

# **METAGENOME REPORT**

**Open Access** 

# Metagenomic analysis of planktonic microbial consortia from a non-tidal urbanimpacted segment of James River



Bonnie L. Brown<sup>1\*</sup>, Rebecca V. LePrell<sup>2</sup>, Rima B. Franklin<sup>1</sup>, Maria C. Rivera<sup>1</sup>, Francine M. Cabral<sup>3</sup>, Hugh L. Eaves<sup>4</sup>, Vicki Gardiakos<sup>5</sup>, Kevin P. Keegan<sup>6</sup> and Timothy L. King<sup>7</sup>

## Abstract

Knowledge of the diversity and ecological function of the microbial consortia of James River in Virginia, USA, is essential to developing a more complete understanding of the ecology of this model river system. Metagenomic analysis of James River's planktonic microbial community was performed for the first time using an unamplified genomic library and a 16S rDNA amplicon library prepared and sequenced by Ion PGM and MiSeq, respectively. From the 0.46-Gb WGS library (GenBank:SRR1146621; MG-RAST:4532156.3),  $4 \times 10^6$  reads revealed  $>3 \times 10^6$  genes, 240 families of prokaryotes, and 155 families of eukaryotes. From the 0.68-Gb 16S library (GenBank:SRR2124995; MG-RAST:4631271.3; EMB:2184),  $4 \times 10^6$  reads revealed 259 families of eubacteria. Results of the WGS and 16S analyses were highly consistent and indicated that more than half of the bacterial sequences were *Proteobacteria*, predominantly *Comamonadaceae*. The most numerous genera in this group were Acidovorax (including iron oxidizers, nitrotolulene degraders, and plant pathogens), which accounted for 10 % of assigned bacterial reads. Polaromonas were another 6 % of all bacterial reads, with many assignments to groups capable of degrading polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Albidiferax (iron reducers) and *Variovorax* (biodegraders of a variety of natural biogenic compounds as well as anthropogenic contaminants such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and endocrine disruptors) each accounted for an additional 3 % of bacterial reads. Comparison of these data to other publically-available aquatic metagenomes revealed that this stretch of James River is highly similar to the upper Mississippi River, and that these river systems are more similar to aquaculture and sludge ecosystems than they are to lakes or to a pristine section of the upper Amazon River. Taken together, these analyses exposed previously unknown aspects of microbial biodiversity, documented the ecological responses of microbes to urban effects, and revealed the noteworthy presence of 22 human-pathogenic bacterial genera (e.g., Enterobacteriaceae, pathogenic Pseudomonadaceae, and 'Vibrionales') and 6 pathogenic eukaryotic genera (e.g., Trypanosomatidae and Vahlkampfiidae). This information about pathogen diversity may be used to promote human epidemiological studies, enhance existing water quality monitoring efforts, and increase awareness of the possible health risks associated with recreational use of James River.

Keywords: James River, Virginia, Temperate urban river ecosystem, Industry, Pathogen, Water-borne disease

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



<sup>\*</sup> Correspondence: blbrown@vcu.edu

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Virginia Commonwealth University, 1000 W Cary Street, Richmond, VA 23284, USA

#### Introduction

James River is an historical, cultural, and economic icon in North America [1] and one of the largest tributaries of the Chesapeake Bay. The James River ecosystem once provided provisioning services and transport for First Americans and European colonists, and the river has more recently been characterized as the economic engine of Virginia because it supports multiple economic services such as industry, commerce, and recreation. The James River watershed is home to more than 25 million Virginians, and its land use is: 71 % forested, 16 % agricultural, 5 % urban, and 8 % other [2]. In the watershed, there are >1500 point sources permitted to discharge pollutants from municipal and industrial outfalls, CSOs, and aging/failing sewage treatment facilities (data obtained from Virginia Department of Environmental Quality via Freedom of Information Act). The river also receives nonpoint source pollutants that derive from urban, agricultural, wildlife, and transportation runoff. Contaminants include sediment, nutrients (especially nitrogen and phosphorus), PBTs, and non-PBTs [3], as well as pathogens capable of causing illnesses and WBDOs. In fact, in the United States, WBDOs are increasing exponentially [4], and the potential for disease transmission is especially high in the James because its beaches and waters are heavily accessed for recreation (swimming, kayaking, river-boarding) and education (especially summer camps for children). Though there are methods available to assess the abundance of some of the more common disease-causing agents, each pathogen must be examined separately, and there are few methods available that consider the risk of multiple pathogens simultaneously. High-throughput sequencing is a cultivation-independent method that provides information about epidemiologically-relevant organisms that could enhance efforts to prevent, control, and better predict WBDOs thereby improving public health [5]. Current recreational water monitoring practices (e.g., E coli and coliform testing) serve only as coarse indictors of potential contamination, and provide little information on the diversity, source, ecology, or evolution of organisms that cause WBDOs. Metagenomic methods used in the nascent field of public health genomics could help address such questions, but studies thus far have focused narrowly on oral, nasal, gastric, and vaginal microbiota and their role in human health. On a few occasions, metagenomic techniques have been used to detect the occurrence of specific pathogens in the environment, such as coliforms, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica*, and *Vibrio cholerae* [6–9]; however, such approaches are tedious, expensive, or simply impractical for use in routine monitoring programs, and thus this sort of assessment has not found wide application at the larger ecogenomic scale. This report is the first installment of the James River Metagenome Project.

#### Site information

The segment of James River near downtown Richmond, Virginia (USA) is non-tidal within the fall zone (Piedmont Upland transitioning to the Atlantic Coastal Plain, Table 1). This site has both recreational and monitoring relevance. This location occurs in a highly-urbanized area, where storm water runoff carries pollutants such as oil, sediment, chemicals, heavy metals, pet waste, and lawn fertilizers directly to the river. James River traverses more than 700 km<sup>2</sup> of impervious surface between Lynchburg and Richmond. Along this distance, construction sites, power plants, failing sewer systems, and industrial activities contribute substantial amounts of contaminants. Further, this sampling location is impacted by activities in the entire watershed upstream, especially the large cities of Charlottesville and Lynchburg. For example, between Richmond and Lynchburg, there are 170 active industrial discharge sites and 92 sources permitted to discharge directly into James River without pre-treatment. The sampled portion of James River is proximal to numerous highly trafficked bridges and downstream of a large urban park with abundant riparian and aquatic wildlife (e.g., turtles, ducks, geese, heron, amphibians, and reptiles). The city of Richmond has one of the largest CSO systems on the East Coast, and our sampling station is affected by discharge from 19 CSOs within 10 km. This segment of the river has been included in the state's Impaired Waters List for fecal coliforms for over a decade and, although the government regulates only certain bacterial TMDLs, there is sufficient evidence to assume that the water is impaired with regard to other pollutants according to the Clean Water Act [10]. The Virginia Department of Health also

**Table 1** Study information

Table 1 Stady Information			
Label	JREM1 Riffles_WGS	JREM1 Riffles_16S	
MG-RAST ID	4532156.3	4631271.3	
SRA ID	SRR1146621	SRR2124995	
Study Name	James River Epidemiological Metagenome	James River Epidemiological Metagenome	
NCBI BioProject	PRJNA236764	PRJNA236764	
Relevance	Ecology, Epidemiology	Ecology, Epidemiology	

has a long-standing fish consumption advisory for this section of the river due to elevated levels of PCBs.

# Metagenome sequencing information

## Metagenome project history

We characterized a metagenome from the non-tidal James River near Richmond, Virginia. This stand-alone river study was conceived to investigate the potential of environmental metagenomic analysis in public health, and began with a sample collected in September 2012, the analysis of which is presented in this report. We used MG-RAST [11], MEGAN [12], and RDP [13] to categorize the sequence data and to identify taxa that contribute to the ecology of this river ecosystem so as to better understand how the microbial consortia respond to urbanization, pollution, and other anthropogenic influences. The data are accessed in NCBI and MG-RAST (Table 1).

## Sample information

James River sampling took place on 21 September 2012 during an historically typical late summer month when neither drought nor excessive precipitation events occurred within the two weeks preceding sample collection. This minimized potential effects of severe weather and CSO inputs. At the time of collection, the physicochemical parameters of the water column were: 21.9 °C, 79 mg L<sup>-1</sup> dissolved oxygen, 8.4 pH, 86 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> discharge, 9.7 FNU turbidity, 250 CFU 100 mL<sup>-1</sup> fecal coliform, and 175 CFU 100 mL<sup>-1</sup> *E. coli*. These parameters, although not pristine, indicate that the water was unimpaired at the time of sample collection according to the Clean Water Act [10] and state water quality standards.

# Sample preparation

Water (20 L) was collected by wading to mid-stream, waiting until disturbed sediment had dissipated, and then inserting a clean collection vessel to mid-water (0.5 m below the water surface), tipping to collect, and capping underwater. The water was held at ambient temperature during transport to the laboratory (~10 min) for immediate processing (Table 2). After

mixing, a 3-L subsample was gently filtered through 0.2- $\mu$ m Sterivex<sup>™</sup> filters (Millipore, Billerica, MA) using a combination of gravity and vacuum (200–300 mm Hg). It is possible that this pressure may have disrupted some soft-bodied protists, limiting our ability to detect this group. Free viruses and some eDNA also are likely to have passed through the 0.2- $\mu$ m filter.

# **DNA** extraction

DNA was isolated using the Sterivex<sup>™</sup> PowerWater<sup>™</sup> DNA extraction (MO BIO, Carlsbad, CA) within 2 h of collection according to the manufacturer's instructions, a procedure that included enzymes, heat, and bead beating to ensure nucleic acid release from endospore-forming and Gram negative bacteria. Nucleic acid quality was checked via Experion<sup>™</sup> DNA 12 K Analysis kit.

## Library generation

Nucleic acid quantity was verified using the Quant-iT DNA kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY), and adjusted to 50 ng  $\mu L^{-1}$  prior to WGS library preparation using the Ion Plus Fragment Library kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). To alternatively assess taxonomic diversity of the microbial community, a library was made that targeted the bacterial 16S rRNA gene; four replicate fusion PCR libraries targeting 16S [14] were performed using the same DNA sample as the shotgun metagenome. The amplicons were quantified using Bioanalyzer and pooled in equimolar amounts prior to sequencing.

#### Sequencing technology

Sequencing of the WGS library was accomplished using the Ion Torrent PGM semiconductor sequencing platform (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY), the Ion PGM $^{\infty}$  200 Sequencing Kit, and one 318 chip. The run generated 0.61Gb data (Table 3). The 16S targeted library generated 1.15Gb data from one 1 × 300 bp lane on MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA).

**Table 2** Sample information

Label	Mayo South_WGS	Mayo South_16S
Biome	0000088 Large river	0000088 Large river
Feature	00000012 Hydrographic	00000012 Hydrographic
Material	449393 Fresh water	449393 Fresh water
Latitude and Longitude	37.527941 N, -77.436144 W	37.527941 N, -77.436144 W
Vertical distance	0.5 m	0.5 m
Geographic Location	James River, Virginia	James River, Virginia
Collection date and time	21 Sep 2012; 14:00 h (EST)	21 Sep 2012; 14:00 h (EST)

## Sequence processing

Quality control for the WGS run was performed on the MG-RAST server, and filtering for 16S amplicons was accomplished in BaseSpace (quality scores  $\geq$ 30). After quality control filtering, the James River WGS metagenome consisted of  $3.4 \times 10^6$  reads with an average length of  $133 \pm 43$  bp (Table 2) and the 16S rDNA amplicon library consisted of  $3.9 \times 10^6$  reads with an average length of  $292 \pm 0$  bp (Table 4).

# Metagenome processing

No assembly was performed for either data set (Table 5).

# Metagenome annotation

Shotgun sequence data were analyzed using bioinformatic tools on the MG-RAST server to predict rDNA, gene, and protein functions. The MG-RAST analysis was performed using the BLAT annotation algorithm [15] against the M5NR protein Db using default parameters. Targeted 16S rDNA amplicon sequences of at least 100 bp were analyzed using the Illumina 16S Metagenomics App (v1.0.0) for taxonomic classification using an Illumina-curated version of the May 2013 Green-Genes taxonomic Db and default settings (Table 6).

## **Postprocessing**

Whole-genome shotgun sequence data were compiled and assessed using three methods (MG-RAST, MEGAN, and crAss [16]). Bar charts of normalized counts of the highest representative taxa were constructed using the MG-RAST output with an e-value cutoff of 1e-5, 60 % identity, and a minimum alignment length of 30. Comparative metagenomic similarity was quantified between the James River and 17 other putatively similar, publicly available MG-RAST metagenomic read sets (4532156.3, 4440411.3, 4440413.3, 4440423.3, 4441132.3, 4441590.3, 4442450.3, 4467029.3, 4467420.3, 4467059.3, 4494863.3,

4516288.3, 4534334.3, 4534338.3) using principal coordinates analysis (M5NR Db, e-value cutoff -5, 60 % identity, data normalized using the MG-RAST default normalization procedure, minimum alignment length of 15 bp). Functional aspects of the James River WGS metagenome were compared with 13 other aquatic metagenomes on MG-RAST (2 large river samples, 4 lakes, 3 aquaculture, 2 sludge, and 2 Chesapeake Bay) using principal coordinates analysis (Subsystems Level 1, e-value cutoff 1e-5, 60 % identity, data normalized using the default normalization procedure and a minimum alignment length of 15 amino acids) and KeggMapper (e-value cutoff 1e-5, 60 % identity, minimum alignment length of 15 amino acids). Prior to a local BlastN, WGS reads <50 bp were removed and quality trimmed to ≥ Phred 20 using Genomics Workbench (CLCbio, Cambridge, MA). BlastN was performed locally using the quality- and size-filtered shotgun genomic data against the NCBI-nt reference Db using the default conditions of megablast. The resulting Blast report was then parsed and analyzed using MEGAN (ver 4.70.4) yielding a taxonomic "species profile." To compare genetic similarity of the James River WGS metagenome with other aquatic WGS metagenomes, including those that were not available through MG-RAST (SRA001012, SRR091234, SRR063691), the algorithm crAss [16] was used to estimate genetic distances based on the characteristics of "cross-contigs" obtained by cross-assembly of all sets of reads using Genomics Workbench with the following parameters: mismatch 3, insertion 3, deletion 3, length fraction of 50 %, and similarity fraction of 90 %.

## **Metagenome properties**

Unlike some other WGS metagenomes that exhibit bimodal GC distribution [17–20], this James River metagenome exhibited a unimodal peak (WGS:  $49 \pm 9$  % and 16S:  $51 \pm 2$  %), well within the range observed and

**Table 3** Library information

Label	Riffles_WGS	Riffles_16S
Sample label	Mayo South	Mayo South
Sample preparation method	Mobio Sterivex™ PowerWater™ DNA Kit	Mobio Sterivex™ PowerWater™ DNA Kit*
Library preparation	Ion Plus Fragment Library kit	16S fusion PCR [14]
Sequencing platform(s)	Ion Torrent PGM	Illumina MiSeq
Sequencing chemistry	PGM Sequencing 200 Kit (318 chip)	MiSeq Reagent Kit Version 3 (600 cycles PE)
Sequence size (GBp)	0.61	1.15
Number of reads	$4.07 \times 10^6$	$4.11 \times 10^6$
Mate pairs or paired ends	NA	empty
Sequencing library insert size	150–250	300
Average read length	133	292
Standard deviation for read length	43	0

 $<sup>^{*}</sup>$  DNA template from the same 3 L water sample was used for both the WGS and 16S libraries

**Table 4** Sequence processing

Label	Riffles_WGS	Riffles_16S
Tool(s) used for quality control	MG-RAST	BaseSpace
Number of sequences removed by QC	$0.61 \times 10^{6}$	$0.18 \times 10^{6}$
Number of sequences that passed QC	$3.45 \times 10^{6}$	$3.93 \times 10^{6}$
Number of artificial duplicate reads	$0.13 \times 10^{6}$	NA

suggested as a freshwater hallmark (46–65 % [18]). The targeted 16S metagenome provided roughly the same number of reads as the WGS analysis and an order of magnitude lower numbers of CDSs and functional assignments (Table 7).

#### **Taxonomic diversity**

Reads resulting from James River WGS were overwhelmingly assigned to the Bacteria domain (97.5 % by MG-RAST, 97.7 % by Blast), Eukaryota accounted for 2 % of assignments (MG-RAST and Blast), and the remaining assignable reads were Archaea (0.3 % by MG-RAST, 0.1 % by Blast) and virus or plasmid (0.2 % by MG-RAST, 0.07 % by Blast). Reads resulting from the 16S library were bacterial (95.5 %) and viral (4.5 %, a sequencing control contaminant [21]). Taxonomy based on predicted proteins and rRNA genes (MG-RAST) generally mirrored the major taxa predicted by BlastN (MEGAN). The taxonomic profiles of the major bacterial groups based on WGS reads and 16S reads (Table 8) were largely concurrent, consistent with other research where WGS and 16S data were compared [17, 22]. The major differences between the WGS and 16S rDNA amplicon-based taxonomic profiles assigned to Class were Cytophagia (7.3 % in the WGS library and not detected in the 16S library), Chlorobia (0.2 % in the WGS library and not detected in the 16S library), and Synergistia (0 % of WGS and 0.5 % of 16S reads).

Our analysis detected groups of bacteria that in part matched what we expected based on an understanding of river ecology, and classifications to family conformed

**Table 5** Metagenome statistics

9		
Label	JREM1 Riffles_WGS	JREM1 Riffles_16S
Libraries used	Riffles_WGS	Riffles_16S
Assembly tool(s) used	NA	NA
Number of contigs after assembly	NA	NA
Number of singletons after assembly	NA	NA
minimal contig length	NA	NA
Total bases assembled	NA	NA
Contig n50	NA	NA
% of sequences assembled	NA	NA
Measure for % assembled	NA	NA

closely to the core groups detected in other freshwater aquatic systems [22-25]. The analysis also implicated additional industrially- and epidemiologically-relevant groups that likely are important in this reach of James River. More than half of the bacterial sequences detected by both the WGS and the 16S methods were Proteobacteria (Betaproteobacteria) and, within this group, the most abundant taxa were within the Comamonadaceae. In the WGS analysis, the most numerous genera in the Comamonadaceae were Acidovorax (iron oxidizers, nitrotolulene degraders, and plant pathogens that accounted for 10 % of WGS assigned bacterial reads and 0.8 % of 16S bacterial reads), Polaromonas (6 % of WGS bacterial reads and < 0.1 % of 16S bacterial reads). The *Polaromonas* were dominated by two groups capable of degrading polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, PAHs, previously detected in coal-tar-contaminated freshwater sediments [26]. Other prominent groups in this family identified by WGS were Albidiferax, which are iron reducers (3 % WGS bacterial reads and 0 % 16S), and Variovorax, which are biodegraders of diverse natural biogenic compounds as well as numerous anthropogenic contaminants (3 % WGS bacterial reads and 0.6 % of 16S bacteria). The 16S analysis identified additional genera in the Comamonadaceae including Limnohabitans (12 % of 16S bacterial reads), Hydrogenophaga (3 % of 16S bacterial reads), and Rubrivivax (1 % of 16S bacterial reads), each of which were seen at < 0.01 % of the WGS bacterial data. The next most abundant Proteobacteria group was the Burkholderiaceae, represented by Polynucleobacter necessarius (5 % of WGS bacterial reads and 2 % of 16S reads), an ubiquitous freshwater bacterioplankton and protozoan endosymbiont, and by Burkholderia (3 % of WGS bacterial reads and 0.1 % of 16S bacterial reads), a group that contains mammal and plant pathogens and bacterial strains that biodegrade polychlorinated biphenyls. Three additional prokaryote groups were represented by read counts in excess of 10 % in either the WGS or the 16S analysis: Actinobacteria (Actinomycetales, mostly Streptomycetaceae, Nocardioidaceae, Micrococcaceae, and Mycobacterium), Gammaproteobacteria (Chromatiaceae, Enterobacteriaceae, pathogenic Pseudomonadaceae, and Vibrionaceae), and Bacteroidetes (a number of agriculture-associated species within Cytophagaceae, 'Flexibacteraceae', and Flavobacterium, some of which are common in freshwater lake sediments and other known commensals and opportunistic pathogens of fishes). Alphaproteobacteria (particularly nitrogen fixers) constituted 6 % of WGS bacteria and 3 % of the bacteria based on 16S analysis. Of the 229 OTUs identified in the 16S data set at the level of ≥0.01 % read abundance, 22 % were bacteria associated with domesticated plants and animals, agricultural soils, or had other agricultural relevance. Across the WGS and 16S analyses, the five most common groups observed

**Table 6** Annotation parameters

Label	JREM1 Riffles_WGS	JREM1 Riffles_16S
Annotation system	MG-RAST	BaseSpace 16S Metagenomics App (V1.0.0)
Gene calling program	Default (FragGeneScan)	Illumina implementation of RDP
Annotation algorithm	Default (BLAT)	NA
Database(s) used	M5NR, SEED, KEGG	GreenGenes

in the James River metagenome (*Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Actinobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria*, and *Verrucomicrobia*) accounted for 98 % of reads, and were among the most common groups observed in Mississippi River [22].

Bacterial groups that accounted for ≈ 1 % of assigned reads in either the WGS or the 16S data sets included Deltaproteobacteria (some of which have recently been identified as pathogens), Curvibacter (1 % of bacterial reads: a symbiont of Hydra which was the most abundant of all eukaryote reads), Delftia (non-fermentative, Gram-negative bacteria from soil, activated sludge, crude oil, oil brines, and water [27], and recently observed in association with the use of medically invasive devices such as endotracheal tubes [28] and intravascular-catheters [29]), Comamonas (a soil bacterium utilized to treat the industrial by-product 3-chloroaniline [30]; one strain has been observed to be the cause of bacteremic infections [31]), Alicycliphilus (degrades alicyclic and aromatic hydrocarbons), and Verminephrobacter (earthworm symbionts). Although they accounted for just under 1 % of 16S reads, a diverse suite of Cyanobacteria was represented, predominantly by Synechococcus species (39 % of cyanobacteria) and Prochlorococcus (8 % of cyanobacteria), both of which are ecologically significant autotrophic picoplankton, and roughly even proportions of reads were assigned to Anabaena, Cyanothece, Nostoc, and Synechocystis (each ~ 5–7 % of cyanobacteria). Approximately 2– 3 % of cyanobacterial reads were assigned to Acaryochloris, Cyanobium, Gloeobacter, Microcoleus, Microcystis, and Trichodesmium.

Table 7 Metagenome properties

Table 7 Metagenome properties				
Label	JREM1 Riffles_WGS	JREM1 Riffles_16S		
Number of contigs	NA	NA		
GBp	0.61	1.15		
Number of features identified	$3.13 \times 10^6$	$3.53 \times 10^6$		
CDS	$2.16 \times 10^6$	$2.47 \times 10^{5}$		
rRNA	436,985	56,138		
Functional Categories	914,799	7,299		
CDSs with COG	$1.50 \times 10^6$	1,091		
CDS with SEED subsystem	$2.50 \times 10^6$	146,907		
Alpha diversity	316	20		

Eukaryotes accounted for 2 % of the reads with assigned taxonomy in the analysis of the James River WGS metagenome (Table 8). The core taxonomy of eukaryotes was nearly identical to those detected at two selected sites along the Mississippi River in Minnesota [22]. However, the proportion of reads attributed to eukarvotes in James River was considerably higher than the <0.1 % mean abundance of non-bacterial orders in the Mississippi; the increased eukaryote component in James River may be in part a consequence of the longer reads in the James River data set (133 bp vs. 100 bp). The James River WGS metagenome exhibited 155 eukaryote families, each represented in the data by between 5 and 1352 reads. Just over half of the families were common temperate aquatic flora, fauna, or fungi, and the remainder was assigned to terrestrial species (including those found in agricultural soils) and organisms that cause disease in fishes, humans, or agriculture. Considering those eukaryotic taxa with an abundance ≥1000 reads (83 % of eukaryote reads), we detected the following (in order of read abundance): freshwater polyp (17 % of reads), streptophytes (14 % of reads), amphibians (13 % of reads, mostly frog), insects (7 %, mostly culicids, dipterans, and lepidopterans), mammals (7 %, mostly human and mouse), fungi (13 %, several major classes including Saccharomycetes, Sordariomycetes, and Eurotiomycetes), teleost fishes (3 %), green algae (3 %), nematodes (2 %), and ciliate protozoans (2 %). Almost one-quarter of eukaryotic sequences were Chordata, predominantly amphibian (11 % of eukaryote reads), mammalian (7 % of eukaryote reads), and to a lesser extent fishes (3 %) and birds (0.7 %). Upstream land-based agricultural effects on James River were indicated by sequence matches to castor oil plant, beet, sorghum, rice, maize, bovine, equine, porcine, and galliform species. Additional taxonomic groups detected at a read cutoff of ≥100 included angiosperms, mosquitos, nematodes, and primates (human and New World monkeys). The signal for monkeys most likely derives from an exotic animal rearing and testing facility located in nearby Cumberland County. The facility raises grivet and macaque monkeys and holds a permit (as of May 2014) to discharge up to  $76 \times 10^3$  L day<sup>-1</sup> of industrial pollution directly into James River 70 km upstream of Richmond (op cit. data request). Similarly, there are several aquaculture facilities with discharge permits (as of May 2014, op cit. data request) between Richmond and

**Table 8** Taxonomic composition of the sample

Domain	Phylum	Class*	JREM1 Riffles_WGS	JREM1 Riffles_16S
Archaea			9138	
	Crenarchaeota	Thermoprotei	1246	
	Euryarchaeota	Archaeoglobi	291	
	Euryarchaeota	Halobacteria	1799	
	Euryarchaeota	Methanococci	806	
	Euryarchaeota	Methanobacteria	692	
	Euryarchaeota	'Methanomicrobia'	2425	
	Euryarchaeota	Thermococci	691	
	Euryarchaeota	Thermoplasmata	271	
	Euryarchaeota	unclassified	377	
	Thaumarchaeota	unclassified	270	
	unclassified	unclassified	115	
Bacteria			3420971	3704883
	Acidobacteria	Acidobacteria	2215	
	Acidobacteria	'Solibacteres'	4191	41
	Acidobacteria	unclassified	1743	
	Actinobacteria	Actinobacteria	546521	382055
	Aquificae	Aquificae	2166	
	Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	38414	1306
	Bacteroidetes	Cytophagia	224023	
	Bacteroidetes	Flavobacteriia	178112	526723
	Bacteroidetes	Sphingobacteriia	57455	516940
	Bacteroidetes	unclassified	7043	6954
	Chlamydiae	'Chlamydiia'	1621	
	Chlorobi	'Chlorobia'	10540	
	Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae	441	679
	Chloroflexi	Dehalococcoidetes	836	
	Chloroflexi	Chloroflexi	5898	
	Chloroflexi	Ktedonobacteria	789	
	Chloroflexi	Thermomicrobia	1342	
	Cyanobacteria	Gloeobacteria	1075	
	Cyanobacteria	Cyanobacteria	25512	32848
	Deferribacteres	Deferribacteres	937	
	Deinococcus-Thermus	Deinococci	6560	1816
	Dictyoglomi	Dictyoglomia	513	
	Firmicutes	Bacilli	29929	8601
	Firmicutes	Clostridia	30400	19916
	Firmicutes	'Erysipelotrichi'	196	
	Firmicutes	Negativicutes	2278	
	Firmicutes	unclassified		696
	Fusobacteriia	Fusobacteriia	2224	837
	Gemmatimonadetes	Gemmatimonadetes	1484	
	Nitrospirae	'Nitrospira'	1799	1483

**Table 8** Taxonomic composition of the sample (Continued)

	Planctomycetes	Planctomycetia	12967	49
	Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	220054	151267
	Proteobacteria	Betaproteobacteria	1597220	1225776
	Proteobacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	36851	9357
	Proteobacteria	Epsilonproteobacteria	6449	3645
	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	322470	667102
	Proteobacteria	'Zetaproteobacteria'	632	
	Proteobacteria	unclassified	6963	12414
	Spirochaetes	Brachyspirae		385
	Spirochaetes	Spirochaetia	4917	815
	Synergistetes	Synergistia	1086	17795
	Tenericutes	Mollicutes	1478	1697
	Thermotogae	Thermotogae	2105	1004
	Verrucomicrobia	Lentisphaerae	1099	
	Verrucomicrobia	'Methylacidiphilae'		722
	Verrucomicrobia	Opitutae	4479	46474
	Verrucomicrobia	'Spartobacteria'	2286	678
	Verrucomicrobia	Verrucomicrobiae	5061	1135
	Verrucomicrobia	unclassified	350	
	unclassified	unclassified	6087	61031
karyota			66903	
	Apicomplexa	Aconoidasida	885	
	Apicomplexa	Coccidia	443	
	Arthropoda	Arachnida	300	
	Arthropoda	Branchiopoda	606	
	Arthropoda	Insecta	4901	
	Ascomycota	Dothideomycetes	808	
	Ascomycota	Eurotiomycetes	3193	
	Ascomycota	Leotiomycetes	353	
	Ascomycota	Pezizomycetes	119	
	Ascomycota	Saccharomycetes	2579	
	Ascomycota	Schizosaccharomycetes	429	
	Ascomycota	Sordariomycetes	2809	
	Bacillariophyta	Bacillariophyceae	317	
	Basidiomycota	Agaricomycetes	920	
	Basidiomycota	Tremellomycetes	414	
	Basidiomycota	unclassified	156	
	Chlorophyta	Chlorophyceae	1145	
	Chlorophyta	Mamiellophyceae	1032	
	Chlorophyta	Trebouxiophyceae	299	
	Chordata	Actinopterygii	1986	
	Chordata	Amphibia	7102	
	Chordata	Ascidiacea	264	
	Chordata	Aves	473	

**Table 8** Taxonomic composition of the sample (Continued)

	Chordata	Mammalia	4801	
	Chordata	unclassified	487	
	Ciliophora	Oligohymenophorea	1052	
	Cnidaria	Anthozoa	1749	
	Cnidaria	Hydrozoa	8973	
	Echinodermata	Echinoidea	348	
	Hemichordata	Enteropneusta	209	
	Heterolobosea	Heterolobosea	440	
	Ichthyosporea	Ichthyosporea	291	
	Microsporidia	unclassified	127	
	Nematoda	Chromadorea	1450	
	Nematoda	Enoplea	111	
	Phaeophyceae	unclassified	347	
	Placozoa	unclassified	246	
	Platyhelminthes	Trematoda	191	
	Rhodophyta	Bangiophyceae	206	
	Streptophyta	Appendicularia	259	
	Streptophyta	Coniferopsida	253	
	Streptophyta	Isoetopsida	306	
	Streptophyta	Liliopsida	2100	
	Streptophyta	unclassified	7129	
	unclassified	unclassified	3558	
Viruses			7684	
Other**			3204	

Only major phyla and classes are shown (those totaling ≥01 % of the relevant domain or phylum) \*\* Unassigned and/or unclassified

Lynchburg, and this could explain the high number of non-indigenous fish and fish disease hits.

As was observed for bacterial sequences, eukaryote sequences reflected the high level of anthropogenic use of and impact upon James River, and many eukaryote sequences were assigned to known disease agents or disease carriers relevant to humans, food crops, or fishes. The most abundant taxa with epidemiological relevance were Apicomplexa (2 % of WGS assigned eukaryote reads), Culicidae (2 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Onygenales (2 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Trypanosomatidae (1 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Hexamitidae (0.8 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Vahlkampfiidae (0.7 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Trichomonidae (0.5 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Sclerotiniaceae (0.5 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Phytophthora (0.5 % of WGS eukaryote reads), Schistosoma (0.3 % of WGS eukaryote reads), and Trichinella (0.2 % of WGS eukaryote reads).

Archaea and viruses/bacteriophages each accounted for ~0.2 % of assigned reads. Most Archaea reads were Euryarchaeota (81 %), represented by a diverse array of chemoautotrophs and Crenarchaeota (14 %). Virus and bacteriophage reads included assignments to Myoviridae, a type of Caudovirus, and Vibriophage, and were notable in their associations with other detected bacterial and eukaryotic taxa. In future studies that employ sampling methods to better capture viruses and phages, it may be possible to interpret the phage and virus records as proxies for bacterial or eukaryotic organisms with which there are known associations.

Comparative PCoA analysis of the James River WGS metagenome to 13 other aquatic WGS metagenomes accessible through MG-RAST indicated that James River was similar to Mississippi River samples [21, 25], and that these rivers were more similar to sludge [32] and aquaculture pond [33] metagenomes than to the metagenomes of lakes experiencing blooms [34] or Chesapeake Bay [35], the geographically proximal saline body of water into which James River empties. Crossassembling the James River WGS metagenome with other freshwater aquatic metagenomes via crAss (an approach that allowed investigation of metagenomes not posted to MG-RAST) supported the interpretation that the James River metagenome was genetically most similar to Mississippi River (minimum genetic distance 0.11)and more similar

aquaculture [33] and sludge [32] metagenomes (minimum distance 0.26 and 0.63, respectively) than to the relatively more pristine waters of the upper Amazon River [17] (minimum distance 0.74) or to Lake Lanier [20] (minimum distance 0.75).

#### **Functional diversity**

Genes associated with chromatin, cytoskeleton, nuclear structure, and cell motility (Table 9) were notably absent, a finding commensurate with the fact that the predominant taxa in the sample were bacteria. Compared to other representative aquatic metagenomes [22, 32–34], the James River functional assignments, like Mississippi River, were in line with intensive aquaculture, a lake experiencing algal bloom, and sludge, and very different from Chesapeake Bay. KEGG metabolic pathway maps provided deeper insight into the ecosystem functions conducted by the James River microbiota. Although the most complete identified pathways were associated with basic cellular maintenance (carbohydrate, amino acid, lipid, and energy

**Table 9** Functional information: Composition of functional categories (COG)

COG Category	JREM1 Riffles_WC
	(% of reads)
RNA processing and modification	0
Chromatin structure and dynamics	0
Energy production and conversion	10
Cell cycle control and mitosis	1
Amino acid metabolism and transport	11
Nucleotide metabolism and transport	4
Carbohydrate metabolism and transport	5
Coenzyme metabolism	4
Lipid metabolism	5
Translation	9
Transcription	4
Replication and repair	6
Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	6
Cell motility	0
Post-translational modification, protein turnover, chaperone functions	4
Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	4
Secondary structure	2
General functional prediction only	12
Function unknown	5
Signal transduction	3
Intracellular trafficking and secretion	2
Nuclear structure	0
Cytoskeleton	0
Defense mechanisms	2

metabolism), a substantial number of partial metabolic pathways were related to xenobiotic biodegradation and metabolism. Multiple reaction links were evident for pathways involved in processing or degrading atrazine, benzoate, bisphenol, chlorobenzene, chlorocyclohexane, ethylbenzene, PAHs, naphthalene, nitrotoluene, toluene, and xylene, many of which are PBTs. In many cases, the predicted xenobiotic pathways were indicated by abundances of identified enzymes exceeding 100 reads. For example, toluene degradation (enzyme entry 3.1.1.45) was implicated by 820 enzyme identifications, dioxin metabolism (enzyme entry 1.14.13.1) was implicated by 555 enzyme assignments, and benzoate degradation (enzyme entry 6.2.1.25) was implicated by 492 enzymes. Although the proportional representation among the SEED categories was not well matched between James and Mississippi Rivers, the functional links implicated in the James River metagenome, especially the abundance of xenobiotic biodegradation pathways, coincided well with the links exhibited in two Mississippi River metagenomes (St. Cloud and Twin Cities [22]). It is important to note that this is only a snapshot of the response of the microbial consortium to anthropogenic substances delivered to James River. It remains to be determined how quickly and to what degree the consortium shifts; if the river responds to increased amounts of synthetic compounds in much the same way as the human microbiome does [36], shifts in taxa and function could occur on the order of days. More complex sampling strategies across spatio-temporal scales are necessary to address this issue.

# **Additional results**

This study revealed details of the function of the river as a medium for transmission of numerous infectious agents [37-39], and garnered a wealth of epidemiologically-relevant data. Both prokaryotes and eukaryotes with health and disease implications were revealed by the taxonomic summaries. Numerous reads from both libraries matched plant and domestic animal pathogens: 21 % of the top 254 taxa in the WGS library and 28 % of the top 230 OTUs in the 16S library. Notable among the known human, food crop, and fish pathogens were Agrobacterium (0.5 % of WGS reads, 0.2 % of 16S reads), Bacteroides (0.9 % of WGS, 0.01 % of 16S), Burkholderia (1.5 % of WGS, 0.01 % of 16S) Chromobacterium (0.3 % of WGS, 0.2 % of 16S), Comamonas (1.7 % of WGS, 0.07 % of 16S), Flavobacterium (2 % of WGS, 0.4 % of 16S), Legionella (0.08 % of WGS, 0.01 % of 16S), Mycobacterium (1 % of WGS, 0.005 % of 16S), Novosphingobium (0.2 % of WGS, 0.004 % of 16S), pathogenic Pseudomonas species (3 % of WGS, 1 % of 16S), Ralstonia (0.7 % of WGS, 0 % of 16S), Vibrio

(0.4 % of WGS, 0 % of 16S), and pathogenic Enterobacteriaceae (0.11 % of WGS, 0.11 % of 16S). In addition, several of the cyanobacteria (Nostocophycideae, Oscillatoriophycideae, Synechococcophycidea) detected in this sample have been noted in other metagenomic studies of toxic blooms [38], and are considered potentially pathogenic because the toxins they produce under bloom conditions have adverse effects on both aquatic living resources and humans. Of the 50 top eukaryotes detected based on MEGAN read abundance in the WGS data, 6 were known human, plant, and animal parasites or pathogens; notably Trichodina, Leishmania, Trypanosoma, Plasmodium, Naegleria, and Botryotinia.

Out of the 2 % of reads revealed by MG-RAST to be associated with COG defense mechanisms (Table 9), 78 % were for multidrug resistance and 5 % were specifically for antibiotic resistance (Table 10), representing 13 different antibiotic resistance genes. These findings are consistent with the work of others [40] where antibioticresistant bacteria were isolated from freshwater samples from 16 US rivers at 22 sites, and studies showing high levels of antibiotic resistance in rivers in the UK [41], China [42], India [43], and Cuba [44]. The detection of antibiotic resistance genes is not necessarily surprising, given that so many natural organisms display resistance [45]; however, recent work in the Hudson River [46] documented a positive correction between counts of the fecal indicator Enterococcus and levels of resistant bacteria, and demonstrated a shared sewage-agriculturaldomesticated animal associated source. Moreover, the study of Chinese rivers [42] detected a synthetic plasmid vector-originated ampicillin resistance gene in samples from six rivers, with higher levels being found in habitats that receive more untreated waste. This synthetic plasmid has a number of industrial and agricultural applications and there is a large chance of uncontrolled discharge into the environment. Alternately, antibiotic resistance may be transferred to other members of the river consortium by other genetic processes. Antibiotic

Table 10 Functions associated with antibiotic resistance

Database	JREM1 Riffles_WGS Functions	Antibiotic Functions	Unique M5NR Accessions	Unique Antibiotic Resistance Genes
	Identified			
GenBank	$2.4 \times 10^{6}$	314	60	14
IMG	$2.5 \times 10^{6}$	302	56	21
KEGG	$2.3 \times 10^{6}$	306	51	14
PATRIC	$2.3 \times 10^{6}$	265	40	7
RefSeq	$2.6 \times 10^{6}$	338	64	23
SEED	$1.8 \times 10^{6}$	247	36	10
SwissProt	$0.4 \times 10^{6}$	2	1	1
TrEMBL	$2.4 \times 10^{6}$	322	61	20

resistance has been called one of the most pressing and urgent public health crises in the world [47], and our work, combined with the studies cited above, suggest that river water may serve as a significant reservoir or incubator for antibiotic resistance genes, where inputs of the waste from treated animals and humans could alter background levels of antibiotic resistance in the environment [44].

The implications of finding such a diverse array of pathogenic species in recreational waters are profound and indicate the utility of a metagenomic approach for early detection and prevention of WBDOs. However, there are a number of caveats to consider regarding the current data set and analyses. First, these assignments do not necessarily imply that the predicted organisms were living because the analysis was based on DNA, not RNA, and the DNA could have come from dead cells and/or dormant organisms from a previous contamination event. Second, the assignments depend on the stringency of alignment settings and, because the genomes of disease-causing organisms are generally more thoroughly studied and reported than the genomes of free-living organisms, the prevalence of pathogen assignments may be biased due to the over-representation of pathogenic genomes in the databases. In other words, some of these assignments may be non-pathogenic organisms that have never been sequenced but are related to highly studied pathogens of humans, fishes, or crops. Finally, the sample is only a snapshot, as it was collected from a single segment of James River on a single day; conversely, one might speculate that some of the pathogenic groups detected that are not commonly observed in North America may be a signal of globalization and an indication of the changing demographic of Richmond's human population.

In addition to the epidemiological ramifications of this metagenomic dataset, the novel ecological information it provides is notable. For example, other researchers who have studied the microbial consortia of rivers have concluded that river microbes generally are comparable to lake consortia [17, 48, 49]and we expected similar results. In addition, we expected to observe a number of sequences that reflected a "Microbial Loop" [50] as illustrated for another aquatic system [51], dominated by heterotrophic bacteria and including representatives of cyanobacteria and algae, protozoans, zooplankton (especially nematodes and cladocerans), insects, and vertebrates. Indeed, both of these expectations were supported, and we observed that approximately half of the most abundant read assignments corresponded to microbes identified as ecologically significant in lakes [23], fit the expected microbial functional patterns [50], and corresponded to the major groups of freshwater microbes previously described and summarized [24] namely: ultramicrobacteria (made up of three groups

Polynucleobacter and other Betaproteobacteria, acI Actinobacteria, and certain Alphaproteobacteria), opportunistic heterotrophs, phototrophs, and filamentous bacteria. Also as expected, the most commonly observed species in James River metagenome annotated reads was Polynucleobacter, corresponding to other large river biome reports [22, 25]. Likewise, a large proportion of the detected metabolic processes corresponded to the "natural" microbial loop. Interestingly, both taxonomic and functional analysis also revealed that a large component of the James River microbial consortium is processing a diverse suite of anthropogenic substances, providing especially a baseline reference for investigating the natural variability and function of bacteria that process polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, a group of microbes that are largely unexplored in the waters of this region. As was observed for the upper Mississippi River [22, 25], taxa represented in the James River metagenome were linked to the varied anthropogenic effects ranging from urban, suburban, and industrial, to forested land and agriculture (Table 11). It was striking that nearly half of the dominant bacterial groups (48 % of the top 50 species identified by WGS, 31 % of the major OTUs identified by 16S) were associated with degradation of pollutants and PBTs, sludge and other biological waste materials, or pathogenicity. At least 11 different prokaryote groups commonly associated with bioremediation were indicated as present in the top 50 groups; most numerous among these were degraders of dichloroethane, polyaromatic and chlorinated hydrocarbons, methyl tertiary butyl ether, and PCBs, represented by Polaromonas, Acidovorax, Nocardioides, and Burkholderia. Another seven species commonly used in industrial-scale production of metals, antibiotics, and spinosyns were indicated (including the genera Delftia, Cupriavidus, and Saccharopolyspora). It is notable that, although they accounted for fewer assignments, tens of thousands of hits implicated presence of bacteria known to process endocrine disruptors such as BPA (e.g., Rhodococcus [52] and Sphingomonas [53]). Such a diverse set of indicators of industrial effluent implies heavy impact upon this reach of James River by industrial and medical waste. However, as for the predicted pathogens, the present data set, being derived from WGS, does not provide a definitive determination of whether these microbes were active components of the James River ecosystem or whether they represent some transient populations introduced by runoff or other hydrological processes. The assemblage of industry- and medical-related microbes might be a consequence of the fact that the sample location is in the vicinity of CSOs, indicating that either the microbes or the substrates they metabolize are regularly disposed of to the sewer system. Similarly, the occurrence of so many different types of hydrocarbon degraders is likely a signal of railway and automotive nonpoint source runoff in addition to the permitted hydrocarbon and other point-source discharges. Whatever the sources, this metagenome snapshot indicates that a large portion of the ecological services provided by microbes of James River are related to biodegradation of anthropogenically introduced compounds.

#### **Conclusions**

This first published whole-genome report of the iconic James River is among the few existing metagenome reports for large river biomes. Rivers provide numerous ecosystem services for humans and we are especially dependent on them for fresh water supply and sanitation purposes. This metagenome analysis illustrates that the core freshwater planktonic bacterio- and eukaryoplankton communities of this non-tidal portion of James River closely mirror the upper Mississippi River [22, 25], both of which differ from lake systems studied in a similar manner. This metagenome provides evidence that there exists a river consortium response to anthropogenic pollution and illustrates that the epidemiologically-relevant

Table 11 Putative roles of the most abundant bacterial and eukaryotic OTUs

Putative Role	JREM1 Riffles_WGS		JREM1 Riffles_16S	
	% OTUs	reads	% OTUs	reads
Bacteria				
Common free-living	52	1072474	68	2832637
Pollution degraders	22	484716	10	90537
Sludge, industrial, and medical waste	12	133200	9	184336
Pathogens (human, crops, and fish)	14	297920	12	132914
Eukaryote				
Common free-living	52	3468	-	-
Terrestrial/agriculture/aquaculture	33	1123	_	-
Pathogens (human, crops, and fish)	14	261	=	=

<sup>-</sup> not examined

members of the James River microbial consortium are not a trivial component of the ecosystem and include organisms with genes for antibiotic resistance, which has recently been documented to be an important component of the human microbiome [54]. However, not all strains in the pathogenic genera detected are human or agricultural pathogens, and a limitation of this study is that pathogenic or virulent markers associated with the organisms found by sequencing were not further evaluated using PCR assays. Furthermore, because the current findings are based on limited sampling, generalizations cannot be made regarding spatio-temporal distributions of the indicated macro- and microbial communities. Deeper knowledge of associated interactions and potential ecological and environmental implications require more robust studies with intensive samplings throughout the watershed; such an approach will enhance our understanding of the occurrence, interactions, and ultimately the functions of these microbes, informing management and restoration efforts. The combined ecological and epidemiological analysis illustrates that a metagenomic approach is appropriate for addressing the challenges in identifying contamination sources and establishing cumulative risk metrics, and demonstrates the tremendous potential of ecogenomic approaches which, when applied over space and time, could be a valuable tool for epidemiology - specifically for monitoring the simultaneous presence, movement, and evolution of WBDO agents including bacteria, cyanobacteria, viruses, and eukarvotes. This and further studies should therefore allow health agencies to better identify organismspecific health risks and to enhance waterborne disease prevention efforts.

#### Abbreviations

BPA: Bisphenol A; CSO: Combined sewer overflow; Db: Database; FNU: Formazin nephelometric unit, a nephelometric turbidity measure; M5NR: M5 non-redundant protein database; PBT: Persistent bioaccumulative toxins; PCB: Polychlorinated biphenyl; TMDL: Total maximum daily load; WBDO: waterborne disease outbreaks.

#### Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### Authors' contributions

BLB conceived of the study, performed the sampling, DNA extraction, carried out the molecular genetic studies, participated in the sequence alignment, and drafted the manuscript. RVL participated in study design, site selection, and provided epidemiological input. RBF participated in study design, sequencing, and antibiotic resistance analysis. MCR participated in the sequence alignment and bioinformatics analysis. FMC participated in the design of the study and protist analyses. HLE participated in bioinformatic analyses and sequence alignment. VG assisted with impervious surface, data analyses, and figures. KPK provided data analysis, bioinformatics, and annotation. TLK performed some sequencing and statistical analyses. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

#### Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Virginia Commonwealth University Department of Biology and by GenEco, LLC, Richmond, Virginia. Partial funding for 16S sequencing was provided by the Aquatic Ecology Branch of

the US Geological Survey's Leetown Science Center. This paper is contribution #56 from the VCU Rice Rivers Center. The Jeffress Trust Awards in Interdisciplinary Research partially supported the contribution of M.C. Rivera. The authors acknowledge Arthur Butt and Roger Stewart of Virginia Department of Environmental Quality for responding to our Freedom of Information Act request and providing data relating to James River and its uses, Blair Krusz of Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation for assistance with mapping, and Robin Johnson of US Geological Survey Leetown Science Center for sequencing support. The authors thank Michael Sadowsky, Christopher Staley, and Trevor Gould for sharing Mississippi River sequence accessions. The authors also appreciate the valuable insight provided by two anonymous reviewers, and acknowledge John Miller and Aaron Aunins at the US Geological Survey, Leetown Science Center for critical review of this report. Use of trade, product, or firm names does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

#### **Author details**

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Virginia Commonwealth University, 1000 W Cary Street, Richmond, VA 23284, USA. <sup>2</sup>Environmental Epidemiology Division, Virginia Department of Health, 109 Governor Street, Richmond, VA 23219, USA. <sup>3</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Virginia Commonwealth University, 1101 East Marshall Street, Richmond, VA 23298, USA. <sup>4</sup>School of Life Sciences, Virginia Commonwealth University, 1000 W Cary Street, Richmond, VA 23284, USA. <sup>5</sup>Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation, Soil and Water Conservation, 600 East Main Street, Richmond, VA 23219, USA. <sup>6</sup>Argonne National Laboratory, Biosciences Division, 9700 South Cass Avenue, Argonne, IL 60439, USA. <sup>7</sup>US Geological Survey, Aquatic Ecology Branch, Leetown Science Center, 11649 Leetown Road, Kearneysville, WV 25430, USA.

Received: 26 January 2015 Accepted: 19 August 2015 Published online: 19 September 2015

#### References

- Smock LA, Wright AB, Benke AC. Atlantic Coast Rivers of the Southeastern United States. In: Benke AC, Cushing CE, editors. Rivers of North America. New York: Academic; 2005. p. 72–122.
- 2. National Landcover Database. [http://www.mrlc.gov/nlcd2006.php].
- Virginia Department of Environmental Quality: Persistent bioaccumulative toxic chemicals and toxics release inventory. [http://www.deq.state.va.us/ Programs/Air/AirQualityPlanningEmissions/SARATitlelll/ SARA313ToxicsReleaseInventory.aspx].
- Hlavsa MC, Roberts VA, Anderson AR, Hill VR, Kahler AM, Orr M, et al. Surveillance for waterborne disease outbreaks and other health events associated with recreational water - United States, 2007–2008. Morbid Mortal Week Rept. 2011;60:1–32.
- Harwood VJ, Staley C, Badgley BD, Borges K, Korajkic A. Microbial source tracking markers for detection of fecal contamination in environmental waters: Relationships to pathogens and human health outcomes. FEMS Microb Rev. 2014;38:1–40.
- Newton R, Bootsma M, Morrison H, Sogin M, McLellan S. A microbial signature approach to identify fecal pollution in the waters off an urbanized coast of Lake Michigan. Microb Ecol. 2013;65:1011–23.
- Unno T, Jang J, Han D, Kim JH, Sadowsky MJ, Kim OS, et al. Use of barcoded pyrosequencing and shared OTUs to determine sources of fecal bacteria in watersheds. Environ Sci Technol. 2010;44:7777–82.
- Mutreja A, Kim DW, Thomson NR, Connor TR, Lee JH, Kariuki S, et al. Evidence for several waves of global transmission in the seventh cholera pandemic. Nature. 2011;477:462–6.
- Aarestrup FM, Brown EW, Detter C, Gerner-Smidt P, Gilmour MW, HArmsen D, et al. Integrating genome-based informatics to modernize global disease monitoring, information sharing, and response. Emerg Infect Dis. 2012;18, e1.
- 10. Clean Water Act Section 303(d). [water.epa.gov/lawsregs/guidance/303.cfm].
- Meyer F, Paarmann D, D'Souza M, Olson R, Glass EM, Kubal M, et al. The metagenomics RAST server – a public resource for the automatic phylogenetic and functional analysis of metagenomes. BMC Bioinformatics. 2008;9:386.
- Huson DH, Mitra S, Ruscheweyh H-J, Weber N, Schuster SC. Integrative analysis of environmental sequences using MEGAN4. Genome Res. 2011;21:1552–60.
- Wang Q, Garrity GM, Tiedje JM, Cole JR. Naïve Bayesian classifier for rapid assignment of rRNA sequences into the new bacterial taxonomy. Appl Environ Micro. 2007;73:5261–7.

- Bartram AK, Lynch MD, Stearns JC, Moreno-Hagelsieb G, Neufeld JD. Generation of multimillion-sequence 16S rRNA gene libraries from complex microbial communities by assembling paired-end Illumina reads. Appl Environ Micro. 2011;77:3846–52.
- 15. Kent WJ. BLAT—the BLAST-like alignment tool. Genome Res. 2002;12:656-64.
- Dutilh BE, Schmieder R, Nulton J, Felts B, Salamon P, Edwards RA, et al. Reference-independent comparative metagenomics using cross-assembly: crAss. Bioinformatics. 2012;28:3225–31.
- Ghai R, Rodriguez-Valera F, McMahon KD, Toyama D, Rinke R, deOliveira TCS, et al. Metagenomics of the water column in the pristine upper course of the Amazon River. PLoS One. 2011;6, e23785.
- Ghai R, Hernandez CM, Picazo A, Mizuno CM, Ininbergs K, Díez B, et al. Metagenomes of Mediterranean coastal lagoons. Sci Rep. 2012;2:490.
- Holben B. GC Fractionation allows comparative total microbial community analysis, enhances diversity assessment, and facilitates detection of minority populations of bacteria. In: DeBruijn FJ, editor. Handbook of molecular microbial ecology I: Metagenomics and complementary approaches. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc; 2011. p. 183–96.
- Oh S, Caro-Quintero A, Tsementzi D, DeLeon-Rodriguez N, Luo C, Poretsky R, et al. Metagenomic insights into the evolution, function, and complexity of the planktonic microbial community of Lake Lanier, a temperate freshwater ecosystem. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2011;77:6000–11.
- Mukherjee S, Huntemann M, Ivanova N, Kyrpides NC, Pati A. Large-scale contamination of microbial isolate genomes by Illumina PhiX control. Stand Genomic Sci. 2015;10:18.
- Staley C, Gould TJ, Wang P, Phillips J, Cotner JB, Sadowsky MJ. Core functional traits of bacterial communities in the Upper Mississippi River show limited variation in response to land cover. Front Microbiol. 2014;5:1–11.
- Newton RJ, Jones SE, Eiler A, McMahon KD, Bertilsson S. A guide to the natural history of freshwater lake bacteria. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2011;75:14–49.
- Pernthaler J. Freshwater microbial communities. In: Rosenberg E et al., editors. The Prokaryotes – Prokaryotic Communities and Ecophysiology Chapter 6. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag; 2013. p. 97–112.
- Staley C, Unno T, Gould TJ, Jarvis B, Phillips J, Cotner JB, et al. Application of Illumina next-generation sequencing to characterize the bacterial community of the Upper Mississippi River. J Appl Microbiol. 2013;115:1147–58.
- Jeon CO, Park W, Ghiorse WC, Madsen EL. Polaromonas naphthalenivorans sp. nov., a naphthalene-degrading bacterium from naphthalenecontaminated sediment. Int J Syst Evol Micro. 2004;54:93–7.
- Wen A, Fegan M, Hayward C, Chakraborty S, Sly L. Phylogenetic relationships among members of the *Comamonadaceae*, and description of *Delftia acidovorans* (den Dooren de Jong 1926 and Tamaoka et al. 1987) gen. nov., comb. nov. Int J Syst Bacteriol. 1999;49:567–76.
- 28. Khan S, Sistla S, Dhodapkar R, Parija SC. Fatal *Delftia acidovorans* infection in an immunocompetent patient with empyema. Asian Pac J Trop Biomed. 2012;2:923–4.
- Chotikanatis K, Bäcker M, Rosas-Garcia G, Hammerschlag MR. Recurrent intravascular-catheter-related bacteremia caused by *Delftia acidovorans* in a hemodialysis patient. J Clin Microbiol. 2011;49:3418–21.
- Boon N, Top EM, Verstraete W, Siciliano SD. Bioaugmentation as a tool to protect the structure and function of an activated-sludge microbial community against a 3-chloroaniline shock load. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2003;69:1511–20.
- 31. Abraham JM, Simon GL. *Comamonas testosteroni* bacteremia: a case report and review of the literature. Infec Dis Clin Prac. 2007;15:272–3.
- 32. Wang Z, Zhang X-X, Huang K, Miao Y, Shi P, Liu B, et al. Metagenomic profiling of antibiotic resistance genes and mobile genetic elements in a tannery wastewater treatment plant. PLoS One. 2013;8, e76079.
- Rodriguez-Brito B, Li L, Wegley L, Furlan M, Angly F, Breitbart M, et al. Viral and microbial community dynamics in four aquatic environments. ISME J. 2010:4:739–51.
- Steffen MM, Li Z, Effler TC, Hauser LJ, Boyer GL, Wilhelm SW. Comparative metagenomics of toxic freshwater cyanobacteria bloom communities on two continents. PLoS One. 2012;7, e44002.
- Rusch DB, Halpern AL, Sutton G, Heidelberg KB, Williamson S, Yooseph S, et al. The Sorcerer II Global Ocean Sampling expedition: Northwest Atlantic through eastern tropical Pacific. PLoS Biol. 2007;5, e77.
- Suez J, Korem T, Zeevi D, Zilberman-Schapira G, Thaiss CA, Maza O, et al. Artificial sweeteners induce glucose intolerance by altering the gut microbiota. Nature. 2014;514:181–6.
- World Health Organization. Emerging issues in water and infectious disease. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2003.

- Kinge CNW, Mbewe M, Sithebe NP. Detection of bacterial pathogens in river water using multiplex-PCR. In: Hernandez-Rodriguez P, Gomez APR, editors. Polymerase Chain Reaction. InTech; 2012.
- Lampel KA, Al-Khaldi S, Cahill SM. Bad Bug Book Handbook of Foodborne Pathogenic Microorganisms and Natural Toxins. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: US Food and Drug Administration, US Department of Health and Human Services; 2012.
- 40. Ash RJ, Mauck B, Morgan M. Antibiotic resistance of gram-negative bacteria in rivers, United States. Emerg Infect Dis. 2002;8:713–6.
- Wellington EMH, Boxall ABA, Cross P, Feil EJ, Gaze WH, Hawkey PM, et al. The role of the natural environment in the emergence of antibiotic resistance in Gram-negative bacteria. Lancet Infec Dis. 2013;13:155–65.
- 42. Chen J, Jin M, Qui ZG, Guo C, Chen Z-L, Shen Z-Q, et al. A survey of drug resistance *bla* genes originating from synthetic plasmid vectors in six Chinese rivers. Environ Sci Technol. 2012;46:13448–54.
- 43. Fick J, Söderström H, Lindberg RH, Phan C, Tysklind M, Larsson DGJ.
  Contamination of surface, ground, and drinking water from pharmaceutical production. Envir Toxicol Chem. 2009;28:2522–7.
- Graham DW, Olivares-Rieumont S, Knapp CW, Lima L, Werner D, Bowen E. Antibiotic resistance gene abundances associated with waste discharges to the Almendares River near Havana, Cuba. Environ Sci Technol. 2011;45:418–24.
- Quintiliani Jr R, Sahm DF, Courvalin P. Mechanism of resistance to antimicrobial agents. In: Murray PR, Baron EJ, Pfaller MA, Tenover FC, Yolken RH, editors. Manual of clinical microbiology. 7th ed. Washington: ASM Press; 1999. p. 1505–25.
- Young S, Juhl A, O'Mullan GD. Antibiotic-resistant bacteria in the Hudson River Estuary linked to wet weather sewage contamination. J Water Health. 2013;11:297–310.
- 47. Wise R, Hart T, Cars O, Streulens M, Helmuth R, Huovinen P, et al. Antimicrobial resistance is a major threat to public health. BMJ. 1998;317:609–10.
- Winter C, Hein T, Kavka G, Mach RL, Farnleitner AH. Longitudinal changes in the bacterial community composition of the Danube River: a whole- river approach. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2007;73:421–31.
- Kirchman DL, Dittel Al, Findlay SEG, Fischer D. Changes in bacterial activity and community structure in response to dissolved organic matter in the Hudson River, New York. Aquat Microb Ecol. 2004;35:243–57.
- Azam F, Fenchel T, Field JG, Gray JS, Meyer-Reil LA, Thingstad F. The ecological role of water-column microbes in the sea. Mar Ecol Prog Ser. 1983;10:257–63.
- Stahl DA, Flowers JJ, Hullar M, Davidson S. Structure and function of microbial communities. In: Rosenberg E et al., editors. The Prokaryotes – Prokaryotic Communities and Ecophysiology. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer; 2013. p. 1–29.
- Villemur R, dos Santos SCC, Ouellette J, Juteau P, Lepine F, Déziel E. Biodegradation of endocrine disruptors in solid-liquid two-phase partitioning systems by enrichment cultures. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2013;79:4701–11.
- Carlisle J, Chan D, Golub M, Henkel S, Painter P, Wu KL. Toxicological profile for bisphenol A Final report of the California Environmental Protection Agency Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment. Oakland: California Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment; 2009. http://www.opc.ca.gov/ webmaster/ftp/project\_pages/MarineDebris\_OEHHA\_ToxProfiles/ Bisphenol%20A%20Final.pdf.
- Vaz-Moreira I, Nunes OC, Manaia CM. Bacterial diversity and antibiotic resistance in water habitats: searching the links with the human microbiome. FEMS Microbiol Rev. 2014;38:761–78.

# Submit your next manuscript to BioMed Central and take full advantage of:

- Convenient online submission
- Thorough peer review
- No space constraints or color figure charges
- Immediate publication on acceptance
- Inclusion in PubMed, CAS, Scopus and Google Scholar
- Research which is freely available for redistribution

Submit your manuscript at www.biomedcentral.com/submit

