ISSN (print):2218-0230, ISSN (online): 2412-3986, DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.21271/zjpas

RESEARCH PAPER

Microarray analyses of the infant gut microbiota

Lubna Ahmed Abdulkarim1, Chra Saed Abdulla2, Farhad Tahir Mahmod3

- 1- Department Environmental Sciences, College of Science, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Kurdistan Region, Iraq.
- 2- Department of Animal source, College of Agriculture, Salahaddin University- Erbil, Kurdistan Region, Iraq.
- 3-Food Safety Authority, Norway.

ABSTRACT:

To detect the cause of germ free infant gut become colonization after birth and develops though the pregnancy for mother, 4 days, 10 days. 4 months, 1 year to 2 years is important, which has strong relationship with health and disease infant. This research was carried out at the experimental laboratory of molecular microbiology department at Norwegian University Of Life Science, College of NMBU, Ås la Norge / Norway, during Jan 2015 to get more information about the development of microbiota in infant. The pattern of colonizers is different at the different age. The purify faecal sample DNA perform universal amplification of the 16Sr RNA to the determination of gut microbiota by the GA-map infant array and 454 pyrosequencing. The results showed implicating the *Bifidobacteria* and *Firmicutes* that present in great amount during the development of the infant gut microbiota with reach to peak at the age of several weeks. A temporal trend in the microbiota composition was also detected which indicates the usefulness of this method for determining the temporal dynamics of the infant gut development.

KEY WORDS:

Microbiota ,Gut, Fecal,Infant.

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.21271/ZJPAS.31.3.8

ZJPAS (2019), 31(3);52-63.

INTRODUCTION:

The human gastrointestinal tract is densely populated by a large amount microbial ecosystem. One adult human whole organ bears generally more microbial cells than body cells whereas only our intestinal tract contains 100 trillion microbes and the vast majority microbes (10¹¹-10¹²) have found in our colon (Whitman *et al.*, 1998). Though there is a

* Corresponding Author:

Lubna A. Abdulkarim

E-mail: <u>lubna.abdulkarim@su.edu.krd</u>

Article History:

Received: 27/11/2018 Accepted: 22/04/2019 Published: 18/06/2019 universal relationship between the host and its gut microbiota, vast majority is still now unknown. The microbial communities inhabiting our gut offer evolutionary conserved services like synthesizing essential molecules, strengthening our immune system, enhancing nutrient uptake, stimulating angiogenesis, and regulating host fat storage (Marzorati *et al.*, 2011; Palmer *et al.*, 2007 and Woodmansey, 2007).

Unfortunately, some of these organisms are opportunistic pathogens, and many can cause harm if the normal and healthy community composition in the host is altered (Round and Mazmanian, 2009 and Woodmansey, 2007). The development of the human infant gut microbiota is yet known little which is mainly due to methodological constraints. The workload associated generating and analyzing microbiota data and the complexity are the current challenges.

Children with antibiotic treatment and caesarean delivery represent major perturbations of the microbiota (Marques et al., 2010 and Rudi et al., 2007a). Early colonizers are staphylococci and streptococci whereas clostridia and Bifidobacteria increase with age (Trosvik et al., 2009). The pattern of early colonization is important because this leads the immune system not respond properly later in life (Kalliomaki et al., 2001). Therefore, an understanding of the gut microbiota development in infants has the possibility to develop strategies to modify the microbiota for the current epidemics in allergic development in the western world. The change of lifestyle or use of antibiotic can thus strong affect prevalence of selected gastrointestinal microbes playing an essential role in normal gut development and health (Woodmansey, Some time it can cause diseases like intestinal cancer, necrotizing enterocolitis and inflammatory bowel disease in infants (Palmer et al., 2007; Round and Mazmanian, 2009 and Sekelja et al., 2011). Any change in the optimal environment in the gut, due to change in ratio between microbis, linked to increase diseases such as and this asthma, allergic disorders and obesity (Blaser and Falkow, 2009; Flint, 2011; Kalliomaki etal., 2001; Nakayama et al., 2011; Round and Mazmanian, 2009 and Sekelja et al., 2011).

The characteristics of the gene encoding the 16S ribosomal RNA (Woese, 1987), is useful for classification of both higher taxa and closely related species, and used in combination with different molecular techniques to analyze bacterial diversity (Blaser and Falkow, 2009; Momozawa et al., 2011; Nakayama et al., 2011; Rudi et al., 2007b and Zwielehner et al., 2009). Cloning and DNA sequencing is used for getting specific information out of unknown samples. Probe-based methods are generally used if the bacteria searched for are already known. Direct sequencing and electrophoreses-based methods such as DGGE, TGGE and T-RFLP are used for screening purposes and pattern recognition (Rudi, 2013).

Stool samples are very easy for study and analyzing bacterial diversity in the gut, but stool samples are not contain all a microbiota composition reflecting the one existing in the whole colon or small intestine (Marchesi, 2011), a stool sample only reflects the composition of

microbiota present in the lumen, not of that growing on the mucosal surface (Momozawa *et al.*, 2011 and Pedersen and Tannock, 1989). The studies of functional biofilms in the gastrointestinal tract are preferable to alternative approaches, but they are limited by the inaccessibility to most of the areas that together make up the digestive tract (Marchesi, 2011).

The distal gut has much attention by researchers because of it high microbial density (Whitman *et al.*, 1998), and easy accessibility. There are some claim that infant is not sterile at birth after all, because DNA from *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* has been detected in the infant placenta (Satokari *et al.*, 2009).

Some bacterial genera were detected in the meconium from 21 healthy newborns as recorded by (Jimenez *et al.*, 2008).

The relationship between human and microbiota is complex, and there is increasing in developing microbiological interventions as a strategy for preventing health problems and disease, more studies, more improvement of techniques is highly necessary to be able to answer. Lab experimental a 16S rRNA gene microarray approach was used to determine the development of the gut microbiota in a cohort of mothers and their infants from 4 days to 2 year of The rationale was that the temporal development of the infant gut microbiota is an important parameter for the health of the infant, and challenges with probe specificity and crossreactivity between closely related species was met by using highly specific single nucleotide primer extension (SNuPE) probes. The aim of this research to get more information about the development of microbiota in infant, results obtained by this study can give ideas of what has to be improved in future research.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Research was carried out at the experimental laboratory of molecular microbiology department at Norwegian University Of Life Science, College of of NMBU, Ås la Norge / Norway, during Jan 2015 to get more information about the development of microbiota in infant. Each group was processed four fecal samples from a

mother/child, in addition to a positive and a negative DNA purification control (8 samples in total). The infant fecal samples were collected during pregnancy for the mother, and at the age of 4 days, 10 days, 4 months, 1 year and 2 years.

The feces have been frozen immediately at -80°C to prevent degradation and bacterial growth.

The samples got as follows:

- 1. Late pregnant sample
- 2. 3 days sample
- 3. 10 days sample
- 4. 1 year sample
- 5. A positive control
- 6. A negative control

2.1. DNA isolation from stool samples:

To extract DNA from all species in all samples, bacterial cells in all samples where lyses by mechanical disruption using glass beads. For this, 40 mg stool sample was dissolved in 1200 μl binding buffer and 0.25 g of <106 µm glass beads. They was vortexes briefly and frozen down at -20°C. The cells were homogenized in the MagNA Lyser (6500 rpm in 2×20 sec) and it was kept on ice between each homogenisation step. It was then centrifuged at 13000 rpm for 5 min at RT and the supernatant was transferred to new microcentrifuge tube. 10 µl SiMAG/ MP-DNA Magnetic beads (200 mg/ml) were added and the sample (400 µl) was transferred with beads to the designated wells in the Sample plate. 1 ml of washing buffer 1 was aliquoted into the designated wells in Wash plate 1 and 1 ml of washing buffer II designated wells in Wash plate 2 and 1 ml of washing buffer III designated wells in Wash plate 3. Finally, 100µl elution buffer was aliquoted into the Elution plate and then ThermoScientific King Fisher® Flex robot was switched on. After the extraction was finished, the isolated DNA was in Elution plate (Rudi, 2013).

2.2. Quantification of genomic DNA.

For quantification of genomic DNA we used Quant-It Assay for Qbit.

2.3. PCR amplification by primers targeting universally conserved regions of the 16S rRNA gene:

Anew universal PCR, Cover All PCR amplifying an approximately 1200 pb region of the 16SrRNA gene was used for the amplification of universally conserved region of the 16SrRNA gene all six samples in addition with positive control (*E. coli* DNA) and negative control (water). After PCR amplification, to verify the quality of the PCR product we run it in Agarose gel electrophoresis and used 1 Kb ladder (N3232) for quantification. After visualized the bands from gel in UV light (Rudi, 2013).

2.4. PCR product quantification (picogreen reagent)

The PicoGreen fluorescence quantification was done with the FLX 800cse instrument which measurers the PicoGreen signal that evolves when the fluorochrome is bound to dsDNA (Rudi, 2013). This gives a specific measurement of the DNA present in the solution.

2.5. Array analyses

All samples from each group of the ExoSAP-treated PCR-products were labeled after the SNuPE principle, according the protocol (Rudi, 2013), depending on which probe set used, different bacteria can be detected with the microarray method. The probe designing strategy used for the GA- MapTM infant assay.

The GA-Map array method was based on the use of SNuPE labeled probes there are many probes are labeled in the same reaction. The SNuPE probes was made so that the probes hybridized adjacent to identified gene location if the target bacterium found then labeled was dideoxynucleotide was incorporated by the polymerase(Fig 1, 2).

The same protocol as for measurement of genomic DNA was used for PCR product quantification. In array analysis, 4 steps was followed as given below:

- 1. ExoI-SAP treatment for removing residual PCR primers and dephosphorylation inactivation of nucleotides used in PCR.
- 2. Probe endlabeling by SNuPE.
- 3. Hybridization of the labeled probes to their respective complementary oligonucleotides spotted on an array.
- 4. Scanning and analysis of hybridized array. The Exo-Sap treatment was done to make master mix for15µl PCR product and

added to the PCR wells. Then it was incubated on a thermal cycler. Then 8μ l of the master mixture was added to the wells. 2μ l template was added to the respective wells. 10μ l of this reaction was preceded for PCR (Rudi, 2013).

2.6. Array analyses by MAGPIX

The MAGPIX system is a versatile multiplexing platform capable of performing qualitative and quantitative analysis of proteins and nucleic acids in a variety of sample matrices. This affordable system requires less sample input than many other current technologies and can perform up to 50 tests in a single reaction volume, greatly reducing sample input, reagents and labour while improving productivity (Rudi, 2013).

2.7. Pyrosequencing

In the <u>DNA</u> sequencing depended on the <u>pyrophosphate</u> release when nucleotide incorporation by activity of <u>DNA</u> polymerase "Sequencing by synthesis". This method is based on identification of the activity of <u>DNA</u> polymerase after amplification all samples were mixed in a tube purified on column and then sending to the 454GSFLX instrument at the Norwegian High-Throughput Sequencing Centre (Rudi, 2013).

2.8. Purification of PCR product using E.Z.N.A. DNA purification kit

Added 250 µl of Buffer CP to 50 µl of mixed PCR product in a 1.5 ml tube, and vortexed thoroughly to mix; spined the tube to collect the drop from the inside of the lid. Then applyed the sample to the HiBind® DNA column with 2 ml collection tube and centrifuge at 15000 rpm for 1 min at (RT). After that centrifugation we washed the HiBind® DNA column with 700 µl of DNA Wash Buffer and centrifuge at 15000 rpm for 1 min at RT. Liquid discarded in the from 2 ml collection tube and repeated previous

centrifugation step using 500 µl of DNA Wash Buffer. Similarly discarded the liquid and centrifuge the empty HiBind® DNA column for per min at 15000 rpm. Then placed HiBind® DNA column into a clean 1.5 ml tube, added 30 µl of Elution Buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 8.5) onto the column matrix and centrifuge for 1 min at 15000 rpm to elute DNA. Than transfered eluted Elution Buffer with DNA from 1.5 ml back on the column, centrifuged as in previous step once again. The step is measurement of the the eluted DNA was performed by the Qubit Quant It assay (Rudi, 2013).

2.9. Probe Verification by Quantitive PCR

Quantitive PCR was done to enable accurate quantification of specific DNA targets.

For this two qPCR reactions were set up for each DNA sample. In one reaction, universal 16S rRNA gene primers and probes, and the reaction were with *Bifidobacterium longum* primers and probes.

3. RESULT AND DISCUTION

The study began with the purification of faecal DNA. For these 8 samples were preceded with a positive control and negative control. The positive control was to determine the technical errors in the DNA purification, while the negative control was to check potential contamination. All samples for were processed DNA isolation quantification of genomic DNA was performed by using both PicoGreen reagent measurement. As picogreen is light sensitive.

The PicoGreen measurements of the genomic DNA from the stool samples showed a successful extraction and the extraction gave good parallel results (**Fig, 1**).

The objective of this experiment is the determination of development the microbiota infant gut of human and to find out the correlation between health and disease detection and understand the diversity microbiota. For these 6 samples were preceded with a positive control and negative control. The positive control was to determine the technical errors in the DNA purification, while the negative control was to check potential contamination. All samples were processed for DNA isolation and quantification of genomic DNA was performed by using PicoGreen reagent and Qubit measure. In current experimental DNA extraction in combination with the use of Cover All primers was used (Fig, 11).

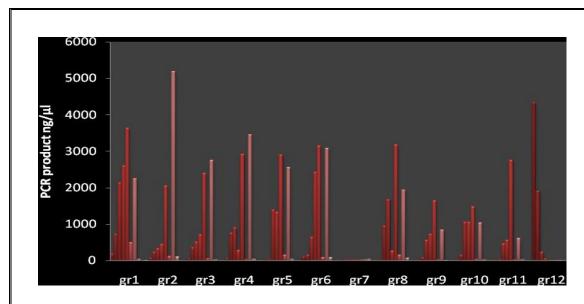


Fig 1: Amount of amplified DNA $(ng/\mu l)$ from the Coverall 16S rRNA PCR, quantified by using PicoGreen.

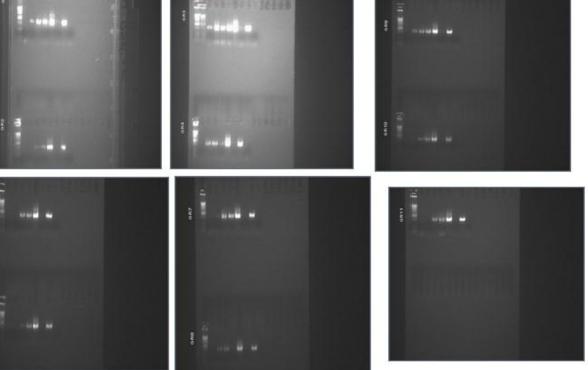


Fig 2: Agarose gel results of all samples showing the 16S rRNA bands and thus a successful. Amplification of genomic DNA in all samples(PCR amplification was performed using primer pairs GC-ZF and 1622R coupled with a GC-tail and run on DGGE to determine the banding pattern specific to each sample).

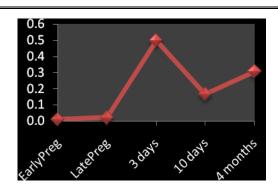


Fig3: Correlation between age (gr.2411) and Microarray $B.no\ longum$

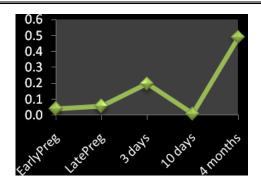


Fig4: Correlation between age gr.2411) and Microarray *B.longum*

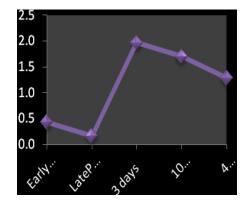


Fig5: Correlation between age (gr.2411) and pyrosequencing qPCR *B.longum*

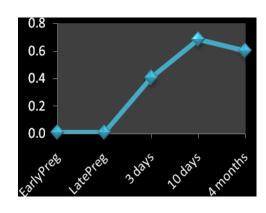


Fig6: Correlation between age (gr.2411) and B.longum/Total.

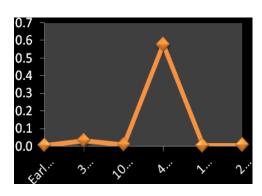


Fig7: Correlation between age (gr.2206) and microarray (gr.2206) and microarray *B.longum*

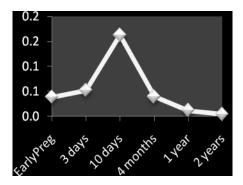


Fig8: Correlation between age *B.nolongum*.

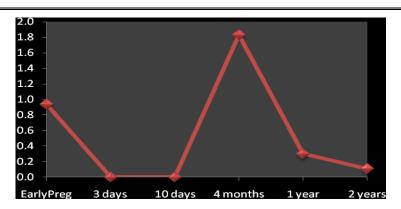


Fig9: Correlation between age (gr.2206) and qPCR B. longum.

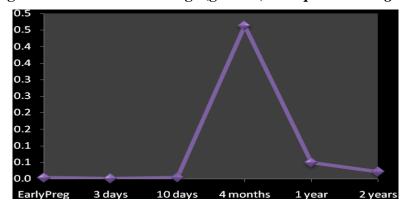


Fig10: Correlation between age (gr.2206) and pyrosequencing B. longum/Total.

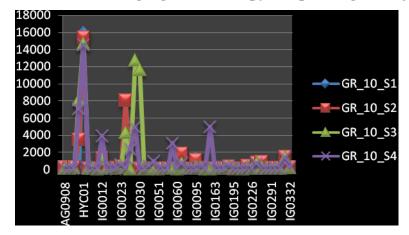


Fig 11: GA-map array the probes of bacteria in the sample of groups 10.

Table 1: List of target groups for Probe set $NEC\ v.\ 1.0$ showing different types of probes in the different stage of age.

Probe #	Bacteria
UNI05	Universal
IG0005	Proteobacteria
IG0178	Gamma-proteo group
IG0056	Gamma-proteobacteria subgroup
IG0011	Salmonella/Citrobacter/Cronobacter/Enterobacter/
	Morganella
IG0181	Klebsiella pneumonia/Aeromonas
IG0195	Klebsiella oxytoca/Pantoea agglomerans
IG0204	Serratia marcescens
IG0133	Shigella and E.coli
IG0008	Haemophilus
IG0039	Pseudomonas/Morganella morganii
IG0012	Firmicutes (separates on Streptococcus and some
	Clostridiales)
IG0023	Firmicutes (separates on Listeria, Veillonella and
	some Clostridiales)
IG0044	Clostridiales and Veillonellaceae
IG0058	Clostridiales and Veillonella
IG0103	Clostridium sporogenes
IG0163	Clostridium butyricum
IG0095	Anaerococcus prevotii
IG0107	Finegoldia magna
IG0051	Veillonella
IG0042	Gemella
IG0079	Streptococcus (β-haemolytic groupA and B, α-
	haemolytic)
IG0022	Streptococcus (β-haemolytic groupB, α-haemolytic)
IG0197	Streptococcus (α-haemolytic)
IG0081	Streptococcus agalacticae and Eubacterium rectale
IG0020	Streptococcus sanguinis and thermophilus
IG0171	Enterococcus faecalis
IG0024	Staphylococcus and Gemella
IG0063	Staphylococcus epidermidis, Eubacterium rectale,
	Clostridium SS2, Streptococcus agalactiae
IG0053	Lactobacilli
IG0021	Listeria sp. (and E. coli/Shigella)

The pesent study depended on correlation between age and colonization of Microbiota. (Fig, 11 and Table, 1) showed that some probe gave high signals with high values and some gave low signals with low value depend on the got ages, different types of signals in probe for different taxonomic groups of bacteria.

At the age 3 to 120 days Universal bacteria have increased whereas some bacteria have decreased.

The 16S rRNA-gene PCR, that was performed on the DNA extract, gave amplification of the 16S rRNA gene. In the Cover 16S rRNA-gene PCR products. All group get amount of DNA except group7 (**Fig, 2**).

16S rRNA gene microarray approaches to describe the gut microbiota. A major challenge with traditional 16S rRNA gene microarrays is probe specificity, and cross-reactivity between closely related species (Cox *et al.*, 2010). For microarrays this challenge has recently been addressed by tilling probes covering the variable region of the 16S rRNA gene (Rajilic-Stojanovic *et al.*, 2009) and by the use of highly specific single nucleotide primer extension (SNuPE) probes (Eggesbo *et al.*, 2011).

The principle by tilling is that a large number of overlapping probes cover the region of interest, with the combined probe signals providing a relatively good signal to noise ratio. The high specificity of the SNuPE assay is obtained by DNA polymerase based incorporation of a fluorescently labeled dideoxynucleotide (Syvanen *et al.*, 1990). The SNuPE probes are constructed so that the probes hybridize adjacent to discriminative gene positions.

If the target bacterium is present then a labeled dideoxynucleotide is incorporated by the polymerase (Vebo *et al.*, 2011).

The different sample parallels were inconsistently amplified in the Cover All PCR reaction and also the amount of DNA amplified did not reflect back on the originally amount from the DNA

extraction. DNA extraction methods and PCR primers used will always give biases regarding which bacteria that will be identified (Hong *et al.*, 2009).

This PCR was used to amplified 1200 bp region of the 16SrRNA. The size of Cover All PCR product was checked by agarose gel electrophoresis. The band we observed was 1200 bp. (**Fig, 2**) as expected. Therefore quantification of the PCR product was done using PicoGreen.

In the result of PCR product DNA quantification by PicoGreen where each group got same result in every sample only group 7 did not get the same data from there sample because of some mistake in the technique.

Similarly pyrosequencing also addresses for the analysis of gut microbiota. The process utilizes the sequencing primer which hybridized to a single – stranded PCR amplicon that serves as template. The first dNTP is incorporated to the DNA strand by polymerase if it is complementary to the base into the DNA strand. Each incorporation is accompanied by release of pyrophosphate.ATP sulphyrase converts pyrophosphate to ATP in presence of adenosine 5 phosphosulfate (Syvanen et al., 1990). This ATP helps to convert luciferin to oxyluciferin that generates visible light. The light produced is detected by charge coupled device chip and seen as peak in the program. The height of each peak is proportional to the number incorporated. nucleotides Apyrase, nucleotidedegrading enzyme, continuously degrades unincorporated nucleotides and ATP (Gharizadeh et al., 2007).

When degradation is complete, another nucleotide is added. The complementary DNA strand is built up as the process continues and the nucleotide sequence is determined from the signal peaks in the Pyrogram trace (Ronaghi, 2001).

microbiota was identified The gut determinate by the GA-map infant array and 454 pyrosequencing in which significance difference of bacteria. Several studies that reported Bifidobacteria as the months (Fig. 7) dominant microbiota of breast-fed infants by several weeks of age (Benno etal., 1984; Favier etal., 2002; Penders etal., 2006 and Stark and Lee, 1982). Result of current research showed that qPCR and pyrosequencing Bifidobacteria are increased in the 10 days to 4 after that the range decreased, that is mean the two methods are all dependable in the main stream.

When comparing two data seta from microarray and qPCR its clear that in group 2411 *B.longum* and B.not longum come to the highest value in day 3 while B.longum become less in the later

stage (**Fig 4, 5**), while the other type still increase. In group 2206 recorded that some types of Bifidobacterium become highest in 4 months (**Fig 9, 10**) and *B.nolongum* without B.longum become less after day 10 which means that *B.longum* remain dominant strain in the gut after that time.

There are no difference in the species of B.longum and B.non longum between IgE sensitive and non-sensitive children (Vebo *et al.*, 2011). This bacterium has a function in the temporal development of the infant intestine and a future aim of research could be to find out more around the connection of Bifidobacteria and breast-fed infants in stool samples.

4. CONCLUSION

- 1- The gut dominating Bifidobacteria can give more information about the development of microbiota in human gut in further research.
- 2- Understanding the gut microflora may be a milestone for developing strategies for intervening microflora in the reduction of allergic disorder in the developed world.

REFRENCES

- Arboleya, S.; Binetti, A.; Salazar, N.; Fernandez, N.; Solis, G.; Hernandez-Barranco, A.; Margolles, A.; Reyes-Gavilan, C. G de los. & Gueimonde, M. (2012). Establishment and development of intestinal microbiota in preterm neonates. Fems Microbiology Ecology 79:763-772.
- Bennet, R & Nord, CE. (1987). Development of the faecal anaerobic microflora after caesarean section and treatment with antibiotics in newborn infants. Infection 15: 332–336.
- Benno Y.; Sawada, K. & Mitsuoka, T. (1984). The intestinal microflora of infants: composition of fecal flora in breast-fed and bottle-fed infants. Microbiol Immunol 28: 975–986.
- Bezirtzoglou, E.; Tsiotsias, A. & Welling, G. W. (2011). Microbiota profile in feces of breast- and formula-fed newborns by using fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH). Anaerobe 17:478-482.
- Blaser, M. J. & Falkow, S. (2009). ESSAY What are the consequences of the disappearing human

- microbiota? Nature Reviews Microbiology 7:887-894.
- Cox, M. J.; Huang, Y. J.; Fujimura, K. E.; Liu, J. T.; McKean, M.; Boushey, H.; A.; Segal, M. R.; Brodie, E. L.; Cabana, M. D. & Lynch, S. V. (2010). Lactobacillus casei Abundance Is Associated with Profound Shifts in the Infant Gut Microbiome.
- Eggesbo, M.; Moen, B.; Peddada, S.; Baird, D.; Rugtveit, J.; Midtvedt, T.; Bushel, P. R.; Sekelja, M. & Rudi, K. (2011). Development of gut microbiota in infants not exposed to medical interventions. Apmis 119:17-35.
- Favier, C. F.; Vaughan E. E.; De Vos, W. M. & Akkermans, A. D. (2002). Molecular monitoring of succession of bacterial communities in human neonates. Appl Environ Microbiol 68: 219–226.
- Flint, H. J. (2011). Obesity and the Gut Microbiota. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology 45:S128-S132.
- Hallstrom, M.; Eerola, E.; Vuento, R.; Janas, M. and Tammela, O. (2004). Effects of mode of delivery and necrotising enterocolitis on the intestinal microflora in preterm infants. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 23: 463–470.
- Hong, S. H., Bunge, J.; Leslin, C.; Jeon, S. & Epstein, S. S. (2009). Polymerase chain reaction primers miss half of rRNA microbial diversity. Isme Journal 3:1365-1373.
- Jiménez. E.; Marín, ML.; Martín.,R.; Odriozola, J. M. & Olivares, M. (2008). Is meconium from healthy newborns actually sterile? Res Microbiol 159: 187– 193.
- Kalliomaki, M.; Kirjavainen, P.; Eerola, E.; Kero, P.; Salminen, S. & Isolauri, E. (2001). Distinct patterns of neonatal gut microflora in infants in whom atopy was and was not developing. The Journal of allergy and clinical immunology 107: 129-134.
- Marchesi, J. R (2011). Human distal gut microbiome. Environmental Microbiology 13:3088-3102.
- Marques, T. M.; Wall, R.; Ross, R. P.; Fitzgerald, G. F.; Ryan, C. A. &Stanton C (2010). Programming infant gut microbiota: influence of dietary and environmental factors. Curr Opin Biotechnol 21: 149-156.

- Marzorati, M.; Van den Abbeele, P.; Possemiers, S.; Benner, J.; Verstraete, W. & Van de Wiele, T. (2011). Studying the host-microbiota interaction in the human gastrointestinal tract: basic concepts and in vitro approaches. Annals of Microbiology 61:709-715.
- Momozawa, Y.; Deffontaine, V.; Louis, E. & Medrano, J. F. (2011). Characterization of Bacteria in Biopsies of Colon and Stools by High Throughput Sequencing of the V2 Region of Bacterial 16S rRNA Gene in Human. Plos One 6.06.
- Nakayama, J.; Kobayashi, T.; Tanaka, S.; Korenori, Y.; Tateyama, A.; Sakamoto, N.; Kiyohara, C.; Shirakawa, T. & Sonomoto, K. (2011). Aberrant structures of fecal bacterial community in allergic infants profiled by 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing. Fems Immunology and Medical Microbiology 63:397-4
- Palmer, C.; Bik, E. M.; D. B. DiGiulio,; Relman, D. A. & Brown, P. O. (2007). Development of the human infant intestinal microbiota. Plos Biology 5:1556-1573.
- Pedersen, K. & Tannock, G.W. (1989). Colonization of the porcine gastrointestinal-tract by lactobacilli. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 55:279-283.
- Penders, J.; Thijs. C.; Vink, C.; Stelma, F. F.& Snijders, B. (2006). Factors influencing the composition of the intestinal microbiota in early infancy. Pediatrics 118: 511–521.
- Rajilic-Stojanovic M, Heilig HG, Molenaar D, Kajander K, Surakka A, Smidt H et al (2009). Development and application of the human intestinal tract chip, a phylogenetic microarray: analysis of universally conserved phylotypes in the abundant microbiota of young and elderly adults. Environmental microbiology 11: 1736-1751.
- Ronaghi M. Pyrosequencing sheds light on DNA sequencing. Genome Research. (2001).11: 3-11 doi:10.1101/gr.150601.
- Round, J. L. & Mazmanian, S. K. (2009). The gut microbiota shapes intestinal immune responses during health and disease. Nature Reviews Immunology 9:313-323.
- Rudi, K.; Zimonja, M.; Kvenshagen B.; Rugtveit, J.; Midtvedt, T.& Eggesbo, M. (2007a). Alignmentindependent comparisons of human

- gastrointestinal tract microbial communities in a multidimensional 16S rRNA gene evolutionary space. Applied and environmental microbiology 73: 2727-2734.
- Rudi, K.; Zimonja, M.; Trosvik, P. & Naes, T. (2007b). Use of multivariate statistics for 16S rRNA gene analysis of microbial communities. International Journal of Food Microbiology 120:95-99.
- Rudi, K. (2013). BIO 332 EXPERIMENTAL MOLECULAR MICROBIOLOGY WEEK 3: "Microarray analyses of the infant gut microbiota".
- Satokari, R.; Gronroos, T.; Laitinen, K.; Salminen, S. & Isolauri, E. (2009). Bifidobacterium and Lactobacillus DNA in the human placenta. Letters in Applied Microbiology 48:8-12.
- Sekelja, M.; Berget, I.; Naes, T. & Rudi, K. (2011). Unveiling an abundant core microbiota in the human adult colon by a phylogroup-independent searching approach. Isme Journal 5:519-531.
- Syvanen AC, Aalto-Setala K, Harju L, Kontula K, Soderlund H (1990). A primer-guided nucleotide incorporation assay in the genotyping of apolipoprotein E. Genomics 8: 684-692.
- Stark, PL. & Lee, A. (1982). The microbial ecology of the large bowel of breastfed and formula-fed infants during the first year of life. J Med Microbiol 15: 189–203.
- Trosvik, P.; Stenseth, NC. & Rudi, K. (2009). Convergent temporal dynamics of the human infant gut microbiota. Isme J 4: 151-158.
- Vebo, H. C.; Sekelja, M.; Nestestog, R.; Storro, O.; Johnsen, R.; Oien, T. & Rudi, K. (2011). Temporal Development of the Infant Gut Microbiota in Immunoglobulin E-Sensitized and Nonsensitized Children Determined by the GA-Map Infant Array. Clinical and Vaccine Immunology 18:1326-1335.
- Whitman, W. B.;. Coleman, D. C. and Wiebe, W. J. (1998). Prokaryotes: The unseen majority. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 95:6578-6583.
- Woese, C. R. (1987). BACTERIAL EVOLUTION. Microbiological Reviews 51:221-271.

- Woodmansey, E. J. (2007). Intestinal bacteria and ageing. Journal of Applied Microbiology 102:1178-1186.
- Zwielehner, J.; Liszt, K.; Handschur, M.; Lassl, C.; Lapin, A. & Haslberger, A. G. (2009). Combined PCR-DGGE fingerprinting and quantitative-PCR indicates shifts in fecal population sizes and

diversity of Bacteroides, bifidobacteria and Clostridium cluster IV in institutionalized elderly. Experimental Gerontology 44:440-446.