



METAGENOMICS: UNRAVELLING THE UNCULTURED MICROBIAL COMMUNITY

IBRAHIM I. HUSSEIN^{1*}

¹Department of Microbiology, Gombe State University, P.M.B. 127 Gombe, Nigeria *Correspondence: satken13@gmail.com; h.ibrahim@gsu.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

The discovery of the traditional culturing techniques for microorganisms in the laboratory has remained a classical landmark attained in the field of microbiology and sustained as the earliest methods used in the study of microbial physiology, functions and diversity by microbiologists. However, many studies now evidently portrayed these traditional culturing methods significantly unreflective of the uncultured microbial population. Thus, implying these historic microbiological techniques failing to capture the full spectrum of microbial diversity in an environment. Providentially, three decades ago, metagenomics has opened new avenues of research by enabling unprecedented analyses of genome heterogeneity and evolution in environmental contexts and providing access to far more microbial diversity than previously analysed. This new concept in microbial investigation has thrived in establishing the identity of microorganisms in diverse environments and allow a reasonable estimate of their functionality without the need for their cultivation. Metagenomics currently merged with the next-generation sequencing enabled the unravelling and functional exploitation of the uncultured microbial world, and conceivably transformed the archaic perception of microbial ecologists. Therefore, this review reflects on the traditional cultivation technique and the milestone attained since the dawn of metagenomics, with furtherance to the in-depth applications of the new age metagenomics approach in contemporary microbial studies, its challenges and future outlook.

Keywords: Metagenomics, Next-generation sequencing, Traditional culturing, Uncultured microbial world, Function-driven metagenomics.

INTRODUCTION

Before the advent of molecular approaches, the traditional culture method was a norm to study and evaluate microbial physiology, genetics and diversity in different environments. This earliest microbiological approach has profited the scientific world in microbial terms of morphological identification, characterisation and genetic expression principally relying on its unique capability of physical isolation of microorganisms from different

Consequently, environments. microbiologists became attracted to the strength and precision of the study of microorganisms in pure culture. This milestone in the field of microbiology became essential an prelude to characterization of microbes in the laboratory (Pace et al., 1986), and made scientists presume lots have been discovered in the world of microorganisms until almost three decades ago when it was discovered that only 1% or less of microbial



community have been studied via culture approach (Torsvik *et al.*, 1990; Torsvik and Ovreas, 2002; Kirk *et al.*, 2004), - this now showcase the limitation of the cultivation approach denoting vast majority of microbial population are practicably unculturable in the laboratory (Torsvik *et al.*, 1990).

Nonetheless, Simu and Hagstrom (2004), stated the various reasons bacteria may be recalcitrant to culturing which include lack of necessary nutrients, symbionts, incorrect combinations of temperature, pressure, or atmospheric gas composition, excess inhibitory compounds, accumulation of toxic products waste from their metabolism, and intrinsically slow growth rate or rapid dispersion from colonies. With these limitless constraints and the deficient knowledge on the diverse appropriate culturing conditions of microbes in their natural habitat, microbiologists are still much distant from accessing the uncultured majority via the traditional cultivation methods.

Staley and Konopka (1985) reported that one of the indicators that cultured microorganisms did not represent much of the microbial world was the oft-observed "great plate count anomaly", and Handelsman (2004)highlighted this discrepancy is between the sizes of populations estimated by dilution plating and by microscopy; then the big unearthing that only 0.1 to 1% of bacteria in soil are readily culturable on common media under standard conditions (Torsvik et al., 1990; Torsvik and Ovreas, 2002) - these and other significant studies (e.g., Colwell et al., 1996; Colwell and Grimes 2000) suggested that culturing techniques has failed to capture the full spectrum of microbial diversity. An important study by Torsvik et *al.*, (1990) produced the first work on soil bacteria diversity which demonstrated with DNA-DNA reassociation techniques that the complexity of the bacterial DNA in the soil was at least 100-fold greater than could be accounted for by culturing methods, and this work suggested that the diversity of the uncultured microbial world exceeded previous estimates.

In a bid to solve the problem of the uncultured world of microorganisms, microbiologist resort to metagenomics, thus expanding the study of unculturable microbe beyond identification, ecology and diversity, currently focusing on the functionality of these uncultured population. This article reiterates the earliest glory of the traditional cultivation approach in the identification. characterisation and accessing the physiology of microbial world, while portraying its huge limitation and gap in unravelling the genuine microbial diversity in the environment. Based on the subject, this review discusses the metagenomics as a suited alternative in terms of picturing true microbial diversity in most environments or samples approach instinctive due to recent advancement in the combined fields of microbiology, molecular biology and biotechnology.

METAGENOMICS: A CULTURE-INDEPENDENT APPROACH FOR ACCESSING THE UNCULTURED POPULATION

Metagenomics has opened new avenues of research by enabling unprecedented analyses of genome heterogeneity and evolution in environmental contexts and providing access to far more microbial diversity than previously viewed in the petri



dish (Handelsman, 2004). As realised, the probable magnitude of the soil metagenome, encompassing the collective genomes of microbes in the soil, requires large-scale approaches for analysis, this is inaccessible via the old-style cultivation methods thus demands culture-independent approaches (Rondon et al., 2000). The advent of metagenomic technology has now made it possible to make a more comprehensive assessment of the scope of the microbial biodiversity present in the environment or sample, also to determine of the potential geochemical some functions of these microbial communities (Delmont et al., 2011; Eisen, 2007; Handelsman et al., 1998). This new concept in microbial science has now opened the mind of the scientific community concerning the astonishingly large catalogue of biochemical functions in nature be harnessed (Luana et al., 2018).

Aside from accessing the genuine microbial diversity, molecular approaches that involve direct evaluation of genetic from environment material an (metagenomics) and other -omics methods such as proteomics or transcriptomics, are valuable in assessing the extremely biodegradation potential in environmental samples (Chakraborty et al., 2012; Lovley, 2003; Zhai and Ma, 2012). In a factual sense, these approaches also provide an avenue for a solid hypothesis regarding the protagonist of the degradation process and to predict the likely degradation pathway (Dojka et al., 1998).

Metagenomics, an approach based on analyses of environmental gene libraries has broadened the scope by enabling researchers to study uncultivable bacteria as well, this method permits to link potential functions to specific microorganisms in a habitat (Rondon et al., 2000; Scmeisser et al., 2007), but only in a predictable stance. In this case, interest in establishing the identity of microorganisms in the diverse environment and allow a reasonable estimate of their functionality without the need for their cultivation has manifested a recent rapid increase in the use of metagenomics approach. Thus, metagenomic approach has broadly established the new basis to gain access to the physiology and genetics of uncultured organisms, this genomic analysis of a population of microorganisms has emerged as a powerful centrepiece. Direct isolation of genomic DNA from an environment circumvents limitations of culturing the organisms under study; and cloning of it into a cultured organism captures it for study and preservation (Handelsman, 2004). Consequently, advances have been derived from sequence-based and functional analysis in samples from water, soil and associated with eukaryotic hosts (Handelsman, 2004).

One of the earliest breakthroughs in metagenomics was attained in 1991 when the research team of Schmidt generated the first metagenomic library using DNA from marine picoplankton (Schmidt et al., 1991), then the subsequent construction of metagenomic libraries from an enriched consortium sampled from cellulose digesters to mine genes encoding cellulases by Healy et al., (1995). In 1998, the term "metagenome" evolved when Handelsman et al., (1998) described the mining for novel chemical compounds from uncultured microorganisms, which comprises more than 99% of the microbial diversity (Sleator et al., 2008) thus proposing the emergence of a new frontier in science. However, the term "metagenomic libraries" was coined in



the year 2000 by Rondon et al., (2000) who generated libraries in the Bacterial Artificial Chromosome (BACs) using DNA from soil samples. Importantly, the metagenomic study of the Sargasso Sea has further allowed the identification of 148 previously unknown rRNA bacterial phylotypes. Besides. this shotgun sequencing of the Sargasso Sea led to the discovery of almost 70 thousand novel genes among the roughly 1.2 million genes by open reading frame (ORF) identification and alignment of the putative protein products (Venter et al., 2004). This Sargasso study became one of the most widely used illustrative instances of how metagenomics is a feasible way to accumulate genomic knowledge (Luana et al., 2018). All these mentioned, and many earliest metagenomic studies put-together caved the historical basis of this crucial metagenomic approach.

Sequenced-based Metagenomics

The sequenced-based metagenomics is sequence-driven purposely the metagenomic approach, where isolated DNA from an environmental sample is cloned into a suitable vector (a plasmid that can be stably maintained in an organism) and transformed into a host bacterium; importantly, these clones are further sequenced randomly to identify and provide genetic information of microorganisms in the environmental samples (Tyson et al., 2004; Venter et al., 2004). Sequence analysis guided by the identification of phylogenetic markers is a powerful approach initially proposed by the DeLong group, which produced the first genomic sequence linked to a 16S rRNA gene of an uncultured archaeon (Stein et al., 1996).

Recent studies have shown that the characterization of the microbial diversity through the sequencing of 16S rRNA gene is probably the most used metagenomic approach (Chakraborty et al., 2012; Lovley, 2003) because the help of next-generation sequencing (e.g., 454 Pyrosequencing and Illumina) has made it possible to obtain an almost complete picture of the composition of a microbial community, and further phylogenetic information is then used to infer the functionality of the microbial community and to hypothesize about the degradation pathways used in the breakdown process (Dojka et al., 1998).

The key disparity of this molecular method with the traditional culturing method is the fact that entire clades emerge that have never been cultivated in pure culture, this resort back to the reasonable claim about the cultivation approach being unreflective of the uncultured population thus the information about their metabolic pathways is incomplete or probably non-existent. Moreover, phylogenetic similarity does not necessarily mean shared physiology or metabolic capacity (Lovley, 2003).

Sequenced-based metagenome analysis can involve complete sequencing of clones containing phylogenetic anchors that indicate the taxonomic group that is the probable source of the DNA fragment; Otherwise, random sequencing can be conducted to identify gene of interest then phylogenetic anchors can be sought in the flanking DNA to provide a link of phylogeny with the functional gene (Handelsman, 2004). The next-generation sequencing technology (e.g., Illumina) are mostly exploited to sequence full metagenomes, an approach that provides a complete picture of the functions and metabolic potential of the microbial



community (Zhai and Ma, 2012; Schloss and Handelsman, 2005). Other metagenomics studies (e.g., Iwai et al., (2009))employed the gene target metagenomics, where functional gene analysis was performed by applying a PCRbased approach together with a sequencing technology (pyrosequencing). This approach may provide an in-depth insight into the target functional gene analysis coupled with providing quantitative and genotypic insight of the target genes of interest. This sequenced-typed metagenomic approach is now commonly used to acquire an in-depth insight into the biodegradation potential and the main pathways involved in the degradation process as related in studies by Mason et al., (2005) and Yergeau et al., (2012).

Function-driven Metagenomics

Function-driven metagenomics analysis is a non-sequenced-based metagenomics that involves isolation of DNA from an environmental sample, then cloning the DNA into suitable vector а and transforming the clones into a host bacterium, and further screening of the resulting transformants (Handelsman, 2003); these clones can be screened for phylogenetic markers such as 16S rRNA or other conserved genes by hybridization or multiplex PCR (e.g. Stein et al., 1996) or expression of specific traits, such as enzyme activity or antibiotic production (Courtois et al., 2003; Schloss and Handelsman. 2003). Therefore. this functional metagenomics objectively identifies genes that code for a function of interest (Luana et al., 2018), which involves the generation of expression libraries with thousands of metagenomic clones followed

by activity-based screenings (Guazzaroni *et al.*, 2015).

The idea of cloning DNA directly from environmental samples was first proposed by Pace et al., (1986) and in 1991, the first such cloning in a phage vector was reported by Schmidt et al., (1991) and this led to the advancement which was next the construction of a metagenomic library with DNA derived from a mixture of organisms enriched on dried grasses in the laboratory (Healy *et al.*, 1995) as previously mentioned. The greatest strength of the functional-driven metagenomics is the fact is that it does not require the genes of interest be recognizable by sequence analysis, this makes it the only nonsequencing approach to metagenomics that has the potential to identify entirely new classes of genes for new or known functions. significant However, the limitation is that many genes, will not be expressed in any particular host bacterium selected for cloning, these genes are required to be expressed in Escherichia coli or another domesticated bacterium to be detected (Handelsman, 2004). This functional analysis approach has been applied to identify several degradative enzymes (Henne et al., 2000), novel antibiotics (Courtois et al., 2003; Gillespie et al., 2002), and antibiotic resistance genes (Riesenfeld et al., 2004).

Handelsman. (2004)described this Heterologous gene expression functionaldriven approach as a powerful yet challenging approach to metagenomic analysis employed to identify clones that express a function, of which success requires faithful transcription and translation of the gene or genes of interest and secretion of the gene product if the requires it to screen or assay be



extracellular (such as purification and characterization of enzyme of interest). The diversity of the organisms whose DNA has been successfully expressed in E. coli is astonishing (e.g. Cha'vez et al., 1995), nonetheless heterologous expression remains a barrier to obtaining the optimal information from functional metagenomics analyses. Rondon et al., (2000) reported cloning-based approach provides a route to study the phylogenetic, physical, and functional properties of the metagenome, and, complements existing approaches to exploit the genetic diversity of non-cultured microbes.

CURRENT APPLICATIONS OF METAGENOMICS

Handelsman, (2004)specified that microbiology has long relied on assorted methods for analysis, among is metagenomics which can provide the tools to balance the abundance of knowledge attained from the culturing technique plus a broader understanding of most of the microbial life. The current application of metagenomics has streamed passed initial motive of accessing the uncultured microbial communities via diversity study, as this is now applied as a powerful approach in most microbial ecological, genetics and degradation studies.

In reiteration, the metagenomics has surpassed the cultivation technique in capturing genuine microbial diversity population, but its constraint must be acknowledged in identifying the low abundance species and relating their most focused metabolic and degradative roles. This has now fruitfully inspired its application in combination with other cultivation-independent techniques such as stable isotope probing, metatranscriptomics to practically mitigate these constraints as mostly prioritised in combined approach studies. A key instance is a study of Uhlík et al., (2008) which demonstrated the coupling of DNA Stableisotope probing (DNA-SIP) with а metagenomic approach to eliminates the weakness of these approaches, as a result, stated that complete operons can be identified combining DNA-SIP with metagenomics analysis. Therefore, with this present-day wider application of the metagenomic approach, a large amount of data has been generated while impacting dissimilar areas of high applicability in our world today such as microbial gene mining; thus, we can only imagine the limitless outreach of metagenomic studies in our future research world.

FUTURE PERSPECTIVE

At the inception of the metagenomics, the the application of first sequencing technology termed Sanger sequencing provided huge progress in the journey of metagenomic studies (Gillespie et al., 2002; Uchiyawa et al., 2005). However, Sanger surfaced with its limitations regardless of its then achievements. Providentially, the advent of Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) technologies capable of sequencing millions of DNA fragments simultaneously has greatly reinforced this crucial field (Sunagawa et al., 2015; Oulas, et al., 2015). Consequently, the prospect of metagenomics may not do without the nextgeneration sequencing (NGS) technology, as these have boosted the panorama of metagenomics as perceived in many recent ground-breaking metagenomic studies. Luana et al., (2018) also agreed that many





of the advances in metagenomics can be credited to novel sequencing approaches and the development of new computational methodologies to analyse the generated data.

The NGS is being exploited to sequence full metagenomes, consequently, providing a broad picture of the functions and metabolic potential of the microbial community studied (Zhai and Ma, 2012; Schloss and Handelsman, 2005). The development of this high throughput sequencing platforms in the 1990s has enabled the production of thousands to millions of DNA reads at a lower cost compared to Sanger's and this has hugely impacted and transformed the field of microbial ecology in terms metagenomics research outputs (Turnbaugh et al., 2009). Furthermore, applying the Illumina sequencing with the metagenomic approach is commonly used to acquire an in-depth insight into the biodegradation potential and pathways involved in the degradation process (Mason et al., 2012; Yergeau et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the detection of unknown genes is a key issue limiting its full exploitation (Schloss and Handelsman, 2005). Regardless, the NGS has unravelled huge, significant and extremely informative data useful today for ecological studies, inferences and as references in several databases. Even though processing and analysis of sequencing data are mostly cumbersome and tedious, especially in the terms of gene assembly often requiring certain bioinformatics expertise. Sharpton, (2014) stated that the possibility of gene assembly with the shotgun metagenome sequencing which enables characterization of the functionality of microbes have further appraised the shotgun type of Illumina sequencing technique although the process of gene assembly is mostly regarded much tasking and timeconsuming. On this ground, the prospective application of the NGS for metagenomics has not been fully exploited, the synergy could still discover untold relevant benefits of metagenomics and other advanced microbiological techniques while complimenting and resolving individual experimental limitations.

The distant prospect of metagenomics may be only predictable following the trend of advancement in sequencing technology, thus until current issues with the processing and analysis of the larger metagenome data generated is resolved, scientist in the field of metagenomics would not relent until a novel short-cut is discovered on how to access the biological components of sequenced metagenome without the tedious but much-needed bioinformatics analysis. Fortunately, scientists are optimistic this resolve may come sooner than expected -acase of path towards this novelty may have started as seen with Luana et al., (2018) who proposed the construction of novel synthetic circuits that can detect enzymatic activities or target gene output present in the cloned metagenomic fragment aimed towards improving the screening efficiency of metagenomic libraries. Alternatively, researchers would have to solve the puzzle of unravelling microbial communities in complex metagenome (without employing the functional or sequencing route) from the source by proposing a novelty approach.

CONCLUSION

Though the traditional cultivation method has its merits largely enjoyed by microbiologist before the advent of metagenomics. The most unique feature is



the aptitude to practically isolate various microorganisms on a petri dish and the appreciation of their expressed genotypic features has been phenomenal, and still cherished by an arty microbiologist. Yet this has been factually tagged and proved unreflective of the actual microbial population and termed unrepresentative of genuine microbial diversity in most environment. Gladly, the advancement in microbiology has allowed researchers to further explore life diversity improving phylogenetic, genomic, and ecological notions previously established with the traditional cultivation approach. This metagenomics has expanded and reshaped our understanding of certain microbial properties in a diverse environment in terms of their structure, diversity, richness, and dynamics of microbial communities. The current application of metagenomics has bred several laudable findings and discoveries especially in unravelling the majority uncultured microbial world, and the apt shift to the use of NGS technology has generated an increasing amount of data that is indirectly proportional to its biological significance. Consequently, the development of novel high-throughput bioinformatics tools and platforms highly specific and efficient for sequences analysis is paramount to care for the massive data generated in this research circle. This is expected to further unravel more beneficial uncultured communities and novel genes biodegradation and biocatalytic with potentials for industrial exploitation and bioremediation applications.

REFERENCES

Cha´vez S, Reyes JC, Cahuvat F, Florencio FJ, and Candau P. (1995), The NADP-glutamate dehydrogenase of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* 6803: cloning, transcriptional analysis and disruption of the *gdhA* gene. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 28:173–188.

- Chakraborty R, Wu CH, Hazen TC. (2012), Systems biology approach to bioremediation. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 23, pp. 483-490.
- Colwell RR, Brayton PR, Harrington D, Tall BD, Huq A, and Levine MM. (1996), Viable but non-culturable *Vibrio cholerae* O1 revert to a cultivable state in the human intestine. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 12: PP 28–31.
- Colwell, RR, and Grimes DJ, (ed.). (2000), Nonculturable microorganisms in the environment. ASM Press, Washington, D.C. vol. 8, no. 1, PP 52–64.
- Courtois S, Cappellano CM, Ball M, Francou FX, Normand P, Helynck G, Martinez A, Kolvek SJ, Hopke J, Osburne MS, August PR, Nalin R, Guerineau M, Jeannin P, Simonet P, and Pernodet JL. (2003), Recombinant environmental libraries provide access to microbial diversity for drug discovery from natural products. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 69: PP 49–55.
- Delmont, TO, Robe, PR, Clark I, Simonet P, and Vogel TM. (2011), Metagenomic comparison of direct and indirect soil DNA extraction approaches. J. Microbiol. Methods 86, PP 397–400.
- Dojka MA, Hugenholtz P, Haack SK, Pace NR. (1998), Microbial diversity in a hydrocarbon-and solvent-contaminated undergoing intrinsic



bioremediation. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 64, pp.3869-3877.

- Eisen JA, (2007). Environmental shot-gun sequencing: it's potential and challenges for studying the hidden world of microbes. *PLoS Biol.* 5:e82.
- Gillespie DE, Brady SF, Bettermann AD, Cianciotto NP, Liles MR, Rondon MR, Clardy J, Goodman RM, Handelsman J (2002), Isolation of antibiotics turbomycin A and B from a metagenomic library of soil microbial DNA. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, vol. 68, no. 9, PP 4301–4306.
- Guazzaroni ME, Silva-Rocha R, and Ward RJ, (2015), Synthetic biology approaches to improve biocatalyst identification in metagenomic library screening, *Microbial Biotechnology*,
- Handelsman J, Rondon MR, Brady SF, Clardy J, and Goodman RM (1998), Molecular biological access to the chemistry of unknown soil microbes: a new frontier for natural products. *Chem. Biol.* 5, PP 245– 249.
- Handelsman J. (2004), Metagenomics: Application of genomics to uncultured microorganisms. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews : MMBR*, 68(4).
- Healy FG, Ray RM, Aldrich HC, Wilkie AC, IL O, and Shanmugam KT (1995) Direct isolation of functional genes encoding cellulases from the microbial consortia in a thermophilic, anaerobic digester maintained on lignocellulose. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 43:667–674.

- Henne A, Schmitz RA, Bomeke M, Gottschalk G, Daniel R (2000), Screening of environmental DNA libraries for the presence of genes conferring lipolytic activity on *Escherichia coli. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 66: PP 3113–3116.
- Iwai S, Johnson TA, Chai B, Hashsham SA, Tiedje JM (2011), Comparison of the specificities and efficacies of primers for aromatic dioxygenase gene analysis of environmental samples." Applied and Environmental Microbiology 77: PP 3551–57.
- Kirk JL, Beaudette LA, Hart M, Moutoglis P, Klironomos JN, Lee H, Trevors JT (2004), Methods of studying soil microbial diversity. *Journal Microbiological Methods*, 58: 169– 188.
- Lovley DR (2003), Cleaning up with genomics: applying molecular biology to bioremediation", *NATURE REVIEWS: Microbiology*, 1, PP 35-44.
- Luana de FA, Cauã AW, Gabriel LL, Guilherme MVS, Tiago CB, and María-Eugenia G, (2018), Metagenomic Approaches for Understanding New Concepts in Microbial Science *Hindawi International Journal of Genomics* Vol. 2018, 2312987, PP 15.
- Mason JR, Bagneris C, Cammack R (2005), Subtle difference between benzene and toluene dioxygenases of Pseudomonas putida. *Applied Environmental Microbiol.*, 71(3): PP 1570–1580.
- Oulas A, Pavloudi C, Polymenakou P, Pavlopoulos GA, Papanikolaou N, Kotoulas G, Arvanitidis C,



Iliopoulos L, (2015), Metagenomics: tools and insights for analyzing next-generation sequencing data derived from biodiversity studies. *Bioinformatics and Biology Insights*, vol. 9, PP BBI.S12462–BBI.S12488.

- Pace NR, Stahl DA, Lane DJ, Olsen GJ (1986), The analysis of natural microbial populations by ribosomal RNA sequences. *Adv. Microb. Ecol.* 9: PP 1–55.
- Riesenfeld CS, Goodman RM, Handelsman J (2004), Uncultured soil bacteria are a reservoir of new antibiotic resistance genes. *Environ. Microbiol.* 6: PP 981–989.
- Rondon MR, August PR, Bettermann AD, Brady SF, Grossman TH, Liles MR, Loiacono KA, Lynch BA, MacNeil IA, Minor C, Tiong CL, Gilman M, Osburne MS, Clardy J, Handelsman J, Goodman RM. (2000), Cloning the soil metagenome: a strategy for accessing the genetic and functional diversity of uncultured microorganisms. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 66: PP 2541–7.
- Schloss PD, Handelsman J. (2003), Biotechnological prospects from metagenomics. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* 14: PP 303–310.
- Schloss PD, Handelsman J. (2005), Metagenomics for studying unculturable microorganisms: cutting the Gordian knot. *Genome Biology*, 6(8)229.
- Schmeisser C, Steele H, Streit WR (2007), Metagenomics, biotechnology with non-culturable microbes. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol;* 75: PP 955– 62.

- Schmidt TM, DeLong EF, Pace NR (1991), Analysis of a marine picoplankton community by 16S rRNA gene cloning and sequencing. J. Bacteriol. 173: PP 4371–4378.
- Sharpton T J (2014), An introduction to the analysis of shotgun metagenomic data. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, *5*, PP 209.
- Simu K, Hagstrom A (2004), Oligotrophic bacterioplankton with a novel single-cell life strategy. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 70: PP 2445– 2451.
- Sleator RD, Shortall C, Hill C, (2008), Metagenomics. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, vol. 47, no. 5, PP 361–366.

Staley JT, and Konopka A (1985), Measurement of in situ activities of non-photosynthetic microorganisms in aquatic and terrestrial habitats. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* 39: PP 321–346.

- Stein JL, Marsh TL, Wu KY, Shizuya H, and DeLong EF (1996), Characterization of uncultivated prokaryotes: isolation and analysis of a 40- kilobase-pair genome fragment front a planktonic marine archaeon. J. Bacteriol. 178: PP 591–599.
- Sunagawa S, Coelho LP, Chaffron S, Kultima JR, Labadie K, Salazar G, *et al.*, (2015), Structure and function of the global ocean microbiome," *Science*, vol. 348, no. 6237, article 1261359.
- Torsvik V, Goksoyr J, Daae FL (1990), High diversity in DNA of soil bacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 56: PP 782–787.



- Torsvik, Vigdis, and Lise Ovreås. (2002). Microbial Diversity and Function in Soil: From Genes to Ecosystems. *Current Opinion in Microbiology* 5: 240–45. doi:10.1016/S1369-5274(02)00324-7.
- Turnbaugh PJ, Ridaura VK, Faith JJ, Rey FE, Knight R, Gordon JI, (2009), The effect of diet on the human gut microbiome: a metagenomic analysis in humanized gnotobiotic mice. *Science Translational Medicine*, vol. 1, no. 6, p. 6ra14.
- Tyson GW, Chapman J, Hugenholtz P, Allen EE, Ram RJ, Richardson PM, Solovyev VV, Rubin EM, Rokhsar DS, Banfield JF (2004), Community structure and metabolism through reconstruction of microbial genomes from the environment. *Nature* 428: PP 37– 43.
- Uchiyama T, Abe T, Ikemura T, Watanabe K, (2005), Substrate-induced geneexpression screening of environmental metagenome libraries for isolation of catabolic genes. *Nature Biotechnology*, vol. 23, no. 1, PP 88–93.

- Uhlík, Ondrej, Katerina Jecná, Mary Beth Leigh, Martina Macková, and Tomas Macek. (2009), DNA-based stable isotope probing: A link between community structure and function. *Science of the Total Environment* 407 (12) (6/1): PP 3611-9.
- Venter JC, Remington K, Heidelberg JF, Halpern AL, Rusch D, Eisen JA, Wu D, Paulsen I, Nelson KE, Nelson W, Fouts DE, Levy S, Knap AH, Lomas MW, Nealson K, White O, Peterson J, Hoffman J, Parsons R, Baden-Tillson H, Pfannkoch C, Rogers Y-H, Smith HO. (2004), Environmental genome shotgun sequencing of the Sargasso Sea. *Science*, 304: PP 66 –74.
- Yergeau E, Sanschagrin S, Beaumier D, Greer CW (2012), Metagenomic analysis of the bioremediation of diesel-contaminated Canadian high Arctic soils. *PloS ONE*, 7(1), e30058.
- Zhai G, Ma J, (2012), Microbial Bioremediation in Omics era: Opportunities and Challenges. Journal of Bioremediation & Biodegradation, 3, PP 120.