

# Psychrophilic microorganisms as important source for biotechnological processes

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## 1 Introduction

The major parts of Earth's environments are cold and have temperatures below 5°C (Gounot 1999; Russell and Cowan 2005). About 70% of the freshwater is ice and about 14% from the Earth's biosphere is represented by terrestrial and aquatic polar areas (Priscu and Christner 2004). The depth of the oceans, the poles, and high mountains are the most important cold regions on Earth (Russell and Cowan 2005). Global ice, for example, covers 6.5 million km<sup>2</sup> which increases to 14.4 million km<sup>2</sup> in wintertime (Perovich et al. 2002). Here we can meet representatives from all domains of the living world. Two categories of microorganisms were discovered in such cold environments. First, the psychrophiles with an optimum growth temperature of about 15°C or even less, which cannot grow above 20°C (Moyer and Morita 2007); second, the psychrotolerants with an optimum growth temperature of 20–30°C, which are able to grow and exhibit activity at temperatures close to the freezing point of water (Madigan and Jung 2003). The lowest temperature for life's activities is –20°C under certain defined conditions (Rivkina et al. 2000; Gilichinsky 2002; D'Amico et al. 2006); others consider the temperature limits for reproduction as –12°C and for metabolism as –20°C (Bakermans 2008). *Colwellia psychrerythraea* strain 34H is motile at –10°C, as observed by transmitted light microscopy (Junge et al. 2003). Psychrophilic microorganisms are dominant in permanently cold environments such as Antarctic waters and have important roles in the biogeochemical cycles in the polar zones (Helmke and Weyland 2004). Not only are prokaryotes adapted to the cold, but also are many eukaryotes such as algae (Takeuchi and Kohshima 2004) and macroorganisms from crustaceans to fishes. The present work will focus on prokaryotes and some microscopic eukaryotes of biotechnological importance.

## 2 Diversity of cold-adapted microorganisms

The psychrophilic and psychrotolerant microorganisms belong to all three of life's principal domains, Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarya. It is interesting to note that viruses are omnipresent and even so in those inhospitable places. Viruses from the families *Podoviridae*, *Siphoviridae*, and *Myoviridae* were identified in cold environments (Wells 2008). Bacteriophages were identified in inner polar waters and in ice (S awstr om et al. 2007) infecting psychrophilic microorganisms; for example, phage 9A of *Colwellia psychrerythrea* strain 34 is capable of forming plaques at low temperatures, but not at 13°C (Wells 2008).

Archaea found in cold environments are methanogens for example, from genera *Methanogenium*, *Methanococcoides* and *Methanosarcina*, but halophilic (*Halorubrum*) and other strains can also occur (Cavicchioli 2006).

**Bacteria.** The majority of isolates from polar areas belong to the groups of *Beta-*, *Gamma-*, *Delta-Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, the *Cytophaga-Flexibacter-Bacteroides* group, and green nonsulfur bacteria. Many strains of Bacteria as well as Archaea and Eukarya were revealed by 16S rRNA and 18S rRNA gene clone libraries (Tian et al. 2009). Soils of the McMurdo Dry Valleys host species of *Pseudonocardia*, *Nocardioides*, *Geodermatophilus*, *Modestobacter*, *Sporichthya* and *Streptomyces* (Babalola et al. 2008). Cyanobacteria as photoautotrophs were retrieved from ice, soils, rocks, lakes, ponds, marine ecosystems, and alpine areas (Zakhia et al. 2008). *Chamaesiphon* sp., *Chroococcidiopsis* (from sandstone) and *Synechococcus* sp. (from lakes, marine water, and others) are examples of cyanobacterial genera with cold-adapted strains.

**Algae.** Species of *Chlamydomonas* were retrieved from water derived from melting glacier ice and from some layer species of *Rhodomonas* and *Chromulina*. Species of *Tribonemataceae* were found in Antarctic terrestrial environments (Rybalka et al. 2008). Several microalgae can be found in all known cold environments as in snow (*Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*), seawater (diatoms), sea ice (diatoms and dinoflagellates), on rocks as endoliths (*Hemichloris antarctica*), ice-covered lakes (*Chloromonas* sp., *Chlamydomonas intermedia*, and *Chlamydomonas raudensis*) and at high altitudes (reviewed by Mock and Thomas 2008). Samples from the Tyndall Glacier in Patagonia, Chile contained algal species of the genera *Mesotaenium*, *Cylindrocystis*, *Ancyλονema*, *Closterium*, *Chloromonas*, and some cyanobacteria (Takeuchi and Kohshima 2004).

**Yeasts.** Yeast strains such as *Sporobolomyces*, *Cryptococcus*, and *Rhodotorula* sp. were isolated from Lake Vanda (Goto et al. 1969) and from other Antarctic and alpine environments, including psychrophilic yeasts such as the novel species *Mrakia robertii*, *M. blollopis*, and *M. niccombsi* (Thomas-Hall et al. 2010). Several yeasts,

which are producers of lipases and proteases, were isolated from cold marine water and freshwater (Rashidah et al. 2007), such as *Cryptococcus antarcticus* and *Cryptococcus albidosimilis*, *Basidioblastomyces* (Vishniac and Kurtzman 1992), *Cryptococcus nyarrowii* (Thomas-Hall and Watson 2002), *Cryptococcus waticus* (Guffogg et al. 2004), and *Leucosporidium antarcticum* – the latter from Antarctic waters (Turkiewicz et al. 2005) – and *Mrakia* strains (Thomas-Hall et al. 2010).

Fungi were isolated from many cold environments. For example, *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, *Paecilomyces*, *Cladosporium*, *Mortierella*, *Candida*, and *Rhodotorula* were isolated from soils of Terra Nova Bay and Edmonson Point, Antarctica (Gesheva 2009). Some authors described isolates from soils, such as *Chrysosporium* sp., *Phoma exigua*, *Heterocephalum aurantiacum*, *Aureobasidium pullulans*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, *Trichoderma viride*, and *Penicillium antarcticum* (Negoită et al. 2001a). From the soils of Schirmacher Oasis, Antarctica, fungi such as *Acremonium*, *Aspergillus*, and *Penicillium* were isolated, the majority surviving as spores in those harsh environments, and some species possess unique features of their mycelia (Singh et al. 2006). Frisvad (2008b) reviewed the fungi from cold ecosystems and indicated their isolation from soils and permafrost, caves, rocks, mosses and lichens, glacier ice, freshwater, as well as from frozen foods. The fungi belong to the Ascomycetes (*Acremonium antarcticum*, *A. psychrophilum*, and *Penicillium antarcticum*), Zygomycetes (*Mortierella alpina* and *Absidia psychrophila*) and basidiomycetous yeasts, which are very rare in cold areas. Endolithic fungi resistant to low temperature and low water activity were isolated by Onofri et al. (2007).

### 3 Ecology and biology

Some of the microorganisms are polyextremophiles, for example halo-psychrophiles, or piezo-psychrophiles, which tolerate high pressure (Nogi 2008) and cannot grow at atmospheric pressure and at temperatures above 20°C, such as strains of *Shewanella*, *Colwellia*, *Moritella*, and *Psychromonas*. In these categories all the physiological and metabolic types can be found – anaerobes and aerobes, methanogens, methanotrophs, chemolithotrophs, sulfate reducers, and organotrophs. Anaerobic cold-adapted *Clostridium* sp. (e.g., *C. frigoris*, *C. bowmannii*, and *C. psychrophilum*) were isolated from Antarctic microbial mats (Spring et al. 2003) or some psychrotolerants, such as *C. frigidicarnis* and *C. algidixylanolyticum*, from frozen products (Finster 2008). Sulfate-reducing psychrophiles *Desulfotalea*, *Desulfofaba*, and *Desulfofrigus* (Knoblauch et al. 1999), sulfur-oxidizing bacteria (SOB), occurring in such organic carbon depleted environments as subglacial waters (Sattley and Madigan 2006), as well as denitrifying microorganisms in sea ice (Rysgaard et al. 2008) were found. Ammonia oxidizers were identified by genetic

methods in all of the samples taken from lakes Fryxell, Bonney, Hoare, Joyce, and Vanda in Antarctica, belonging to the *Proteobacteria* (Voytek et al. 1999). Acetogenic bacterial sequences originating from *Acetobacterium tundrae* and others related to *Acetobacterium bakii* (Sattley and Madigan 2007) were isolated from sediments of Lake Fryxell. From the same lake different phototrophic purple bacteria were identified with molecular methods (Karr et al. 2003) as well as methanogenic and other Archaea (Karr et al. 2006). Biological methane oxidation and sulfate reduction by Archaea occur in alpine lakes (such as Lake Lugano deeps) in anoxic zones (Blees et al. 2010). Methanogens were detected in soils, water sediments, sea and lake waters from cold environments (Cavicchioli 2006). Methanotrophy was detected indirectly in Lake Untersee (Antarctica) by identification of hopanoids and two steroids (4-methyl steroid and 4,4-dimethyl steroid), one hopanoid (diplopterol) having a specific low isotopic  $^{13}\text{C}$  content, and originating from the aerobic methylotroph *Methylococcus* sp. (Niemann et al. 2010). Some *Shewanella* and *Pseudomonas* strains from Antarctic lakes are able to mediate redox reactions of manganese under stimulation by Co and Ni (Krishnan et al. 2009).

#### 4 Cold environments

*Cold deserts.* There are cold deserts in Antarctica where the precipitation is very low, the temperatures range between  $-55^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$ , UV radiation is high and water activity is low; these are some of the most extreme environments on Earth. Many microorganisms can be found in endolithic communities composed of cyanobacteria such as *Acaryochloris marina* and *Gloeocapsa* species (de los Ríos et al. 2007). Endolithic bacteria, fungi, archaea, green algae, yeasts, and lichens were found in McMurdo Dry Valley (Gounot 1999), analyzed by staining with the BacLight LIVE/DEAD kit and observed with confocal laser scanning microscopy to demonstrate their survival (Wierzbos et al. 2004).

*Soils covered with snow.* From Arctic wetland soil methanotrophic bacteria were retrieved such as *Methylocystis rosea* (Wartiainen et al. 2006). In soils of Lapland microbial communities were discovered, similarly as in soils from alpine zones, where the temperatures can reach  $-25^{\circ}\text{C}$  in wintertime. In addition, soils from Spitsbergen contained many fungi such as *Mucor*, *Mortierella*, *Alternaria*, *Fusarium*, and *Zygorrhynchus* (Negoiță et al. 2001b), genera which are very probably psychrotolerants.

*Permafrost.* Permafrost soils in the geological sense stay below  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  for two consecutive years or more and are specific for arctic areas covering about 26% of the surface of the Northern Hemisphere. The average temperature is  $-16^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; in Siberia  $-11^{\circ}\text{C}$  and in Antarctica  $-18^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $-27^{\circ}\text{C}$  were measured (Vorobyova

et al. 1997). From those soils over 100 bacterial strains were isolated, also some methanogenic archaea from the families *Methanomicrobiaceae*, *Methanosarcinaceae*, and *Methanosectaceae* (Ganzert et al. 2007), methane oxidizing bacteria (Liebner and Wagner 2007), sulfate-reducing bacteria, aerobic and anaerobic heterotrophs (Gilichinsky 2002), denitrifiers, and iron and sulfate reducers (Rivkina et al. 1998). The majority of strains included species of *Micrococcus*, *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus*, *Rhodococcus*, *Arthrobacter*, *Haloarcula*, and *Halobaculum* (Steven et al. 2007), which were isolated in quantities of  $10^7$ – $10^9$  cells per gram of dry soil. From layers of permafrost which were demonstrated to be about 3–5 million years old, viable cells of bacteria were isolated (Rodrigues-Diaz et al. 2008), which have to face low temperatures and natural irradiation by radionuclides (Gilichinsky et al. 2008). From a layer of an arctic permafrost ice wedge from Canada (temperature  $-17.5^\circ\text{C}$ , pH 6.5, salt concentration 14.6 g/l, age about 25,000 years) bacteria were isolated (Katayama et al. 2007) belonging to the classes *Actinobacteria* and *Gamma-Proteobacteria*.

*Snow, ice, and glaciers.* The ice glaciers in Antarctica contain approximately 90% of the ice of our planet according to the National Snow and Ice Data Centre of USA (<http://nsidc.org/>, cited by Christner et al. 2008). Some aspects of the soils covered partially with ice on the shore of the Antarctic sea are shown in Figs. 1 and 2. Sea and lake ice glaciers are hosting considerable quantities of biological material, consisting of microorganisms, bacteria, spores, and pollen grains, the majority being transported there by air. The microbiota can survive in crevices and capillary tunnels containing concentrated ionic solutions with a lower freezing point (Price 2006). The number of viable microorganisms decreases with the depth of the ice layers; there is a supraglacial community (bacteria, viruses, diatoms, tardigrades, and



**Fig. 1.** Larsemann Hills Coast, Law-Racovita Base area, East Antarctica,  $69^\circ 23' 0''\text{S}$ ;  $76^\circ 23' 0''\text{E}$  (photo T.G. Negoita, 2007)



**Fig. 2.** Antarctic ice cap in the Schirmacher Oasis, 70°46'S; 11°50'E, 100 km inside the continent (photo T.G. Negoita, 2007)

rotifers), a subglacial community (aerobic and anaerobic) and an endoglacial community (Hodson et al. 2008). Hollibaugh et al. (2007) studied the Sea Ice Microbial Community (SIMCO) formed of bacteria, algae, and fungi of various metabolic types: sulfate reducers, chemolithotrophs, methanogens, anaerobic nitrate reducers (Skidmore et al. 2000), and viruses (Deming 2007). In ice there is an incredible diversity of *Proteobacteria*, of the phylum *Cytophaga-Flavobacterium-Bacteriodes*, high GC Gram positives and low GC Gram positives (Miteva 2008), and a large metabolic and physiological diversity. Some of them were entrapped for very long periods of time, such as the strain *Herminimonas glaciei*, a Gram-negative ultramicrobacterium, which was isolated from a 3042 m deep drilling core from a Greenland glacier of about 120,000-year-old ice (Loveland-Curtze et al. 2009), or *Chryseobacterium greenlandense* (Loveland-Curtze et al. 2010) and sequences from *Pseudomonas* and *Acinetobacter*, which stem from 750,000-year-old ice from the Qinghan-Tibetan plateau in Western China (Christner et al. 2003a). Many prokaryotes isolated from snow melt water belong to the *Beta-Proteobacteria* (21.3%), *Sphingobacteria* (16.4%), *Flavobacteria* (9.0%), *Acidobacteria* (7.7%), and *Alpha-Proteobacteria* (6.5%) and other groups (Larose et al. 2010). The cryoconite holes form another microhabitat containing various forms of life, such as diatoms, algae, prokaryotes, fungi, rotifers, and tardigrades (Wharton et al. 1985; Christner et al. 2003b).

**Cold caves.** Caves represent a constant temperature environment with low organic content, sometimes only 1 mg of organic matter per liter. Some strains are chemolithotrophs such as *Galionella*. In many cases there are more psychrotolerants than psychrotrophs. Some stenothermic bacterial strains were isolated which can grow at 10–20°C and only few which grow at 2°C or 28°C (Gounot 1999). The



strain *Arthrobacter psychrophenicum* was isolated from an Austrian ice cave (Margesin et al. 2004).

*Cold lakes.* The cold lakes in the polar and alpine zones can be covered with an ice layer (Antarctic lakes), which practically isolates the lake from the rest of the environment, and their content of organic carbon and oxygen is rather low. Christner et al. (2008) pointed out in their comprehensive review that there are 141 subglacial Antarctic lakes having a total volume of about 10,000 km<sup>3</sup>. One of the largest lakes is Lake Vostok of 14,000 km<sup>2</sup>, covered by a 4000 m thick ice sheet and being 400–800 m deep. The bottom is covered with a thick sediment layer. The temperature of the ice layer is about –55°C, but the lake has a constant temperature of –2.65°C (Di Prisco 2007); the ice layer is about 15 million years old. Alpine lakes are only temporarily covered by ice and the microbiota there are subject to seasonal fluctuations (Pernthaler et al. 1998). The cold Antarctic lake environment is chemically driven, with reactions such as sulfide and iron oxidation (Christner et al. 2008), and contains methanogens such as *Methanosarcina*, *Methanoculleus*, and anoxic methanotrophs (Karr et al. 2006). The saline lakes host euryhalophiles related to *Halomonas* and *Marinobacter* (Naganuma et al. 2005).

*Cold marine waters.* From marine waters of Ushuaia, a sub-Antarctic town in Argentina, many sequences were identified belonging to the *Alpha*- and *Gamma*-Proteobacteria, *Cytophaga*–*Flavobacterium*–*Bacteroidetes* group, the genera *Marinomonas*, *Colwellia*, *Cytophaga*, *Glacieola*, *Cellulophaga*, *Roseobacter*, *Staleyia*, *Sulfitobacter*, *Psychrobacter*, *Polaribacter*, *Ulvibacter*, *Tenacibacter*, *Arcobacter*, and *Formosa* (Prabakaran et al. 2007). In the depth of the ocean the temperature is about 3°C, and a considerable pressure exists (the pressure increases by 1 atm per each 10 m of depth). Here a very diverse bacterial community can be retrieved, for example, from the sediments of the Japanese Trench (Hamamoto 1993). From the deep sediments were, all the domains of life are represented, an important microbiota was identified by molecular methods (Tian et al. 2009). The archaeal sequences can reach 17% from total microbiota in marine coastal waters (Murray et al. 1998). Sulfate-reducing bacteria form a large community in sediments of the Arctic ocean, being active at about 2.6°C with a sulfate reduction rate similar to that under mesophilic conditions (Knoblauch et al. 1999).

*Anthropic cold environments.* Artificial cooling and freezing systems can be visualized as man-made environments. *Pseudomonas fluorescens* is one of the lipolytic food spoiling bacteria which is active in the cold, and its hydrolytic activity at low temperatures was studied as a function of water activity (Andersson et al. 1979). The lower temperatures and lower water activity did not affect the enzymatic activity since the substrates were hydrophobic. In

cooling devices the bacterium *Pseudomonas fragi* is frequently found, which is supported by temperatures between 2°C and 35°C; it possesses some cold shock proteins (Csps) and degrades frozen foods. Another bacterium from water-cooling systems is *Chryseobacterium aquifrigidense* (Park et al. 2008). The psychrophilic strain *Lactobacillus algidus* was isolated from refrigerated, packed beef meat (Kato et al. 2000).

*Air.* From the Antarctic continent air several psychrotolerant microorganisms were isolated, such as *Sphingomonas aurantiaca*, *Sphingomonas aerolata*, and *Sphingomonas faeni* sp. nov. (Busse et al. 2003).

## 5 Adaptation to cold environments

*Growth and activity.* The temperature has a direct influence on microbial growth and the relationship between growth and temperature generally conforms to the Arrhenius law (Gounot 1999). Christner (2002) reported the incorporation of DNA and protein precursors by *Arthrobacter* and *Psychrobacter* at -15°C. *Polaromonas hydrogenivorans* has a lower temperature limit of 0°C for growth (Sizova and Panikov 2007), and psychrophilic methanotrophs can grow at about 2°C (Liebner and Wagner 2007). The psychrophilic strain *Psychromonas ingrahami* showed growth at -12°C with a slow rate of 10 days of generation time (Breezee et al. 2004). The activity of microorganisms was proven by measurement of ATP as a result of biomass activity in soils and permafrost (Cowan and Casanueva 2007); truly psychrophilic microorganisms showed an increase of the ATP content at lower temperatures, which is the opposite reaction of mesophiles (Napolitano and Shain 2004). Other information can be obtained by determination of the Indicator of Enzymatic Soil Activity Potential, the Indicator of Vital Activity Potential, and Biologic Synthetic Indicator (Negoiță et al. 2001b). These indicators were introduced by Ștefanic (1994) in order to obtain comprehensive information about the biological activity of soils and to compare them for agricultural uses.

*Membrane polar lipids.* There are differences regarding the composition of membrane lipids and there are clear contributions to cold adaptation, depending also on bacterial taxonomy. The cytoplasmic membrane contains lipids with fatty acids of lengths ranging mainly between C<sub>14</sub> and C<sub>18</sub>. Gram negatives possess in addition an outer membrane containing lipopolysaccharides, Archaea contain ether-linked glycerol alkyl lipids instead of fatty acids, and eukaryotes contain sterols (Russell 2008). Membrane fluidity depends on the degree of saturation of the polar lipids; the membranes from psychrophiles contain a higher amount of unsaturated and/or



polyunsaturated and branched fatty acids, with methyl groups and a larger percentage of double bonds of the *cis* type (Chintalapati et al. 2004). The changes in amount and type of methyl-branched fatty acids of Gram-positive bacteria are a possibility for increasing membrane fluidity at low temperatures. The amount of unsaturated fatty acids contributes to the flexibility of the membrane structure in cold-adapted microorganisms, including eukaryotic photobionts such as diatoms and algae (Morgan-Kiss et al. 2006). The presence of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) does not completely explain the adaptation to cold environments, because there are many marine strains without them (Russell and Nichols 1999). Archaeal adaptation to the cold shows a similar increase in desaturation of their isoprenoids containing lipids; *Methanococoides burtoni* for example generates unsaturated lipids during growth at low temperatures by selective saturation and not by using a desaturase such as bacteria (Cavicchioli 2006).

*The proteome.* Cold-adapted bacterial proteins have a reduced amount of arginine, glutamic acids, and proline (salt bridge forming residues) and reduced amounts of hydrophobic clusters (Grzymiski et al. 2006). A comparison of the contents of amino acids of psychrophilic enzymes was made by Gianese et al. (2001); they found that generally Arg and Glu residues in the exposed sites of alpha helices were replaced by Lys and Ala in psychrophiles. Studying the crystal structure of the  $\beta$ -lactamase from several psychrophilic strains (*P. fluorescens* and others) some authors found that the enzymes from psychrophiles have a lower content of arginine in comparison with lysine and a lower proline content than mesophilic enzymes (Michaux et al. 2008). The lysine residues are of great importance for the cold adaptation mechanism in enzymes, for example in  $\alpha$ -amylase from *Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* (Siddiqui et al. 2006). A similar replacement is observed with Archaea having a higher content of noncharged amino acids (as glutamine and threonine) and lower contents of hydrophobic amino acids such as leucine (Cavicchioli 2006). At the same time the number of hydrogen bonds (Michaux et al. 2008) and the number of disulfide bridges are reduced (Sælensminde et al. 2009). The cellulase Cel5G from *P. haloplanktis* possesses a catalytic domain and a carbohydrate-binding domain which are joined by a long-linker region containing three loops closed by disulfide bridges. By experimental shortening of this linker region, the enzyme became less flexible approaching the activity of its mesophilic counterpart, which suggested that a long-linker region is an appropriate adaptation of this enzyme to low temperatures (Sonan et al. 2007). Studying the thermal adaptations of psychrophilic, mesophilic and thermophilic DNA ligases, the conclusion was that “the active site of the cold-enzyme is destabilized by an excess of hydrophobic surfaces and contains a decreased number of charged residues compared with its thermophilic counterpart” (Georlette et al. 2003). The proteins must keep a balance between their stability and

flexibility, especially enzymes, which are to be active at lower temperatures than their mesophilic counterparts (Georlette et al. 2003). An intensive study of the proteomics of psychrophilic microorganisms (Kurihara and Esaki 2008) showed that there are various proteins involved in transcription, folding of RNA and proteins, modulation of gene expression, and others, which are inducibly produced at low temperatures.

The following three main types of proteins are of interest for mechanisms of adaptation:

*Csps*, which are induced by exposure to low temperatures, are involved in several cellular processes (fluidity of membranes, transcription, translation). Proteins from psychrophiles (*Caps*, cold acclimation proteins) are similar to the *Csps*. The regulation of the *CspA* protein takes place at the transcriptional level at the level of stabilization of mRNA (*cspA* mRNA) and at the level of translation (Phadtare and Inouye 2008). Numerous *Csps* and proteins helping in the adaptation to low temperatures were isolated and characterized (Russell 2008). They play a role in the cold adaptation during stress response and also act as RNA chaperones. Similar proteins can be found in Archaea, such as *Methanogenium frigidum*, which are bound to nucleic acids (Giaquinto et al. 2007).

*Antifreeze proteins (AFPs)*. AFPs and antifreeze glycoproteins (AFGPs) can lower the temperature of the freezing point of water (D'Amico et al. 2006; Kawahara 2008). They can inhibit the formation of ice crystals and prevent the penetration of ice into cells (Zachariassen and Lundheim 1999). One of the examples is the protein Hsc25 produced by the bacterium *Pantoea ananatis* KUIN 3, which helps to refold denaturated proteins in the cold (Kawahara 2008).

*Antinucleating proteins (ANPs)*. ANPs and other compounds inhibit ice nucleation and formation of intracellular ice crystals, avoiding thereby the damage of cells. *Acinetobacter aceticus* can release such antinucleating proteins with a mass of 550 kDa. The proteins can be used in the preservation of livers (in a concentration of 20 µg/ml) at subzero temperatures without freezing, with addition of an antioxidant such as ascorbic acid (Kawahara 2008). An ice-binding protein of a mass of 54 kDa, isolated from a bacterial strain from an ice core of over 3000 m depth, was able to inhibit the recrystallization of ice (Raymond et al. 2007).

*Enzymes*. The rate of a chemical reaction is temperature dependent, according to the Arrhenius equation  $K = A \exp(-E_a/RT)$ , where  $K$  is the reaction rate,  $E_a$  is the activation energy,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is absolute temperature in Kelvin, and  $A$  is a constant. It is well known that biological reactions showed a 16- to 80-fold reduction when the temperature is reduced from 37°C to 0°C (Collins et al. 2008).

While psychrophiles exhibit a high metabolic rate at cold temperatures, they are usually inactivated at mesophilic temperatures because of the flexibility and lower stability as a consequence of the plasticity of catalytic zones of their molecules, due to a reduction of hydrophobic and hydrogen bonds and a lower content of arginine and proline (D'Amico et al. 2006). Shifting to optimum activation energy allows them to keep normal reaction rates at low temperatures (Siddiqui and Cavicchioli 2006). At the same time the 3D structure is also important (Tkaczuk et al. 2005), such as intramolecular bond modifications (Feller and Gerday 1997; Bae and Phillips 2004), modification of amino acids in or near catalytic domains of enzymes (Papaleo et al. 2008), and a lower content of hydrogen bonds (Michaux et al. 2008). An intensive search for cold-adapted enzymes was performed by Morita et al. (1997) who isolated more than 130 bacterial strains and tested the properties of amylases, proteases and lipases, showing that they were easily inactivated at above optimum temperatures.

*Other substances* which can play a role in cold adaptation and cryoprotection are carotenoids, which contribute to the stability of cellular membranes (Russell 2008); extracellular polymeric substances (EPSs), some of them of high molecular weight or heteropolysaccharides (with additions of proteins), which are released by some microorganism into the neighboring environment and form a kind of gel with cryoprotective effects (Krembs and Deming 2008); polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs), which can reduce oxidative stress in the cold, maintaining the redox state (Ayub et al. 2009); trehalose, which is able to protect cells under conditions of shock exposure to high and low temperatures and osmotic stress (Phadtare and Inouye 2008) by stabilizing the cell membrane and removing free radicals, thus preventing denaturation of proteins. Generally speaking, when comparing with thermophiles and mesophiles, it appears that cold-adapted microorganisms adopted the strategy of more entropy by molecular mechanisms, which are allowing an enhanced flexibility for maintaining dynamics and functions of the molecules (Feller 2007).

*Genetic features as adaptation mechanisms.* So far, the following genomes from psychrophiles and psychrotolerants have been sequenced: *Methanococcoides burtonii* (Allen et al. 2009); *Methanogenium frigidum* (Saunders et al. 2003); *Colwellia psychrerythrea* 34H (Méthé et al. 2005); *Desulphotalea psychrophila* (Rabus et al. 2004); *Idiomarina loihiensis* L2TR (Hou et al. 2004), *Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* TAC125 (Médigue et al. 2005); *Shewanella frigidimarina* (Copeland et al. 2006); *Psychrobacter arcticus* 253-4 (Ayala-del-Río et al. 2010), *Psychromonas ingrahamii* (Riley et al. 2008); 14 *Shewanella* strains (Hau and Gralnick 2007); and several others, which are partially sequenced. The analysis of the genes showed some

principal features of the mechanisms for cold adaptation (Bowman 2008): a lower content in arginine and proline, which influences the flexibility of proteins, was observed, especially in sequences related to growth and development (Ayala-del-Río et al. 2010). Nucleic acids of psychrophiles showed a different proportion of uracil in 16S rRNA sequences, such as an inverse proportional relation to their optimum growth temperature (Khachane et al. 2005).

## 6 Applications of psychrophilic microorganisms

Bioprospecting and bioscreening of psychrophilic microbial resources (Nichols et al. 2002) have become real challenges and opportunities for biotechnology. Cold-adapted bioactive substances provide advantages in different areas, such as activity at low temperatures; the possibility of challenging reactions with a sufficiently high reaction rate; energy savings; efficient production with lower processing costs; thermal protection of the products; and better quality of products. Presently the market for bioactive products and industrial enzymes is growing. Archaea, Bacteria, and Eukarya can be sources of valuable products. Huston (2008) reviewed the enzymes from cold-adapted microorganisms, identifying compounds and enzymes for the food and cosmetic industry, pharmaceuticals, biofuels, substances for molecular biology studies, and even for nanobiotechnology. An extensive compilation of applications of psychrophilic and psychrotolerant microorganisms is presented in Table 1.

Bioscreening for valuable products is generally not made anymore in the classical way by isolation and cultivation of microorganisms. Now high-throughput culturing technologies enable the isolation of a major proportion of the microbiota in environmental samples; combined with metagenomics and gene expression studies, genome data mining permits an efficient search for bioproducts (see Huston 2008). Psychrophilic proteins, for example, can have some interesting applications, and their production can be achieved directly or expressed in an adequate host such as *Escherichia coli*, which was used for the  $\alpha$ -amylase from *P. haloplanktis* (Feller et al. 1998). It can be difficult to obtain a stable production, due to autolytic deterioration. A possible solution is overexpression using a plasmid vector from *P. haloplanktis* pMTBL and the plasmid of *E. coli* pJB3 (Tutino et al. 2001). This type of expression technology promises a wide application for the problem of efficient gene expression systems and rapid purification steps. Recombinant proteins can be obtained by expressing them in prokaryotic cells of cold-adapted (*P. haloplanktis* TAC125) and eukaryotic cells (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*; Parrilli et al. 2008).

*Antibiotics.* The isolates from the Antarctic Ocean, Ross Bay, were shown to have antibiotic activities which were tested with the terrestrial bacteria *E. coli*,

**Table 1.** Applications of psychrophilic and psychrotolerant microorganisms isolated from cold environments

Microorganism	Enzymes and other metabolites	Applications	References
Bacteria			
<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp.	Lipases	Lipid hydrolysis, detergent additives	Ramteke et al. (2005) and Joseph et al. (2007)
<i>Achromobacter</i> sp.	Lipases	Lipid hydrolysis	Ramteke et al. (2005) and Joseph et al. (2007)
<i>Aeromonas</i> sp.	Lipases	Lipid hydrolysis	Lee et al. (2003)
<i>Arthrobacter</i> strains	Antibiotics	Pharma industry	Lo Giudice et al. (2007) and Benešova et al. (2005)
<i>Arthrobacter</i> sp.	Alkaline phosphatases	Alkaline phosphatase (removal of 5' phosphate groups from DNA and RNA)	De Prada et al. (1996)
<i>Arthrobacter</i> C2-2	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase, $\beta$ -glucosidase	Cleavage of maltose at $\beta$ -1,4 bonds; pharma industry, medicine	Benešova et al. (2005)
<i>Arthrobacter</i> strain 20B	$\beta$ -Galactosidases	Lactose hydrolysis	Białkowska et al. (2009)
<i>Arthrobacter psychrolactophilus</i> strain F2	$\beta$ -Galactosidase rBglAp	Produces trisaccharides from lactose; food industry	Nakagawa et al. (2007)
<i>Arthrobacter psychrophenicus</i>		Degradation of phenol and phenolic compounds	Margesin et al. (2004)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> strain MIUG 6150	$\alpha$ -, $\beta$ -Amylases	Starch hydrolysis; food industry	Bahrim and Negoită (2004)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> strain MIUG 6150	Proteases	Protein hydrolysis	Bahrim and Negoită (2004)
<i>Brevibacterium antarcticum</i>		Bioremediation; resistant to metals in soils (Cu, Cr, Hg, and others)	Tashyrev (2009)
<i>Colwellia demingiae</i>	Protease (azocasein)		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia demingiae</i>	Protease (azoalbumin)		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia demingiae</i>	Trypsin-like enzyme	Protein hydrolysis	Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia demingiae</i>	Phosphatase		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Trypsin-like enzyme		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Phosphatase		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Lactose hydrolysis	Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Protease (azocasein)		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Protease (azoalbumin)	Protein hydrolysis	Nichols et al. (1999)

(continued)

**Table 1** (continued)

Microorganism	Enzymes and other metabolites	Applications	References
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Trypsin		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Removal of lactose	Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	$\alpha$ -Amylase	Starch hydrolysis	Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia</i> -like strain	Alkaline phosphatase		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Colwellia demingiae</i>	Synthesizes docosahexaenoic acid	PUFAs as precursors for prostaglandins, thromboxanes, leucotrienes; medicine, pharma industry	Bowman et al. (1998) and Lees (1990)
<i>Colwellia hornerae</i>	Synthesizes docosahexaenoic acid	Pharma industry	Bowman et al. (1998)
<i>Colwellia maris</i>	Malate synthase, iso-citrate lyase	Bioethanol and biomethane production; wastewater treatment, bioremediation	Brenchley (1996) and Cavicchioli et al. (2002)
<i>Colwellia rossensis</i>	synthesizes docosahexaenoic acid	Pharma industry	Bowman et al. (1998)
<i>Colwellia psychrotropica</i>	Synthesizes docosahexaenoic acid	Pharma industry	Bowman et al. (1998)
<i>Dactyloporangium roseum</i>	Antibiotics	Pharma industry, medicine	Nguyen et al. (2010)
<i>Erythrobacter litoralis</i> HTCC2594	Epoxide hydrolase	Epoxide hydrolase, for enantio-selective hydrolysis of styrene oxide	Woo et al. (2007)
<i>Fibrobacter succinogenes</i> S85	Cellulase	Animal food industry, detergents, textile industry	Cavicchioli et al. (2002)
<i>Flavobacterium</i> sp.	$\beta$ -Mannanase	Decreases viscosity in food products	Zakaria et al. (1998)
<i>Flavobacterium frigidarium</i>	Xylanolytic and laminarinolytic	Xylane degradation	Humphry et al. (2001)
<i>Flavobacterium frigidimarit</i>	Malate dehydrogenase		Oikawa et al. (2005)
<i>Flavobacterium hibernum</i> sp. nov.	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Lactose degradation	McCammon et al. (1998)
<i>Flavobacterium limicola</i>		Organic polymer degradation	Tamaki et al. (2003)
<i>Glaciecola chathamensis</i>	Exopolysaccharides	Food processing industry; medical and industrial uses	Matsuyama et al. (2006)
<i>Glaciecola chathamensis</i>	Polysaccharide-producing strain	Exopolysaccharides, industrial applications	Matsuyama et al. (2006)
<i>Instrasporangium</i> sp.	Antibiotics	Pharma industry	Nguyen et al. (2010)

(continued)



**Table 1** (continued)

Microorganism	Enzymes and other metabolites	Applications	References
<i>Janibacter</i> sp.	Antibiotics	Pharma industry, medicine	Lo Giudice et al. (2007)
<i>Kordiimonas gwangyangensis</i>	Cold-adapted enzymes	Capable of degrading polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)	Kwon et al. (2005)
<i>Micromonospora</i> sp.	Antibiotics	Pharma industry	Nguyen et al. (2010)
<i>Moraxella</i> sp.	Lipases	Pharma industry, medicine, food additives	Ramteke et al. (2005) and Joseph et al. (2007)
<i>Oceanibulbus indolifex</i>	Indole and several indole derivatives	Cosmetics industry, pharma industry, cancer prevention	Wagner-Döbler et al. (2004) and Auburn et al. (2003)
<i>Oceanibulbus indolifex</i>	Cyclic dipeptides cyclo-(Leu,Pro), cyclo-(Phe,Pro), and cyclo-(Tyr,Pro)	Compounds with antiviral, antibiotic, and antitumor activity	Wagner-Döbler et al. (2004) and Milne et al. (1998)
<i>Oceanibulbus indolifex</i>	Tryptanthrin	Activity against some Gram-positive bacteria and fungi	Wagner-Döbler et al. (2004)
<i>Oleispira antarctica</i>	Cold-adapted enzymes	Hydrocarbonoclastic; for bioremediation	Yakimov et al. (2003)
<i>Photobacterium frigidophilum</i>	Lipases	Lipid hydrolysis	Seo et al. (2005)
<i>Planococcus</i> sp.	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Lactose hydrolysis	Sheridan and Brenchley (2000)
<i>Polaromonas naphthalenivorans</i>	Enzymes	Degrades naphthalene	Jeon et al. (2004)
<i>Polaromonas</i> sp. strain JS666	Enzymes	<i>cis</i> -1,2-Dichloroethene as carbon source; for bioremediation	Mattes et al. (2008)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i> sp.	Protease (azocasein)		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i> sp.	Trypsin-like enzyme		Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i>	Antibiotics	Pharma industry, medicine	Lo Giudice et al. (2007)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i> sp.	Lipases		Ramteke et al. (2005)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAE 47	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Lactose hydrolysis	Hoyoux et al. (2001)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. strain B11-1	Lipases, esterases		Suzuki et al. (2001)
<i>Pseudoalteromonas</i> sp. SM9913	Subtilase		Yan et al. (2009)
<i>Psychrobacter okhotskensis</i>	Lipase-producing strain		Yumoto et al. (2003)

(continued)

**Table 1** (continued)

Microorganism	Enzymes and other metabolites	Applications	References
<i>Psychrobacter</i> sp.			Ramteke et al. (2005)
<i>Rhodococcus</i>	Antibiotics	Pharma industry, medicine	Lo Giudice et al. (2007)
<i>Rhodococcus</i> sp.		Biodegradation of phenol and phenolic compounds	Margesin and Schinner (1999)
<i>Rhodococcus</i> sp. strain N774	Nitrile hydratase	Acrylamide production	Kobayashi et al. (1992)
<i>Rhodococcus</i> sp. Q15 i		Degrades short- and long-chain aliphatic alkanes from diesel fuel	Whyte et al. (1998)
<i>Rhodococcus ruber</i>			Murygina et al. (2000)
<i>Rhodococcus erythrococcus</i>		Product "Rhoder" for bioremediation of oil polluted environments	Murygina et al. (2000)
<i>Serratia proteamaculans</i>	Trypsin-like protease		Mikhailova et al. (2006)
<i>Shewanella</i> sp.	Produces omega 3 fatty acids	Essential fatty acid for humans	Hau and Galnick (2007)
<i>Shewanella</i> sp.		Waste removal of radionuclides (uranium, technetium)	Hau and Galnick (2007)
<i>Shewanella</i> sp.		Reduction of organic chlorine compounds	Hau and Galnick (2007)
<i>Shewanella donghaensis</i>	High levels of polyunsaturated fatty acid	Medicine, food supplements	Yang et al. (2007)
<i>Shewanella gelidimarina</i>	$\beta$ -Galactosidase	Lactose hydrolysis	Nichols et al. (1999)
<i>Shewanella frigidimarina</i>	Eicosapentaenoic acid (20:w503)	Food additives	Bowman et al. (1997) and Bozal et al. (2002)
<i>Shewanella pacifica</i>	Produces polyunsaturated fatty acids	Food additives, pharma industry	Ivanova et al. (2004)
<i>Serratia proteamaculans</i>	Trypsin-like protease	Protein hydrolysis	Mikhailova et al. (2006)
<i>Serratia</i> sp.	Lipases	Lipid hydrolysis	Ramteke et al. (2005)
<i>Sphingomonas paucimobilis</i>	Proteases	Meat industry, detergent industry, molecular biology	Cavicchioli et al. (2002)
<i>Streptomyces</i> sp.	Amylases, proteases, cellulases, lipases, antibiotics, other bioactive compounds	Detergent additives, starch industry, bread industry, antibiotics, immuno-suppressants, anticancer agents, extracellular hydrolytic enzymes, degradation of ligno-cellulosic materials	Cavicchioli et al. (2002), Galante and Formantici (2003), and Morita et al. (1997)

(continued)

**Table 1** (continued)

Microorganism	Enzymes and other metabolites	Applications	References
<i>Streptomyces fradiae</i>	Antibiotics, amylase, protease, cellulase, lipases	Pharma industry, medicine, food industry, detergent additives	Nguyen et al. (2010)
<i>Streptomyces anulatus</i>	Dextranase	Dextrane hydrolysis; sugar industry	Doaa Mahmoud and Wafaa Helmy (2009)
<i>Streptovercillium</i>	Antibiotics	Pharma industry	Nguyen et al. (2010)
<b>Fungi</b>			
<i>Candida antarctica</i>	Lipases		Joseph et al. (2007)
<i>Candida antarctica</i>		Conversion of <i>n</i> -alkanes into glycolipid; biosurfactants	Kitamoto et al. (2001)
<i>Cryptococcus albidus</i>	Xylanase	Hydrolyzing xylane for improvement of food, waste treatment, food industry	Amoresano et al. (2000)
<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i>	Phytase	animal feeding	Pavlova et al. (2008)
<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i>	$\beta$ -Galactosidases	Dairy industry	Law and Goodenough (1995)
<i>Cryptococcus cylindricus</i>	Pectinases	Clarification of fruit juices; improving filterability, and extractability of juices	Nakagawa et al. (2004)
<i>Cystofilobasidium capitatum</i>	Pectinases	Clarification of fruit juices; improving filterability, and extractability of juices	Nakagawa et al. (2004)
<i>Mrakia frigida</i>	Pectinases	Clarification of fruit juices; improving filterability, and extractability of juices	Nakagawa et al. (2004)
<i>Pichia lymferdii</i> strain Y-7723	Lipase		Kim et al. (2010)
<i>Rhodotorula psychrophenolica</i>		degradation of phenolic compounds	Margesin et al. (2007)
<b>Algae</b>			
<i>Porphyridium cruentum</i>	Eicosapentaenoic acid, arachidonic acid	Pharma industry	Cohen (1990)

*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Micrococcus luteus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Salmonella enterica*, and the yeast *Candida albicans*, following incubation at 37°C on nutrient agar (Lo Giudice et al. 2007). The isolates were identified by 16S rRNA and characterized by biochemical tests. From 580 isolated strains belonging to *Arthrobacter*, *Rhodococcus*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, and *Janibacter*, some were able to inhibit the test strains. The actinomycetes *Intrasporangium* sp., *Micromonospora* sp., *Streptovercillium* sp., *Streptomyces* sp., and *Dactylsporangium roseum*, isolated from the soils from India at over 4000 m altitude, showed different

antibiotic activities against strains of *Streptococcus* isolated from dental plaque (Raja et al. 2010). From cold environments, strains close to *Serratia* and *Pseudomonas* were isolated; both are producers of antimicrobials, probably class II microcins acting in the cold (Sanchez et al. 2009).

*Enzymes.* Many psychrophilic and psychrotolerant bacteria possess the capacity to produce extracellular enzymes such as lipases, proteases, amylases, cellulases, chitinases, and  $\beta$ -galactosidase, when induced by the presence of specific substrates. Producers were strains of sea ice microorganisms, for example, for lipases *Colwellia psychroerythra*, *Shewanella livingstonensis*, and *Marinomonas prymoriensis*; for hydrolysis of polysaccharides *Colwellia*, *Marinomonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Shewanella*; for hydrolysis of chitin *Pseudoalteromonas tetradonidis*, *Pseudoalteromonas elyakovii*, *Bacillus firmus*, and *Janibacter melonis*, which degrade the organic matter from phyto- and zooplankton (Yu et al. 2009). A simple screening of 137 cold water isolates belonging to *Moraxella*, *Pseudomonas*, *Aeromonas*, *Chromobacterium*, *Vibrio*, and others showed that about 62% can produce gelatinase, 71% proteases, 31% lipases, 47% amylases, 36% chitinases, 36%  $\beta$ -galactosidases, 47% cellulases, and 25% alginate lyases (Ramaiah 1994). Groudieva et al. (2004) found that from 116 strains isolated from the Spitsbergen sea ice 40% possessed the ability to degrade skim milk, casein, lipids, starch and proteins. Enzymes such as dehydrogenase from cold-adapted microorganisms can also be used as biosensors or in biotransformations (Gomes and Steiner 2004). Protease-producing strains from the genera *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Shewanella*, *Colwellia*, and *Planococcus* were isolated from the sub-Antarctic marine sediments of Isla de Los Estados (Olivera et al. 2007).

The enzymes from psychrophilic and psychrotolerant strains can be divided into three categories: (1) heat sensitive, but similar to mesophilic enzymes; (2) heat sensitive and more active at low temperatures than mesophilic enzymes; and (3) heat sensitive exactly as mesophilic enzymes, but more active at lower temperatures (Ohgiya et al. 1999). Another example is a complex of enzymes generated by an Antarctic isolate, *B. subtilis* strain MIUG 6150, which produces  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -amylases and proteases (Bahrim and Negoită 2004). The productivity of the microorganisms showed a strong dependency on the culture media used for growth and other conditions (Bahrim et al. 2007). The cold-adapted strains of *Streptomyces* can be a source of valuable enzymes (Cotârleț et al. 2008).

*Proteases.* Strains producing proteases belong to the genera *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* and were isolated from Antarctic cyanobacterial mats. They showed good production at a temperature of about 20°C, with glucose and maltose as carbon sources (*Pseudomonas* sp.) and soybean meal and peptone as nitrogen sources (Singh and Ramana Venkata 1998). A trypsin-like protease was identified and characterized

which is produced by *Serratia proteamaculans* (Mikhailova et al. 2006). These proteases are used in the dairy industry to enhance the flavour development in cheese. In the chemical industry, the enzymes from psychrophilic strains are used in detergents, food industry, and leather manufacturing (Cavicchioli et al. 2002).

*Alkaline phosphatase* was isolated and purified from the strain *Shewanella* sp. (Ishida et al. 1998). Interestingly, the enzyme showed a maximum activity at 40°C, 39% of that activity at 0°C, and a tendency to loose activity at 20°C. Two different extracellular alkaline phosphatases were identified from an *Arthrobacter* sp. strain (De Prada et al. 1996). Purified recombinant serine alkaline protease (in *E. coli*) from another *Shewanella* strain showed activity between 5°C and 15°C (Kulakova et al. 1999). The enzymes, such as the microorganisms themselves, face sometimes diverse polyextreme conditions; e.g., the cold-active protease MCP-03 from *Pseudoalteromonas* sp. SM9913 was active and stable also in a high salt environment of about 3 M NaCl/KCl (Yan et al. 2009).

*β-Galactosidases*. One possible applications of this enzyme is obtaining an ice cream with reduced lactose content for lactose intolerant peoples (Phadtare and Inouye 2008). The removal of lactose from milk is very important for persons with lactose intolerance. The cold-active *β*-galactosidases (EC3.2.1.23) isolated from psychrophilic yeasts (e.g., *Cryptococcus laurentis*; Law and Goodenough 1995) and fungi can be used to hydrolyze lactose and therefore a new method of supplementation of milk with dormant cultures was proposed (Somkutl and Holsinger 1997). The utilization of cold-active *β*-galactosidase (optimum activity at 10°C) from *Arthrobacter psychrolactophilus* strain F2, which was overexpressed in *E. coli*, for the production of trisaccharides from lactose was also tested for applications in the food industry (Tomoyuki et al. 2007). Some strains contain isoenzymes (C2-2-1 and C2-2-2) such as an *Arthrobacter* strain (Karasová et al. 2002), which was found – as a first example – being able to catalyze transglycosylation reactions in the cold.

*Lipases*. Cold-active lipases (triacylglycerol acylhydrolases, EC3.1.1.3) were isolated from many psychrophilic strains and can have many industrial applications such as additives for detergents, additives in food products, in bioremediation, and in molecular biology (Joseph et al. 2007, 2008). Strains of *Acinetobacter*, *Achromobacter*, *Moraxella*, *Psychrobacter*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Serratia*, and others are lipase producers. An *Aeromonas* strain produces a cold-active lipase (Lee et al. 2003), and fungal lipase producers such as *Candida antarctica*, *Geotrichum*, and *Aspergillus* sp. were described. From 137 anaerobic strains isolated from soils in Schirmacher Oasis, Antarctica, 49 isolates showed lipolytic activity on Tween-agar medium (Ramteke et al. 2005). *Psychrobacter okhotskensis* was isolated from Okhotsk seawater (Yumoto

et al. 2003) and is a producer of cold-active lipases. These cold-active enzymes have a larger K coefficient and high efficiency down to temperatures of zero degree; they are inactivated by raising the temperature. They are used in the food industry and chemical industry; the latter utilizes them for catalyzing reactions with compounds which are unstable at higher temperatures (Suzuki et al. 2001), for example, lipases and esterases from *Pseudomonas* sp. strain B11-1. Many detergents contain a mixture of proteases, lipases, and amylases (Ohgiya et al. 1999). Some lipases can be used to remove fatty stains from various textiles (Araújo et al. 2008). Lipases can also be used for the synthesis of biopolymers, biodiesel, pharmaceuticals, and certain aromatic products (Joseph et al. 2007). The authors reported also that lipases from psychrophilic and psychrotolerant strains can be used in cold environments for the bioremediation areas contaminated by oil and grease, as well as in the detergent industry. From deep-sea sediments of the Pacific ocean, *Photobacterium frigidiphilum*, a lipolytic psychrophilic bacterium, was isolated (Seo et al. 2005). Some yeasts such as *Pichia lynferdii* strain Y-7723 produce a cold-adapted lipase (Kim et al. 2010). Lipases have a wide range of applications reviewed by Joseph et al. (2007, 2008), such as aryl aliphatic glycolipids, synthesis of fine chemicals, production of fatty acids, interesterification of fats, detergent additives, synthesis of biodiesel, removal of hydrocarbons, oils, and lipidic pollutants. Other uses are in the food industry and concern the improvement of food structure and gelling of fish meat (Cavicchioli and Siddiqui 2004). Nielsen et al. (1999) isolated two rather thermotolerant lipases A and B, with uses in the textile industry for the removal of waxes and lipids from fibers. The lipases obtained from microorganisms, which are used in different detergent formulations, are covered by many patents issued for industrial companies (Hasan et al. 2010). Lipase B from *C. antarctica* was immobilized onto epoxy-activated macroporous poly(methyl methacrylate) Amberzyme beads and on nanoparticles, in order to improve contact with the substrate and the reaction activity for polycondensation (Chen et al. 2008a). The enzyme was quickly adsorbed on the polystyrene porous particles (Chen et al. 2008b).

*Pectinases.* Several cold-adapted yeasts strains were isolated from the soil of Hokkaido Island (Japan), which were taxonomically affiliated with *Cryptococcus cylindricus*, *Mrakia frigida*, and *Cystofilobasidium capitatum*. The strains showed pectinolytic activity at temperatures less than 5°C and can be used for the production of pectinolytic enzymes (pectin methylesterase EC3.1.1.11; endopolygalacturonase EC3.2.1.15) for the clarification of fruit juices at low temperatures (Nakagawa et al. 2004), improving at the same time the filterability and extractability of the juice.

*Malate dehydrogenases.* A malate dehydrogenase was purified from *Flavobacterium frigidimarum* KUC1 and characterized by Oikawa et al. (2005). It contains lower



amounts of proline and arginine residues compared to other malate dehydrogenases and is dependent on NAD(P)<sup>+</sup>. The enzyme loses its activity at 55°C within 30 min of incubation. The enzyme can be used for producing malate at low temperatures.

*Dextranases.* An important problem in the sugar industry is the removal of dextran, a high-molecular-weight polymer of D-glucose, which can lower the recovery of sugar, interfere with material processing and lead to a poor quality of the final product. Bacterial cold-active dextranases can resolve this problem at low temperatures of about 4°C (Doaa Mahmoud and Wafaa Helmy 2009), such as the dextranase from psychrophilic strain *Streptomyces anulatus*.

*β-Amylases.* The need for cold-active amylases (EC3.2.1.1) and related starch hydrolyzing enzymes, especially for obtaining sweeteners such as palatinose, a disaccharide of glucose and fructose, and cyclodextrin, was reported (Rendleman 1996).

*Phytases.* A cold-active phytase is produced very efficiently by the Antarctic strain *Cryptococcus laurentii* AL 27 (Pavlova et al. 2008). Phytase is an enzyme which catalyzes the conversion of undigestible phytate to phosphorylated myo-inositol derivatives and inorganic phosphate, which are digestible. Its applications are in the fields of animal food additives and the pharmaceutical industry.

*Xylanases.* Xylanase from the yeast *Cryptococcus albidus*, isolated from Antarctica, is a glycoprotein; its structure was investigated by mass spectroscopy (Amoresano et al. 2000). The xylanases hydrolyze the heteropolysaccharide xylane (a hemicellulose containing a backbone chain of β-1,4-linked xylanopyranoside residues) and have found wide applications, e.g. improvement of maceration processes, clarification of juices, improvement of filtration efficiency, maceration of grape skins in wine technology, reducing viscosity of coffee extracts, improve drying and lyophilization processes, improving the elasticity of dough and bread textures. Xylanases can also be used to degrade xylane from agricultural wastes in order to obtain energy from biomass. Hydrolyzing xylane from the cell walls of plants at low temperatures will allow energy savings and the production of more accessible feedstock (Lee et al. 2006). Furthermore, xylanases are used for the pulping process in the paper industry and for biobleaching (Beg et al. 2001), thereby reducing the use of alkali. They also improve energy consumption in the textile industry, being used in the microbiological retting of textile materials, which replaces chemical retting. They are useful for obtaining fermentation products, bioethanol, and other chemicals as well as improving the separation of starch and gluten in the starch industry. The glycoside hydrolase family 8 xylanases can be used in baking processes in

order to improve the flexibility of dough and product quality (Collins et al. 2006).

*$\beta$ -Mannanase.*  $\beta$ -Mannanase (EC3.2.1.78) was isolated from *Flavobacterium* sp. and showed good activity at 4°C; it can be used to decrease the viscosity in food products (Zakaria et al. 1998).

*Nitrile hydratase.* Companies such as Nitrochemicals developed many years ago the production of acrylamide with the help of *Rhodoccus* sp. strain N774 (Kobayashi et al. 1992), which produces the enzyme nitrile hydratase (EC4.2.1.84).

*Cellulases.* Some cellulases are used in bleaching and bio-stoning of textile material (Gomes and Steiner 2004), and alkaline cellulases used in detergents are active toward amorphous cellulose (Ito et al. 1989).

*Trehalose.* In agriculture, trehalose-producing systems can be used for reducing crop losses due to the lower temperatures with the help of genetic engineering (Phadtare and Inouye 2008).

*EPSs.* Extracellular polymeric substances released by microorganisms, which promote the formation of biofilms and have presumably protective roles. They can be used in the chemical industry to produce biodegradable plastic materials. Several strains with potential for this type of production were investigated as well as the conditions for production, such as temperature, pressure and pH (Marx et al. 2009). The authors reviewed useful microorganisms isolated from cold Antarctic environments, e.g., *Morixella*, *Psychrobacter*, and *Aeromonas* from polar waters, and psychrotolerants such as *Pseudomonas* and *Photobacterium*. The strains showed a good production of EPS at -4°C to -10°C and resistance under high-pressure conditions between 1 and 200 atm.

*Medicinal uses.* Besides improving the quality of foods, antifreeze proteins can also improve the preservability of human organs for transplants, for example livers (Kawahara 2008). Frisvad (2008a) reviewed bioactive products from cold-adapted fungi, such as griseofulvin and cycloaspeptide A from *Penicillium soppii* and *P. lanosum* from cold soils; the latter compound can be used as an antimalarial product. Cycloaspeptides were found so far only in cold-adapted fungi.

*PUFAs.* PUFAs are produced by many different organisms, for instance by strains such as *S. frigidimarina* (Bowman et al. 1997). They can be used as food supplements and medicinal products. Russell and Nichols (1999) showed that the bacterial PUFA-producing strain cannot compete with the fungal PUFA-producing strain, but can be an alternative for feedstock in the food chains used in aquaculture.

**Biomining.** The biomining industry is developing processes at low temperatures in three-phase systems: the solid phase, which is represented by the mineral ore; a liquid phase, which contains the microorganisms and nutrients; and the gaseous phase (Rossi 1999). Such a process can be performed in stirred tank reactors or in airlift reactors. The process was used for the release and recovery of copper from sulfide minerals, of uranium and for the pretreatment of gold ores (Ovalle 1987).

**Bioremediation.** Psychrophilic strains can be used to degrade the organic pollutants from soils and waters at low temperatures. Many strains possessing biodegrading properties were isolated from polar and alpine areas, from soils and waters, but more research of some aspects is required, such as the stability of the bacterial community, the accessibility of the pollutant for microorganisms, and the low removal rate (Margesin and Schinner 2001). Petroleum spills can produce catastrophic damages and their cleanup is an important goal. Petroleum is a complex mixture of water-soluble and -insoluble compounds (linear cyclic alkanes, aromatic hydrocarbons, paraffin, asphalt, and waxy oils; Brakstad 2008), being very hard to degrade. About 200 bacterial, cyanobacterial, fungal, and algal genera possess the capacity to do it (Prince 2005). The main bacterial genera able to degrade petroleum are *Acinetobacter*, *Arthrobacter*, *Colwellia*, *Cytophaga*, *Halomonas*, *Marinobacter*, *Marinomonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Oleispira*, *Rhodococcus*, and *Shewanella* (Brakstad 2008). Both anaerobic and aerobic degradation are possible and bioremediation can occur by stimulation of the local hydrocarbon degraders (using dispersants and nutrients) and less by bioaugmentation (inoculation of cultures of hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria; Margesin and Schinner 1999). *Dietzia psychralkaliphila* can grow on defined culture media containing *n*-alkenes as sole carbon source (Yumoto et al. 2002). The strain *Rhodococcus* sp. Q15 is able to degrade short- and long-chain aliphatic alkenes from diesel fuel at low temperatures of about 5°C (Whyte et al. 1998). Two strains of *Rhodococcus*, *R. ruber*, and *R. erythrococcus*, were used by Russian researchers for the product “Rhoder,” which is applied for the removal of oil pollution (Murygina et al. 2000). Some strains isolated from alpine soils are able to degrade phenol and phenolic compounds (bacteria such as *Rhodococcus* spp., *Arthrobacter psychrophenicus*, and *Pseudomonas*; yeasts such as *Rhodotorula psychrophenolica*, *Trichosporon dulcitum*, and *Leucosporidium watsoni*) and hydrocarbons from oil at low temperatures (Margesin 2007; Margesin et al. 2007), even though a complete biodegradation cannot be obtained. Polychlorophenols are toxic and persistent pollutants which are used as biocidal wood preservatives (Langwaldt et al. 2008). The authors list several genera such as *Ralstonia*, *Burkholderia*, *Arthrobacter*, *Rhodococcus*, *Mycobacteria*, and anaerobes such as *Desulfomonile* and *Desulfitobacterium*, which are able to degrade polychlorophenol compounds at low temperatures.

*Polaromonas* sp. strain JS666 is an isolate which can grow on *cis*-1,2-dichloroethene as carbon source; the investigation of its genome showed genes for the metabolism of aromatic compounds, alkanes, alcohols and others (Mattes et al. 2008). Another strain, *Polaromonas naphthalenivorans*, was isolated from a contaminated freshwater environment and is capable of degrading naphthalene (Jeon et al. 2004). The isolation of the genes for naphthalene dehydrogenase from cold environments was reported (Flocco et al. 2009). For bioremediation, the genus *Shewanella*, which can use a wide range of electron acceptors, is important, since many members of this group show capabilities for degrading several pollutants. The genus showed the possibility to be used in bioremediation of radionuclide and reduction of elements such as Co, Hg, Cr, and As, as well as for the removal of organics such as halogenated compounds, e.g., tetrachloromethane or nitramine (an explosive contaminant), as reported in the review by Hau and Gralnick (2007). Many strains such as *Brevibacterium antarcticum* have demonstrated a polyresistance to heavy metals in high concentrations, resisting concentrations of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Hg}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{CrO}_4$ , up to 6000 ppm (Tashyrev 2009). Several psychrophilic microorganisms are able to degrade natural organic polymers (starch, agar, and gelatin) such as *Flavobacterium limicola*, which was isolated from freshwater sediments (Tamaki et al. 2003).

*Wastes and wastewater treatments.* The anaerobic treatment of wastewaters in treatment plants, using expanded granular sludge bed reactors at temperatures of 5–10°C, looks very promising (Lettinga et al. 2001). A mixture of microorganisms such as *Methanobrevibacter* sp., *Methanosarcina* sp., and *Methanosaeta* sp. has been explored (Lettinga et al. 1999). The psychrophilic treatment of landfill leachates using anoxic/oxic biofilters appears to be a good solution to prevent water and soil pollution with such leachates containing organic matter and also heavy metals (Kalyuzhnyi et al. 2004). *Oleispira antarctica* is able to degrade hydrocarbons in cold marine waters (Yakimov et al. 2003). Aerobic treatment of wastewater in cold lagoons has been performed in Canada's cold areas with success (Smith and Emde 1999). The cold-adapted xylanases can be used for the hydrolysis of agricultural and food industry wastes. A selection of cold-active degrading microorganism for wastewater treatment was performed (Gratia et al. 2009), where *A. psychrolactophilus* Sp 31.3 was isolated, which had the desired characteristics and was used further.

Acid mine drainage is the result of oxidation of certain sulfide minerals by exposure to environmental conditions and the activity of microorganisms. For example, ores containing pyrite and chalcopyrites are oxidized in the presence of water and oxygen and form highly acidic, sulfate-rich drainage. Ferrous iron ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ) develops in the process, which can be re-oxidized by acidophilic bacteria and archaea to ferric iron ( $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ), and the sulfur is oxidized to sulfate. These oxidations and the

concomitant dissolution of sulfide minerals can take place in cold conditions, too. Sulfate reduction at low temperatures occurs with bacteria such as *Desulfofrigus*, *Desulfofaba*, *Desulfotalea*, and *Desulfovibrio* (Kaksonen et al. 2008). *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* is also able to oxidize iron and sulfur compounds at low temperatures (Kaksonen et al. 2008).

*Astrobiological models.* A special theoretical application concerns astrobiology, since some scientists are considering the Antarctic a model of planet Mars or other planets, with respect to the low temperatures and water activity (Abyzov et al. 1998), and also a model of cold environments where certain microorganisms could possibly live (Deming 2007). At the same time, the protocols for sampling of ice and permafrost and their analysis can be used for the exploration of Mars, and could be relevant and helpful in the isolation of potential Martian microbiota and for the development of future protocols for the decontamination of extraterrestrial samples (Christner et al. 2005).

## 7 Conclusions

1. Psychrophilic and psychrotolerant microorganisms can be retrieved from very diverse environments – oceans and freshwater, hypersaline cold waters, sediments, soils, permafrost, ice, glaciers, cold deserts, alpine soils, lakes and snow, cold man-made environments, and some microecosystems. The microorganisms in ice layers constitute not real ecosystems, even if some activity at subzero temperatures was proven; instead, most of them are only opportunistic assemblages of mixtures of microorganisms brought together by air and water currents from other environments. The diversity of so-called cold environments is much greater than was thought initially, and many microenvironments can be distinguished. In addition, the cold-adapted members of microbiota can have different other adaptations to extreme conditions – resistance to high radiation, oligotrophy, adaptation to high pressures, and perhaps others.
2. Psychrophiles are found in all the three domains of life and have a very diverse taxonomic origin. The most frequent taxonomic groups in cold environments are *Alpha-*, *Beta-*, *Delta-*, and *Gamma-Proteobacteria*, the phylum *Cytophaga-Flavobacterium-Bacterioidetes*, and Actinobacteria. Together with prokaryotes (Archaea and Bacteria) numerous eukaryotes are present such as algae, yeasts, and fungi.
3. Special adaptations allowing life in the cold include membrane lipids with branched unsaturated fatty acids, proteins and enzymes with a more flexible 3D structure due to the reduction of the number of weak intramolecular bonds, reduction of salt bridges, reduction of aromatic interactions, density of charged surface residues, increased surface hydrophobicity, and increased clustering of

glycine residues. Special proteins are Csps, ice nucleation proteins and antifreeze proteins, which protect the structure of cells from the cold and from formation of ice crystals.

4. The molecular biology of psychrophiles showed that their enzymes have low activation energy requirements due to their structure discussed in the text and to the flexibility of near active sites domains, and that they are easily inactivated by higher temperatures.
5. The different possibilities of adaptation of the microorganisms, either psychrophiles or psychrotolerants, showed complicated mechanisms, combining adaptation features and environmental opportunities. Their adaptation mechanisms are thus much more flexible than we have thought, providing possibilities and strategies of survival in extreme conditions. There is evidence for survival of psychrophiles in such conditions for very long periods of time which suggests the possibility of survival of similar microorganisms on other planets.
6. Psychrophiles produce bioactive and useful compounds, especially enzymes, pharmaceuticals, biodegradable plastics, substances for medical care, agriculture, biomining and bioremediation of wastes; all being usable in low temperature conditions, which entails important energy savings.
7. More laboratory and field bioprospecting should be envisaged for the isolation and identification of appropriate microorganisms for psychrophilic biotechnology.

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