

Review on: Actinomycetes as a Biological Control

¹Sanepara Nandani, ²Singh Shikha

¹Student, Master of Science (Microbiology), ²Teaching Assistant
Microbiology
Bhagwan Mahavir College of Basic and Applied Sciences
Bhagwan Mahavir University
Vesu, Surat, India.

Abstract- Actinomycetes are recognized as able to improve plant growth direct by producing some phytohormones and increasing soil nutrient availability and by indirect mechanisms by producing bioactive compounds against the phytopathogens. Different isolates are obtained from the samples drawn from the rhizospheric plant soil. The isolates are then tested against the two phytopathogenic fungi i.e., *Sclerotium rolfsii* and *Cercosporidium personatum*. The isolates if able to inhibit the growth of phytopathogen are then checked for their bioactive compound. Starch and casein proves to be the best carbon and nitrogen source. Based on the morphological and cultural characteristics, the potent strains producing antifungal compound are to be identified and these strains may prove to be the potent source for production of agro-based fungicides. The antifungal potential of metabolites produced by soil-borne actinomycetes could be exploited for its future use as an antifungal compound.

Key words: Actinomycetes, phytopathogens, antifungal activity, bioactive compounds, fungicides.

INTRODUCTION:

Especially in tropical and subtropical areas, fungal phytopathogens are the source of several plant illnesses as well as significant crop output losses. The most useful prokaryotes in terms of both economics and biotechnology are actinomycetes, which are capable of producing a broad variety of bioactive secondary metabolites, including enzymes, anticancer agents, antibiotics, and immunosuppressive compounds. Antibacterial, antifungal, neutritogenic, anticancer, antifungal, antimalarial, and anti-inflammatory properties are known to be possessed by these metabolites. The rhizosphere of plants contains *Streptomyces*, and it has been suggested that these fungi may shield roots from potential infections by preventing the growth of certain fungi. The synthesis of antifungal substances or enzymes that break down the fungal cell wall can accomplish this. Prokaryotes called actinomycetes have a hyphal shape, which makes them resemble fungi. Most of the actinomycetes that have been reported are microorganisms found in soil.

Actinomycetes, formerly referred to as *actinobacteria*, are classified as filamentous, Gram-positive, spore-forming bacteria with DNA that typically contains between 57 and 75% G+C. Actinomycetes are thought to be a distinct class of microorganisms that lie between true fungi and true bacteria. 50% of *actinobacteria* are made up of the *Streptomyces* genus, which also produces 75% of the antibiotics that are used commercially. The enzymes that the actinomycetes produce include pectinase, amylase, lipase, protease, cellulose, and xylanase. These are all important industries. Microbes produced over 22,500 bioactive chemicals, of which 17%, 38%, and 45% were extracted from actinomycetes, unicellular bacteria, and fungus, respectively. A significant problem in agricultural crops is fungus-related disease. (8)

The fungicides that are now in use are either very environmentally hazardous or less effective.(1-3) Therefore, the development of effective and ecologically safe natural fungicides is imperative. It has been anticipated that microbial metabolites will reduce the harmful side effects of synthetic fungicides. Given that actinomycetes are known to produce powerful antibiotics, further research on them is warranted.

Athlete's foot, ringworm, and several other deadly diseases affect both plants and animals, and fungal phytopathogens are major global health issues. Fungi can produce rusts, smuts, rots, and other plant diseases that can seriously harm crops. Some of the largest and possibly oldest organisms in the earth are fungi. Mycotoxins are produced by certain fungal species and are extremely poisonous to humans. For example, ergot poisoning is brought on by the fungus *Claviceps purpurea*. A mycotoxin-infected person develops gangrene, blood flow problems in his limbs, and hallucinations.

Actinomycetes are filamentous Gram-positive bacteria that belong to the phylum Actinobacteria, one of the largest taxonomic groups among the 18 major lineages that are currently recognized under the Domain Bacteria. They are distinguished by a complex life cycle. (1)

These days, a lot of uncommon actinomycetes are isolated from plants. For instance, the culture broth of a novel endophytic actinomycete strain K07-0460T has been revealed to contain novel antitrypanosomal chemicals called spoxazomicins (*Streptosporangium oxazolinicum sp. nov.*). This strain was isolated from the roots of several different orchids and was determined by phylogenetic analysis to belong to the genus *Streptosporangium*. The same researchers also discovered two new genera: *Actinophytocola oryzae* GMKU 367T and *Phytohabitans suffuscus* K07-0523T. Thus, it's possible that recently found actinomycetes could be found in plant roots.(2)

Actinomycetes can be found in many groups that are stable in both rhizosphere plants and bulk soil. Many plants depend on actinomycetes for growth, and rhizospheric streptomycetes in particular can shield plant roots from fungal pathogens by preventing their growth. This ability stems from actinomycetes' capacity to generate antifungal drugs in vitro.(3)

It has long been known that actinomycetes have some general properties. But in the past few years, additional information regarding their diverse natural roles has become available. *Micromonospora* and *Actinoplanes* were found in the first half of the 20th century, while two genera, *Streptomyces* and *Frankia*, were found in the second half of the 19th century.(5)

With almost 700 species, the *Streptomycetaceae* family (order *Actinomycetales*) is led by the genus *Streptomyces*. They are neutrophilic and Gram-positive, facultative aerobic, mesophilic filamentous bacteria with a DNA content of more than 70% that thrive at a temperature of 25 to 35 °C. The life cycle of *Streptomyces* microorganisms is intricate. Spore-producing bacteria are called *streptomyces* species. Spore germination marks the beginning of the bacterial life cycle.

The hyphae's terminals stretch to form the germ tubes, which subsequently branch. The vegetative mycelium eventually takes the form of a thick network of vegetative cells. The growth cycle of *streptomyces* consists of three stages: sporulation, aerial hyphae production, and vegetative growth.

Nitrogen fixation:

Actinobacteria have evolved a variety of lifestyles and are widely spread in both aquatic and terrestrial environments. One of the genus *Frankia's* unique characteristics is its capacity to form symbiotic relationships with a wide range of plant hosts, known as actinorhizal plants. It was discovered that this genus is the only actinobacterium that fixes nitrogen. (6) Prokaryotes that can use the nitrogenase system to convert N₂ into ammonia. Biological nitrogen fixation is the process by which bacteria assist in the reductive conversion of air elemental nitrogen into ammonia. Actinomycetes, bluegreen algae, and some eubacteria are among these microorganisms.(6)

The finest example of this type that can fix atmospheric nitrogen is *Azotobacter* since it possesses many nitrogenase enzyme types.(7) The primary agent of the symbiotic nitrogen fixation in legume crops is *Rhizobium*.(7)

Structure of actinomycetes:

Actinomycetes have a stiff cell wall that keeps the cell from bursting from high osmotic pressure and preserves the cell's form. Polysaccharides, peptidoglycan, teichoic and teichuronic acid, and other complex substances make up the wall. The peptidoglycan, which is specific to prokaryotic cell walls, is made up of glycan (polysaccharides) chains that alternate between N-acetyl-d-glucosamine (NAG), N-acetyl-d-muramic acid (NAM), and diaminopimelic acid (DAP). Peptidoglycan is chemically linked to teichoic and teichuronic acid. Although the chemical makeup of their cell wall is comparable to that of gram-positive bacteria, actinomycetes are thought to be a distinct group from other common bacteria due to their well-developed morphological (hyphae) and cultural traits.(4)

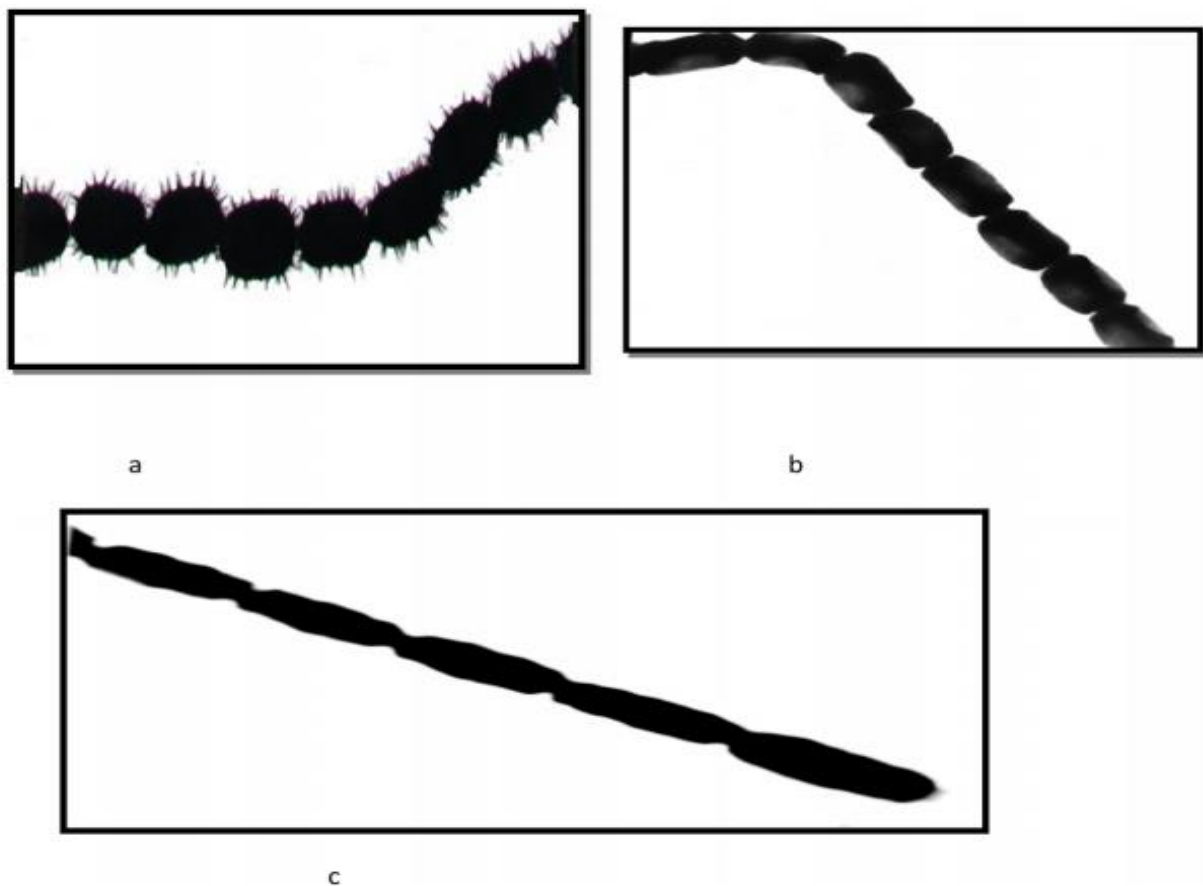


Fig.1. Different types of spore surface of *streptomyces* sp. **a.**spiny, **b.** Smooth, **c.**warty

Secondary metabolites from actinomycetes:

Antibiotics:

Low molecular weight chemical substances made by microorganisms are known as antibiotics. Actinomycetes are the primary producer of around 75% of antibiotics, which are primarily antibacterials. Numerous antibacterials exhibit a wide range of functions and different modes of action. Polyketides have numerous pharmaceutical uses, making them highly significant natural compounds. Examples of these polyketides are the antibacterial erythromycin, the antifungal nystatin, and the antiparasitic avermectin. *Streptomyces* sp., which is regarded as the primary creator of antibiotics, created all of the prior antibiotics.

Plant growth hormone:

Enhancement of plant growth through the synthesis of plant growth hormones, such as gibberellin-like substances and auxins. The primary auxin form, indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), is produced by actinomycetes and is involved in cell division, elongation, and differentiation.

Pigments:

The synthesis of colours on natural or manufactured media varies among actinomycetes. Typically, blue, violet, red, rose, yellow, green, brown, and black pigments are used. The pigments may remain within the mycelium or they may disperse throughout the media. These organisms' ability to create pigments can be considerably enhanced or completely lost depending on the different diet and growing conditions. Therefore, it is critical to enhance the ideal balance of various cultural circumstances in order to promote development and pigment production.

Single cell protein feed:

You can use marine actinomycetes as fishmeal. Certain secondary metabolites that actinomycetes can make may help young fish and prawns develop more effectively. Among these metabolites are normal amino acids such as azaleucine, 4-oxalysine, amino dichlobutyric acid, and boromycin and aplasmomycin.

Biosurfactant:

A surface-active chemical mostly generated by microorganisms is called a biosurfactant. The phrase describes substances that affect surfaces in some way. Surface tension measurements are used to assess the effectiveness of biosurfactants. The terms "emulsifier" and "surfactant" are commonly used synonymously in the literature. Because they are less harmful, biodegradable, and particular, biosurfactants have many benefits. Additionally, how well these biosurfactants function in harsh pH, salinity, and temperature environments. The creation of bioemulsifiers depends heavily on actinomycetes. Certain actinomycetes, such as *Nocardia* sp., produce trehalose dimycolates.

The Phytopathogens:

Phytopathogenic bacteria can be classified as biotrophs, hemibiotrophs, or necrotrophs based on how they live on plants. Necrotrophs first destroy host cells before feeding on dead tissues, whereas biotrophs feed on living cells and actively preserve the survival of their hosts. A necrotrophic phase comes after an early biotrophic phase for hemibiotrophs. It is necessary to create new antimicrobial drugs to prevent the dangerous phenomenon of phytopathogenic bacteria becoming resistant to certain agrochemicals. Presently, numerous researchers worldwide are attempting to find novel natural medications derived from plants or microorganisms. Numerous plants and microorganisms generate various bioactive secondary metabolites, which may find application in the agro-pharmaceutical sector as effective substitutes for a number of chemical pesticides.(9)

Actinomycetes isolation and biochemical characterisation may make it possible to discover novel bioactive compounds for use in agriculture and medicine. The current study's main goals were to: (i) isolate and identify new Actinomycetes strains from various soil habitats; (ii) assess the tested isolates' antagonistic effect in vitro against common phytopathogens; and (iii) assess the most bioactive isolates' growth-promoting effect in vivo as well as their antifungal activity against *Sclerotium rolfsii* on ground nut plant.(10)

Stem, root, and pod rot in peanuts is one of the most significant soil-borne fungal diseases resulting from *Sclerotium rolfsii* which can infect over 500 plant species. The soil-borne pathogen *Sclerotium rolfsii* Sacc. is typically found in warm temperate regions, the subtropics, and the tropics regions of the world that affect about 500 plant species, nearly all agricultural and horticultural crops, causing root rot, stem rot, wilt, and foot rot. The phytopathogen known as *Sclerotium rolfsii* was initially identified by Rolfs in 1892, and Saccardo later confirmed this identification in 1911. Higgins (1927) conducted extensive research on *S. rolfsii*'s physiology and parasitism.

Effect of Chemical control on the phytopathogen:

Fungicides like banodenil and pentachloronitrobenzene work well to prevent root rot disease and apple seedling blight. The high concentration of benzaldehyde and velvet bean suppresses *Sclerotium rolfsii*'s mycelial growth and sclerotial germination. Six fungicides, namely benomyl, sancozeb, thiovit, dithane M-45, carbendazim, and topsin-M, were found to be effective against *Sclerotium rolfsii* by Yaqub and Shahzad (2006)[55]. At low concentrations, no fungicide was able to stop *Sclerotium rolfsii* from growing, but at high concentrations, sancozeb and dithane M-45 dramatically stopped the growth of *Sclerotium rolfsii*[56]

According to Mohamedy et al. (2014), substances like potassium sorbate (7.5%), salicylic acid (100mM), sorbic acid (7.5%), and K₂HPO₄ (400mM) regulate root tomato rot disease brought on by *Fusarium solani*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, and *Sclerotium rolfsii*, which also has a beneficial influence on tomato plant growth, yield, and fruit quality when grown in fields for two cropping seasons.[57]

Effective Biological control of the phytopathogen:

According to Abd-Allah (2005), *Bacillus subtilis* controls *Sclerotium rolfsii* in peanuts grown in greenhouses by 92%. An antifungal secreted by *Bacillus subtilis* material that is extremely hostile to *S. rolfsii*. *Trichoderma harzianum* and *Trichoderma hamatum* were shown to be the most effective in inhibiting the growth of *Sclerotium rolfsii* mycelial by 79%, according to a study by Radawan et al. (2006)[58].

As *Streptomyces sp.* produces antifungal and antibacterial chemicals that inhibit *Sclerotium*, it has the biological control action of root and stem rot[59]. For an example the growth of two phytopathogen species named *Sclerotium rolfsii* and *Ralstonia solanacearum* were inhibited under in vivo conditions in the plant i.e., chilli peppers.

Actinomycetes are known to generate the enzyme chitinase, which inhibits the growth of *S. rolfsii* in vitro, regulates stem rot, and speeds up the growth of chillies.[60]

Pseudomonas cf. montelii produces volatile metabolites, hydrogen cyanide, siderophores, and diffusible antibiotics that inhibit *Sclerotium rolfsii* in vitro and speed up groundnut germination, shoot length, root length, leaf count, and chlorophyll content.[61]



Fig.2. Application of actinomycetes

REFERENCES:

1. Abd-Allah EF. Effect of a *Bacillus subtilis* isolates a Southern blight (*Sclerotium rolfsii*) and lipid composition of peanut seeds. *Phytopathology*, 2005; 33(5): 460-466
2. Adegboye MF, Babalola OO (2013) Actinomycetes: a yet inexhaustive source of bioactive secondary metabolites. In: Méndez-Vilas A (ed) *Microbial pathogens and strategies for combating them: science, technology and education*, pp 786–795
3. Anand S, Reddy J. Biocontrol potential of *Trichoderma* sp. against plant pathogens. *International Journal of Agriculture Science*, 2009;1(2): 30-39
4. Arunasri P, Chalam TV, Eswara Reddy NP, Tirumala Reddy S, Ravindra Reddy B. Investigations on fungicidal sensitivity of *Trichoderma* spp and *Sclerotium rolfsii* (collar rot pathogen) in *Crossandra*. *International Journal of Applied Biology and Pharmaceutical Technology*, 2011; 2(2): 290-293
5. Asma Absar Bhatti, Shamsul Haq, Rouf Ahmad Bhat* (2017) Actinomycetes benefaction role in soil and plant health *Microbial Pathogenesis* 111 (2017) 458e467
6. Berdy J (2012) Thoughts and facts about antibiotics: where we are now and where we are heading. *J Antibiot* 65(8):385–395. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ja.2012.27>
7. Bérdy J. (2005). Bioactive microbial metabolites. *J Antibiot*, 58, 1–26. Brady SF, Chao CJ, Handelsman J, Clardy J. (2001). Cloning and heterologous expression of a natural product biosynthetic gene cluster from eDNA. *Org Lett*, 3, 1981–1984.
8. Berdy, J., 1995. *Biotechnologia*, 7-8, 13-34.
9. Bhuiyan MA, Rahman HB, Bhuiyan KA. In vitro screening of fungicides and antagonists against *Sclerotium rolfsii*. *Afr. J. Biotechnol*, 2012; 11: 14822–14827.
10. Bloemberg GV, Lugtenberg BJJ (2001) Molecular basis of plant growth promotion and biocontrol by rhizobacteria. *Curr Opin Plant Biol* 4(4):343–352. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1369-5266\(00\)00183-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1369-5266(00)00183-7)

11. Boukaew S, Chuenchit S, Petcharat V. Evaluation of *Streptomyces* sp for biological control of *Sclerotium* root and stem & *Ralstonia* wilt of chili pepper. International Organisation for Biological Control, 2011; 56: 365-374. Brady SF, Chao CJ, Clardy J. (2002). New natural product families from an environmental DNA (eDNA) gene cluster. *J Am Chem Soc*, 124, 9968–9969.
12. Bredholt H, Fjaervik E, Johnsen G, Zotchev SB. (2008). Actinomycetes from sediments in the Trondheim fjord, Norway: diversity and biological activity. *Mar Drugs*, 6, 12–24.
13. Cohen Y & Coffy M D, Systemic fungicides and the control of oomycetes, *Annu Rev Phytopathol*, 24 (1986) 311-338.
14. Conway KE, Tomasino SF. *Sclerotium rolfsii* problem to apple nursery stock in olahoma. *Phytopathology*, 1996; 75-449.
15. D. V. Pathak and Mukesh Kumar Microbial Inoculants as Biofertilizers and Biopesticides Microbial Inoculants in Sustainable Agricultural Productivity, DOI 10.1007/978-81-322-2647-5_11
16. Daniel WU, Erin AG, Adam CJ, Carla SJ, Andrew J, Jones WS, Jaclyn MW (2011) Significant natural product biosynthetic potential of actinorhizal symbionts of the genus *Frankia*, as revealed by comparative genomic and proteomic analyses. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 11:3617–3625. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00038-11>
17. Daolong Dou² and Jian-Min Zhou¹, *Phytopathogen Effectors Subverting Host Immunity: Different Foes, Similar Battleground Cell Host & Microbe 12, October 18, 2012 ^a2012 Elsevier Inc.
18. Elmallah MIY, Cogo S, Constantinescu A, Esposito SE, Abdelfattah MS, Micheau O (2020) Marine actinomycetes-derived secondary metabolites overcome TRAIL-resistance via the intrinsic pathway through down regulation of survive in and XIAP. *Cells* 9(8):1760–1778.
19. El-Mohamedy RSR, Jabnoun-Khiareddine H, Daat mi-Remadi M. Control of root rot diseases of tomato plant caused by *Fusarium solani*, *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Sclerotium rolfsii* using a different chemical, plant resistance inducers. *Tunisian journal of plant protection*, 2014; 9: 45-55.
20. Eziashi EI, Omamor IB, Odigie EE. Antagonism of *Trichoderma viride* and effects of extracted watersoluble compounds from *Trichoderma* species and benlate solution on *Ceratocystis paradox*. *Afr. J. Biotechnol*, 2007; 6: 388–392
21. Feller G, Le Bussy O, Gerday C (1998) Expression of psychrophilic genes in mesophilic hosts: assessment of the folding state of a recombinant α -amylase. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 64(3):1163–1165. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.64.3.1163-1165.1998>
22. Fiechter A (1992) Biosurfactants: moving towards industrial application. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 3:286–293. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0924-2244\(10\)80013-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0924-2244(10)80013-5)
23. Fruh T, Chemla P, Ehrler J & Farooq S, Natural products as pesticides: Two examples of stereoselective synthesis, *Pestic Sci*, 46 (1996) 37-47.
24. Gamliel A, Stapleton JJ. Improvement of Soil Solarization with Volatile Compounds Generated from Organic Amendments. *Phytoparasitica*, 1997; 25: 31S-38S.
25. Ghildiyal A, Pandey A. Isolation of cold tolerant antifungal strains of *Trichoderma* species from glacial sites of Indian Himalayan region. *Res J Microbiology*, 2008; 8:559–564.
26. Gonzalez-Franco AC, Robles Hernandez Z, NuñezBarrios A, Strap JL, Crawford DL (2009) Molecular and cultural analysis of seasonal Actinomycetes in soils from *Artemisia tridentata* habitat. *Inter J Experim Botany* 78:83–90
27. Goodfellow M & Haynes J A, Actinomycetes in marine sediments, in *Biological, biochemical and biomedical aspects of Actinomyces*, edited by L Ortiz-Ortiz, L F Bojahlil & V Yakoleff (Academic Press, New York) 1984, 453-472.
28. Goodfellow M, Williams T (1983) Ecology of actinomycetes. *Annu Rev Microbiol* 37(1):189–216. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.mi.37.100183.001201>
29. Hasani A, Kariminik A, Issazadeh K (2014) Streptomyces: characteristics and their antimicrobial activities. *Int J Adv Biol Biomed Res* 2:63–75
30. Hazem S. Elshafie Ippolito Camele * (2022) Rhizospheric Actinomycetes Revealed Antifungal and Plant-Growth-Promoting Activities under Controlled Environment
31. Hong H, Samborskyy M, Usachova K, Schnatz K, Leadlay PF, Dickschat JS (2017) Sulfation and amidinohydrolysis in the biosynthesis of giant linear polyenes. *Beilstein J Org Chem* 13:2408–2415. <https://doi.org/10.3762/bjoc.13.238>
32. Kalakoutswl, V. & Agre, N. S. 1973. Endospores of actinomycetes: dormancy and germination. In *The Actinomycetales: Characteristics and Practical Importance*, pp. 179-195. Edited by G. Sykes and F. A. Skinner. London and New York: Academic Press.
33. Karuppiah P, Mustaffa M (2013) Antibacterial and antioxidant activities of *Musa* sp. leaf extracts against multidrug resistant clinical pathogens causing nosocomial infection. *Asian Pac J Trop Biomed* 3(9):737–742. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2221-1691\(13\)60148-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2221-1691(13)60148-3)

34. Kavita Tiwari and Rajinder K. Gupta Diversity and isolation of rare actinomycetes: an overview *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 2013; 39(3): 256–294
35. Khan IH, Javaid A. Chemical control of collar rot disease of Chickpea. *Pakistan Journal of Phytopathology*, 2015; 27(01): 61-68.
36. Knight S C, Anthony V M, Brady A M, Greenland A J, Heaney S P et al, Rationale and perspectives on the development of fungicides, *Annu Rev Phytopathol*, 35 (1997) 349-372.
37. L. Yang, J. Xie, D. Jiang, Y. Fu, G. Li, and F. Lin, “Antifungal substances produced by *Penicillium oxalicum* strain PY-1 - Potential antibiotics against plant pathogenic fungi,” *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, vol. 24, no. 7, pp. 909–915, 2008.
38. Larsen TO, Smedsgaard J, Nielsen KF, Hansen ME, Frisvad JC. (2005). Phenotypic taxonomy and metabolite profiling in microbial drug discovery. *Nat Prod Rep*, 22, 672–695.
39. Laurent FJ, Provost F, Boiron P. (1999). Rapid identification of clinically relevant *Nocardia* species to genus level by 16S rRNA gene PCR. *J Clin Microbiol*, 37, 99–102.
40. Lodha S. Soil solarisation: An eco-friendly approach to manage soil borne plant pathogens. *CAZRI (DEN NEWS)*, 2011; 13(1).
41. M. SHIMIZU, Y. NAKAGAWA, Y. SATO et al., “Studies on Endophytic Actinomycetes *Streptomyces* sp. Isolated from *Rhododendron* and Its Antifungal Activity,” *Journal of General Plant Pathology*, vol. 66, no. 4, pp. 360–366, 2000.
42. Maher Gtari • Faten Ghodhbane-Gtari ,Imen Nouioui • Nicholas Beauchemin ,Louis S. Tisa (2011) Phylogenetic perspectives of nitrogen-fixing actinobacteria *Arch Microbiol* DOI 10.1007/s00203-011-0733-6
43. Manal Selim Mohamed Selim, Sayeda Abdelrazek Abdelhamid* and Sahar Saleh Mohamed Secondary metabolites and biodiversity of actinomycetes Selim et al. *Journal of Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology* (2021) 19:72
44. Manivasagan P, Venkatesan J, Sivakumar K, Kim SK (2013) Marine actinobacterial metabolites: current status and future perspectives. *Microbiol Res* 168(6):311–332. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micres.2013.02.002>
45. Mariana Solans* and Gernot Vobis Biology of Actinomycetes in the Rhizosphere of Nitrogen-Fixing Plants
46. Mihail JD. Effects of soil solarization and antaonistic bacteria on macrophomina phaseolina and sclerotium rolfsii. *Research Gate university microfilms international*, Arizona, 1983. Mohan KD, Rajamanickam U (2018) Biodiversity of actinomycetes and secondary metabolites. *Inn Orig Inter J Sci* 5(1):21–27
47. Mozhgan sepehri, Behnam khatabi* (2020) Combination of Siderophore-Producing Bacteria and *Piriformospora indica* Provides an Efficient Approach to Improve Cadmium Tolerance in Alfalfa , *Microbial ecology*
48. Mukesh Sharma*, Pinki Dangi and Meenakshi Choudhary Actinomycetes: Source, Identification, and Their Applications *Int.J.Curr.Microbiol.App.Sci* (2014) 3(2): 801-832
49. Nakamura H, Iitaka Y, Kitahara T, Okazaki T, Okami Y (1977) Structure of aplasmomycin. *J Antibio* 30(9):714–719. <https://doi.org/10.7164/antibiotics.3.0.714>
50. Newman D J, Jensen P R, Clement J J & Acebal C, Novel activities from marine derived microorganisms, in *Novel microbial products for medicine and agriculture*, edited by A L Demain, Somkuti J C, Hunter-Cevera J C & Rossmore J C (Elsevier Press, Amsterdam) 1989, 239-251.
51. Okami Y, Martine microorganisms as a source of bioactive agents, *Microb Ecol*, 12 (1986) 6578.
52. Paramageetham Ch, Babu GP. Antagonistic activity of fluorescent *Pseudomonas* against a polyphagous soil-born plant pathogen – *Sclerotium rolfsii*. *Open access scientific reports* 2012; 1: 9.
53. Persello-Cartieaux F, Nussaume L, Robaglia C (2003) Tales from the underground: molecular plant–rhizobacteria interactions. *Review. Plant Cell Environ* 26(2):189–199. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3040.2003.00956.x>
54. Persello-Cartieaux, F., Nussaume, L. and Robaglia, C., Tales from the underground: Molecular plant–rhizobacteria interactions. *Review. Plant, Cell Environ.* 2003, 26, 189–199.
55. Porter N, Physiochemical and biophysical panel symposium biologically active secondary metabolites, *Pestic Sci*, 16 (1985) 422-427.
56. Radwan M, Fadel ALB, Mahareeq I, Mohammad IAL. Biological control of *Sclerotium rolfsii* by using indigenous *Trichoderma* spp. isolates from Palestine. *Hebron Univ. Res.*, J.2006; 2(2): 27-47.
57. Raja S (2007) Screening of microbial amylase enzyme inhibitors from marine actinomycetes. M.Sc., dissertation. Annamalai University, India, p 40
58. S. K. Dwivedi and Ganesh Prasad*(2016) INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT OF SCLEROTIUM ROLFSII: AN OVERVIEW *ejbps*, 2016, Volume 3, Issue 11, 137-146.
59. S. Khamna, A. Yokota, J. F. Peberdy, and S. Lumyong, “Antifungal activity of *Streptomyces* spp. isolated from rhizosphere of Thai medicinal plants,” *International Journal of Integrative Biology*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 143–147, 2009.

60. S. Ravikumar, SJ. Inbaneson, M. Uthiraselvam, Priya Sr., A. Ramu, and MB. Banerjee, "Uthiraselvam M, Priya SR, Ramu A, Banerjee MB. Diversity of endophytic actinomycetes from Karangkadu mangrove ecosystem and its antibacterial potential against bacterial pathogens," *J Pharm Res*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 294–296, 2001.
61. Sharma M, Dangi P, Choudhary M (2014) Actinomycetes: source, identification, and their applications. *Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci* 3(2):801–832
62. Stapleton JJ, Devay JE. Soil solarization: a nonchemical approach for management of plant pathogens and pests. *Crops protection* 1986; 5(3): 190-198
63. T. A. Brimmer and G. J. Boland, "A review of the non-target effects of fungi used to biologically control plant diseases," *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, vol.100, no. 1-3, pp. 3–16, 2003.
64. T. Raguchander, K. Jayashree, and R. Samiyappan, "Management of Fusarium wilt of banana using antagonistic microorganisms," *J Biol Control*, vol. 11, pp. 101–105, 1997.
65. Thampayak I, Cheeptham N, Wasu P, Pimporn L, Saisamorn L (2008) Isolation and identification of biosurfactant producing actinomycetes from soil. *Res J Microbiol* 3(7):499–507. <https://doi.org/10.3923/jm.2008.499.507>
66. Thompson CJ, Fink D, Nguyen LD (2002) Principles of microbial alchemy: insights from the *Streptomyces coelicolor* genome sequence. *Genome Biol* 3(7):1020.1–1020.4. <https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2002-3-7-reviews1020>
67. Tirta Kumala Dewi, Dwi Agustiani, and Sarjiya Antonius Secondary Metabolites Production by Actinomycetes and their Antifungal Activity ICBS Conference Proceedings International Conference on Biological Science (2015), Volume 2017
68. V. Vimal, BM. Rajam, and K. Kannabiran, "Antimicrobial activity of marine actinomycetes, *Nocardopsis* sp. VITSVK 5 (FJ973467)," *Asian J Med Scie*, vol. 5, pp. 57–63, 2009.
69. Verma M, Brar K S, Tyagi R D, Surampalli RY, Valero JR. Antagonist fungi, *Trichoderma* species: a panoply of biological control. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 2007; 37: 1-20.
70. Wawrik B, Kutliev D, Abdivasievna UA, Kukor JJ, Zylstra GJ, Kerkhof L (2007) Biogeography of actinomycete communities and type II polyketide synthase genes in soils collected in New Jersey and Central Asia. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 73(9):2982–29894. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.02611-06>
71. Yaqub F, Shahzad S. Effect of fungicides on in vitro growth of *Sclerotium rolfsii*. *Pak J. Bot*, 2006; 38(38): 881-883.