

Genomic Analysis of *Actinomyces* sp. Strain CtC72, a Novel Fibrolytic Anaerobic Bacterium Isolated from Cattle Rumen

Akshay Joshi[†], Gowdaman Vasudevan[†], Anupama Engineer, Soham Pore, Sai Suresh Hivarkar, Vikram Bholanath Lanjekar, Prashant Kamalakar Dhakephalkar*, and Sumit Singh Dagar*

Bioenergy Group, Agharkar Research Institute, Pune 411004, Affiliated to Savitribai Phule Pune University, Pune 411007, India

Received: December 12, 2017 / Accepted: December 18, 2017

A xylanolytic and cellulolytic anaerobic bacterium strain CtC72 was isolated from cattle rumen liquor. Phylogenetic analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences revealed that strain CtC72 shared only 97.78% homology with its nearest phylogenetic affiliate *Actinomyces rumenicola*, showing its novelty. The strain could grow on medium containing xylan, carboxymethyl cellulose and avicel producing CO₂, acetate, and ethanol as major fermentation products. The whole genome analysis of the strain CtC72 exhibited a broad range of carbohydrate-active enzymes required for the breakdown and utilization of lignocellulosic biomass. Genes related to the production of ethanol and stress tolerance were also detected. Further there were several unique genes in CtC72 for chitin degradation, pectin utilization, sugar utilization, and stress response in comparison with *Actinomyces rumenicola*. The results show that the strain CtC72, a putative novel bacterium can be used for lignocellulosic biomass based biotechnological applications.

Keywords: Anaerobe, avicel, bioethanol, biomass, cellulose, lignocellulose

Introduction

Lignocellulosic biomass is the most abundant renewable energy source present in the world [1]. The cellulose and hemicellulose components of lignocellulose contain around 70% of fermentable sugars, which can be converted into methane or ethanol and used as renewable and sustainable fuels [2]. Development of second generation biofuel technologies based on lignocellulosic bio-

mass requires lignocellulolytic microbes. In this regard, anaerobic bacteria are of immense importance due to their ability to produce highly efficient extracellular multi-enzyme complexes, called cellulosomes [3]. Rumen, which houses highly diverse group of anaerobic microbes is an ideal habitat for finding efficient strains of lignocellulolytic anaerobic bacteria [4].

Several anaerobic bacteria of rumen origin *viz.* *Fibrobacter succinogenes*, *Ruminococcus flavefaciens*, *Ruminococcus albus*, *Prevotella ruminicola*, *Butyrivibrio fibrisolvens*, etc. are considered as efficient lignocellulose degraders [3]. Also, the recent advances in genome sequencing technologies have enabled researchers to decipher the genes and pathways involved in biomass degradation [5]. Here, we report genome characteristics of a xylanolytic and cellulolytic anaerobic bacterium strain CtC72 isolated from rumen liquor of cattle.

*Corresponding authors

P. K. D.

Tel: +91-20-25325120, Fax: +91-20-25651542

E-mail: pkdhakephalkar@aripune.org

S. S. D.

Tel: +91-20-25325120, Fax: +91-20-25651542

E-mail: ssdagar@aripune.org

[†]These authors contributed equally to this work.

© 2018, The Korean Society for Microbiology and Biotechnology

Materials and Methods

Isolation and identification

The strain CtC72 was isolated from cattle rumen liquor following enrichment and isolation in bacterial culture medium [6] using rice straw (1 mm size) for enrichment and microcrystalline cellulose (avicel) for isolation [7]. The genomic DNA of strain CtC72 was extracted using GenElute Bacterial Genomic DNA Kit (Sigma) following the manufacturer's instruction. The 16S rRNA gene was amplified (using 27f and 1492r primers) and outsourced for sequencing (1st BASE, Singapore) [8]. The 16S rRNA sequences were used to ascertain the identity of strain CtC72 using BLASTN search at NCBI.

Metabolite analysis

The strain CtC72 was grown for 24 h in bacterial culture medium [6] containing xylan, carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) or avicel to evaluate its ability to utilize different components of lignocellulosic biomass. The culture was used to estimate fermentation metabolites like gas, volatile fatty acids (acetate, propionate, and butyrate) and ethanol using gas chromatography [9, 10].

Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation

Whole genome sequencing of the strain CtC72 was performed using Ion Torrent PGM sequencer with 200-bp library chemistry applying the 316™ sequencing chip, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Life Technologies, USA). De novo assembly was performed using version 3.9.1. of SPAdes assembler. The genome was annotated using Rapid Annotation Subsystem Technology (RAST) server [11] and BASys, a web-based bacterial annotation system [12]. Accessory data was uploaded to KEGG database [13] for studying the metabolic pathways. Carbohydrate-Active Enzyme (CAZymes) annotation analysis was performed using web server dbCAN [14]. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA 6.0 by the neighbor-joining method with 1,000 replications in the bootstrap test [15].

The whole genome sequence of strain CtC72 has been deposited in GenBank under the accession number NZ_MTPX02000000.

Digital DNA-DNA hybridization and Average Nucleotide Identity

To investigate the taxonomic novelty of the strain CtC72, digital DNA-DNA hybridization (dDDH) comparison was performed using Genome-to-Genome Distance Calculator (GGDC) web browser (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany) [16] between strain CtC72 (query) and the nearest phylogenetic affiliate. Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) is defined as a pairwise calculation of overall similarity between two genome sequences of study. ANI has been widely used for defining species boundary between prokaryotes by calculating their ANI values between the genome sequences [17]. Here our genome CtC72 was compared with the type strain *Actinomyces ruminicola* DSM 27982.

Genome comparison using circular genome map

Blast Ring Image Generator (BRIG) software was used to create circular genome image comparisons. The genome sequences of query and reference strains were submitted in the 'fna' format to create the figure. BLAST analysis was carried out for the closely related genomes against the reference strain to create the circular genome comparison map [18].

Prediction of metabolites and antibiotic resistance genes

The prediction of antibiotic resistance and secondary metabolite biosynthetic gene clusters from the genome of the strain CtC72 was performed using antiSMASH web server. The antiSMASH provides the prediction by integrating a large number of in silico secondary metabolite analysis tools [19]. The bacteriocin prediction was carried out by BAGEL 3 web server. The genetic information analysis is based on the input data evaluated against a curated dataset of bacteriocins [20].

Antibiotic resistance genes in the genome of strain CtC72 was predicted using RAST annotation as well as by the web-based server Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD). The CARD server analyses the genome sequences using BLAST and Resistance Gene Identifier (RGI) software for gene prediction [21].

Results and Discussion

Taxonomic novelty

The 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity search

revealed that the strain CtC72 shared only 97.78% sequence similarity with *Actinomyces ruminicola* DSM 27982 (valid type strain: B71^T, accession number: DQ072005/NR043523), indicating the novelty of strain CtC72 [16, 22]. The genus *Actinomyces* is classified under family *Actinomycetaceae*, order *Actinomycetales*, class *Actinobacteria* of phylum *Actinobacteria* within domain Bacteria [23]. The other genera of this group include *Actinobaculum*, *Arcanobacterium*, *Mobiluncus*, *Trueperella*, and *Varibaculum*. Of these, the genus *Actinomyces* has been reported to be quite diverse with 47 recognized species isolated from diverse habitats. Almost all species are Gram positive, rich in G+C content and shows anaerobic, facultative anaerobic or aerotolerant growth patterns [24]. A phylogenetic tree based on the 16S rRNA gene sequences was constructed to show the relationship between the strain CtC72 and closely related *Actinomyces* species (Fig. S1). The tree displayed a clear branching of strain CtC72 from its nearest phylogenetic affiliate with 100% bootstrap support.

General genome architecture

The genome of the strain CtC72 consisted of 3,413,161

bp with 68% G+C content, comparable to *A. ruminicola* DSM 27982 and *A. radidentis* CCUG 36733. The final assembly contained 99 contigs with an N50 value of 74,975 bp with the largest contig assembled measured. A total of 3828 coding sequences, 49 tRNA and three rRNA and 322 subsystems were identified through RAST annotation. Most of the annotated genes determined carbohydrate metabolism (540), amino acids and derivatives synthesis (259), protein metabolism (209), cofactors, vitamins, prosthetic groups and pigment formations (145), and RNA metabolism (74). Genome statistics of strain CtC72 are given in Table 2. Sub-system distribution of the strain CtC72 is shown in Fig. 1 based on BASys annotation server analysis.

Genome comparison of strain CtC72 with reference genomes

The digital DNA-DNA hybridization using the genome of the strain CtC72 with its closest phylogenetic neighbor *A. ruminicola* DSM 27982 showed only 33.30% similarity, with a difference of 1.70% in G+C content, a threshold value of 70% DNA-DNA similarity is recommended for the definition of bacterial species to desig-

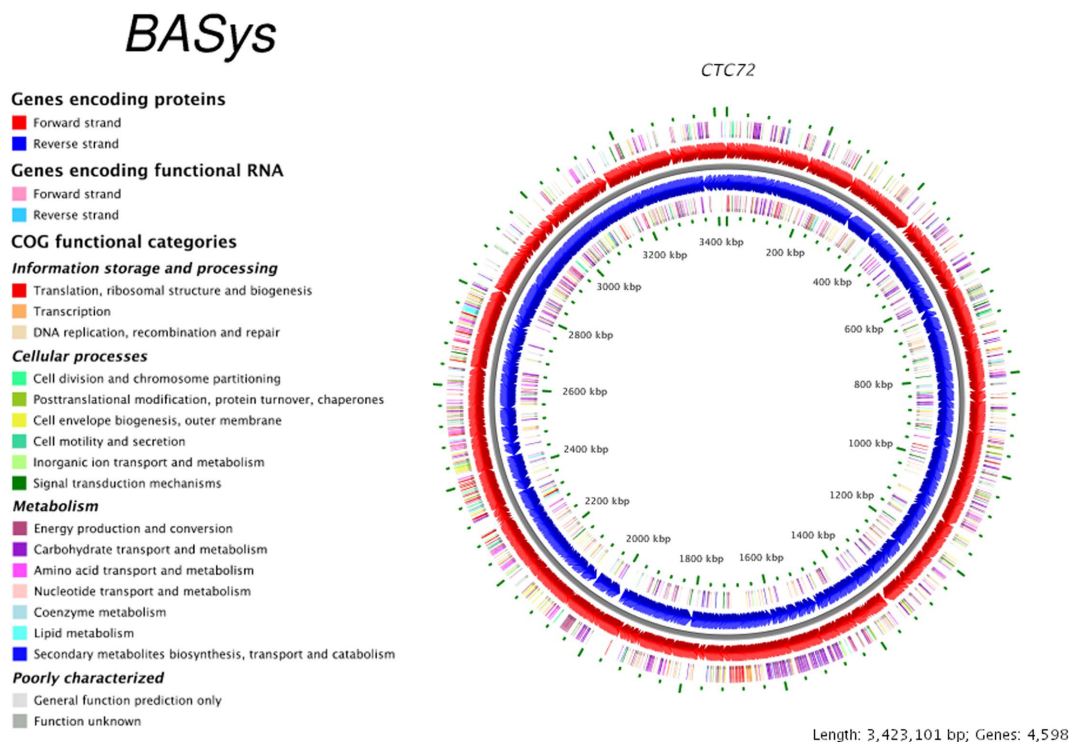


Fig. 1. Distribution and counts of genes in COG categories for genome of strain CtC72 from BASys annotation.

Table 1. Comparison of major metabolites of strain CtC72 with *A. ruminicola* DSM 27982 on different substrates.

Bacterial strain	CtC72	27982	CtC72	27982	CtC72	27982
Substrate	Avicel		CMC		Xylan	
Metabolite						
Total VFA (ppm)	2121 ± 8	1632 ± 12	1687 ± 28	1975 ± 18	2730 ± 17	2193 ± 5
Acetate (ppm)	2037 ± 12	1477 ± 4	1647 ± 24	1854 ± 18	2625 ± 21	2083 ± 5
Ethanol (ppm)	1647 ± 24	1854 ± 18	25 ± 7	38 ± 7	634 ± 9	129 ± 4

nate as a novel species [24]. Additionally ANI values between these two genomes were only 87.34% further confirming the novelty of strain CtC72, as ANI values less than 95-96% is proposed species cut-off value [17]. Genome comparisons by visualization especially as a circular image have become invaluable in determining genotypic differences between closely related species [18]. The circular genome comparison (Fig. 2) of strain CtC72 also showed many dissimilarities against different species as gaps, indicating the uniqueness of this isolate.

Metabolite analysis

The strain CtC72 was found to degrade and ferment

Table 2. Genome annotation of the strain CtC72 using RAST server.

Attributes	Values
Genome size	3,413,161 bp
Total number of contigs	99
G+C content (%)	68
Total number of subsystems	322
Total number of coding sequence	3828
tRNAs	49
rRNAs	3

CMC, avicel, and xylan (Table 1). We also compared the fermentation products of strain CtC72 with type strain

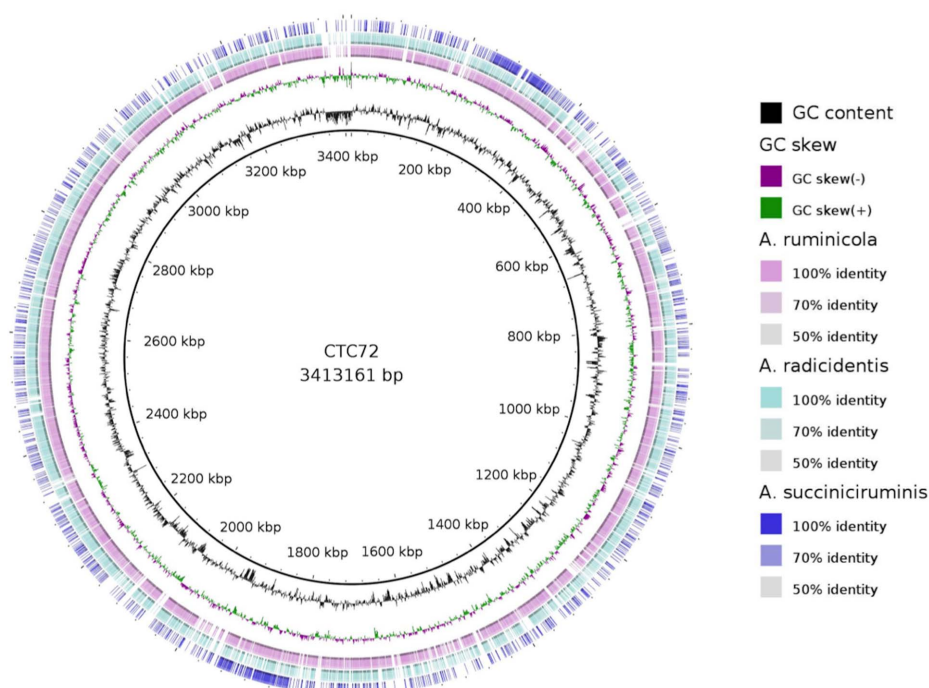


Fig. 2. BRIG analysis of *Actinomyces* sp. CtC72 with the genomes of *A. ruminicola*, *A. succinicuruminis*, and *A. radidentis*. The innermost Ring 1 represents the GC content, followed by GC skew (- & +), Ring 3 is CtC72 (pink), Ring 4 is *A. ruminicola* (Green), Ring 5 is *A. succinicuruminis* (Dark blue) and Ring 6 is *A. radidentis* (Light blue). Colors indicate the percentage of sequence identity.

A. ruminicola DSM 27982. Major fermentation products of both cultures were carbon dioxide, ethanol, and acetate, while propionate and butyrate were produced in minor amounts. In comparison, the strain CtC72 produced more acetate on avicel and xylan and better ethanol on xylan.

Genes involved in carbohydrate utilization

The annotation analysis by dbCAN predicted 191 genes encoding for carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) including 37 glycosyl transferase (GT), 23 carbohydrate esterase (CE), 18 carbohydrate binding module (CBM), 110 glycosidase hydrolase (GH), two auxiliary activity (AA) and one polysaccharide lyase (PL) family. The presence of different subfamilies of glycosidase hydrolase and carbohydrate esterase suggests that the strain CtC72 can ferment various polysaccharides. For cellulose degradation, we found the genes encoding enzymes like β -glucosidase (GH3 and 5). The complex polysaccharides are broken down into oligosaccharides or monosaccharides by bacterial lyases or glycosidase. The presence of a vast number of CAZymes, including the important

GHs and PLs in strain CtC72, suggests the complex mechanism of polysaccharide degradation [25].

Hemicellulose is the second most abundant polysaccharides in nature, major part of which is constituted by xylan. The complete degradation of xylan involves the activity of several xylanolytic enzymes such as β -1,4-endoxylanase, β -xylosidase, α -L-arabinofuranosidase, and acetyl xylan esterase [26]. A total of 37 genes encoding for enzymes involved in xylan metabolism were identified in strain CtC72, namely three endo-1,4- β -xylanase A genes (FIG00475203), four β -xylosidase genes (FIG00003086), two α -xylosidase (FIG00003174), two acetyl xylan esterase (FIG01955910), five α -L-arabinofuranosidase (FIG00037240), one ABC alpha-xylosidase transporter genes (FIG00089781), three xylose ABC transporter (FIG01276112), a xylose isomerase gene (FIG00019456), three xylulose kinase genes (FIG00000793), three xyloside transporter XynT genes and three xylose responsive transcription regulation factor ROK family. Of these, the most important enzymes are β -xylosidase and xylose isomerase, which carries out the first and second step in xylan degradation [27]. The

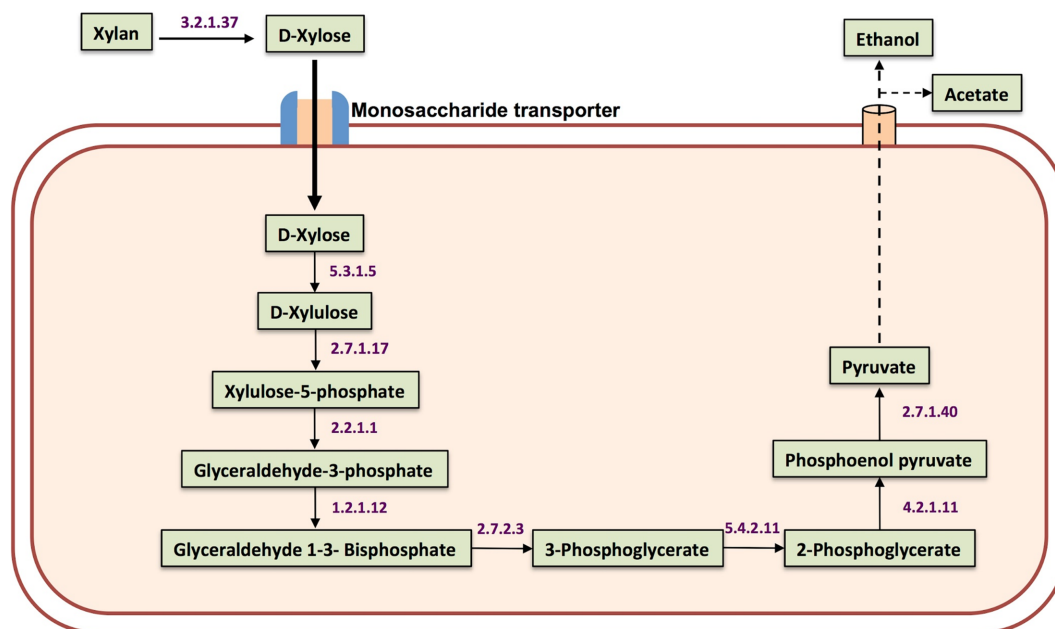


Fig. 3. Xylan degradation pathway elucidated through KEGG annotation from the genome of strain CtC72. The pathways involved in xylan degradation are pentose phosphate pathway, glycolysis, and pyruvate metabolism. Enzymes involved in xylan degradation: 3.2.1.37 - Beta-xylosidase; 5.3.1.5 - xylose isomerase; 2.7.1.17 - xylulokinase; 2.2.1.1 - transketolase; 1.2.1.12 - glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; 2.7.2.3 - phosphoglycerate kinase; 5.4.2.11 - 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate-dependent phosphoglycerate mutase; 4.2.1.11 - enolase; 2.7.1.40 - pyruvate kinase. Dotted lines indicate that more than one reaction are involved in the formation of the end product.

strain CtC72 contained all the essential enzymes required for efficient xylan utilization making it an efficient xylanolytic organism (Fig. 3).

The genome of strain CtC72 also has the genes necessary for the production of fermentation metabolites like acetate, formate, lactate, and ethanol. The data from KEGG and RAST server identified several enzymes like pyruvate: formate lyase and lactate dehydrogenase required for the production of formate and acetate, and lactate, respectively.

Genes involved in ethanol production

The production of ethanol from pyruvate involves a two-step or three-step fermentation pathway. In two-step pathway, pyruvate is decarboxylated to acetaldehyde by pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC), and the resulting acetaldehyde is converted to ethanol by alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) [28]. In the three-step ethanol fermentation pathway, pyruvate is decarboxylated to acetyl-CoA by pyruvate ferredoxin oxidoreductase (POR) and pyruvate formate lyase (PFL). The resultant acetyl-CoA is converted to acetaldehyde and finally to ethanol through the action of CoA-dependent-acetylating acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH), and ADH, respectively [29, 30]. The BlastKOALA annotation file of strain CtC72 was mapped to KEGG pathway mapper to detect the genes involved in ethanol fermentation. Interestingly, the PDC and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase gene, which are most commonly involved in ethanol production in bacteria were not detected in strain CtC72 genome. However, five copies of ADH (EC 1.1.1.1) and POR complex (EC 1.2.7.1) were identified. Since ethanol is detected in significant amount when using avicel and

xylan as a substrate (Table 1), it suggests that POR carries out the conversion of pyruvate to acetaldehyde with the release of CO₂ and acetaldehyde into ethanol by ADH (Fig. 4), similar to a hyperthermophilic archaeon *Pyrococcus furiosus* [31].

Stress resistance genes

To survive in extreme environmental conditions such as heat, osmotic stress, and initial high sugar concentrations during fermentation, an organism requires stress resistance genes [32–34]. The genome of strain CtC72 showed 44 genes involved in stress resistance (Table S1), including genes for osmotic stress (8), oxidative stress (16), heat shock protein (13) and for detoxification, stress and periplasmic stress (7). The genes for osmotic stress, oxidative stress, and heat shock proteins are necessarily required by microbes to tolerate high concentrations of sugars and ethanol [35–37].

Bacteriocin production and antibiotic resistance genes

Bacteriocins are protein complexes that exhibit antibacterial activity towards closely related species [38]. Genome mining for bacteriocin gene clusters in strain CtC72 showed the presence of gene cluster for a lanthionine-containing bacteriocin gallidermin (Fig. 5). Gallidermin exhibits antimicrobial property by inhibition of peptidoglycan synthesis and pore formation in membranes by interaction with the cell wall precursor lipid II of bacteria [39, 40]. An earlier study has shown improved ethanol production by a nisin producing bacteria through the selective elimination of contaminating *Lactobacillus* [41]. Hence, the bacteriocin-producing ability of strain CtC72 can be helpful in inhibition of

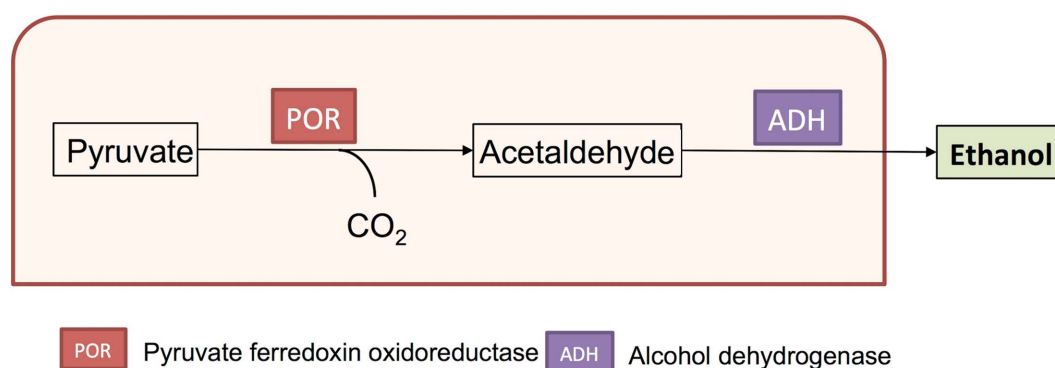


Fig. 4. Ethanol production from pyruvate catalyzed by pyruvate ferredoxin oxidoreductase (POR) and alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) activity.

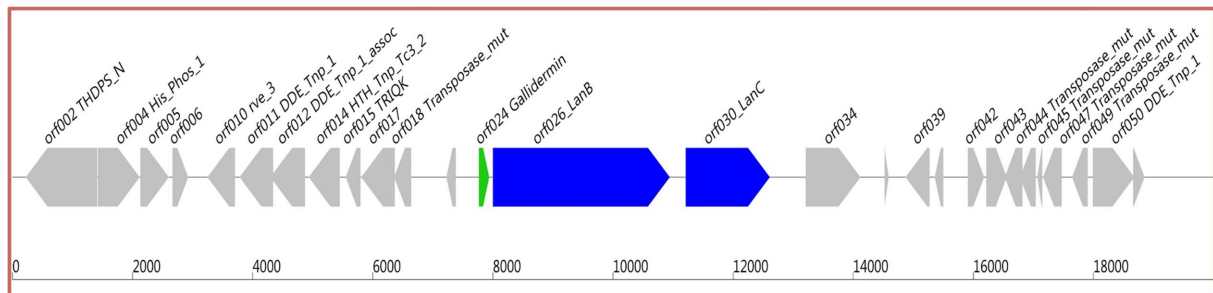


Fig. 5. Bacteriocin predicted in the genome of strain CtC72 using BAGEL showing gene cluster for gallidermin.

Table 3. Antibiotic resistance genes in strain CtC72 identified using CARD.

Antibiotic resistance genes
mfd protein - fluoroquinolone resistance
ileS conferring resistance to mupirocin
cdeA protein multidrug efflux pump complex
murA conferring resistance to fosfomycin
desR protein - macrolide resistance
parY mutant conferring resistance to aminocoumarin
EF-Tu mutants conferring resistance to elfamycin

undesirable bacteria during development of industrial processes for lignocellulose degradation.

The genome analysis also revealed the presence of genes related to antibiotic resistance (Table 4) and efflux pumps (Fig. S2) in strain CtC72. RAST annotation predicted the presence of genes for DNA gyrase, topoisomerase IV subunits A & B which are responsible for resistance to fluoroquinolones. Similarly, genes encoding for resistance to vancomycin, polymyxin, streptothricin,

tetracyclin and heavy metals were also discovered. These results indicate that the strain CtC72 is capable of surviving against a wide range of antibiotics, which might be helpful in selective removal of bacterial contaminants.

Unique genes

The strain CtC72 contains 89 unique genes when compared with its nearest phylogenetic affiliate *Actinomyces ruminicola* DSM 27982. Genes for chitin and N-acetylglucosamine utilization, trehalose uptake and utilization, genes for ABC transporter for dipeptides, beta-glucosidase metabolism, D-galacturonate and D-glucuronate utilization, mannose metabolism, L-arabinose utilization, beta-glucoside metabolism, inositol catabolism, bacitracin stress response, lanthionine synthetases, iron transport system, etc. However, the strain CtC72 also lacked 70 genes in comparison to *A. ruminicola* DSM 27982, including genes for exopolysaccharide biosynthesis, denitrifying gene clusters, L-rhamnose utilization, etc. The presence of additional sugar metabolism

Table 4. Genes responsible for chitin utilization in strain CtC72.

Genes	Figfam
Beta-hexosaminidase (EC 3.2.1.52)	FIG00001088
Chitinase (EC 3.2.1.14)	FIG00001347
Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase (EC 3.5.99.6); Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase [isomerizing], alternative (EC 3.5.99.6)	FIG00000645
N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, permease protein 1	FIG00008591 FIG01966738
N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, permease protein 2	FIG00501923
N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, sugar-binding protein	FIG00013626
N-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase (EC 3.5.1.25)	FIG00076542
PTS system, N-acetylglucosamine-specific IIB component (EC 2.7.1.69) / PTS system, N-acetylglucosamine-specific IIC component (EC 2.7.1.69)	FIG01962194

genes indicates efficient carbohydrate degradation and sugar utilization in strain CtC72. The presence of 2 chitinase enzymes and numerous ABC transport genes in the strain CtC72 (Table 4) suggests the possible chitinolytic behavior of this organism [42]. All hydrolytic bacteria compete with anaerobic fungi for substrates in the rumen environment. Therefore, the chitinolytic activities might be helpful for strain CtC72 in hydrolyzing the chitin cell wall of anaerobic fungi [43].

Genes encoding value-added by-products

Several genes which encode for enzymes like acetolactate synthase (EC 2.2.1.6), diacetyl reductase (EC 1.1.1.304), butanediol dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.76), lactaldehyde reductase (EC 1.1.1.77), xylitol dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.9) were also detected in the genome of strain CtC72. These enzymes are responsible for the production of value-added compounds like acetoin, 2, 3-butanediol, 1, 2-propanediol, xylitol, etc. [44–47], highlighting the biotechnological potential of strain CtC72.

In conclusion, an anaerobic bacterium strain CtC72 was isolated from the rumen of cattle and identified as a novel *Actinomyces* species. The strain utilized and fermented avicel, CMC, and xylan to CO₂, acetate, and ethanol. The genome analysis of the strain CtC72 revealed its taxonomic novelty, the genes involved in efficient xylan and cellulose degradation, ethanol production, and ability to tolerate stress conditions. Several key enzymes and transporters involved in chitin degradation were also identified. These findings underscore potential applications of *Actinomyces* sp. CtC72 in the conversion of lignocellulosic biomass into industrially useful compounds, especially bioethanol.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to the Director, Agharkar Research Institute for an internal research grant for the MIC-32 project. The CSIR-Senior Research Fellowship to Soham Pore is gratefully acknowledged.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no financial conflicts of interest to declare.

References

- Viikari L, Vehmaanperä J, Koivula A. 2012. Lignocellulosic ethanol: from science to industry. *Biomass Bioenergy* **46**: 13-24.
- Arevalo-Gallegos A, Ahmad Z, Asgher M, Parra-Saldivar R, Iqbal HMN. 2017. Lignocellulose: A sustainable material to produce value-added products with a zero waste approach—A review. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* **99**: 308-318.
- Lynd LR, Weimer PJ, Van Zyl WH, Pretorius IS. 2002. Microbial cellulose utilization: fundamentals and biotechnology. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **66**: 506-577.
- Sirohi SK, Singh N, Dagar SS, Puniya AK. 2012. Molecular tools for deciphering the microbial community structure and diversity in rumen ecosystem. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **95**: 1135-1154.
- Hess M, Sczyrba A, Egan R, Kim T-W, Chokhawala H, Schroth G, *et al.* 2011. Metagenomic discovery of biomass-degrading genes and genomes from cow rumen. *Science* **331**: 463-467.
- Dagar S, Singh N, Goel N, Kumar S, Puniya A. 2014. Role of anaerobic fungi in wheat straw degradation and effects of plant feed additives on rumen fermentation parameters in vitro. *Benef. Microbes.* **6**: 353-360.
- Miller TL, Wolin M. 1974. A serum bottle modification of the Hungate technique for cultivating obligate anaerobes. *Appl. Microbiol.* **27**: 985-987.
- Suzuki MT, Giovannoni SJ. 1996. Bias caused by template annealing in the amplification of mixtures of 16S rRNA genes by PCR. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **62**: 625-630.
- Singh KG, Lapsiya KL, Gophane RR, Ranade DR. 2016. Optimization for butanol production using Plackett-Burman Design coupled with Central Composite Design by *Clostridium beijerinckii* strain CHTa isolated from distillery waste manure. *J. Biochem. Tech.* **7**:1063-1068.
- Dighe AS, Shouche YS, Ranade DR. 1998. *Selenomonas lipolytica* sp. nov., an obligately anaerobic bacterium possessing lipolytic activity. *Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol.* **48**: 783-791.
- Aziz RK, Bartels D, Best AA, DeJongh M, Disz T, Edwards RA, *et al.* 2008. The RAST Server: rapid annotations using subsystems technology. *BMC Genomics* **9**: 75.
- Van Domselaar GH, Stothard P, Shrivastava S, Cruz JA, Guo A, Dong X, *et al.* 2005. BASys: a web server for automated bacterial genome annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **33**: W455-W459.
- Kanehisa M, Goto S, Kawashima S, Okuno Y, Hattori M. 2004. The KEGG resource for deciphering the genome. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **32**: D277-D280.
- Yin Y, Mao X, Yang J, Chen X, Mao F, Xu Y. 2012. dbCAN: a web resource for automated carbohydrate-active enzyme annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **40**: W445-W451.
- Tamura K, Stecher G, Peterson D, Filipowski A, Kumar S. 2013. MEGA6: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis version 6.0. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **30**: 2725-2729.
- Meier-Kolthoff JP, Auch AF, Klenk H-P, Göker M. 2013. Genome sequence-based species delimitation with confidence intervals and improved distance functions. *BMC Bioinformatics* **14**: 60.
- Yoon SH, Ha SM, Lim J, Kwon S, Chun J. 2017. A large-scale evaluation of algorithms to calculate average nucleotide identity. *Anton. Leeuw.* **110**: 1281-1286.

18. Alikhan NF, Petty NK, Ben Zakour NL, Beatson SA. 2011. BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG): simple prokaryote genome comparisons. *BMC Genomics* **12**: 402.
19. Weber T, Blin K, Duddela S, Krug D, Kim HU, Brucoleri R, et al. 2015. antiSMASH 3.0—a comprehensive resource for the genome mining of biosynthetic gene clusters. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **43**: W237-W243.
20. van Heel AJ, de Jong A, Montalban-Lopez M, Kok J, Kuipers OP. 2013. BAGEL3: automated identification of genes encoding bacteriocins and (non-) bactericidal posttranslationally modified peptides. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **41**: W448-W453.
21. Jia B, Raphenya AR, Alcock B, Waglechner N, Guo P, Tsang KK, et al. 2017. CARD 2017: expansion and model-centric curation of the comprehensive antibiotic resistance database. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**: D566-D573.
22. Kim M, Oh HS, Park SC, Chun J. 2014. Towards a taxonomic coherence between average nucleotide identity and 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity for species demarcation of prokaryotes. *Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.* **64**: 346-351.
23. Cimmino T, Metidji S, Labas N, Le Page S, Musso D, Raoult D, et al. 2016. Genome sequence and description of *Actinomyces polyne-siensis* str. MS2 sp. nov. isolated from the human gut. *New Microbes New Infect.* **12**: 1-5.
24. NA SP, Pristaš P, Hrehová L, Javorský P, Stams AJ, Plugge CM. 2016. *Actinomyces succinicuruminis* sp. nov. and *Actinomyces glycerinitolerans* sp. nov., two novel organic acid-producing bacteria isolated from rumen. *Syst. Appl. Microbiol.* **39**: 445-452.
25. Gao B, Jin M, Li L, Qu W, Zeng R. 2017. Genome sequencing reveals the complex polysaccharide-degrading ability of novel deep-sea bacterium *Flammeovirga pacifica* WPAGA1. *Front. Microbiol.* **8**: 600.
26. Dodd D, Cann IK. 2009. Enzymatic deconstruction of xylan for biofuel production. *GCB Bioenergy* **1**: 2-17.
27. Schäfers C, Blank S, Wiebusch S, Elleuche S, Antranikian G. 2017. Complete genome sequence of *Thermus brockianus* GE-1 reveals key enzymes of xylan/xylose metabolism. *Stand. Genomic. Sci.* **12**: 22.
28. Reid MF, Fewson CA. 1994. Molecular characterization of microbial alcohol dehydrogenases. *Crit. Rev. Microbiol.* **20**: 13-56.
29. Radianingtyas H, Wright PC. 2003. Alcohol dehydrogenases from thermophilic and hyperthermophilic archaea and bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **27**: 593-616.
30. Littlechild J, Guy J, Isupov M. 2004. Hyperthermophilic dehydrogenase enzymes. *Biochem. Soc. Trans.* **32**: 255-258.
31. Keller MW, Lipscomb GL, Nguyen DM, Crowley AT, Schut GJ, Scott I, et al. 2017. Ethanol production by the hyperthermophilic archaeon *Pyrococcus furiosus* by expression of bacterial bifunctional alcohol dehydrogenases. *Microb. Biotechnol.* **10**: 1535-1545.
32. Andrietta M, Andrietta S, Steckelberg C, Stupiello E. 2007. Bioethanol-Brazil, 30 years of Proálcool. *Int. Sugar. J.* **109**: 195-200.
33. Basso LC, De Amorim HV, De Oliveira AJ, Lopes ML. 2008. Yeast selection for fuel ethanol production in Brazil. *FEMS Yeast Res.* **8**: 1155-1163.
34. Sootsuwan K, Thanonkeo P, Keeratirakha N, Thanonkeo S, Jaisil P, Yamada M. 2013. Sorbitol required for cell growth and ethanol production by *Zymomonas mobilis* under heat, ethanol, and osmotic stresses. *Biotechnol. Biofuels.* **6**: 180.
35. Ma R, Zhang Y, Hong H, Lu W, Lin M, Chen M, et al. 2011. Improved osmotic tolerance and ethanol production of ethanologenic *Escherichia coli* by IrrE, a global regulator of radiation-resistance of *Deinococcus radiodurans*. *Curr. Microbiol.* **62**: 659-664.
36. Comporti M, Signorini C, Leoncini S, Gardi C, Ciccoli L, Giardini A, et al. 2010. Ethanol-induced oxidative stress: basic knowledge. *Genes Nutr.* **5**: 101-109.
37. Stanley D, Bandara A, Fraser S, Chambers P, Stanley GA. 2010. The ethanol stress response and ethanol tolerance of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **109**: 13-24.
38. Todorov SD. 2009. Bacteriocins from *Lactobacillus plantarum* production, genetic organization and mode of action: produção, organização genética e modo de ação. *Braz J. Microbiol.* **40**: 209-221.
39. Bonelli RR, Schneider T, Sahl H-G, Wiedemann I. 2006. Insights into in vivo activities of lantibiotics from gallidermin and epidermin mode-of-action studies. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **50**: 1449-1457.
40. Knerr PJ, Van Der Donk WA. 2012. Discovery, biosynthesis, and engineering of lantipeptides. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **81**: 479-505.
41. Peng J, Zhang L, Gu ZH, Ding ZY, Shi GY. 2012. The role of nisin in fuel ethanol production with *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Let. Appl. Microbiol.* **55**: 128-134.
42. Ravcheev DA, Godzik A, Osterman AL, Rodionov DA. 2013. Polysaccharides utilization in human gut bacterium *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*: comparative genomics reconstruction of metabolic and regulatory networks. *BMC Genomics.* **14**: 873.
43. Kopecny J, Hodrova B, Stewart CS. 1996. The effect of rumen chitinolytic bacteria on cellulolytic anaerobic fungi. *Let. Appl. Microbiol.* **23**: 199-202.
44. Bennett GN, San KY. 2001. Microbial formation, biotechnological production and applications of 1, 2-propanediol. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **55**: 1-9.
45. de Albuquerque TL, da Silva IJ, de Macedo GR, Rocha MVP. 2014. Biotechnological production of xylitol from lignocellulosic wastes: a review. *Process Biochem.* **49**: 1779-1789.
46. García-Quintás N, Repizo G, Martín M, Magni C, López P. 2008. Activation of the diacetyl/acetoin pathway in *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *lactis* bv. diacetylactis CRL264 by acidic growth. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **74**: 1988-1996.
47. Joo J, Lee SJ, Yoo HY, Kim Y, Jang M, Lee J, et al. 2016. Improved fermentation of lignocellulosic hydrolysates to 2, 3-butanediol through investigation of effects of inhibitory compounds by *Enterobacter aerogenes*. *Chem. Eng. J.* **306**: 916-924.