



Geobacillus and *Anoxybacillus* spp. from Terrestrial Geothermal Springs Worldwide: Diversity and Biotechnological Applications

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Abstract

A large number of thermophilic representatives of the *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* genera have been isolated from geographically distant and physicochemically different environments, including high-, moderate-, and low-temperature habitats. However, terrestrial hot springs are the main habitats for *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species. The members of these genera possess a variety of thermo-adaptive features that enable them to thrive at elevated temperatures. Due to their ability to withstand harsh environmental conditions, geobacilli and anoxybacilli are a valuable source for provision of thermostable enzymes, such as amylases, lipases, proteases, etc., and other components. Thermostable enzymes obtained from thermophilic bacilli have found a plethora of commercial applications due to their sturdiness and toughness in withstanding the heat generated in various biotechnological and industrial processes. This

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chapter contains a review of studies of geobacilli and anoxybacilli from terrestrial geothermal springs worldwide with special emphasis on their distribution and diversity, ecological significance, adaptive mechanisms, enzymes, and biotechnological potential.

Keywords

Terrestrial geothermal springs · *Geobacillus* · *Anoxybacillus* · Thermostability · Thermostable enzymes · Extremophiles

5.1 Introduction

Terrestrial hot springs are manifestations of geological activity and represent aquatic microcosms that are formed by the emergence of geothermally heated groundwater from the Earth's crust (Mehta and Satyanarayana 2013b). Terrestrial hydrothermal springs represent extreme environments and have been found worldwide, like those in Yellowstone National Park, which harbor the closest relatives to the original organisms that lived on our planet. Finding these features on Mars (or any other planet) could have big implications for the question of extraterrestrial life (Van Kranendonk et al. 2017). Hence, the microbiota thriving in geothermal hot springs have been the subject of extensive research. Among the diversity of microbes harboring the hot springs in different parts of the world, members of the *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* genera were frequently isolated and extensively studied during the last decades. The members of *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* genera are thermophilic bacilli, which have adapted to grow optimally at temperatures ranging from 35 to 75 °C (Bergey et al. 2009). The ability of these microorganisms to grow at high temperatures has made them suitable objects for studying and understanding the thermostability mechanisms for the microbial adaptations to harsh conditions.

Thermophilic bacilli constitute valuable sources for various biotechnological products (Antranikian 2007; Satyanarayana et al. 2012). The members of the *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* genera have shown tremendous potential in biotechnology because of their ability to produce unique thermostable enzymes and proteins with high industrial and economical values (Antranikian 2007; Gurumurthy and Neelagund 2012). The recent interest in biotechnology, coupled with the discovery of novel thermophilic bacilli, has prompted studies on the utilization of thermophiles and their enzymes, such as amylase (Gurumurthy and Neelagund 2010, 2012; Rekadwad 2015; Acer et al. 2016), lipase (Balan et al. 2012; Mahadevan and Neelagund 2014; Ozdemir et al. 2015; Ay et al. 2011), protease (Hawumba et al. 2002; Zhu et al. 2007; Nakamichi et al. 2010), xylanase (Sunna et al. 1997; Kacagan et al. 2008; Ellis and Magnuson 2012; Inan et al. 2013), and cellulase (Ibrahim and El-diwany 2007; Padilha et al. 2015).

Enzymes from these microorganisms are in great demand as they are not usually denatured at high temperatures but are rather more active. These enzymes are also more resistant to chemical reagents and extreme pH values in comparison with their

mesophilic homologues (Synowiecki 2010; Pinzon-Martinez et al. 2010). Moreover, their thermostability is associated with higher biochemical reaction rates, lower viscosity, and less risk of contamination (Turner et al. 2007). All these factors have stimulated a renewed interest in the exploration of extracellular enzymatic activities of thermostable organisms.

The objective of this chapter is to review the findings of the diversity, thermostability mechanisms, and biotechnological applications of microbes belonging to genera *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* from different terrestrial geothermal springs worldwide.

5.2 Taxonomy and Species Diversity

The genera *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* of the phylum Firmicutes comprise a group of Gram-positive, endospore-forming, rod-shaped, chemoorganotrophic thermophilic bacteria, including obligate aerobes, denitrifiers, and facultative anaerobes that can grow over a temperature range of 35–75 °C. Their catabolic versatility, particularly in the degradation of starch, xylene, cellulose, and lipids, and rapid growth rates have raised their profile as organisms with high potential for industrial and biotechnological applications.

5.2.1 The Genus *Geobacillus*

The members of the genus *Geobacillus* were originally classified in the genus *Bacillus*, as thermophilic variants of *Bacillus* spp. For many years *Bacillus stearothermophilus* (Donk 1920) was the only obligate thermophilic species of the genus *Bacillus* with a validly published name. After 1980, additional thermophilic species were proposed based on phenotypic analyses of novel isolates. Subsequent 16S rRNA gene sequencing indicated that *B. stearothermophilus*, *Bacillus kaustophilus*, and *Bacillus thermoglucosidasius* formed a phylogenetic lineage that was distinct from other *Bacillus* spp. (Ash et al. 1991). The continued development of genetic tools to facilitate both fundamental investigations and metabolic engineering and accumulating evidence for clustering of many of the thermophiles in a separate subgroup (group 5) supported by 16S rRNA analysis led to their reclassification as a separate genus (Nazina et al. 2001). Nazina et al. (2001) proposed that the six species of that lineage, namely, *Bacillus stearothermophilus*, *B. kaustophilus*, *B. thermoglucosidasius*, *B. thermocatenulatus*, *B. thermoleovorans*, and *B. thermodenitrificans*, should be placed in a new genus, *Geobacillus*, with *G. stearothermophilus* as the type species and along with two novel species, *G. subterraneus* and *G. uzenensis*. *B. pallidus* (Scholz et al. 1987), *Saccharococcus caldxylosilyticus* (Ahmad et al. 2000), and *B. vulcani* (Caccamo et al. 2000) were also transferred to the genus *Geobacillus* (Fortina et al. 2001; Banat et al. 2004; Nazina et al. 2004). Subsequently, six additional species, *G. toebii* (Sung et al. 2002), *G. gargensis* (Nazina et al. 2004), *G. debilis* (Banat et al. 2004), *G. lituanicus* (Kuisiene et al.

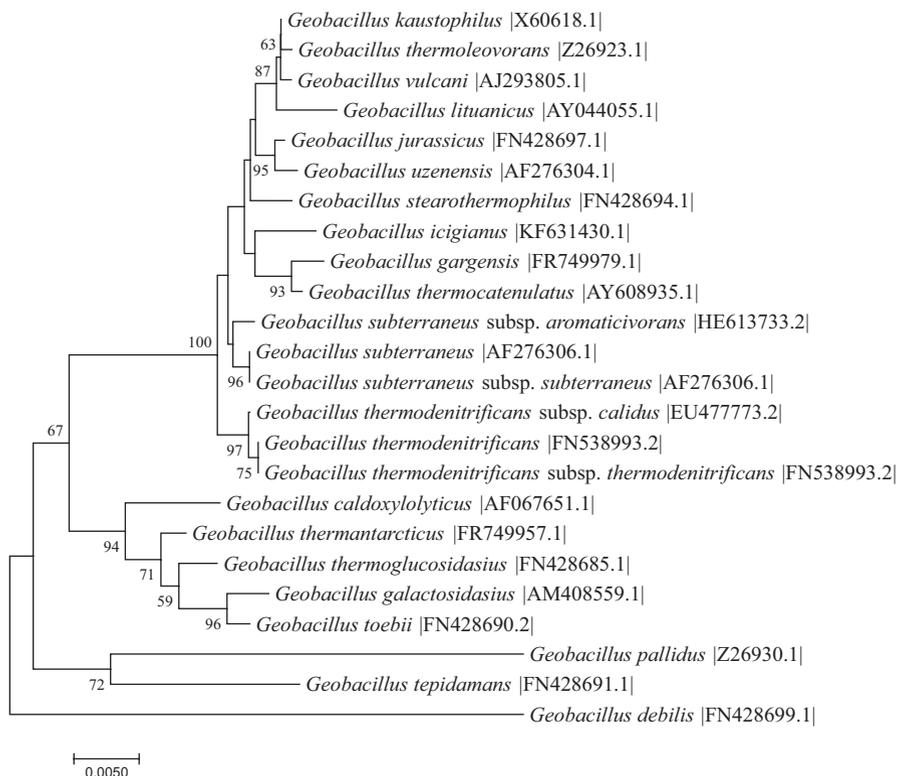


Fig. 5.1 Evolutionary relationships of species of the genus *Geobacillus*. The evolutionary history was inferred using the neighbor-joining method. The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 0.17390653 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) is shown next to the branches. Significant bootstrapping values (>59%) are shown on the nodes. The analysis involved 24 16S rRNA nucleotide sequences of the type strains of *Geobacillus* species, obtained from NCBI GenBank (accession numbers shown between bars). All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 1218 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7

2004), *G. tepidamans* (Coorevits et al. 2012), and *G. jurassicus* (Nazina et al. 2005), have been described. Currently the genus *Geobacillus* includes 20 species and 4 subspecies (Bergey et al. 2009). Miñana-Galbis et al. (2010) proposed the further transfer of *Geobacillus pallidus* to the new genus *Aeribacillus*.

The evolutionary tree showing the phylogenetic relationships of *Geobacillus* species is presented in Fig. 5.1.

The majority of geobacilli strains grow in the temperature range 35–75 °C, with the optimum at 55–65 °C. Vegetative cells are rod-shaped and occur either singly or in short chains and are motile by means of peritrichous flagella, or they are nonmotile. The cell-wall structure is Gram-positive, but the Gram-stain reaction may vary. Endospores are ellipsoidal or cylindrical and located terminally or subterminally in

slightly swollen or non-swollen sporangia. Colony morphology and size are variable; pigments may be produced on certain media. They are aerobic or facultatively anaerobic. Oxygen is the terminal electron acceptor, replaceable in some species by nitrate. They are neutrophilic. Growth occurs at pH 6.0–8.5, with optimal growth at pH 6.2–7.5. Growth factors, vitamins, NaCl, and KCl are not required by most species. Most species can utilize n-alkanes as carbon and energy sources. Most species produce acid but not gas from fructose, glucose, maltose, mannose, and sucrose. Catalase and oxidase reaction varies. Most species produce extracellular thermostable hydrolytic enzymes that have high potential of use in industry. The major cellular fatty acids are C15:0 iso, C16:0 iso, and C17:0 iso, which make up more than 60% of the total. The main menaquinone type is MK-7. The lowest level of 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity between all *Geobacillus* species is around 93%, which indicates that at least some species need to be reclassified at the genus level (Bergey et al. 2009). The average genome size for *Geobacillus* spp. ranges from 3.5 to 3.9 Mbp. The smallest genome was found in *G. kaustophilus* and the largest in *G. thermoglucosidasius*. This might reflect the additional coding requirements associated with anaerobic growth, additional CRISPR regions, as well as genes of unassigned function found between transposable elements in the genome of *G. thermoglucosidasius*. Despite the small genome, it was shown that the highest number of IS/transposable elements was present in the *G. kaustophilus* (Hussein et al. 2015).

Geobacillus species are widely distributed in nature, and being catabolically diverse, they are readily isolated from active communities growing in compost, hot springs, and deep geothermal sites, including oil wells and deep sediments. However, it has long been known that *Geobacillus* spp. can be isolated from a wide range of moderate- and low-temperature environments including temperate soils and have also been isolated from low-temperature environments such as the Bolivian Andes, deep seawater, and even the Mariana Trench (Hussein et al. 2015).

5.2.2 The Genus *Anoxybacillus*

Genus *Anoxybacillus* has only been described recently by Pikuta et al. (2000, 2003). Since then, the number of *Anoxybacillus* species has rapidly increased and now contains 22 validly described species and 2 subspecies. The following species of the genus have been reported up to date: *Anoxybacillus pushchinoensis*, *A. flavithermus* (Pikuta et al. 2000), *A. gonensis* (Belduz et al. 2003), *A. contaminans* (De Clerck et al. 2004), *A. voinovskiensis* (Yumoto et al. 2004), *A. kestanbolensis*, *A. ayderensis* (Dulger et al. 2004), *A. kamchatkensis* (Kevbrin et al. 2005), *A. amylolyticus* (Poli et al. 2006), *A. rupiensis* (Derekova et al. 2007), *A. bogrovensis* (Atanassova et al. 2008), *A. kamchatkensis* subsp. *asaccharedens* (Gul-Guven et al. 2008), *A. thermarum* (Poli et al. 2009), *A. eryuanensis*, *A. tengchongensis* (Zhang et al. 2011), *A. salavatliensis* (Cihan et al. 2011), *A. mongoliensis* (Namsaraev et al. 2010), *A. flavithermus* subsp. *flavithermus*, *A. flavithermus* subsp. *yunnanensis* (Dai et al. 2011), *A. caldiproteolyticus* (Coorevits et al. 2012), *A. tepidamans* (Coorevits et al. 2012),

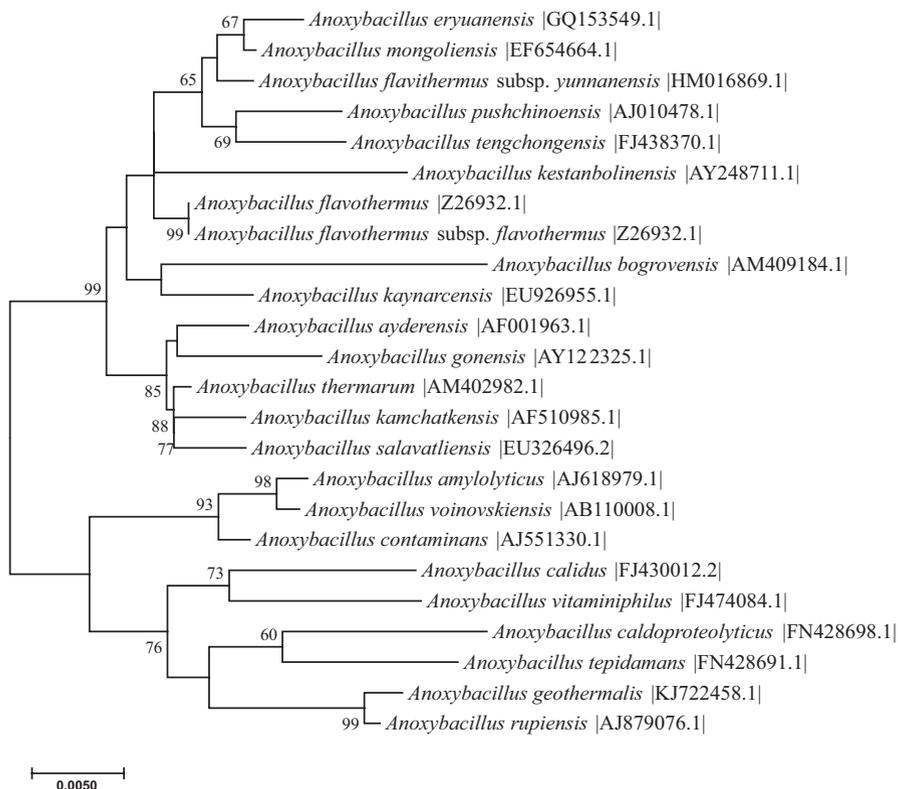


Fig. 5.2 Evolutionary relationships of species of the genus *Anoxybacillus*. The evolutionary history was inferred using the neighbor-joining method. The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 0.18764567 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) is shown next to the branches. Significant bootstrapping values (>60%) are shown on the nodes. The analysis involved 24 16S rDNA nucleotide sequences of the type strains of *Anoxybacillus* species, obtained from NCBI GenBank. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 1031 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7

A. kaynarcensis (Inan et al. 2013), *A. vitaminiphilus* (Zhang et al. 2013), *A. calidus* (Cihan et al. 2014), and *A. geothermalis* (Filippidou et al. 2016). *A. kaynarcensis* and *A. kamchatkensis* subsp. *asaccharedens* are still not included in the validation list.

Most of the species belonging to genus *Anoxybacillus* were found to be a homogeneous phylogenetic group of thermophilic bacilli with high 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity values. A tree showing the phylogenetic relationships of species of the genus *Anoxybacillus* is shown in Fig. 5.2.

As it can be deduced from the genus name (“anoxybacillus” means small rod living without oxygen), the members of the genus *Anoxybacillus* are aerotolerant

anaerobes or facultative anaerobes (Pikuta et al. 2000). *A. pushchinoensis*, the type strain of this genus, was first described as obligate anaerobe (Pikuta et al. 2000) but was later described as an aerotolerant anaerobe (Pikuta et al. 2003).

The majority of *Anoxybacillus* species are moderate thermophiles (grow in the temperature range 30–75 °C, with the optimum at 50–62 °C). Vegetative cells are rod-shaped or straight or slightly curved, sometimes with angular division and Y-shaped cells, often in pairs or short chains, with rounded ends. The cells are motile or nonmotile. Endospores are round, oval, or cylindrical and have a terminal location. Colony morphology and size are variable. Most of the species produce cellular carotenoid like pigments, which yields yellow colonies. They are catalase-variable. Many members of the genus are alkaliphilic, but most of the species can grow at neutral pH. Only *A. amylolyticus* grows optimally at slightly acidic conditions (pH 5.6). *Anoxybacillus* species are chemoorganotrophic, with a fermentative or aerobic respiration metabolism. They can use oxygen or nitrate as electron acceptors, and in the absence of electron acceptors, they perform fermentation by the Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas pathway.

Many species produce a variety of thermostable enzymes, such as amylase (Poli et al. 2006; Baltas et al. 2016), glucosidase (Cihan et al. 2011), esterase (Shahinyan et al. 2017; Chis et al. 2013), proteinase (Matpan Bekler et al. 2015; Nakamichi et al. 2010), and xylanase (Inan et al. 2013; Ellis and Magnuso 2012; Kacagan et al. 2008).

Most species of the genus have been isolated from hot springs. They have been found also in geothermal soils, manure, hydrothermal vents, etc. (Bergey et al. 2009).

5.3 Distribution of *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* in Terrestrial Hot Springs

Since Thomas Brock made the remarkable discovery in 1966 that microorganisms were growing in the boiling hot springs of Yellowstone National Park, the search for thermophiles in terrestrial hot springs has increased. Terrestrial hot springs are created by the emergence of geothermally heated groundwater from the Earth's crust (Mehta and Satyanarayana 2013a, b). Thermophilic microbes have been discovered in geothermal springs all over the world, including areas in Asia, America, Kamchatka, Iceland, New Zealand, Italy, China, etc.

Thermophilic representatives of the *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* genera have been recovered from a variety of environments, including high-, moderate-, and low-temperature environments. However, terrestrial hot springs are the main habitats for *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species (Fig. 5.3). An overview of the various *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species isolated from terrestrial hot springs is given in Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

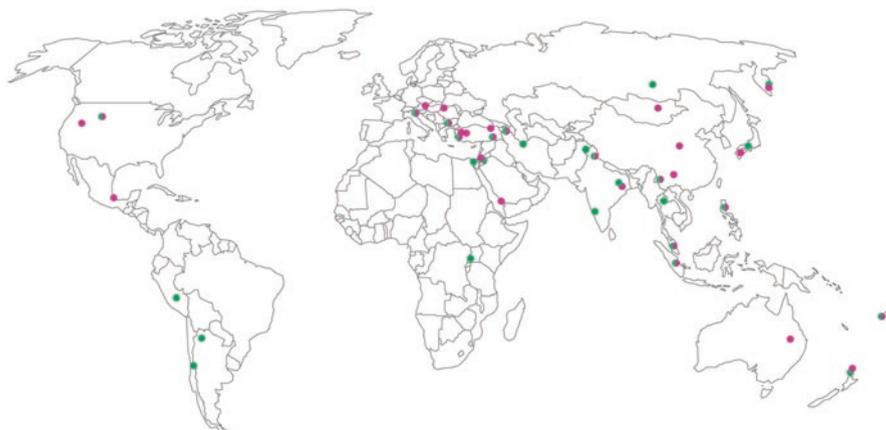


Fig. 5.3 Geographical distribution of sites from where *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species have been isolated. Green and purple circles represent *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* isolates, respectively. Each circle denotes a published report that describes one or several strains

5.4 Adaptations of Growth at High Temperatures

Thermophilic bacilli, growing at high temperatures, have developed different mechanisms to survive in these extreme environments. Understanding the adaptations that enable thermophilic organisms to survive at extreme temperatures is a challenge that has interested researchers since 1897, and a vast amount of literature exists regarding this issue (England et al. 2003). The main mechanistic determinants of thermoadaptation in bacilli are adaptation of membrane phospholipid composition, synthesis of heat shock proteins (HSPs), and enzyme adaptation to give molecular stability as well as structural flexibility. The high GC content in the genome of the thermophiles also contributes to their thermoadaptation (Chakravorty and Petra 2013).

5.4.1 Adaptation of Membrane Phospholipid Composition at High Temperatures

It has been shown that the lipids isolated from a psychrophilic (*Psychrobacter* sp.), mesophilic (*Escherichia coli*), and thermophilic (*G. stearothermophilus*) bacteria are different depending on the bacterial growth temperature. With increasing growth temperature, bacteria reduce the number of unsaturated bonds or increase the degree of branching in their lipid acyl chains (van de Vossenberg et al. 1995). Thus, the lipid of the cytoplasmic membrane of *Psychrobacter* sp. (optimal growth temperature 21–29 °C) is mainly represented by monounsaturated (93%) and short-chain lipids. The monounsaturated and short-chain lipids compose 32% of the cytoplasmic membrane lipids in *E. coli* (optimal growth temperature 37–42 °C), whereas the

Table 5.1 *Geobacillus* species recovered from hot springs worldwide

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
<i>G. gargensis</i>	Garga hot spring, in the valley of the river Barguzin	Baikal region, Russia	45–70	60–65	5.5–8.5	6.5–7.0	–	Nazina et al. (2004)
<i>G. stearothermophilus</i>			ND	ND	ND	ND	The draft genome sequence is available (GenBank AN:JQC500000000 and JPYV000000000)	Rozanov et al. (2014)
	Hot springs in Yellowstone National Park	USA	ND	55–65	ND	ND	DNA polymerase has been characterized	Stenesh and McGowan (1977) and Zeigler (2001)
	Hot spring in Chiang Mai	Thailand	ND	65	ND	ND	Produces an extracellular superoxide dismutase (SOD)	Sookkheo et al. (2002)
	Hammam Pharaon hot spring	Egypt	ND	70	ND	ND	Producing thermostable cellulases	Ibrahim and El-diwany (2007)
	Hot spring areas in Bulgaria	Bulgaria	50–82	55	5.5–8.5	7.0	Producing thermostable gellan lyase	Derekova et al. (2006)
	Dikili-Bergama Kaynarca hot spring in Izmir	Turkey	40–70	55	5.5–8.5	7.0	High xylanase and arabinofuranosidase activities	Canakci et al. (2007)
	Savusavu hot spring	Fiji	ND	ND	5–8	ND	High cadmium ion adsorption potential	Narayan et al. (2008)
	Dalupirip hot spring	Benguet, Philippines	ND	60	ND	7.0	Xylan-degrading ability	Daupan and Rivera (2015)

(continued)

Table 5.1 (continued)

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
	Soldhar hot spring	Garhwal Himalaya, India	40–90	65–70	4–11	6–8	–	Sharma et al. (2009)
	Arzakan hot geothermal mineral spring	Kotayk province, Armenia	37–70	55	6.5–8.5	ND	–	Panosyan (2010), Panosyan and Birkeland (2014), Hovhannisyan et al. (2016), and Panosyan (2017)
	Jermuk hot spring	Vayots Dzor province, Armenia	ND	ND	ND	ND	Active amylase producer	Vardanyan et al. (2015) and Hovhannisyan et al. (2016)
<i>G. thermodenitrificans</i>	Hammam Pharaon hot spring	Egypt	ND	70	ND	ND	Producing thermostable cellulases	Ibrahim and El-diwany (2007)
	Alangullu, Omerbeyli, and Camkoy Camur hot springs	Aydin, Turkey	40–75	55	5.5–8.5	7.0	Showed high xylanase and arabinofuranosidase activities	Canakci et al. (2007)
	Tattapani hot spring	Northwest Himalayas, India	60–80	60	ND	7.0	Produced a thermotolerant cellulose	Priya et al. (2016)
							GenBank AN:KP842609	

	Arzakhan hot geothermal mineral spring	Kotayk province, Armenia	37–70	55	6.5–8.5	ND	–	Panosyan (2010), Panosyan and Birkeland (2014), Hovhannisyan et al. (2016), and Panosyan (2017)
<i>G. thermoparaaffinivorans</i>	Badekkek hot spring	Benguet, Philippines	ND	60	ND	7.0	Xylan-degrading ability	Daupan and Rivera (2015)
<i>G. thermoglucosidasius</i>	Obsidian hot spring, Yellowstone National Park	Montana, USA	55–75	65	5.8–8.0	7.5	Complete genome is reported (GenBank AN:CP002835)	Brumm et al. (2015)
	North Shuna hot spring	Jordan	40–80	60	6–9	6–8	Exhibited high hydrolytic activities	Obeidat et al. (2012)
<i>G. thermoleovorans</i>	Ulu Slim hot spring	Malaysia	ND	ND	ND	ND	Complete genome is reported	Muhd Sakaff et al. (2012)
	Hot spring of the Waimangu Volcanic Valley	New Zealand	ND	70	ND	7.0	Producing thermostable alpha amylase	Uma Maheswar Rao and Satyanarayana (2007)
	Aguas Calientes geothermal spring	Amazon rainforest, Peru	50–70	ND	ND	7.4	Characterized with high cellulase activity	Cortez et al. (2016)
	Hot spring in Kobe	Japan	50–75	60	3.0–11	7.0	Produce thermoactive xylanases	Sumna et al. (1997)
	Badekkek hot spring	Benguet, Philippines	ND	60	ND	7.0	Showed xylan-degrading ability	Daupan and Rivera (2015)

(continued)

Table 5.1 (continued)

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
<i>G. thermocatenuatus</i>	El Tatio geyser field and Liquiñe hot springs	Chile	ND	60	ND	ND	Phytase activity in crude protein extracts	Jorquera et al. (2018)
<i>G. icigianus</i>	Hot spring of the Valley of Geysers	Kamchatka, Russia	50–75	60–65	5–9	6.5–7.0	The draft genome sequence is available (GenBank AN: JPYA000000000)	Bryanskaya et al. (2015)
<i>G. subterraneus</i> subsp. <i>aromaticivorans</i>	Guclukonak hot spring	Sirnak, Turkey	30–65	60	5.5–10	9.0	The isolate hydrolyses lipase, ONPG, phosphatase, urease, oxidase, gelatin, and starch	Poli et al. (2012)
<i>G. caldovosilyticus</i>	Fosso Bianco hot springs	Bagni di Filippo, Mount Amiata, Tuscany, Italy	45–70	55–60	ND	7.0	Able to grow in the presence of Hg(II) (>1 mM)	Chatziefthimiou et al. (2007)
	Selayang hot spring	Malaysia	45–85	55	5.0–9.0	6.5	Able to reduce toxic chromium (VI) to non-harmful of chromium (III)	Che Ibrahim and Wan Ahmad (2017)
	Jermuk hot spring	Vayots Dzor province, Armenia	ND	ND	ND	ND	Active amylase producer	Vardanyan et al. (2015) and Hovhannisyann et al. (2016)

<i>G. kaustophilus</i>	Aguas Calientes geothermal spring	Amazon rainforest, Peru	ND	ND	7.4	High cellulase activity	Cortez et al. (2016)
	Dalupirip hot spring	Benguet, Philippines	ND	60	7.0	Xylan-degrading ability	Daupan and Rivera (2015)
	Soldhar hot spring	Garhwal Himalaya, India	40–90	65–70	6–8	–	Sharma et al. (2009)
<i>G. pallidus</i>	Tanjung Sakti hot spring	South Sumatera, Indonesia	ND	ND	ND	–	Yohandini et al. (2015)
	Hammamt Al-Burbita, Afra hot springs, Ma`in hot springs	Jordan	ND	ND	ND	–	Al-Batayneh et al. (2011)
<i>G. toebii</i>	Arzakan hot geothermal mineral spring	Kotayk Province, Armenia	37–70	55	6.5–8.5	–	Panosyan (2010), Panosyan and Birkeland (2014), Hovhannisyanyan et al. (2016), and Panosyan (2017)
<i>Geobacillus</i> spp.	Hammamat Afra, Jordan Himma, Zara-Bani Hamida, Ma`in-Roman hot spring	Jordan	40–85	65	6–8	High hydrolytic activities	Obeidat et al. (2012)
	Soldhar hot spring	Garhwal Himalaya, India	40–90	65–70	4–11	–	Sharma et al. (2009)

(continued)

Table 5.1 (continued)

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
	Irde geothermal spring	Konkan region, Southern India	40–95	60	ND	8.0	Active thermostable lipase and amylase producer	Mahadevan and Neelagund (2010, 2014)
	Tattapani hot spring	Azad Kashmir, Pakistan	45–75	65	5.5–8.5	7.0	Produced significant amount of industrially important enzymes, i.e., extracellular α -amylase, CMCase, FPase, xylanase, protease and lipase, and intracellular CMCase and FPase	Zahoor et al. (2016)
	Tapovan hot spring	Chamoli, Uttarakhand, India	40–90	70	6–8.5	7–8	Active α -amylase producer. High amylase activity at 80 °C and pH 8.0	Jugran et al. (2015), Arya et al. (2015)
	Tengchong hot spring	China	ND	60–65	ND	ND	α -amylase producer	Wang et al. (2011b)
	Double Hot Springs, Nevada	Nevada, USA	ND	ND	ND	ND	Draft genome is reported (GenBank AN: SAMN0017395)	De Maayer et al. (2014)
	Larijan hot spring	Iran	40–80	65	ND	6.8	Producing alpha amylase with 52 kDa molecular mass	Mollania et al. (2010)
	Hot spring in Rosario de la Frontera	Salta, Argentina	ND	ND	ND	ND	Whole-genome shotgun project is reported (GenBank AN: LDNZ000000000)	Ortiz et al. (2015)

Alangullu, Omerbeyli, and Camkoy Camur hot springs	Aydin, Turkey	35–65	55	5.5–9	7.0	Shown high xylanase and arabinofuranosidase activities	Canakci et al. (2007)
Buranga hot springs	Western Uganda, Africa	37–72	60–62	5–10	7.5–8.5	Producing thermostable protease	Hawumba et al. (2002)
Arzakan hot geothermal mineral spring	Kotayk province, Armenia	37–70	55	6.5–8.5	ND	–	Panosyan (2010), Panosyan and Birkeland (2014), Hovhannisyan et al. (2016), and Panosyan (2017)
Tatev geothermal spring	Syunik province, Armenia	45–70	65	6–9	7.0	Lipase encoding genes have been reported	Shahinyan et al. (2017)

ND not determined, – data not available

Table 5.2 *Anoxybacillus* species recovered from hot springs worldwide

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
<i>A. rupiensis</i>	Unnamed hot spring	Rupi basin, Bulgaria	35–67	55	5.5–8.5	6.0–6.5	Strictly aerobic, producing amylolytic enzymes	Derekova et al. (2007)
	Arzakan hot geothermal mineral spring	Kotayk province, Armenia	ND	ND	ND	ND	Active amylase producer	Hovhannisyan et al. (2016), Vardanyan et al. (2015), Panosyan (2017)
	Karvachar and Zuar geothermal springs	Nagorno-Karabakh						
	Tanjung Sakti hot spring	South Sumatra, Indonesia	ND	ND	ND	ND	–	Yohandini et al. (2015)
<i>A. tepidamans</i>	Geothermal heated soil	Yellowstone National Park, USA	39–67	55	6.0–9.0	7.0	Covered with an oblique S-layer lattice, composed of identical S-layer glycoprotein protomers	Schäffer et al. (2004)
<i>A. voinovskiensis</i>	Voinovskie hot spring	Kamchatka, Russia	30–64	54	7.0–8.0	7.0–8.0	–	Yumoto et al. (2004)
<i>A. kaynarcensis</i>	Kaynarca hot spring	Izmir, Turkey	35–70	60	6.0–10.0	7.0	Active alkaline xylanase producer	Inan et al. (2013)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	Tanjung Sakti hot spring	South Sumatra, Indonesia	ND	ND	ND	ND	–	Yohandini et al. (2015)
	Unnamed hot spring	Northern Island of New Zealand	30–72	60–65	5.5–9.0	7.0	Produces a carotenoid	Heinen et al. (1982)
	Savusavu hot spring	Fiji	ND	ND	5–8	ND	Showed gelatinase activity	Narayan et al. (2008)
	Al-Ain Alhara thermal hot spring	Gazan, Saudi Arabia	ND	55	ND	7.0	The draft genome sequence is reported (GenBank AN: APCD000000000)	Khalili et al. (2015)

Mickey Hot Springs area of the Alvord Basin hydrothermal system	Oregon, USA	ND	65	ND	9.0	Extracellular xylanase enzymes producer	Ellis and Magnuson (2012)
Dalupirip hot spring	Benguet, Philippines	ND	60	ND	7.0	Degrading xylan	Daupan and Rivera (2015)
Hot spring in Tășnad	Satu Mare county, Romania	40–70	50–60	6.5–8.5	7.5	Thermostable esterase/lipase with molecular weight of 28.03 kDa was characterized	Chis et al. (2013)
The New Lorne bore thermal basin	Great Artesian Basin, Australia	50–65	ND	ND	ND	Can use Fe(III) as electron acceptor and yeast extract as carbon source	Ogg et al. (2013)
Karvachar geothermal spring	Nagorno-Karabakh	40–70	60	7.0–11.0	9.0–10.0	GDSL family lipase encoding genes have been reported. Active thermostable alpha amylase producer	Shahinyan et al. (2017), Panosyan et al. (2014), Panosyan (2017)
Omer hot spring	Afyonkarahisar, Turkey	25–85	55	5.0–10.0	6.0	Thermostable α -amylase was characterized, and some of its industrial applications were examined	Ağıloğlu Fincan et al. (2014), Ozdemir et al. (2015)
Hammam Pharaon hot spring	Egypt	ND	70	ND	ND	Producing thermostable cellulases	Ibrahim and El-diwany (2007)
Fosso Bianca hot springs	Bagni di Filippo, Mount Amiata, Tuscany, Italy	45–65	55–60	ND	7.0	Fosso Bianca hot springs are naturally enriched with mercury of geological origin. Isolates able to grow in the presence of Hg(II) (40 μ M–1 mM)	Chatziefthimiou et al. (2007)
<i>A. contaminans</i>							

(continued)

Table 5.2 (continued)

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
<i>A. flavithermus</i> subsp. <i>yunnanensis</i>	Unnamed hot springs	Yunnan, China	30–66	60	5.5–10.0	7.0–7.5	Produce thermostable β -glucosidase. Optimal enzyme activity at 60 °C and pH 7.0	Dai et al. (2011), Liu et al. (2017)
<i>A. bogrovensis</i>	Geothermal spring	Sofia, Bulgaria	40–69	65	6.0–10.0	8.0	Hydrolysis of starch and gelatin	Atanasova et al. (2008)
<i>A. eryuanensis</i>	Eryuan hot spring	Yunnan, China	35–75	55	7.0–11.0	8.0	–	Zhang et al. (2011)
<i>A. mongoliensis</i>	Tsenkher hot spring	Central Mongolia	35–75	60	5.0–10.8	8.0	Produced thermostable alkaline subtilisin like serine proteinase	Namsaraev et al. (2010)
<i>A. tengchongensis</i>	Tengchong hot spring	Yunnan, China	30–75	50	7.0–11.0	8.5	Hydrolysis of starch and gelatin	Zhang et al. (2011)
<i>A. gonensis</i>	Gonen hot springs	Balikesir, Turkey	40–70	55–60	6.0–10.0	7.5–8.0	Produces xylose isomerase, carboxylesterase, and fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase	Belduz et al. (2013), Lim et al. (2015)
<i>A. ayderensis</i>	Ayder hot springs	Rize, Turkey	30–70	50	6.0–11.0	7.5–8.5	Genes encoding various glycoside hydrolases are reported in the genome of the strain	Dulger et al. (2004), Belduz et al. (2015)
<i>A. kestanbolensis</i>	Kestanbol hot spring	Canakkale, Turkey	40–70	50–55	6.0–10.5	7.5–8.5	–	–

<i>A. kamchatkensis</i>	Hot spring in the Valley of Geysers	Kamchatka, Russia	38–67	60	5.7–9.9	6.8–8.5	–	Kevbrin et al. (2005)
	Hot spring	Indonesia	ND	ND	ND	ND	This whole-genome shotgun project has been deposited (DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank AN: ALJT000000000)	Lee et al. (2012)
	Los Baños hot spring	Mexico	37–60	50–70	6.0–11.0	6.5–7.5	Produces thermostable lipases, proteases, and amylases	Pinzón-Martínez et al. (2010)
	Kuala Woh hot spring	Malaysia	25–60	50–60	5–10	ND	Thermostable lipase producer	Olusesan et al. (2009)
<i>A. kamchatkensis</i> subsp. <i>asaccharedens</i>	Dongda hot spring	Xi'an, Shaanxi province, China	ND	ND	ND	ND	Producing Cyclo(Gly-l-Pro) 20, which are immunomodulators of carp	Wang et al. (2011a)
	Talisdere hot spring	Batman, Turkey	35–65	55	5.5–9.5	7.5	Not consuming sugars and carbohydrates as carbon source	Gul-Guven et al. (2008)
<i>A. thermarum</i>	Euganean hot spring	Abano Terme, Padova, Italy	55–67	65	6.0–7.5	7.2	Draft genome sequence is reported	Poli et al. (2009)
<i>A. vitaminiphilus</i>	Puge hot spring	Puge county, Sichuan province, China	38–66	57–60	6.0–9.3	7.0–7.5	A distinctive characteristic of this isolate was its extreme reliance on vitamin mixture or yeast extract for growth	Zhang et al. (2013)
	Surya Kund hot spring	Jharkhand, India	40–60	55	5.5–11.5	7.5	Draft genome sequence is reported. Hydrolysis of gelatin, starch, esculin, and DNA	Deep et al. (2016)

(continued)

Table 5.2 (continued)

Species	Source	Place	Temp. range (°C)	Opt. temp. (°C)	pH range	Opt. pH	Comments	References
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> spp.	Dargeçit hot spring	Turkey	30–65	60	5.5–10.0	7.0–7.5	Exhibited high alpha amylase activity (2668.4–3627 U/mL)	Acer et al. (2015)
	Seferhisar Karakoc hot spring	Turkey	ND	55	ND	7.4	Producing thermostable carboxylesterase	Ay et al. (2011)
	North Shuna hot spring	Jordan	ND	ND	ND	ND	–	Al-Batayneh et al. (2011)
	Sungai Klah and Dusun Tua hot springs	Malaysia	30–65	55	6.0–10.0	7.0	Strains SK3-4 and DT3-1 were able to degrade pullulan and to produce maltotriose and glucose, respectively, as their main end products	Chai et al. (2012)
	Hot spring in Beppu city	Oita, Japan	40–70	60	5.5–10.0	7.5–8.0	Producing thermostable protease	Nakamichi et al. (2010)

ND not determined, AN accession number, – data not available

cytoplasmic membrane lipids of *G. stearothermophilus* (optimal growth temperature 60–70 °C) are composed of saturated and branched acyl chains (80% of total lipids) (van de Vossenberg et al. 1995).

The thermophilic bacilli differ from mesophilic ones also in the fatty acid and polar headgroup compositions of their phospholipids. Hence, the major cellular fatty acid components of *Geobacillus* species following incubation at 55 °C are iso-C_{15:0} (20–40%, mean 29%), iso-C_{16:0} (6–39%, mean 25%), and iso-C_{17:0} (7–37%, mean 19.5%), which account for 60–80% of the total (Nazina et al. 2001). The high levels of is-C_{15:0} and iso-C_{17:0} are also found in *Anoxybacillus* species (Dulger et al. 2004). It has been shown that the major fatty acid patterns in *G. toebii*, *G. subterraneus* subsp. *aromaticivorans*, *G. icigianus*, *A. bogrovensis*, and *A. suryakundensis* are iso-C_{15:0}>iso-C_{17:0}>anteiso-C_{17:0} (Atanassova et al. 2008; Poli et al. 2012; Deep et al. 2016; Cihan et al. 2014; Bryanskaya et al. 2015). The membrane fatty acid patterns in *Bacillus* species are mainly represented by iso-C_{15:0} and anteiso-C_{15:0} in contrast with *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species growing at higher temperatures (>50 °C) (Table 5.3). The acyl chains such as iso-C_{17:0} have higher melting point than other acyl chains, which explains its synthesis at maximum growth temperatures, whereas iso-C_{15:0} is predominating at minimum growth temperature.

Llarch et al. (1997) showed that any potential distinctions between the rather variable fatty acid profiles of *Geobacillus* species and *Bacillus* species are largely lost when strains of each group are incubated at the same temperature, clearly underpinning their role in thermoadaptation.

More detailed studies of the effect of temperature on the membrane composition of *G. stearothermophilus* showed that ratio of phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and cardiolipin (CL), which comprise about 90% of the membrane phospholipids, is changed at different growth temperatures. The PG content increases at the expense of the CL content at the high temperatures. The acyl-chain composition of all the membrane lipids also changes; the longer, saturated-linear, and iso-fatty acids with relatively high melting points increase in abundance, and anteiso-fatty acids and unsaturated components with lower melting points decrease (Tolner et al. 1997). Nicolaus et al. (1995), reclassifying some of the *Bacillus* species, showed that the strains tentatively identified as *Bacillus* showed increased phosphoglycolipid contents with increased growth temperature, at the expense of phosphoaminolipid and phospholipids. As a result, the organism is able to maintain nearly constant membrane fluidity across its whole growth temperature range; this has been termed homeoviscous adaptation (a homeostatic process that regulates the viscosity of membrane lipids). An alternative theory, homeophasic adaptation (adaptation of the cell membrane lipid composition), considers that maintenance of the liquid-crystalline phase is more important than an absolute value of membrane fluidity in bacteria (Tolner et al. 1997).

Table 5.3 The major cellular fatty acid composition of *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species

Species	Temperature growth range (optimum) in °C	Major cellular fatty acids (>10%)	References
<i>G. gargensis</i>	45–70 (60–65)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{16:0} >iso-C _{17:0}	Nazina et al. (2004)
<i>G. icigianus</i>	50–75 (60–65)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0}	Bryanskaya et al. (2015)
<i>G. subterraneus</i> subsp. <i>aromaticivorans</i>	30–65 (60)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0}	Poli et al. (2012)
<i>G. stearothermophilus</i>	37–65 (ND)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0}	Nazina et al. (2001)
<i>G. thermoglucosidasius</i>	37–68 (ND)	Iso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{15:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{16:0}	
<i>G. uzenensis</i>	45–65 (55–60)	Iso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{15:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{16:0}	
<i>G. toebii</i>	45–70 (60)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0}	Cihan et al. (2014)
<i>A. kaynarzensis</i>	35–70 (60)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0}	Inan et al. (2013)
<i>A. bogrovensis</i>	40–69 (65)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0}	Atanassova et al. (2008)
<i>A. suryakundensis</i>	40–60 (55)	Iso-C _{16:0} >iso-C _{15:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{17:0}	Deep et al. (2016)
<i>A. pushchinensis</i>	37–66 (62)	Iso-C _{15:0} >C _{16:0} >C _{18:0}	Pikuta et al. (2000)
<i>A. rupiensis</i>	35–67 (55)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0}	Cihan et al. (2014)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	30–72 (60)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >C _{16:0}	
<i>A. kamchatkensis</i>	38–67 (60)	C _{16:0} >iso-C _{16:0} >anteiso-C _{17:0}	
<i>A. calidus</i>	35–70 (55)	Iso-C _{15:0} >iso-C _{17:0} >iso-C _{16:0}	

5.4.2 Heat Shock Proteins

Although a wide variety of survival strategies are deployed when cells are exposed to environmental challenges such as heat stress, synthesis of the effector proteins generally referred to as heat shock proteins (HSPs) is increased. HSPs are diverse in structure and function and are usually classified based on their subunit molecular weights. Classes that occur in microorganisms and in the majority of thermophiles include Hsp100, Hsp90, Hsp70, Hsp60, and the small HspS (Trent 1996). Most of these proteins function as molecular chaperones, catalyzing the refolding of denatured proteins, assisting the folding of newly synthesized proteins, as well as assisting in protein translocation across membranes and assembly/disassembly of protein complexes (Chang et al. 2008).

The 70-kDa heat shock proteins (Hsp70s) are highly conserved and are ATP dependent. Together with J-domain ATPase-activating proteins or nucleotide exchange factors, Hsp70s bind and release their substrates in ATP-driven cycles (Chang et al. 2008; Goh et al. 2014). Hsp70s chaperone family proteins, DnaK (GkDnaK) from *G. kaustophilus* (Chang et al. 2008), *G. thermoleovorans* (Graham et al. 2005), *G. thermoglucosidasius* (Brumm et al. 2015), *Geobacillus* sp. (Shih and Pan 2011), and *Anoxybacillus* sp. (Goh et al. 2014), have been identified and characterized.

Besides Hsp70s, the low-molecular-weight Hsp20 and Hsp33 proteins from *G. thermoglucosidasius* strain C56-YS93 have been described (Brumm et al. 2015). Proteome analysis of *G. thermoleovorans* strain T80 revealed the presence of sigma factors, such as σ^A , which initiates transcription of the heat shock operons controlled by the HRCA-CIRCE complex. This operon encodes some of the proteins involved in heat shock response, such as GroEL (Hsp60), GroES (Hsp10), and peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase (Graham et al. 2005).

The heat shock protein Hsp70 (DnaK) in *Anoxybacillus* works not only in the presence of ATP but also in cooperation with Hsp40 (DnaJ, J-protein). The genes encoding Hsp70 and Hsp40 proteins are located near each other. Other proteins related to temperature adaptations such as GroEL (Hsp60) and its co-chaperonin GroES (Hsp10), a few small Hsp20 molecular chaperones, Hsp33, and ClpC (Hsp100) and its related Clp-protease were identified in the genomes of many species of *Anoxybacillus* (Goh et al. 2014).

5.4.3 Protein and Enzyme Adaptation

Thermophilic bacilli, under constant threat of temperature-induced damage, maintain the stability and functionality of their proteins and enzymes by changing the ratio of charged to uncharged amino acids, increased ionic interactions and hydrogen bonding, metal coordination and the compactness of their proteins, and the preference of certain amino acids (Scandurra et al. 1998).

Lobry and Chessel (2003) reported that larger amounts of Ala, Gly, Ser, Asp, and Glu and smaller amounts of Cys in the transmembrane proteins of thermophiles have significant roles for their protein thermostability. Change in amino acids from Lys to Arg, Ser to Ala, Gly to Ala, Ser to Thr, and Val to Ile has been observed in comparison with mesophilic versus thermophilic organisms (Scandurra et al. 1998; Wang et al. 2015). For example, in *G. stearothermophilus*, it was reported that Gly is preferred over Ile and Ala over Tyr (Trivedi et al. 2006). Schneider et al. (2002) studied sequence differences between predicted transmembrane helices in the genomes of thermophilic and mesophilic membrane proteins. They observed a striking depletion of Cys residues in thermophiles and an increase in Gly, Ser, and Ala pair motifs, suggesting a preference for the packing of small residues. The integral membrane proteins of thermophiles have lower amounts of Glu, Lys, and Asp residues, as a mode of adaptation to increased temperature (Lobry and Chessel 2003).

Pertaining to secondary and three-dimensional structure, thermostable proteins have high levels of α -helical and β -sheet content (Chakravorty and Patra 2013). The thermostable lipases from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* contain terminal α -helices and a central β -sheet (Arpigny and Jaeger 1999; Shahinyan et al. 2017) possibly contributing to its thermostability.

Sawle and Ghosh (2011) suggested that entropic stabilization may be largely responsible for the high melting temperature in hyperstable proteins and hints at residual structure or compactness of the denatured state in thermophiles. They showed that the gain in enthalpy upon folding is lower in thermophiles than in mesophiles, whereas the loss in entropy upon folding is higher in mesophiles than in thermophiles. The thermostable proteins have a slow unfolding rate, which helps to retain their near-native structures (Sawle and Ghosh 2011).

The thermostability of some enzymes is due to the presence of an extra repeat N-terminal domain (NTD) in the enzyme. For example, a novel thermostable SOD from *G. thermodenitrificans* NG80-2 exhibits maximum activity at 70 °C and high thermostability over a broad range of temperatures (20–80 °C). Unlike other reported SODs, this enzyme contains an extra repeat-containing NTD of 244 residues adjacent to the conserved functional SODA domain. It has been showed that the deletion of the NTD dramatically decreased its optimum active temperature (OAT) to 30 °C and also impaired its thermostability. Conversely, appending the NTD to a mesophilic counterpart from *B. subtilis* led to a moderately thermophilic enzyme (OAT changed from 30 to 55 °C) with improved heat resistance. The NTD also contributes to the stress resistance of host proteins without altering their metal ion specificity or oligomerization form except for a slight effect on their pH profile (Wang et al. 2014).

Metals such as zinc and calcium are often found in enzymes where they can stabilize a loop structure or hold secondary structures. The zinc ions, involved in the Zn-binding domain of thermoalkalophilic lipases from *G. thermocatenuatus* stabilized the structural arrangements of around 70 amino acids and the concerted movement of two lids, the 6- and 7-helices, during enzyme activation (Carrasco-Lopez et al. 2009). Ca ions restrict the conformational flexibility of certain helices and loops and bring about the stabilization of His residues through hydrogen bonding and thus lead to lipase thermostability (Sharma et al. 2013). Alpha-amylases and proteases isolated from various *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* spp. have been shown to contain Ca ions, which is enhancing the stability and activity of the enzymes at high temperatures (Eijsink et al. 2011; Chai et al. 2016).

5.4.4 Other Mechanisms for Thermostability

Large-scale genomic comparisons between thermophiles and mesophiles have shown that the genomes of thermophilic organisms have a higher guanine and cytosine (GC) content than mesophiles (Takami et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2015). It was hypothesized that a high GC content contributes to the thermostability of the genome and correlated with the optimum growth temperature of bacteria (Musto

et al. 2005; Musto et al. 2006). Additionally, tRNAs and rRNAs, the translational machinery of some thermophilic organisms, were reported to have high GC contents as well (Higgs and Ran 2008; Satapathy et al. 2010).

It has been observed that higher tRNA diversity usually occurs in thermophiles in comparison with non-thermophiles. Among psychrophiles, the total number of tRNA was found to be more than twofold higher than in the non-psychrophiles. The fact that growth temperature correlates with diversity and total amount of cellular tRNA (Satapathy et al. 2010) extends the list of molecular features undergoing adaptation due to growth temperature and supports the view that growth temperature acts as a strong selecting factor at the molecular level during evolution.

Small RNA (sRNA) has been shown to play important gene regulatory roles in the prokaryotes and can be involved in the adaptation at high temperatures. The sRNAs from *Geobacillus thermoleovorans* CCB_US3_UF5 strain, growing at 60–70 °C, were reverse transcribed to cDNA and sequenced. Sequencing data identified 83 putative sRNAs classified as antisense, intergenic region, untranslated region, or noncoding. Out of this total, 44 sRNA candidates were specific to growth at elevated temperature, suggesting that regulatory sRNA may play an important role in high-temperature adaptation in thermophilic bacteria (Tan and Alam 2010).

5.5 Biotechnological Potential of *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* Species

Members of the genera *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* can be used both in whole-cell applications and in biofuel and chemical production through engineered cells. One of the main advantages of using bacteria from these taxa is faster rate of growth, decreased contamination, and easier maintenance (Bertoldo and Antranikian 2002; Antranikian 2007). *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species can be used as cell factories for multiple products, from gold nanoparticles using *Geobacillus* sp. strain ID17 (using NADH-dependent enzymes which convert Au³⁺ to elemental gold) (Correa-Llantén et al. 2013) to provision of thermostable enzymes (Zahoor et al. 2016; Sharma et al. 2013).

The members of these genera have a strong potential for application in bioremediation, especially with regard to degradation of aromatic compounds and removal of heavy metals. For example, 50 mg/L dried cells of *Geobacillus thermantarcticus* remove Cd²⁺, Cu²⁺, Co²⁺, and Mn²⁺ up to 85.4%, 46.3%, 43.6%, and 65.1%, respectively, whereas *Anoxybacillus amylolyticus* removes 74.1%, 39.8%, 35.1%, and 36.6%, respectively, and *Anoxybacillus amylolyticus* removes the mentioned metal ions up to 74.1%, 39.8%, 35.1%, and 36.6%, respectively (Özdemir et al. 2013).

The ability of *Geobacillus* strains to metabolize aromatic compounds has been described by Feitkenhauer et al. (2003). They studied the kinetics of phenol degradation in continuous culture at 65 °C using *G. thermoleovorans*. Al-Jailawi et al. (2016) suggested that *A. rufiopsis* strain Ir3 could be used as alternative to hydrodenitrogenation (HDN) for nitroaromatic compounds elimination (biotreatment) of crude oil and its derivatives. The quantitative analysis (HPLC) indicated that this

bacterium showed as much as 99.62% consumption of carbazole, 99.4% of *p*-nitrophenol, 97.73% of nitrobenzene, and 98.89% of naphthalene (Al-Jailawi et al. 2016).

Geobacillus and *Anoxybacillus* species demonstrate great versatility for adaptation and catalytic metabolism in a wide variety of environmental niches and are valuable sources of various thermostable enzymes. Thermophilic bacilli are of special interest as a source of novel thermostable enzymes and possess properties suitable for biotechnological and commercial use. There is, indeed, a considerable demand for a new generation of stable enzymes that are able to withstand severe conditions in industrial processes by replacing or supplementing traditional chemical processes. Their ability to conduct various reactions to higher process rates because of increase in substrate diffusion coefficient and reduced viscosity at higher temperatures makes them a preferred choice over mesophilic sources (Niehaus et al. 1999; Sharma et al. 2013).

Geobacillus and *Anoxybacillus* isolated from different hot springs show high potential as biocatalysts suitable for industrial biotechnology applications. The ability of these bacteria to produce a variety of extracellular enzymes, such as amylases, lipases, xylanases, proteases, esterases, and ureases, has ranked them among the most important enzyme producers (Bruins et al. 2001; Satyanarayana et al. 2012).

5.5.1 Amylases

Amylases are among the most important industrial enzymes and are of significance for their specific use in the starch conversion processes, having approximately 25% of the world enzyme market (Reddy et al. 2003). Amylolytic enzymes act on starch and related oligo- and polysaccharides, catalyzing the hydrolysis of internal α -1,4-glycosidic linkages in starch into low-molecular-weight products, such as glucose, maltose, and maltotriose units (Antranikian 2007).

A number of studies on starch-hydrolyzing enzymes based on the DNA sequence, structural analysis, and catalytic mechanism have led to the concept of one enzyme family: the alpha amylase. The amylolytic and related enzymes have been classified as glycoside hydrolases. They have been categorized as exoenzyme, endoenzyme, de-branching, and cyclodextrin-producing enzymes. The application of these enzymes has been established in a number of industrial processes such as food, fermentation, textiles, and paper industries (Antranikian 2007).

Amylolytic enzymes have been produced by a wide range of microorganisms. Heat-adapted amylases derived from the genus *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* have a big potential for commercial applications. α -Amylases from the members of genera *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* from the terrestrial hot springs are characterized by a high thermophilicity and stability (reacting between 30 and 120 °C) and activity within a wide range of pH values (from 5.5 to 13) (Table 5.4).

The α -amylases from thermophilic bacilli were purified and characterized with 42–97 kDa molecular weight (Table 5.4). Gurumurthy and Neelagund (2012) completed the molecular characterization of an extremely thermostable α -amylase

Table 5.4 Characteristics of thermostable α -amylases from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species

Microorganism	Source	Molecular weight (kDa)	pH optimal/stability	Temperature optimal/stability	Key observation	References
<i>G. stearothermophilus</i>	Mae'en hot springs in Jordan	–	7.0/5.5–1.3	55/25–75	Ca, Mn, Mg, and Cu slightly improve the enzymatic activity	Zakaria Al-Qodah (2006)
<i>G. thermoleovorans</i>	Hot spring of the Waimangu Volcanic Valley, New Zealand	–	7.0/ND	70/ND	Enzyme titer increased significantly in cane-molasses medium (60 U ml ⁻¹) as compared to that in the synthetic medium (26 U ml ⁻¹)	Maheswar Rao and Satyanarayana (2007)
<i>G. thermoleovorans</i>	Unkeshwar hot spring sediment, Nanded, India	42	7.5/5.5–9.0	68/65–90	The Km and Vmax values were 2.702 mg/ml and 7692.3 mmol, respectively. Ca, Cu, and Co ions increased activity	Rekadwad (2015)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Uttarakhand hot spring, Himalayan region, India	97	6.5/5.0–10	60/40–120	The values of Km and Vmax were 36 mg/ml and 222 μ mol/mg/min, respectively	Dheeran et al. (2010)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Irde geothermal spring, Karnataka, India	43	8.0/5.0–11	90/45–95	Enzyme revealed about 55% α -helix, 5% β -strand, and 40% of unordered structure	Gurumurthy and Neelagund (2010, 2012)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Tengchong hot spring, China	67	5.6/ND	70/ND	Fe ³⁺ , Cu ²⁺ , EDTA inhibiting an enzyme activity	Wang et al. (2011b)
<i>A. beppuensis</i>	Tulsi Shyam hot spring reservoir, Gujarat, India	43	7.0/ND	80/50–90	Km and Vmax were 0.5 mg/ml and 3571.42 μ mol/ml/m. Enzyme Ca ion independent and resistant to chemical	Kikani and Singh (2012)
<i>A. thermarum</i>	Hot mineral spring in Erzurum, Turkey	50	ND/5.5–10.5	70/20–90	The specific activity is 1203.7 U/mg. Enzyme activated by Ca, Cu, Ba, Co, and Zn ions	Baltas et al. (2016)

(continued)

Table 5.4 (continued)

Microorganism	Source	Molecular weight (kDa)	pH optimal/stability	Temperature optimal/stability	Key observation	References
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Dargeçit hot spring, Turkey	85	7.0/ND	60/ND	Km and Vmax values were 0.102 μ mol and 0.929 μ mol/min, respectively	Acer et al. (2016)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Diyadin hot spring in Agri, Turkey	–	8.0/ND	60/ND	The maximum α -amylase production was secreted in the presence of 2% (w/v) soluble starch and casamino acid (14,3,10.6 U/mL)	Matpan Bekler and Güven (2014)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Hot spring in Malaysia	50	8.0/6.0–9.0	60/ND	The high immobilized enzyme activity retention (100%) and activity recovery (93%) achieved using ReliZyme HFA403/M	Kahar et al. (2016)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	Omer hot springs, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey	60	7.0/6.0–8.0	55/35–70	Enzyme hydrolyzed soluble starch at 55 °C with Km: 0.005 mM and Vmax: 3.5 μ mol/min	Fincan et al. (2013)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	Karvachar hot spring, Nagorno-Karabakh	75	ND/5.5–8.5	ND/40–100	Amylase production started in early log phase and reached a maximum in late exponential phase with an activity of 205 U/ml	Panosyan et al. (2014)

ND not determined, AN accession number; – data not available

produced by a *Geobacillus* sp. for industrial applications. This α -amylase is considered as a novel enzyme due to its optimum activity at a very high temperature (90 °C) and at an alkaline condition (pH 8.0).

5.5.2 Lipases/Esterases

One of the important groups of biotechnologically relevant enzymes are lipases (EC 3.1.1.3 – triacylglycerol hydrolases), which have found large applications in food, dairy, detergent, and pharmaceutical industries (Sharma et al. 2013; Gudiukaite et al. 2017). Lipases catalyze the hydrolysis of ester bonds of triacylglycerol at the interface between an insoluble substrate and water. In nonaqueous media these reactions are reversed due to a hydrophobic domain (lid), covering the active site of the lipase. The three-dimensional structures of lipases have a structural similarity with the α - β -hydrolase family which contain terminal α -helices and a central β -sheet including the active Ser placed in a loop termed the catalytic elbow. Most α - β -hydrolases contain a consensus sequence, Gly-X-Ser-X-Gly, around the active site serine, with a catalytic triad (Ser-Asp-His) (Ollis et al. 1992; Arpigny and Jaeger 1999; Gudiukaite et al. 2014).

Lipase-coding genes and activities have been reported in a wide range of microorganisms. However, lipases derived from thermophiles have privileges compared to the mesophilic lipases due to their unique attributes (Lotti and Alberghina 2007). Among the huge diversity of thermophilic bacteria, mainly bacilli have been reported as active thermostable lipase producers (Leow et al. 2004; Antranikian 2007; Sharma et al. 2013, Yang et al. 2013). A number of thermophilic bacilli species belonging to the genera *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* have been isolated from different geothermal springs and reported as thermostable lipase producers (Table 5.5).

The purified lipase from *Anoxybacillus* sp. isolated from the hot springs in Tășnad (Romania) and Seferihisar Karakoc (Turkey) has a molecular weight of 25–26 kDa characterized by extremely high thermostability (25–90 °C) with optimum activity at 60–65 °C (Ay et al. 2011; Chis et al. 2013). Additional lipolytic enzymes from thermophilic bacilli were purified and characterized and possess molecular weights between 25 and 47 kDa (Ay et al. 2011; Balan et al. 2012; Chis et al. 2013; Mahadevan and Neelagund 2014).

The lipases purified from *G. thermodenitrificans* and *Geobacillus* sp. are characterized with 30–45 kDa molecular weight and act at the temperatures from 60 to 85 °C (Balan et al. 2012; Mahadevan and Neelagund 2014).

The lipases are stable at a wide range of pH values (5.0–11.0). The lipases from geobacilli mostly act at neutral pH, while the lipases from anoxybacilli are slightly alkaliphilic (Table 5.4).

Table 5.5 Thermostable lipase/esterase from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species and their characteristics

Microorganism	Source	Molecular weight (kDa)	pH optimal/stability	Temperature optimal/stability	Key observation	References
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Tattapani hot springs, Himachal Pradesh, India	–	8.5/ND	60/ND	The Km and Vmax values of enzyme were 14 mM and 17.86 μmol/ml/min, respectively. Enzyme activity increased in the presence of metal ions	Mehta et al. (2012)
<i>G. thermodenitrificans</i>	Hot spring in Labok, Kelantan, Malaysia	30	7.0/6.0–8.0	65/60–70	Enzyme showed elevated activity when pretreated with BaCl ₂ , CaCl ₂ , and KCl with 112%, 108%, and 106%, respectively. Lipase hydrolyzed tripalmitin (C16) and olive oil with optimal activity (100%) compared to other substrates	Balan et al. (2012), Yang et al. (2013)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Irde geothermal springs, Karnataka, India	47	8.0/8.0–12	70/60–85	The enzyme activity was promoted in the presence of Ca and Mg ions. The secondary structure of purified lipase contains 36% α-helix and 64% β-sheet	Mahadevan and Neelagund (2014)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Tatev hot spring, Armenia	–	6.0/4.0–8.0	65/45–75	The lipases belong to true lipases from family I and characterized with the presence of aspartic residues involved in Ca ²⁺ -binding site	Shahinyan (2015), Shahinyan et al. (2017)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	Hot spring in Tășnad, Romania	25	6.5–8.0/3.0–9.0	60–65/25–80	Est/Lip is highly enantioselective, with preference for the (S)-enantiomer of substrates	Chis et al. (2013)
<i>A. gonensis</i>	Gonen hot springs, Turkey	–	7.5/5.5–9.5	60/50–70	Vmax and Km for the esterase activity of crude enzyme in the presence of p-nitrophenyl butyrate were 50 U/L and 0.125 mM, respectively. Ca ²⁺ ion is cofactor	Colak et al. (2005)

<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Kuala Woh hot spring, Peninsular Malaysia	–	–	–	Lipase activity 0.56–2.62 U/ml	Olusesan et al. (2009)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Seferhisar Karakoc hot spring, Turkey	26	8.0/5.0–10.0	60/25–90	The enzyme exhibited a high level of activity with p-nitrophenyl butyrate with apparent Km, Vmax, and Kcat values of 0.348 ± 0.030 mM, 3725.8 U/mg, and 1500 ± 54.50/s, respectively	Ay et al. (2011)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Omer hot spring, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey	–	7.0/6.0–11	80/50–90	Co and Mg ions activated the enzyme by 188% and 149%, respectively	Ozdemir et al. (2015)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Karvachar hot spring, Nagomo-Karabakh	–	10.0/7.0–11.0	65/55–75	The lipases are close to the esterases and in primary structure display a Gly-Asp-Ser-(Leu) (GDSDL) motif containing the active-site serine residue	Shahinyan (2015), Shahinyan et al. (2017)

ND not determined, – data not available

5.5.3 Proteases

Proteases are cleaving proteins into short peptides or free amino acids and are mainly divided into two major groups depending on their site of action: exopeptidases and endopeptidases (Sookkheo et al. 2002). Exopeptidases cleave the peptide bond proximal to the amino or carboxy termini of the substrate, whereas endopeptidases cleave the peptide bonds distant from the termini of the substrate. They can also be further divided into four groups based on the functional group present at the active site. These are serine, aspartic, cysteine, and metalloproteases (Rao et al. 1998).

Protease enzymes constitute one of the most important groups of industrial enzymes which are extensively used in the food, pharmaceutical, protein hydrolysis, detergent, cheese-making, brewing, photographic, baking, meat, and leather industries and inclusions in animal and human food as digestive aids (Seifzadeh et al. 2008; Synowiecki 2010).

There is a good correlation between growth temperature of the organism and the stability of its extracellular proteases. Thermophilic bacteria from hot springs are often good sources of thermostable proteases. *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* strains producing thermostable proteases are listed in Table 5.6.

The studied thermostable proteases of geobacilli and anoxybacilli isolated from the hot springs mostly exhibited optimum activity at a slightly alkaline pH (7–8) and are stable at the wide range of pH values (6–10). The thermostable alkaline proteases have been found to be the most appropriate enzyme in detergent industry, as the enzymes used in detergent formulations should have high activity and stability over a broad range of pH and temperature (Rao et al. 1998; Seifzadeh et al. 2008; Matpan Bekler et al. 2015).

5.5.4 Xylanases

Xylanase (EC 3.2.1.8) degrades the linear polysaccharide β -1,4-xylan into xylose, thus breaking down hemicellulose, one of the major components of plant cell walls. Biodegradation of xylan requires action of several enzymes, among which xylanase plays a key role. In the nature, the xylanase degrades the plant matter into usable nutrients and plays a major role in microbial thriving on plant sources. Microbial xylanases have large application in industry including the food, feed, fuel, textile, detergents, paper, and pulp industries and, also, in waste treatment (Kumar et al. 2013).

A number of thermophilic bacilli isolated from different terrestrial hot springs in Bulgaria (Derekova et al. 2008), Turkey (Kacagan et al. 2008; Inan et al. 2011, 2013), Japan (Sunna et al. 1997), India (Sharma et al. 2007), Pakistan (Zahoor et al. 2016), and the USA (Ellis and Magnuson 2012) were described as active xylanase producers. The purified and characterized xylanases of the species of *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* from the hot springs are listed in Table 5.7.

Table 5.6 Thermostable proteases from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species and their characteristics

Microorganism	Source	Molecular weight (kDa)	pH optimal/stability	Temperature optimal/stability	Key observation	References
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Buranga hot spring, Uganda	97, 72, 50, 27, 22, 17, and 12	6.5/5.0–9.0	70/37–80	Proteases with 97 and 72 kDa molecular weight are heat-activated proteases, while the 12-kDa proteases are responsible for the observed protease activity at low temperature	Hawumba et al. (2002)
<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	Tengchong hot spring, China	59.2	7.5/6.0–9.0	85/45–100	The activity of the protease is activated by Ca ²⁺ and Mg ²⁺ but inhibited partially by Ba ²⁺ , Zn ²⁺ , Pb ²⁺ , Co ²⁺ , Mn ²⁺ , and Cu ²⁺	Zhu et al. (2007)
<i>G. stearothermophilus</i>	Hot spring in Chiang Mai, Thailand	36, 53, and 71	8.5, 7.5, and 7.0/6.0–10.0	70, 85, and 90/50–100	Classified as Zn ²⁺ metalloproteases. The cleavage specificities of proteases S, N, and B on a 30-residue synthetic peptide from pro-BFPN subtilisin were Tyr-Ile, Phe-Lys, and Gly-Phe, respectively	Sookkheo et al. (2002)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Köprü hot spring, Turkey	106	9.0/ND	50/50–60	The enzyme activity was increased in the presence of Ca ²⁺ , Cu ²⁺ , Tween 80, and Triton X-100	Matpan Bekler et al. (2015)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp.	Hot spring Beppu city, Oita, Japan	57	6.0–8.0/5.5–10.0	70/50–90	The solubilization of sewage sludge by thermophilic protease is secreted	Nakamichi et al. (2010)

ND not determined

Table 5.7 Thermostable xylanases from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species and their characteristics

Microorganism	Source	Molecular weight (kDa)	pH optimal/stability	Temperature optimal/stability	Key observation	References
<i>G. thermoleovorans</i>	Hot spring in Kobe (Japan)	40 and 69	7.0/6.0–9.0	70–80/30–90	The crude xylanase complex is composed of two active bands	Sunna et al. (1997)
	Uttaranchal hot spring (India)	–	8.5/6.0–11.0	80/50–100	The treatment of the pulp with the xylanase (50 U g/l dry pulp) was showed	Sharma et al. (2007)
<i>A. gonensis</i>	Dikili-Bergama Kaynarca hot spring, Camkoy Camur hot spring, Omerbeyli hot spring, Alangullu hot spring (Turkey)	–	9.0/ND	65–75/40–90	The alkaline active xylanases allow the direct enzymatic treatment of the alkaline pulp and avoid the cost incurring and time-consuming steps of pH readjustment	Inan et al. (2011)
<i>A. kaynaricensis</i>	Kaynarca hot Spring (Turkey)	100–150	7.0–9.0/ND	65/ND	The presence of three xylanases in the cell supported by the zymogram of SDS-PAGE	Inan et al. (2013)
<i>A. flavithermus</i>	Alvord Basin hydrothermal system in Oregon (USA)	≈250	6.0–8.0/5.0–9.0	65/65–85	Pentameric protein complex consisting of protein subunits ranging from 25 to 75 kDa is suggested	Ellis and Magnuso (2012)
<i>A. pushchinoensis</i>	Diyadin hot springs (Turkey)	≈83	6.5/6.5–11.0	55/50–60	V _{max} and K _m determined at optimum temperature and were found to be 59.88 U/mg protein and 0.909 mg/ml, respectively	Kacagan et al. (2008)

ND not determined, – data not available

Thermophilic and alkaline active xylanases from *Anoxybacillus* species drive higher interest than other ones. The use of alkaline active xylanases allows direct enzymatic treatment of the alkaline pulp and avoids the cost of incurring and time-consuming steps of pH readjustment. Due to better solubility of xylan under alkaline conditions, alkaline active xylanase may also find other potential applications in addition to pulp bleaching (Inan et al. 2011, 2013).

5.5.5 Cellulases

Cellulose is the most abundant organic compound on Earth and has been extensively used as a substrate for the production of single-cell proteins, biofuels, and various other chemicals through microbial enzymatic degradation. The conversion of cellulosic biomass to fermentable sugars requires different types of cellulases, namely, β -1,4 endoglucanase (EC 3.4.1.4), β -1,4 exoglucanase (EC 3.2.1.91), and β -1,4 glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) (Sharma et al. 2015). Cellulose-degrading enzymes have various applications in starch processing, grain alcohol fermentation, deinking, drainage improvement, malting, and brewing. Thermostable cellulase is extensively used in the bio-stoning of denim fabrics and production of environment-friendly washing powders. In wine production cellulases are applied to obtain better fruit skin degradation, improved color extraction, easier must clarification, and better extraction (Kuhad et al. 2011).

Extracellular cellulases-producing anoxybacilli and geobacilli were mainly isolated from hot springs in Turkey (Cihan et al. 2014) and India (Sharma et al. 2015; Priya et al. 2016). The cellulases produced by *G. kaustophilus* PW11, *G. toebii* PW12, *G. thermoleovorans* PW13, *G. toebii* PS4, and *G. thermodenitrificans* IP_WH1 strains isolated from Tattapani hot spring (India) were thermostable and exhibited activity even at 100 °C. Among the metal ions tested, Mn^{2+} , Co^{2+} , and Fe^{2+} significantly enhanced the cellulase activity, while Hg^{2+} (1 mM) strongly inhibited enzyme activity (Sharma et al. 2015; Priya et al. 2016). The activity of cellulase produced from *G. thermodenitrificans* IP_WH1 was higher (0.94 IU/ml at 60 °C) (Priya et al. 2016) than the activity of other thermophilic cellulases reported in the literature, such as *Bacillus* sp. with 0.14–0.37 IU/ml (Padilha et al. 2015) and *Bacillus* sp. SMIA-2 with 0.29 IU/ml (Ladeira et al. 2015) at 50 °C and pH 7.0.

Anoxybacillus gonensis isolated from Agri Diyadin hot spring (Turkey) produces a cellulase with approximately 40 kDa molecular weight, with highest activity at 50 °C and with an unusual broad optimum pH range (3–10) (Genc et al. 2015).

Cellulase-producing bacteria, such as *A. flavithermus* EHP1, *G. stearothermophilus* EHP2, and *G. thermodenitrificans* EHP3, have been isolated from Egyptian hot spring. The crude *A. flavithermus* EHP1 enzyme was produced at the end of the stationary phase and exhibited highest activity at 75 °C and pH 7.5 (Ibrahim and El-diwan 2007).

5.5.6 Exopolysaccharides

Exopolysaccharides (EPSs) are high-molecular-weight polymers composed of sugar residues. Bacteria produce diverse and multifunctional polysaccharides including intracellular, structural, and extracellular polysaccharides (exopolysaccharides). EPSs generally consist of polymers of monosaccharides and some non-carbohydrate substituents (such as acetate, pyruvate, succinate, and phosphate). EPSs play an important role for microbial cells, as they can form a protective layer for the cell against harsh external environments, serve as carbon and energy sources during starvation, mediate cell-cell interactions, facilitate the adherence of the cell to surface, and induce microbial aggregation or biofilm formation (Nwodo et al. 2012). Nichols et al. (2005), Junge et al. (2004), and Tourney and Ngwenya (2014) suggest also functions which include cryoprotection for growth at low temperatures, high-salinity tolerance with reference to sea ice microbial communities, and heavy metal precipitation on the cell surface.

The various properties of microbial EPS have found large application in the industry. EPS like xanthan and gellan are already utilized in the food industry as gelling agents and thickeners for salad dressings, desserts, sauces, syrups, and ice cream (Kornmann et al. 2003). New areas for the application of microbial polysaccharides include improving the efficiency of liquid herbicides and insecticides; stabilization of emulsified pharmaceutical and cosmetic creams (Moonmangmee et al. 2002; Sutherland 1999), as thickeners and stabilizers in shampoos, toothpaste, and makeup; and solidifier of microbiological and plant tissue culture media. In recent years there has been an increasing interest in their biological activities, like antitumor, antiviral, immunostimulatory (Arena et al. 2006; Weiner et al. 1995), and anti-inflammatory effects (De Stefano et al. 2007).

EPSs from thermophilic bacteria offer numerous applications in various fields of industry, as the thermophiles provide more suitable processes for polymer production with decreased viscosity at high temperature. Extremophiles offer a great diversity in chemical and physical properties of their EPS compared to anywhere else in the biosphere (Guezennec 2002). Additionally, EPSs synthesized by thermophilic bacteria are likely to keep their structural properties at high temperature, which is a desired feature of the polymer solution (Radchenkova et al. 2013).

EPSs from geobacilli and anoxybacilli isolated from different geothermal springs are promising for their use in the industry. One gram of EPS from *Anoxybacillus* sp. R4-33 isolated from a hot spring in China absorbed 1.9783 mg Zn(II) and 1.4095 mg Cd(II) at pH 6.0 (Zhao et al. 2014). This EPS was a heteropolysaccharide, composed of D-mannose and D-glucose as its principal monosaccharide components in the relative proportions 1:0.45 (Table 5.8). Production of thermostable EPS was also reported for *G. tepidamans* (Kambourova et al. 2009), *G. thermodenitrificans* (Panosyan 2017, Panosyan et al. 2014), *G. toebii*, and *A. kestanbolensis* (Radchenkova et al. 2013; Panosyan 2017).

Table 5.8 Thermostable EPS from *Geobacillus* and *Anoxybacillus* species and their characteristics

Microorganism	Isolation source	Carbon Source	EPS yield (mg l ⁻¹)	EPS molecular weight (kDa), chemical composition (relative ratio)	References
<i>G. toebii</i>	Rupi hot spring, Bulgaria	Sucrose	50	ND	Radchenkova et al. (2013)
<i>G. tepidamans</i> V264	Velingrad hot spring, Bulgaria	Maltose	111.4	1000, Glc/Gal/Fuc/Fru (1/0.07/0.04/0.02)	Kambourova et al. (2009) and Coorevits et al. (2011)
<i>G. thermodenitrificans</i> ArzA-6	Arzakan geothermal spring, Armenia	Fructose/ glucose	76	500, Man/Gal/Ara/Fru/Glc (1/0.13/0.1/0.06/0.05)	Panosyan (2017) and Panosyan et al. (2014)
<i>G. toebii</i> ArzA-8			80	600, Man/Gal/Glc/Ara (1/0.5/0.2/0.05)	
<i>A. kestanbolensis</i> 415	Mizinka hot spring, Bulgaria	Sucrose	25.3	ND	Radchenkova et al. (2013)
<i>Anoxybacillus</i> sp. R4-33	Radioactive radon hot spring, China	Glucose	1083	EPSII, 1000, Man/Glc (1/0.45)	Zhao et al. (2014)

ND not determined

5.6 Conclusion

Isolation and study of thermophilic bacilli from terrestrial geothermal springs are important for understanding of the diversity of thermophilic microbes and exploring their biotechnological potency. Many new thermophilic microbes belonging to the genera *Anoxybacillus* and *Geobacillus* have been isolated from different terrestrial geothermal springs worldwide, identified, and evaluated taking into account their biotechnological potency. *Anoxybacillus* is a relatively new genus compared to the well-studied *Geobacillus*. Most of the reported data has revealed that the members of both genera produce interesting enzymes that are thermostable and tolerant to alkaline conditions. Some of the studied enzymes were discovered through partnerships with industry. The interest in heat-adapted industrial enzymes is expected to increase. The present work, therefore, extends the previous sphere of information regarding the thermophilic bacilli diversity of terrestrial geothermal springs worldwide and their biotechnological applications and potency.

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