEMSE-COLLINET, M.E., TROMP, T.F.J. AND HUIZINGA, T. (1980). A simple and rapid computer-assisted technique for the identification of some selected *Bacillus* species using biochemical tests. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* **49**, 385-394.

WILLIAMS, S.T. (1982). Are antibiotics produced in soil? *Pedobiologia* 23, 427-435.

WILLIAMS, S.T. AND MAYFIELD, C.L. (1971). Studies on the ecology of actinomycetes in soil. III. The behaviour of neutrophilic streptomycetes in acid soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 3, 197-208.

WILLIAMS, S.T. AND SHARPLES, G.P. (1976). Streptosporangium corrugatum sp. nov., an actinomycete with some unusual morphological features. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology 26, 45-52.

WILLIAMS, S.T. AND WELLINGTON, E.M.H. (1982). Principles and problems of selective isolation of microbes. In *Bioactive Products: Search and Discovery* (Bu'lock, J.D., Nisbet, L.J. and Winstanley, D.J., Eds.), pp. 9-26. Academic Press, London.

WILLIAMS, S.T. AND VICKERS, J.C. (1988). Detection of actinomycetes in a natural environment-Problems and perspectives. In *Biology of Actinomycetes* 88 (Okami, Y., Beppu, T. and Ogawara, K., Eds.), pp. 265-270. Japan Scientific Societies Press, Tokyo.

WILLIAMS, S.T., SHAMEEMULLAH, M., WATSON, E.T. AND MAYFIELD, C.L. (1972). Studies on the ecology of actinomycetes in soil. VI. The influence of moisture tension on growth and survival. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* **4**, 215-225.

WILLIAMS, S.T., SHARPLES, G.P. AND BRADSHAW, R.M. (1973). The fine structure of the Actinomycetales. In Actinomycetales: Characteristics and Practical Importance (Sykes, G. and Skinner, F.A., Eds.), pp. 113-130. Academic Press, London.

WILLIAMS, S.T., GOODFELLOW, M., ALDERSON, G., WELLINGTON, E.M.H., SNEATH, P.H.A. AND SACKIN, M.J. (1983a). Numerical classification of *Streptomyces* and related genera. *Journal of General Microbiology* **129**, 1743-1813.

WILLIAMS, S.T., GOODFELLOW, M., WELLINGTON, E.M.H., VICKERS, J.C., ALDERSON, G., SNEATH, P.H.A., SACKIN, M.J. AND MORTIMER, A.M. (1983b). A probability matrix for the identification of streptomycetes. *Journal of General Microbiology* **129**, 1815-1830.

WILLIAMS, S.T., GOODFELLOW, M., AND VICKERS, J.C. (1984a). New microbes from old habitats? In *The Microbe, 1984, Volume II* (Kelley, D.P. and Carr, N.G., Eds.), pp. 219-256. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

WILLIAMS, S.T., LANNING, S. AND WELLINGTON, E.M.H. (1984b). Ecology of actinomycetes. In *The Biology of the Actinomycetes* (Goodfellow, M., Williams, S.T. and Mordarski, M., Eds.), pp 481-528. Academic Press, London.

WILLIAMS, S.T., LOCCI, R., VICKERS, J., SCHOFIELD, G.M., SNEATH, P.H.A. AND MORTIMER, A.M. (1985a). Probabilistic identification of *Streptoverticillium* species. *Journal of General Microbiology* **131**, 1681-1689.

WILLIAMS, S.T., VICKERS, J.C. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1985b). Application of new theoretical concepts to the identification of streptomycetes. In *Computer-Assisted Bacterial Systematics* (Goodfellow, M., Jones, D. and Priest, F.G., Eds.), pp. 289-306. Academic Press, London.

WILLIAMS, S.T., GOODFELLOW, M. AND ALDERSON, G. (1989). Genus Streptomyces Waksman and Henrici 1943. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, Volume IV (Williams, S.T., Sharpe, M.E. and Holt, J.G., Eds.), pp. 2452-2492. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore.

WILLOUGHBY, L.G. (1969a). A study of aquatic actinomycetes. The allochthonous leaf component. Nova Hedwigia 18, 45-113.

WILLOUGHBY, L.G. (1969b). A study of the aquatic actinomycetes of Blelham Tarn. *Hydrobiologiya* **34**, 465-483.

WILSON, M.E., OYAMA, V.I. AND VANGO, S.P. (1962). Design features of a lunar gas chromatography. In *Proceedings 3rd International Symposium on Gas Chromatography* (Brenner, N., Ed.), pp. 329-338. Academic Press, New York.

WISHART, D. (1978). Clustan User Manual. (3rd Edition). Inter-University Research Councils Services Report No. 47. Programme Library Unit, Edinburgh University.

WOESE, C. (1987). Bacterial evolution. Microbiological Reviews 51, 221-271.

WOESE, C., STACKEBRANDT, E., MACKE, T. AND FOX, G.E. (1985). A phylogenetic definition of the major eubacterial taxa. Systematic and Applied Microbiology 6, 143-151.

WOLD, S. (1976). Pattern recognition by means of disjoint principal components models. *Pattern Recognition* **8**, 127-139.

WU, C.H., WHITSON, G.M. AND MCLARTY, J.W. (1990). Artificial neural system for gene classification using a domain database. In 1990 ACM 18th Annual Computer Science Conference Proceedings, pp. 288-292. ACM, New York.

WU, C.H., WHITSON, G.M. AND MONTLLOR, G.J. (1991). PROCANS: protein classification system using a neural network. In International Joint Conference on Neural Networks, Volume 2, pp. 91-96. IEEE, New York.

YAMAGUCHI, T. (1967). Similarity in the DNA of various morphologically distinct actinomycetes. *Journal of Bacteriology* **89**, 444-453.

ZAKRZEWSKA-CZERWINSKA, J., MORDARSKI, M. AND GOODFELLOW, M. (1988). DNA base composition and homology values in the classification of some *Rhodococcus* species. *Journal of General Microbiology* **134**, 2807-2813.

ZEMANY, P.D. (1952). Identification of complex organic materials by mass spectrometry analysis of their pyrolysis products. *Analytical Chemistry* **24**, 1709-1713.

ZHANG, Y., LIU, W., FENG, Y.-X. AND WANG, T.P. (1987). A simple and rapid solid-phase RNA sequencing method. Annals of Biochemistry 163, 513-516.

APPENDIX A

TAXON PROGRAM

The TAXON computer program was written in UCSD Pascal for the Apple IIe computers by Dr. A.C. Ward of the Department of Microbiology, University of Newcastle upon Tyne. The program has been transferred to IBM PC, written in standard Pascal for the Propas compiler running under MSDOS. The program allows for:

(a) a simple data entry system for binary data (+/-) derived from numerical taxonomic studies,

(b) pre-processing of data,

(c) on-line transfer of data from IBM PC/AT microcomputers to the Northumbria Universities Multiple Access Computer (NUMAC) AMDAHL 5860 in a form suitable for direct analysis using the CLUSTAN suite of programs (Wishart, 1978),

(d) analysis of data for clusters of strains defined by the numerical analysis and

(e) identification of unknown strains to clusters of strains defined in numerical analyses.

(a) Entry of Data

Initially, a screen editor is employed to generate a text file containing information on organism names (up to five alphanumeric characters), test names (up to three alphanumeric characters) and organisms and test groupings. The definition of groups of organisms and tests is necessary due to the limited size of the screen; the largest matrix that can be displayed on the screen is 70 tests by 18 organisms. The program is completely menu driven and incorporates full error checking. Upon running the TAXON program, the text file is read in and an empty data matrix of the appropriate size created and held in random access memory (RAM). Using the organism and test groups defined in the text file a screen sized "window" of part of the data matrix is displayed. The contents of each window can be set to contain positive, negative or blank values depending on the nature of the results. Thus, if the results are predominantly positive then the window can be completely filled with positive or negative values, respectively. The minority results can then be entered where appropriate saving the overall time required for data entry. Data are entered directly as single key strokes (+,- or space). After all the results for a "window" have been entered, the data are saved to RAM and another "window" displayed. The data matrix can be saved onto hard disc once the whole data matrix has been filled or during data entry. The TAXON program can handle a data matrix containing up to 512 unit characters for 512 organisms.

A facility exists for the addition of further organisms and/or tests to an established database. Thus, a new matrix file is created with additional organisms and/or test names and organism/ test groups. This amended text file is read in by the TAXON program and superimposed on the existing data matrix. The latter is expanded accordingly. Organisms and test names can be deleted from the matrix using a similar procedure. Once the matrix has been altered, it may be stored in hard disc with a new, or the existing file name.

(b) Pre-Processing of Data

Raw data can be examined to determine the overall percentage distribution of positive characters and the reproducibility of individual tests prior to numerical analysis. Percentage positive results for each character can be determined so that any test that is positive or negative for all of the organisms within the matrix can be identified. In addition, by entering the names of duplicated strains an output is obtained giving information on the individual test variances and percentage agreement between duplicated strains, and also the average probability of an erroneous result, the test error as defined by Sneath and Johnston (1972).

Tests considered to have little if any differential value or which show poor reproducibility can be removed from a data matrix by the creation of a new text file from which the appropriate tests have been deleted. The results corresponding to the missing tests are automatically discarded from the matrix when the new text file is read by TAXON. The reduced data matrix is then saved on hard disc.

(C) Transfer of Data

CLUSTAN requires databases to exist in a pre-determined format. The first 8 columns may contain a label, 9 and 10 are left blank. Columns 11 to 80 are available for data in a binary format (1/0). Data are written on multiple lines using the same format when more than 70 tests are used. A facility within TAXON allows the conversion of +/- results of a data matrix into the 1/0 format which are then saved to a text file. A second text file containing the names of the organisms in the dataset can be generated to contain the organism names in a format suitable for reading by CLUSTAN procedure LABELS. Finally, a batchfile is generated containing the information required for the execution of the numerical analysis on CLUSTAN. The formation of the batch file is facilitated by a simple question and answer procedure where many of the parameters are commonly available as default options. This is also saved to a text file. The three text files are then transferred to the mainframe computer to run a better CLUSTAN job.

(d) Analysis of Defined Clusters

The clusters of test strains defined during the numerical analysis can be superimposed onto the data matrix by a simple modification of the organism groups in the text file. Post-cluster analysis data processing facilities for a given cluster include:

(i) determination of average similarity, or dissimilarity of each strain to the other strains in the same cluster,

(ii) calculation of mean inter-cluster similarity or dissimilarity,

(iii) designation of centrotype strain,

(iv) calculation of percentage of strains in the cluster which are positive for each cluster for each test,

(v) calculation of the observed similarities, or dissimilarities, between pairs of duplicated, or defined groups of strains expressed by either the D_p , S_J or S_{sm} coefficients and

(vi) analysis of percentage positive data for clusters using procedures taken from the DIACHAR program (Sneath, 1980a)

The inclusion of the DIACHAR procedure within the TAXON program allows the selection of characters either for an identification matrix or for the design of isolation media selective for the recovery of representatives of chosen clusters, or groups of clusters, from natural habitats. The organism and the test grouping in post-analysis text files may be used to define the size of data matrices to be examined using DIACHAR. The output lists several properties for each cluster examined:

(i) the difference values and corresponding diagnostic scores for each test,

(ii) the sum of diagnostic scores for tests in each of the tests groupings examined and

(iii) a total sum of scores for all test sets examined.

289

The output is listed in descending order of difference values. Thus, tests are chosen that have both a high difference score and for which a high percentage of strains in a cluster are positive. The percentage positive values of the selected tests can be either displayed on the screen or printed out. The data for clusters in which all the strains are negative for one or more of the chosen tests are removed from the data matrix. The reduced data matrix is then subjected to a second analysis when more tests are selected to distinguish between the target cluster and remaining clusters. The data matrix may be reduced in this way until no further tests are highlighted that were scored negative for all members of any of the remaining clusters. Using this facility, a minimum number of characters can be chosen which enable each and every cluster to be distinguished from the others.

(e) Identification of Unknown Organisms

Unknown organisms can be examined for the appropriate diagnostic tests once an identification matrix has been constructed. The unknown organisms can be added to the TAXON data matrix by the creation of a new text file which contains the names of the organisms. This new file is read in the TAXON program and the binary data for unidentified strains entered into a data matrix as described previously. Identification scores are then calculated for each of the unknown strains to every one of the clusters defined in the data matrix, using the procedure IDENTIFY which is based on the MATIDEN program (Sneath, 1980a,

b). The identification coefficients calculated include:

(i) Willcox probability,

(ii) taxonomic distance of each known strain to the centroid of every cluster,

(iii) the 95% taxonomic radius of each cluster and

(iv) the Gaussian distance probability, that is, the percentage probability of a member of the cluster to which the unknown strain is being identified lying further

away from the cluster centroid that the unknown organism itself. The derivation and values required for a good identification are described in detail on page 31.

The procedure COMPARE, also included in the TAXON program, calculates the same identification scores for centrotype strains, hypothetical median organisms, and outer most member of each cluster; these values can be used to measure the degree of confidence that can be placed in the identification of unknown organisms to defined clusters. The identification of large numbers of strains can be performed in batch and the results either displayed on the screen or printed out.

APPENDIX B MEDIA AND REAGENTS

AV MEDIUM (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a)

Basal medium: L-arginine, 0.3 g; glucose, 1.0 g; glycerol, 1.0 g; K_2HPO_4 , 0.3 g; MgSO_4.7H_2O, 0.2 g; NaCl, 0.3 g; agar, 15 g; distilled water, 1.0 litre. To this basal medium add 1.0 ml per litre of a trace salt solution (i) and adjust to pH 6.8. Autoclave at 120°C for 15 minutes. Following autoclaving, add 1.0 ml per litre of a filter sterilised B-vitamins solution (ii) just prior to pouring the medium.

(i) Trace salt solution (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a)

CuSO₄.5H₂O, 0.1 g; ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1 g; MnSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1 g; distilled water, 100 ml.

(ii) B-vitamins solution (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a)

Thiamine (aneurine) hydrochloride, 50.0 mg; riboflavin, 50.0 mg; niacin (nicotinic acid), 50 mg; pyridoxine hydrochloride, 50.0mg; inositol, 50.0 mg; calcium pantothenate, 50.0 mg; *para*-aminobenzoic acid, 50.0 mg; biotin, 25.0 mg; distilled water, 100 ml.

MODIFIED BENNETT'S MEDIUM (Agrawal, unpublished data)

Lab lemco, 10.0 g; peptone, 2.0 g; yeast extract, 2.0 g; tryptose, 2.0 g; CaCo3, 100 mg; starch, 100 mg; D-glucose, 10.0 g; agar, 15.0 g; CoCl₂, trace; ferric ammonium citrate, trace; distilled water, 1 litre and adjust to pH 7.0. Autoclave at 120°C for 15 minutes.

CARBON SOURCE UTILISATION (Shirling and Gottlieb, 1966)

ISP 9 medium (modified from Pridham and Gottlieb, 1948)

Basal mineral salts agar: (NH₄)SO₄, 2.64 g; KH₂PO, 2.38 g; K₂HPO, 4.68 g; MgSO₄.7H₂O, 1.00 g. To this basal medium add 1.0 ml per litre of a Pridham

and Gottlieb trace salts solution (ii) and adjust to pH 6.8. Autoclave at 120°C for 15 minutes. Following autoclaving, add each of the Tyndallised carbon sources (i) just prior to pouring the medium.

(i) Sterile carbon sources

D-glucose used as positive control; solutions of each carbon source sterilised by Tyndallisation.

(ii) Pridham and Gottlieb trace salts

CuSO₄.5H₂O, 0.64 g; FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.11 g; Mncl₂.4H₂O, 0.79 g; ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 0.15 g; distilled water, 100 ml.

DEGRADATION TESTS

AV agar was supplemented with keratin (5 g/l, Aldrich) prior to autoclaving at 120°C for 15 minutes.

DNA DEGRADATION

Bacto-DNase test agar (Difco, 0632-01), 42.0 g; distilled water, 1.0 litre, adjust to pH 7.3. Autoclaved at 120°C for 15minutes.

HV MEDIUM (Nonomura, 1984; Hayakawa and Nonomura, 1987a)

Basal medium: humic acid, 1.0 g; CaCO₃, 0.02 g; FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.01 g; KCl, 1.7 g; MgSO₄.7HO, 0.05 g; Na₂HPO₄, 0.5 g; agar, 18 g; distilled water, 1.0 litre and adjust to pH 6.8. Autoclave at 120°C for 15 minutes. Following autoclaving, add 1.0 ml per litre of a filter sterilised B-vitamins solution (i) just prior to pouring the medium.

(i) B-vitamins solution (Nonomura and Ohara, 1969a)

Thiamine (aneurine) hydrochloride, 50.0 mg; riboflavin, 50.0 mg; niacin (nicotinic acid), 50 mg; pyridoxine hydrochloride, 50.0 mg; inositol, 50.0 mg; calcium

pantothenate, 50.0 mg; *para*-aminobenzoic acid, 50.0 mg; biotin, 25.0 mg; distilled water, 100 ml.

OATMEAL AGAR (Küster, 1959)

Oatmeal, 20.0 g; agar, 18.0 g; trace salts solution, 1.0 ml (i); distilled water, 1.0 litre. Steam the oatmeal in 1.0 litre of distilled water for one hour, filter and make up the volume to 1.0 litre with more distilled water. Add trace salts solution and agar, adjust to pH 7.0 and autoclave at 120°C for 15 minutes.

(i) Trace salts solution

FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1 g; Mncl₂.4H₂O, 0.1 g; ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1 g; distilled water, 100 ml.

UREA DEGRADATION (Gordon, 1966)

Basal broth: KH_2PO_4 , 9.1 g; Na_2HPO_4 (anhydrous), 9.5 g; yeast extract, 0.1 g; phenol red, 0.01 g; distalled water, 1.0 litre and adjust to pH 6.8. Add 10 ml of a filter sterilised solution (150 g/l) of urea to 75 ml of sterilised basal broth and dispense into sterile tubes (2.0 ml).

APPENDIX C

Table 26 Practical evaluation of the *Streptosporangium* frequency matrix: Results of the diagnostic tests*

		-									T	es	ts													
	C	3 1	1	г	s	т	в	Ρ	т	Α	А	K	s	D	U	А	С	С	М	Ç	G	Ν	Ν	S	F	FR
Strair	ıs/	1 2	r 1	Ū	с	Ρ	v	Ε	Ā	Е	Е	Ε	Т	N	R	М	Ρ	R	F	А	Ν	\mathbf{E}	Е	т	U	UF
	Ι	. I	5.0	R	4	2	т	3	2	1	2	R	D	Α	Ε	2	3	1	2	2	5	4	6	4	5	66
																	•									
TW001		• •		+	_	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-		- +
TW002	2 -			-	-	_	-	-	+	+	-	_	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	
TWOOS				+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	
TW007	/ 4			÷	_	_	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	_	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	
TW101	. 4			÷	-	-	-	_	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	- +
TW104	4			_	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+		+ +
TW106	i +	. 4		+	-	+	-	-	-	_	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+		+ +
TW115	; +			+ -	_	+	-	+	-	-	+	_	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+		+ +
TW116	; _	+			-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+		+ +
TW117	+	+			_	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-		- +
TW121	. +			ب ۱	-	-	_	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+		-	-	+	+	-	+	+		- +
TW126	_	+		ب ۱	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	_	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+		+ +
TW127	+	+			-	+		+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	- •	- +
TW128	+	+			_	_	-	_	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-		+		-	+	+		+ +
TW129	+	_	4		-	+	_	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+		- +
TW136	+	+	- 4		-	_	+	-	+	+	_	-	_	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-		- +
TW141	+	+	4		_	+	+	_	+	÷	_	-	-	+	-	+	+		-	+	-	-	+	-		- +
TW143	_ _	÷	4		-	-	÷.	+	_	-	+	_	+	+	_	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+		+ +
111140		+			-	Ŧ	_	_	_	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	_	-	+	_	-	+	+		+ +
m1/5a	_	, _			-	-	_	_	_	_	÷	-	_	÷	_	+	-	-	-	+	_	-	+	+	- +	+ +
TT43A	_		т Ц			±	ъ	_	-	+	<u>.</u>	_	_	÷	_	÷	+	-	+ -	+	-	-	+	-	- +	- +
101153	_	-	-			-	-	-	_	<u>.</u>	+	_	-	÷	_	÷	_	-		+ •	_	-	+	+		• +
101155	_	-			_	_	_	т	T	_	т Т	_	Ŧ	÷	-	÷	-	÷	_		-		+ -	+	- +	+
101155	_	Ţ	Ţ			-	_	т _	- -	-	т Т	_	÷	, +	-	÷	+	_	_ .	+ •	+ -	-	+ -	+ ·	- +	• +
101123	_	Ţ	-			T	_		_	L	_	_	, ,	÷		÷	÷	_		+ •			+ •	+ •	- +	• +
TWICI	-	+	-			_	_	T	-	т —	- -	_	Ť	т _	-	+	÷	_		+ •	+ -		+ •	+ •	- +	+
TWICS	-	+		_			_	T	Τ.	_	Ŧ	_	т 1	т -	_	_	<u> </u>	-		+ -			+ •			+
IWIOD	-	+	+			+	_	_	_	_	T 1	_	T L	Ţ	_	Ŧ	-	-		+ -	+ •		÷ +	+ -		+
10100	+	+	+			÷		_	_	_	Ŧ	_	-	T L	_		+	- .	+ •				+ •		- +	+
10100	-	+	+			-	-	-	_	-	т —	_	_	т -			-		· 	F -			+ -			-
101170	+	+	+			+ ·	+	+	_	т _	_	_	_	т 	+		+		+ -	F -			+ -	+ -		+
101170	+	+	+			+	+	_	_	<u> </u>		_			. .		_			F -			+ -	+ -	- +	+
101100	+	+	-				-	-	-		т _	_	- -	л.	<u>г</u> .								+ -		+ +	-
TW102	+	+	+	+		+ '	-	+	+	Ŧ	_	_	_	т.	т 1	. .							+ -	- +	+ +	-
101200	Ţ	Ť	+	+		•		Ŧ	T	т L	_	_			Ļ.	÷.	+		+ +	⊢ -			+ +	+ -		+
10203	Ť	Ŧ	+	_			+	_		T L	_	_	-	. .	Ļ.	+ .	+		+ +				F H	+ -		-
10/213	Ŧ	Ţ	_	_	7		-	_		-		_	_	т 					- 4				F 4	+ -	- +	+
TW210	- -	Ŧ	_	_	1		_	Ξ.	_	_	T.	_	т.	- -			+ •						+ -	- ا	• +	+
TW222	Ŧ	Ŧ	-	_			_		_		Ŧ L	_	- ·	<u> </u>		+ -	+ ·						+ +	F -	+ -	+
TW224	+	÷	+	-	_		_	т 			- ·		+ •						- +				+ +	+ -	• +	+
TW226	÷	÷	÷	_	-		L .		L .	r L .		-		÷ •					- +				+ -	- +	• +	-
TW227	+	+	÷	_	_					L -						+ +	+ •		- +	. –		• -1			· +	+
TW232	+	÷	+	_	_		с.		т : 	г 			. .	1 -					- +	. –		- 4		• +	+	-
TW235		÷	-	_	L						с.								• +			• +	- +		-	+
TW245	÷	÷	-	_	-					_]			 	+ -					• +	• +	. –	+	- +		-	+
mw251	÷	Ļ	+	_					L .				 	L -			۰ ۱		• +			+			+	+
TW252	+	- -	Ť	_	т - Т		_	 -						, L -	י ב.				• +	+		+	• +	. –	-	+
11257		- -	7 -	_	-			~ - 1 -					г – 1 ц. – 1	 	י ב.		⊢ -		. +		_		+		+	+
1112234	+	+ +	1	_	_								- 1 - 1	r -	ר ג.				 +	_	_	+			+	+
111263		+ +	-	_	_	_				۲ بر -			۲ د ا		ר ב.				+	_	_	- +	• +	. –	_	+
111203	Ţ	Ţ	_	_	-					. 1		_	г 1 L –							+	_				-	+
TM700	+	+	+	-	+	-			-				r -	_								•	•			

Į.

Table 26 continued

										Т	es	ts		-					_							
	G	М	Т	' S	Т	B	Р	Т	Α	А	K	S	D	U	А	C	C	М	С	G	N	N	S	\mathbf{F}	F	R
Strain	sA	Т	U	C	P	V	Έ	А	Ε	Ε	Е	Т	Ν	R	М	P	R	F	А	Ν	Έ	Ε	Т	U	U	F
	\mathbf{L}	L	R	4	2	Т	3	2	1	2	R	D	А	Ε	2	3	1	2	2	5	4	6	4	5	6	6
TW269	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW270	+	-	+	~	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW271	+	-	+	~	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW274	+	-	+	~	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	÷	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
TW276	+	+	-	~	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
TW282	+		+	~	+	-	+	-	_	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+		+	+	-	+	+
TW286	+	-		-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
TW292	+	_	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+		+	+
TW303	+	-	+	-	÷	-	+	-	_	+	-	+	+		+	+		+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW320	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	_	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW353	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	_	-	+
TW354	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW355	+	+	+		+	-	+	-	+	-	-	÷	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
TW366	+	~	+	-	÷		+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+
TW369	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	÷	+	-	+	+	-	+	+		-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+
TW375	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+		-	+	-	+	+	-		-	+	-		+	-	+	+
TW393	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	-	+	_	+	+	-	+	+	~	-	+	-	-	+	+
TW541	+	+	+	-	_	-	+	-	_	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	~	-	-	+	-	+	+
TW547	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	~	-	-	+	-	+	+

* Tests recommended by Whitham (1988).

TW, Representatives representing the twelve major *Streptosporangium* clusters (see Table 13, pages 86 to 90; Whitham, 1988; Whitham *et al.*, 1993).

Key for the diagnostic tests: GAL, Galactose as a sole carbon source; MTL, Mannitol as a sole carbon source; TUR, Turanose as a sole carbon source; SC4, Growth in the presence of sodium chloride; TP2, Growth at 37°C; BVT, Growth in the absence of B-vitamins; PE3, Growth in the presence of phenyl ethanol; TA2, Growth in the presence of thallous acetate; AE1, Aerial mycelium colour-pink; AE2, Aerial mycelium colour-white; KER, Degradation of keratin; STD, Degradation of starch; DNA, Degradation of DNA; URE, Urease production; AM2, Resistance to amoxicillin (250µg/ml); CP3, Resistance to cephaloridine (50µg/ml); CR1, Resistance to cephradine (500µg/ml); MF2, Resistance to cefoxitin (250µg/ml); CA2, Resistance to clavulanic acid (250µg/ml); GN5, Resistance to gentamycin sulphate(5µg/ml); NE4, Resistance to streptomycin sulphate(25µg/ml); FU4, Resistance to fusidic acid (5µg/ml); FU6, Resistance to fusidic acid (0.5µg/ml); RF6, Resistance to rifampicin (0.5µg/ml).

APPENDIX D

Table 27 Identification of the *Streptosporangium* isolates: Results of the diagnostic tests*

											m	~~~	+ 0														
				m	~	m			-	א	.T.	es v	ເຮ	Л	тт	ħ	C	c	м	c	C	N	м	c	ਸ਼	F	R
0 - - - - - -		ויכ	M 10	Т ТТ	5	T	E		T	A	A	N N	2		P D	M	D D	Б	F	ž	M	11	11	с П	TT I	TT	л г
strain	1SP	•	L.	U D	ç	P	~	_ E	A	E	E	E	T	N	R	M 2	2	_ Т	5	2	E IN		5	Å	5	ŝ	5
	1	1		R	4	2	.1	' 3	4	T	2	R	D	А	E	2	3	Т	2	4	5	4	0	4	5	0	0
117001																					-			1			
HJUUI			+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	_	_	_	_	+	+	+	Ŧ	Ŧ	Ŧ	_	Ŧ	Ŧ	_	Ŧ	т _
HJUU2			ł	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	_	-	Ŧ	Ŧ	т		Ţ		_	- -	т —	_	т 1	Ť
HJ 005	> + -		ł	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-		-	-	Ť		_	7	_	_	T	Ŧ
HJUUE	- 1		ł	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	Ť	Ŧ	-	Ŧ	Ţ
HJ008	3 1		۲	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-		-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+
HJ009	1		F	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-		+	-	+	+	+
HJ010) +		۲.	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-		-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
HJ011	. +		ŀ	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
HJ012	+	• +	۲·	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
HJ013	-			-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
HJ014	+		۰ ۱	÷	-	+		+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
HJ015	+			+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-		-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
HJ016	+			+	_	+		+	÷	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
HJ017	_	-		ł	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-		-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
HJ019	+			+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+
HJ020	+	- +		+	-	+	-	+	+	_	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
HJ021	+			ŧ.	_	+	_	+	+	_	+	_	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
HJ022	+	_		•	+	+	_	+	_	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
HJ023	+	+		ŀ	_	+	-	+	+	_	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
HJ024	+	+		F	_	+	-	+	+	-	+	_	+	-	+	-	+	-		+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
HJ025	÷	+			-	+	_	+	+	_	+	-	+	_	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
н.т.026	_	÷		F		+	_	+	+	-	+	_	+		+	-	+	-		+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
H.T027	1	÷			+	÷	_	+	÷	_	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
HT028	÷	÷			<u>.</u>	÷	-	+	+	-	÷	_	+	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
UT020	т 1				_	Ŧ	_		Ļ	_	÷	_	÷	-	+	_	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
UT020	Ţ	-			_	т —	_	т Т		_	÷	_	-	_	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	÷	+	-	-	+
111021	+	Ţ			_			T	т _	_	т Т	_	_	+	÷	÷	÷	+	÷	+	+	+	+	+		+	+
HJU31	+	+	1		_	-	_	- -	т _	_	т т	_	_	<u>.</u>	_	<u> </u>	÷	<u> </u>		+	+	_	+	+	. .	÷	+
HJ UJ Z	+	+	1	•	Ŧ	-		+	Ţ	_	Ţ	_	_	_	Ŧ	+	+	+		+	+	+	+ -	+ •		+	+
TUTO33	+	+	1		-	+	_	+	T		Ţ	_	_		1	÷	÷	÷	+ -	+ .	+	_	+ -	+ •		÷	+
HUT02E	+	+	+		-	+	-	÷	+	_	Ŧ	_	_	т _	÷	÷	÷	+	÷ +	+ .	÷	_	+ •	+ •		+	+
111035	+	+	+		-	+	-	+	+	-	т	_		т -	-	÷	÷	+		+ •	+	-	+ -	+ •		+	+
HJUJO	+	+	+	• •		+	-	+	-	-	-	-	т	-	_	-		_			+	+	+ •		+ •	+ -	+
HJ U3 /	-	-	-		+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	T	- -	_ _	т Т	+		+ .	+	+	+ .	+ •		+ •	+
HJ 038	+	+	+	• •	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	Ŧ	т _	т 1	<u>.</u>	- .			÷	+ •		+ -	+ -	+
HJ U 3 9	-	-	-		ł	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	Ŧ	-		т _	н	. .			÷ .		+ -	+ +	•	+
HJ 040	+	+	+		۲	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-		Ť	Ţ	Ţ	т 			Ļ		, + -	+ -	+ 4		+
HJ 041	+	-	+	-	F	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	_	+ ·	+ ·	+	Ţ	т 1		' L.			+ .	+ -			+
HJ 042	+	-	+	1	F	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+ ·	+ ·	+	+	+			r L					, 	
HJ 043	-	-	+	-	F -	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+		+ ·	÷	÷	+ :	Ξ.								-
HJ044	+	+	+	-		+		+	+		-	-				-	-	-									•
HJ045	+	-	-	-		-	-	-	+ ·		-	-					-						т 			L .	
HJ046	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+ ·		ł	-			+ •	+	+	+ .					т - 1 -		- 4		
HJ047	-	-	-	-	• •	+	-	+	+ ·		+		+ ·		+ ·	-	+		_ 1		r'' L		и – 1 К. – 1		۲ بر -		F
HJ048	+	+	+	-	• •	+	-	+ ·	+ •		+	-			+ -	+	+ '	+ ·					r 1 L 1		۳ ا. ا		•
HJ049	+	+	+	+		+		+ ·	+ •		+ ·		+ ·				+ ·	+ •					r 1	- 1			l L
HJ050	-	+	-	-	• •	+	-	+ •	+ -		+ ·					+ •	+ ·	+ -					r 1		. 1	- 1	
HJ051	+	+	-	-	• •	+	-	+ ·	+ -		+ •				+ -	+ •	+ •	+ -							- +	• •	
HJ052	+	-	-	-			-	+ ·	+ -		+ •				+ -	+ •	+ -	+ -	- +	- +		- 1	- +		- +	• •	
HJ053	+	-	+	-	• •		-	+ •	+ -	- +	⊦ -				- +	+ •	+ -	+ +	+ +	- +	• •		+ +		• +	• •	-
HJ054	-	-	-	+	• •	+ ·	-	+ -	۰ ۱		۰ ۱		+ -				- •		- +	• +			+ +		• +	• •	-
HJ055	+	+	+		• +	۲	-	+ •	+ -				+ -						• +	- +			+ +		• +	• •	•

Table 27 continued

Tests																										
	G	м	T T		: т	די	2 P	т	Α	Ā	ĸ	S	D	U	Α	С	С	М	С	G	Ν	Ν	S	F	F	R
Strain	с Д	Т	11	- ñ		τ	, . , .	<u>د</u> י	 		- F	. D	N	Ŗ	м	P	R	F	Ă	Ň	E	E	Ť	Ť	Ū	F
berum	T T	Ť	p	1	ົ້	ч п	ברי	ົ້	1	2	D	- n	Δ	5	2	à	1	2	2	5	ã	6	4	5	6	6
	-	<u>ц</u>	K		2	1	. J	2	Ŧ	4	n		-		2	5	-	4	2	2	*	Ŭ	-	2	Ű	Ŭ
H.T056	+	+	+			_	• +	+	-	_	-	+		_	-	_	-	-	+	+	_	+	+	_	+	+
HT057	_		Ť	_		_		Ť	_	т	_	_ _	_	+	_		_	_	_	_	_	÷	_	-	÷	÷
H.T058	_	- -	-	_	- -	_	. <u>.</u>		_		-	+	_	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	_	+	-	_	+	+
H.T.059	_	-	_	_	-	_		Ļ	_		-	_	_	_	÷	÷	+	_	÷	+	_	+	+	_	_	+
HT060	-	_	-				. <u> </u>		_	т 	-	-	_	1	<u> </u>	+	+	_	÷	÷	_	+	_	+	+	+
HT061	-	_	- -	т 		_		+	_	Ť	_	_	-	_	_	÷	+	_	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+
HT062			-	Ť	Ţ	_	. <u> </u>	+ +	-	Ť	_	+	-	Ŧ	_	÷	_	_	+	+	_	÷	-	_	÷	÷
HT063			т +			_	- T	+ +	_	Ť		÷	-	+	+	÷	_	+	+	+	_	+	-	_	÷	÷
HT064	-	-	- T		T	_		- -	_		-	÷	-	<u>.</u>	_	÷	+	÷.	÷	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
U7065	+	+	+		Ť	_	Ţ		_		_	т Т	_	_	т	÷	÷.	-	÷	÷	_	+	_	÷	÷	÷
HJUGS	+	+	Ť	-	-	_		Ţ	_		-		Ŧ	1	т 	<u>_</u>	+	_	, +	÷	+	÷	+	÷	÷	÷
HJ 000	-	-	+	+	+	-		T	-	Ŧ	-		т _	-	- -	т Т		т	Ļ	÷	÷	÷	÷	÷.	÷	÷
HJU67	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-		-	_	т	Ţ	- -	т _	т Т	т 1	т –	1	, _		Ļ	Ť.
HJ 068	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-			+		-	Ť	Ŧ	-	Ţ	-	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Ŧ
HJ069	+		+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	_	-	÷
HJ070	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+		+	+
HJ071	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+
HJ072	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	_	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
HJ073	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	_	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
HJ074	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
HJ075	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+		-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
HJ076	+	+	+	-	+	-	+		-	+	-	-		+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	<u> </u>	+	+
HJ077	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+		+	+	-	+	+
HJ078	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+
HJ079	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+		-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+		+	+
HJ080	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+		+	-		-	+
HJ081	+	÷	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+ ·	+	+	+	+		+	+
HJ082	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+ ·	+ ·	+ •	+	+	+		+	+
HJ083	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+ •	+	-	+	-		-	+
HJ084	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+ ·	+ ·	+ ·		+	+		- ·	+
HJ085	+	+	+		+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+ ·	+ •	+ •		+	+		+ ·	+
HJ086	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	- .	+ -	+ -	+ ·	+	+ '		+ •	+
HJ087	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+ -	+ •	+ •	+ •		+ ·	+ ·			+
HJ090	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-		+	-	-		+ •	+ -		+ ·	+ ·		•	+
HJ091	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+ •	+ -	+ -		+ ·	+ •		F -	(
HJ092	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	•••	-	-	+	-			+ -	+ -		•	+ ·	+ +		+
HJ093	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	- •		+ -	+ -	۰ -	+ •	+ ·	+ +		+
HJ094	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-		+	+ ·	+	+ ·		F -			• •	+ •			•
HJ096	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+ ·	+ ·	+ ·	+	+ •	+ -						- 1		
HJ097	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+ ·	+ ·	+ •	+	+ •	+ +				•	•••		- 1	F 1
HJ098	+	+	+	-	-	-	~	-	-	+	-	+			+ ·	-		- 1					• •			-
HJ099	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-		-			+ •	+			- 1					- +	- 1	F
HJ100 ·	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-			+ •	+ •	+ •	+ -	+ +						- +		-
HJ101 ·	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-				+ •	+ •	+ -		-		• •			- +		-
HJ102 -	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+ 1	-		-	- ·	- •		+ -	+ •	+ +	F 4	• -		• •			- +		-
HJ103 -	ŧ	+	+	-	+	-	+	+ ·		-	-				+ -	۲ ·		- +	• +		•			- +	•	•
HJ104 -	ł	+	+	-	+	-	+	+ ·	+			+ ·			+ +	+ •	+ +	+ +	• +		• •		+	• +	• •	•
HJ105 -	ŧ.	-	+	-	+	-	+	- •		+ ·	-	+ •	+ -		+ +	⊦ -		- +	• +		• +	1		• +	+	•
HJ106 -	ŧ.	+ -	+ ·	-	-	-	+	+ •		+ •		+ -	+ -		+ +	+ -	+ +	- +	• +	• +	• +	• •	• -	· -	-	•
HJ107 -	ł	+ ·	+ -	-	-	-	-			+ •	-				+ +			• +		-	+	• +	• -	• +	+	•
HJ108 +	F	+ •	+ •	-	-	-	-			+ •	-			- 4	+ 4			• +	·		+	• +		• +	+	
HJ109 +	F	+ •	+ •	-		-	-			+ -					+ 4			· +	-	-	+	+		+	+	

Table 27 continued

										Т	es	ts															
	G	М	т	S	т	в	Ρ	т	Α	Α	K	S	D	U	Α	С	С	М	С	G	Ν	Ν	S	F	F	R	
Strain	sA	Т	U	С	Ρ	V	Ε	А	Е	Ε	Ε	Т	Ν	R	М	Ρ	R	\mathbf{F}	А	Ν	Ε	Ε	т	U	U	\mathbf{F}	
	\mathbf{L}	\mathbf{L}	R	4	2	т	3	2	1	2	R	D	А	Е	2	3	1	2	2	5	4	6	4	5	6	6	
HJ111	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	
HJ112	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	
HJ113	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	÷	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	
HJ114	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-		+	+	-	+	+	
HJ115	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ116	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	
HJ117		+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+		-		-	-	-	-	+	-		+	+	
HJ118	+	+	+	-	-	-	-		-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ122	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	~	+	+	+	
HJ123	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ124	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ125	+	-	+	-	-	-		-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	
HJ126	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
HJ128	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+		+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ129	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ130	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	
HJ131	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	
HJ132	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	
HJ133	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	
HJ135	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-		+	+	
HJ138	+	+	+		+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	
HJ139	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	
HJ140	+		+		+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	``
HJ141	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	
HJ143	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	_	-	_	+	
HJ144	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	
HJ146	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-		+	+	
HJ147	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	+	-	-	-	-	+	
HJ148	+	+	+	-	-		+	+	-	+	-	+		-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-		-	
HJ149	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+		-	-	+	-	-		-	-	+	-	
HJ150	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+		-	-	-	- 1	+	-	-		-	-	+	-	
HJ151	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-		+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+ ·	+	-	-	+	
HJ152	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+ -	-	-		-	-	+ '	_ ·	-		- ·	-	+	-	
HJ153	+	+	+		+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+			+	+	-	+	+ •	+ ·		+ •	+ ·	-	+	+	

* Tests recommended by Whitham (1988).

HJ, Presumptive Streptosporangium isolates (see Table 12, pages 82 to 83).

Key for the diagnostic tests: GAL, Galactose as a sole carbon source; MTL, Mannitol as a sole carbon source; TUR, Turanose as a sole carbon source; SC4, Growth in the presence of sodium chloride; TP2, Growth at 37°C; BVT, Growth in the absence of B-vitamins; PE3, Growth in the presence of phenyl ethanol; TA2, Growth in the presence of thallous acetate; AE1, Aerial mycelium colour-pink; AE2, Aerial mycelium colour-white; KER, Degradation of keratin; STD, Degradation of starch; DNA, Degradation of DNA; URE, Urease production; AM2, Resistance to amoxicillin ($250\mu g/ml$); CP3, Resistance to cephradine ($50\mu g/ml$); CR1, Resistance to cephradine ($500\mu g/ml$); MF2, Resistance to cefoxitin ($250\mu g/ml$); CA2, Resistance to clavulanic acid ($250\mu g/ml$); GN5, Resistance to gentamycin sulphate($5\mu g/ml$); NE4, Resistance to streptomycin sulphate($25\mu g/ml$); FU4, Resistance to fusidic acid ($5\mu g/ml$); FU6, Resistance to fusidic acid ($0.5\mu g/ml$); RF6, Resistance to rifampicin ($0.5\mu g/ml$).

APPENDIX E

 Table 28 Data obtained from the fluorogenic enzyme tests for the 159 test strains including the seventeen duplicated strains

Tests
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Strains00000001111112222222000000111111122000000
12345680124570124567344678035678902123424578903457123458012345679012456
KH001+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH002+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH005+++++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH006+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH008+++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH009+++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH009+++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH010+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH011+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH012+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH013++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH014++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH015++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH016+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH015++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH017++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH019+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH020+-++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH021+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH021+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH022+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH023++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH024++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH025++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH026++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH027++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH028++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH028++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH029++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH030+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH031++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH031++++~++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH032++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH033+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH034++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH035++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHU4U++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
R_{1}
KHO42++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHOAA + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
KHO45++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH046+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH047++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH048++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH049++++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH051++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH052++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH052++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH053++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH054++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++

Table 28 continued

Tests
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Strains00000001111112222222000000111111122000000
12345680124570124567344678035678902123424578903457123458012345679012456
KHU55++++-+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHU56++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHU5/++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH058+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHU59++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHUDU+++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH066++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH067+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH068++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH069++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH070+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH071++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH072++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH073++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH074+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH075++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH076++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH077++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH077++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH078++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH079++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH080++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH081++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH082++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KHU86++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
\mathbf{X}
KH092++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH093++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH094++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH094++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH096++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH097++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH098++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH099++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH099++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH100++++-+++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++
UNIVO++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
NILV/ +++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KAITOO4444 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
KH111++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH112+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++

Tests
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Strains00000001111112222222000000111111122000000
12345680124570124567344678035678902123424578903457123458012345679012456

KH113+++++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH114+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH115+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH116++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH117++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH118++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH122++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH123++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH124++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH125++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH126++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH128++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH129++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DH129++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH130++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH131+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH132++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH133+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH135++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH137+++++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH138++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH139++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH140++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH141+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH143++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH144++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH146++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH147++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH148++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH149++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH150+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH151+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH152++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KH153++++-++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KT001+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DT001+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KT002++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KT004+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KT005+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
KT006++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
DTOOOOOOOOOO
RT007
RT008++++-+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
RTO09
\mathbf{K}^{TO}_{OO}
KTO21++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
RT
KT
KTO29++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
TTO 30 + + + - + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
$\Lambda_1 \cup_2 z_{++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++$
$\Lambda I U 3 0 + t + t + t + t + t + t + t + t + t +$
$\Lambda I U 4 1 + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$
\mathbf{X}^{-1}
$\Lambda T_{2} Z_{2} + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$
AIIIO + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
$\mathtt{A1141}^{++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++$
<u>ΛΙΔΙJŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦŦ</u>

DH and DT, duplicated strains; HJ, Streptosporangium isolates; TW, marker strains and centrotype strains of the streptosporangia clusters (See Table 17, pages 114 to 116)

N04	Boc-L-Leucine-glycine-L-arginine-7AMC	G01	4MU-2-Acetamido-4,6-o-benzylidene-2-
NOC			deoxy-p-D-glucopyranoside
NUG	Boc-L-Valine-L-leucine-L-lysine-/AMC	G02	4MU-2-Acetamido-2-deoxy-p-D-
NOT	Dee L. Veline L. amline L. antinine 74MC	CO2	AMUL 2 A setemide 2 de suu B D
INU7	Boc-L-vanne-L-pronne-L-arginine-/AMC	003	4MU-2-Acetamuo-2-deoxy-p-D-
NOS	Bog iso I. Leveine I. glutomine glugine I	GM	AMU N A cetul-B-D-calactosomine
1100	arginine-HCI-7AMC	1004	4MO-M-Actyr-p-D-galactosannic
N10	Bz-L-Valine-glycine-L-arginine-HCl-7AMC	G05	4MU-N-Acetyl-B-D-glucosamine
N13	Glutaryl-Glycine-glycine-L-phenylalanine-	G08	4MU-β-D-Cellobiopyranoside
	7AMC		
N15	Succinyl-Glycine-L-proline-7AMC	G10	4MU-a-L-Fucopyranoside
N16	Succinyl-L-Leucine-L-tyrosine-7AMC	G11	4MU-β-D-Fucoside
N17	Succinyl-L-alanine-L-alanine-L-	G12	4MU-β-L-Fucoside
N18	Succinvl-L-Leucine-L-leucine-L-valine-L-	G13	4MU-α-D-Galactoside
	tyrosine-7AMC		
N19	Z-L-Arginine-L-arginine-7AMC	G14	4MU-β-D-Galactoside
N20	Z-Glycine-L-proline-7AMC	G15	4MU-α-D-Glucoside
N22	Z-L-Glycine-glycine-L-leucine-7AMC	G16	4MU-β-D-Glucoside
003	L-Lysine-L-alanine-7AMC	G17	4MU-α-D-Glucuronide
004	L-Alanine-L-phenylalanine-L-lysine-7AMC	G19	4MU-β-D-Maltoside
X01	L-Alanine-7AMC	G20	4MU-α-D-Mannopyranoside
X02	B-Alanine-7AMC	G21	4MU-β-D-Mannopyranoside
X03	D-Alanine-7AMC	G22	4MU-β-D-Ribofuranoside
X04	L-Arginine-7AMC	G24	4MU-2,3,5-Trio-o-benzyl-α-L-
	C		arabinofuranoside
X05	Asparate-7AMC	G25	4MU-β-D-Xyloside
X06	L-Asparagine-7AMC	G26	4MU-β-D-Xylopyranoside
X08	L-Cysteine(Bzl)-7MAC	002	4MU-Phosphate
X10	L-Glutamine-HCI-7AMC	004	4MU-Pyrophosphate
X11	L-Glycine-HBr-7AMC	O 05	4MU-Sulphate
X12	L-Histidine-7AMC	O 07	bis-(4MU)-phosphate
X14	iso-Leucine-7AMC	008	4MU-(protected) Acetate
X15	L-Leucine-7AMC	009	4MU-Encosanoale
X17	L-Methionine-7AMC	010	4MU-Elaluale
X20	L-Proline-HBr-7AMC	013	4MU-Heptanoac
X21	L-Pyroglutamate-7AMC	014	4MU-Lamate
X22	L-Serine-HCI-/AMC	015	4MU-Lightee
X24	L-Tyrosine-/AMC	UI/ 101	4MU Polmitate
X25	L-Valine-/AMC	101	4NUL Dentadecaposte
X20	L-GIVGINE-L-PROHINE-HBI-/AMC	102	AMIL Stearate
X21	L-Arginine-L-arginine-3HCI-/AMC	103	4MIL-Octadecanoate
	1	104	THE OULDOWNOUN