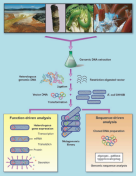


Molecular methods to assess microbial diversity

Microbial Ecology
BSCI 464/MEES 698



Why using molecular methods?

- Microorganisms represent two of the three domains of life
- Uncultured microorganisms comprise the majority of the planet's biological diversity
- In many environments, as many as 99% of the microorganisms cannot be cultured by standard techniques

Therefore, culture-independent methods are essential to understand the genetic diversity, population structure, and ecological roles of the majority of microorganisms

What are the most basic questions in microbial ecology?

- What microorganisms are present in the community?
- How many of each microorganism are present?
- How do the population changes in space and time?
- What is the ecological role of microbial populations?
- How do microorganisms interact with their environment?
- What do microorganisms do?

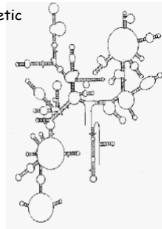
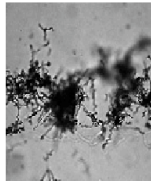
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What molecular methods to assess microbial diversity?

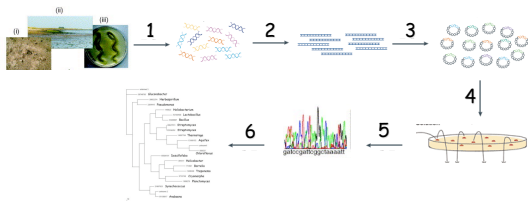
- Based on 16S ribosomal DNA gene (and possibly other genes)
 - 16S rDNA libraries and sequencing
 - Amplified ribosomal DNA restriction analysis (ARDRA)
 - Terminal-restriction length fragment polymorphism (T-RFLP)
 - Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE)
- Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)
- Pulse field gel electrophoresis analysis (PFGE)
- Metagenomics

16S ribosomal DNA-based community analysis

- <1% of microorganisms in marine samples are culturable using standard methods
- 16S rDNA gene sequences are good for phylogenetic analysis
- Gives indication of microbial diversity



16S rDNA gene-based community analysis



- 1- DNA isolation from microbial niches
- 2- PCR amplification with 16S rDNA primers
- 3- Ligate PCR products into a cloning vector
- 4- Clone constructs into *E. coli*
- 5- Pick colonies, prepare plasmid DNA and sequence insert
- 6- Analyze sequences

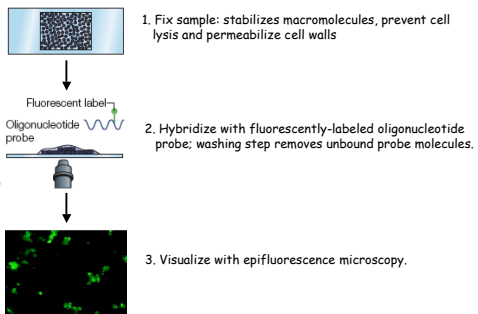
Problems with 16S rDNA and PCR methods

- microorganisms differ in the number of rrn operons in their genomes (1 to 15)
- number of rrn operons is positively correlated with growth rate
then slow-growing bacteria would be poorly represented in 16S rRNA libraries generated by PCR
- PCR biases

What molecular methods to assess microbial diversity?

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Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (FISH)



Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (FISH)

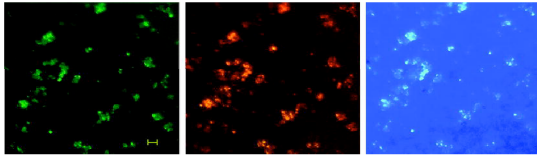


Fig. 3 Epifluorescence microphotograph of benthic microbes from Punto Sette. Scale bar 2µm, Green *Thermococcales* detected by OregonGreen-labeled Tcoc164, red archaea detected by Cy3-labeled Arch917 and Arc344, blue DAPI-stained cells. Brightness, shape, and size of the luminescent objects were used to distinguish cells from other particles.

- FISH: rRNA targeted oligonucleotide probes
- RING-FISH: polynucleotide RNA probes
- FISH-MAR: fluorescence in situ hybridization-microautoradiography

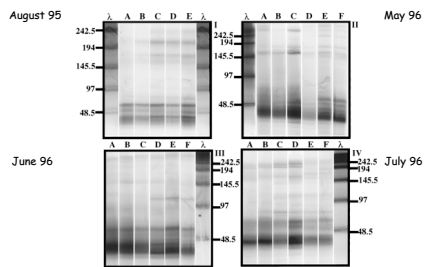
Rusch and Amend, Extremophiles 2004

Pulsed Field Gel Electrophoresis

Direct visualization of large DNA molecules or fragments



PFGE of viral communities from the Chesapeake Bay



Wommack et al. 1999. AEM 65:231-240

A-F: Chesapeake Bay stations
Mwm in kilobases

What molecular methods to assess microbial diversity?

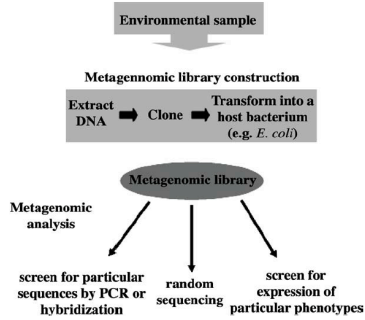
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Environment Exploration

- Culture-based
 - heavily biased (<0.1% of microorganisms can be cultured)
 - amenable to many types of analyses
- Directed rDNA analyses and sequencing
 - less biased
 - limited analyses possible
- Random shotgun sequencing: metagenomic
 - "differentially" biased
 - amenable to many types of analyses
 - \$\$\$



Metagenomics: functional and sequence-based analysis of the collective microbial genomes contained in an environmental sample: the **microbiome**



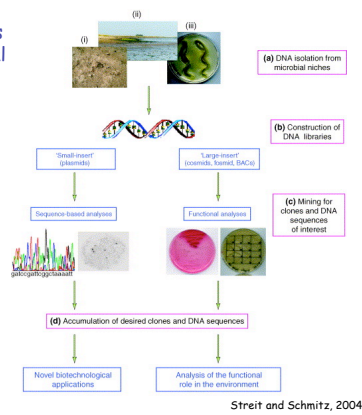
Riesenfeld et al., 2004

Size of Metagenomes

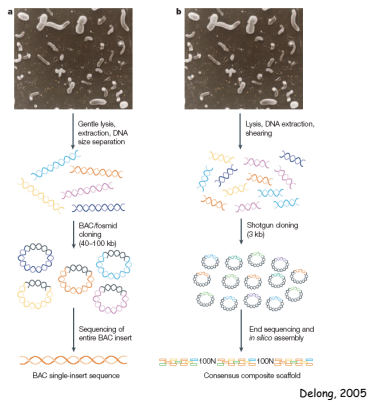
Constructing metagenomic libraries from environmental samples is conceptually simple but technically challenging

- 1- a large amount of DNA must be isolated and cloned from a sample (0.5 to 5 μg minimum; high quality DNA; 200 liters Sargasso Sea water)
- 2- many clones and sequences must be processed to provide meaningful data (human gut study: 140,000 sequence reads)
- 3- lognormal-type population distributions make it difficult to represent the minor species from a sample

Genomics that does not require an initial culturing step or PCR step



Size of Inserts

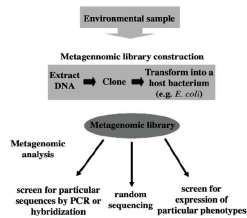


Pros and cons of small-insert and large-insert libraries

Advantages	Disadvantages
Small-insert library (plasmids)	
High copy number allows detection of weakly-expressed foreign genes	Small insert size
Expression of foreign genes from vector promoters is feasible	Large numbers of clones must be screened to obtain positives
Cloning of sheared DNA or soil DNA contaminated with matrix substances is possible	Not suitable for cloning of activities and pathways that are encoded by large gene clusters
Technically simple	
Large-insert library (cosmids, fosmids, BACs)	
Large insert size	Low copy-number might prevent detection of weakly-expressed foreign genes
Small numbers of clones can be screened to obtain positives	Limited expression of foreign genes by vector promoters
Suitable for cloning of enzyme activities and pathways that are encoded by large gene clusters	Requires high-molecular weight DNA of high purity for library construction
Suitable for partial genomic characterization of uncultured soil microorganisms	Technically difficult
BACs, bacterial artificial chromosomes.	

Daniel, 2005

The challenge: linking function (phenotype) to phylogeny (identity of the host)



Riesenfeld et al., 2004

Metagenomics strategies

Phylogeny then function

screen clones for a specific phylogenetic anchor (e.g., 16S rRNA) or gene and then sequence the entire clone and search for genes of interest among the genes flanking the anchor

Function then Phylogeny

screen a metagenomic library for a phenotype and then attempt to determine the phylogenetic origin of the cloned DNA

Random sequencing

sequence the entire metagenome and identify interesting genes and phylogenetic anchors in the resulting reconstructed genomes

Phylogeny then Function

TABLE 2 Metagenomics discovery of homologues of targeted genes or gene families

Environment	Number of clones	Insert size (kb)	Total DNA (Gb)	Gene of interest	Reference
Marine	6240	80	—	16S rRNA	(5)
				Archaea 16S rRNA	(9)
				Photosystem II (<i>psbA</i>)	(126)
Marine	7300	40	2.9	Archaea 16S rRNA	(6)
Marine	32,000	10–20 kb	0.48	16S rRNA	(106)
Polychaete symbiont	n.s.	Fosmid	—	16S rRNA	(18)
Marine	5000	50	0.25	Polyketide synthase	(22)
Marine	n.s.	BAC	—	Proteorhodopsin	(25)
Sediment	n.s.	Fosmid	—	Archaea 16S rRNA methyl coenzyme M reductase A	(45)
Tubeworm symbiont	1500	Fosmid	~0.06	Histidine protein kinase	(55)
Soil	3680	27	1.2	16S rRNA	(65, 96)
	24,600	45	—	—	—
Marine	6107	35–40	—	16S rRNA	(64)
Beetle symbionts	n.s.	Fosmid	—	Polyketide synthase	(81)
Beetle and sponge symbionts	n.s.	Cosmid	—	Polyketide synthase	(82)
Soil	25,278	35–40	0.95	16S rRNA	(84)
Soil	56,000	33–44	2.2	Acidobacteria 16S rRNA	(85)
Sponge symbionts	n.s.	Fosmid	—	16S rRNA	(100)
Sponge symbionts	n.s.	40	—	Archaea 16S rRNA	(101)
Sponge symbionts	n.s.	40	—	Archaea 16S rRNA	(103)
River biotina	n.s.	40	—	Hybridization analysis	(107)
Marine	3552	40	0.14	Archaea 16S rRNA	(110)
				Fluorococci 16S rRNA	(169)

Riesenfeld et al., 2004

Function then Phylogeny

TABLE 1 Metagenomics discovery based on functional screens

Environment	Number of clones	Insert size (kb)	Total DNA (Gb)	Activity of interest	Reference
Soil	n.s.	Cosmid	—	Fatty acid esterase	(11)
Soil	n.s.	Cosmid	—	Pigments	(12)
Soil	700,000	Cosmid	~26	Antimicrobials	(13)
Soil	n.s.	Cosmid	—	Fatty acid esterase	(14)
Marine	825,000	Fosmid	~4.0	Chitinase	(21)
Feces and soil	4 × 6000–35,000	30–40	~3	Biotin biosynthesis	(31)
Anaerobic digester	15,000	1–12	0.10	Cellobiases	(48)
				4-hydroxybutyrate utilization	(49)
Soil	3 × ~300,000	5–8 kb	5.9	Ligases	(59)
Soil & river sediment	1 × 80,000	3–5 kb	2.2	Antiporter activity	(69)
Soil & river sediment	2 × 240,000	—	—	Dehydratase	(59)
Soil & river sediment	4 × 100,000	3–6 kb	1.8	Alcohol oxidoreductase	(60)
Soil	3 × 320,000–510,000	3–5 kb	6.2	Carboxyl formation	(61)
Soil	1.5 × 10 ⁷	37 kb	560	Antimicrobial	(68)
Human mouth	450	Fosmid	~0.001	Antibiotic resistance	(27)
Marine	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Antifuse	(91)
				Antibiotic resistance	(92)
Soil	4 × 50,000–650,000	3–4 kb	4.2	Antimicrobials and novel enzymes	(96)
Soil	3648	27	1.2	Antimicrobials	(96)
Soil	24,576	44.5	—	Novel biocatalysts	(117)
Soil	n.s.	30 kb	—	Antimicrobials	(119)
Soil	n.s.	n.s.	—	Antimicrobials	(119)
Geothermal sediment	37,000	5	0.2	Pigments	(120)

Riesenfeld et al., 2004

Random sequencing

Microbiome	Seq. center	Est. ORFs	Genome size (Mbp)
Acid mine drainage	JGI	12,822	10.8
Human gut community	TIGR	50,164	78.8
Sargasso Sea	Venter Inst.	1,214,207	1,044.70
Sludge	JGI	34,659	28.3
Soil	JGI	185,274	152.4
Whalefall sample 1	JGI	41,932	31.8
Global Ocean Sampling	Venter Inst.	5 to 6 M	6.3 Gbp

JGI: DOE Joint Genome Institute
TIGR: The Institute for Genome Research

<http://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi>

Function-driven versus sequence-driven strategies

Advantages	Disadvantages
Function-driven screening method	
Completely novel genes can be recovered	Dependent on expression of the cloned genes by the bacterial host
Selects for full-length genes	Requires production of a functional gene product by the bacterial host
Selects for functional gene products	Dependent on the design of a simple activity-based screening strategy
Sequence-driven screening method	
Independent of expression of the cloned genes by the bacterial host used	Recovered genes are related to known genes
Similar screening strategies can be used for different targets, for example, colony hybridization and PCR	Partial genes can be cloned
	Not selective for functional gene products

Daniel, 2005

Impact On Public Databases

As of April 1, 2004, **5% of GenBank** was from the Sargasso Sea scaffold collection.

A BLAST analysis of one sequence read from their collection against GenBank will often identify **50 similar DNA fragments of no known function** that are all from the Sargasso Sea

Finding matches to sequences from the Sargasso Sea is more likely to be due to the **abundance of sequences from this study than to ecological similarities.**

Metagenomic Analysis of the Human Distal Gut Microbiome

Steven R. Gill,^{1,4,†} Mihai Pop,^{1,†} Robert T. DeBoy,¹ Paul B. Eckburg,^{2,3,4} Peter J. Turnbaugh,² Buck S. Samuel,⁵ Jeffrey I. Gordon,² David A. Relman,^{2,3,4} Claire M. Fraser-Liggett,^{1,6} Karen E. Nelson¹

The human intestinal microbiota is composed of 10^{13} to 10^{14} microorganisms whose collective genome ("microbiome") contains at least 100 times as many genes as our own genome. We analyzed ~78 million base pairs of unique DNA sequence and 2062 polymerase chain reaction-amplified 16S ribosomal DNA sequences obtained from the fecal DNAs of two healthy adults. Using metabolic function analyses of identified genes, we compared our human genome with the average content of previously sequenced microbial genomes. Our microbiome has significantly enriched metabolism of glycans, amino acids, and xenobiotics; methanogenesis; and 2-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate pathway-mediated biosynthesis of vitamins and isoprenoids. Thus, humans are superorganisms whose metabolism represents an amalgamation of microbial and human attributes.

www.sciencemag.org SCIENCE VOL 312 2 JUNE 2006

Human subjects

- Fecal specimens from 2 healthy humans (subject 7 and 8)
- Ages 28 and 37
- Female and male
- Vegetarian diet and unrestricted diet
- No antibiotic used for 1 year

The use of human subjects was approved by the Stanford University Administrative Panel on Human Subjects in Medical Research

(Gill et al., 2005)

Human gut microbiome statistics

	Subject 7	Subject 8	Total
Sequencing reads	65,059	74,462	139,521
16S rRNA clones sequenced	3,514	3,601	7,115

1 microbial genome equivalent

Total sequences: 78.7 Mbp
Open reading frames: ~ 50,000

(Gill et al., 2005)

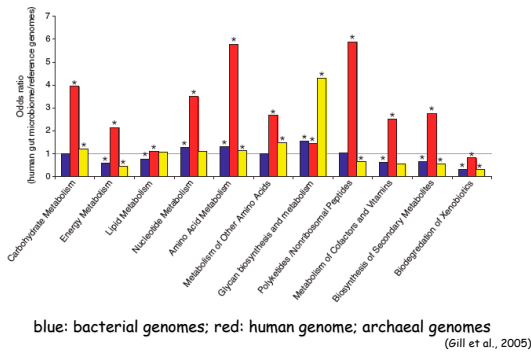
Human gut microbiome phylogenetic

	Shotgun 16S rRNA (%)		Blast x best hit (%)	
	Subject 7	Subject 8	Subject 7	Subject 8
Bifidobacteriales (Actinobacteria)	21.2	3.7	21.8	5.2
Clostridiales (Firmicutes)	47.3	74.1	17.5	27.1
Bacteroides (Bacteroidetes)	0	0	2.7	3.4
Methanobacteriales (Archaea)	12.3	13.05	9	7.8

- Bifidobacteriales: mostly *Bifidobacterium longum*, lactic acid bacteria
- Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes found as dominant bacterial divisions in human gut; discrepancy in this study regarding Bacteroidetes
 - biases associated with fecal lysis
 - less abundant in those subjects
- Archaea were mostly Methanobacteriales, more than half were *Methanobrevibacter smithii*

(Gill et al., 2005)

Metabolic functions enriched* or underrepresented* in the human gut microbiome



Human gut microbiome new findings

- Large number of Archaea
- Antibiotic resistance genes
 - residual microorganisms
 - antibiotics from nutrition
- Mobile genetic elements influence bacterial diversity
- Enrichment of a specific pathway for the biosynthesis of vitamins and isoprenoids (MEP: 2-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate)

(Gill et al., 2005)

PhyloChip:

High-density oligonucleotide microarray designed to detect and quantify all known prokaryotic 16S rRNA gene sequences.

Affymetrix platform



PhyloChip boasts a lot of analytical power in a small package.

- based on the 16S rRNA gene
- 500,000 probes
- >30,000 unique database sequences (both archaeal and bacterial), totaling almost 9,000 distinct taxonomic groups
- each group is assayed by a set of 11 or more perfectly matching probes each with a corresponding mismatch control probe
- used to characterize complex environments such as soil, aquifers, and urban air sample

Gary Andersen, Terry Hazen and Eoin Brodie - Lawrence Berkely National Laboratory

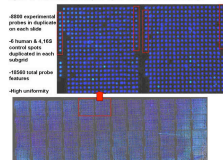
ORIGINAL ARTICLE

GeoChip: a comprehensive microarray for investigating biogeochemical, ecological and environmental processes

Zhili He^{1,2}, Terry J Gentry^{3,4}, Christopher W Schadt⁵, Liyou Wu^{1,3}, Jost Liebich^{1,5}, Song C Chang⁶, Zhijian Huang^{6,7}, Weimin Wu⁸, Baohua Gu⁹, Phil Jardine⁶, Craig Criddle⁴ and Jizhong Zhou^{1,2}

¹Department of Botany and Microbiology, Institute for Environmental Genomics, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK, USA; ²Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN, USA; ³Department of Soil and Crop Sciences, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA and ⁴Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA

Figure 1. DNA stain showing the layout of an 18,560 feature array.



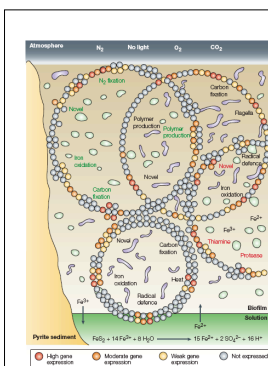
24,243 50-mer oligonucleotides
 > 10,000 genes
 > 150 functional groups
 - N, C, S, P cycling
 - metal reduction and resistance
 - organic contaminant degradation

Table 1. Summary of the numbers of probes by functional gene category on the GeoChip

Gene category	Unique probes	Group probes	Total probes
Nitrogen cycling	3895	1414	5310
Nitrogen fixation	1225	0	1225
Denitrification	1805	501	2306
Nitrification	231	96	327
Nitrogen mineralization	615	817	1432
Carbon cycling	3706	891	4598
Carbon fixation	739	279	1018
Cellulose degradation	1213	72	1285
Lignin degradation	625	90	715
Chitin degradation	651	93	744
Methane production	194	243	437
Methane oxidation	243	93	336
Others	245	21	266
Sulfate reduction	1286	329	1615
Phosphorus utilization	89	36	125
Metal reduction and resistance	4038	107	4145
Cerium resistance	725	102	827
Iron resistance	22	43	65
Lithium resistance	303	15	318
Chromium resistance	439	109	548
Nickel resistance	135	18	153
Zinc resistance	139	18	157
Other metals and metalloids	1450	182	1632
Other metal resistance/reduction	590	30	620
Chemical degradation	6642	1087	7729
BTX and related aromatics	3522	324	4176
Chlorinated aromatics	75	11	86
Nitroaromatics	134	18	152
Heterocyclic aromatics	176	37	213
Hydrocarbons (e.g. PAHs)	507	144	741
Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)	302	83	385
Chlorinated alkenes	179	34	213
Pesticides	304	24	328
Other chemicals & by-products	1297	160	1457
Others	21	0	21
Total	19,659	4284	24,243

GeoChip

- provide information on biogeochemical processes and functional activities of microbial communities relevant to human health, agriculture, energy, global climate change, ecosystem management, and environmental cleanup and restoration.
- provide direct linkages of microbial genes/populations to ecosystem processes and functions.



Where to?

- Comparative metagenomics of microbial communities
- Environmental proteomic studies
- Integration of community Genomics and functional assays in situ

Allen and Banfield, 2005