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### Microbial metabolomics: past, present and future methodologies — Source link []

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- 1 Abstract
- 2

3 Microbial metabolomics has received much attention in recent years mainly because it 4 supports and complements a wide range of microbial research areas from new drug 5 discovery efforts to metabolic engineering. Broadly, the term metabolomics refers to the 6 comprehensive (qualitative and quantitative) analysis of the complete set of all low 7 molecular weight metabolites present in and around growing cells at a given time during 8 their growth or production cycle. This mini review focuses on the past, current and future 9 development of various experimental protocols in the rapid developing area of 10 metabolomics in the ongoing quest to reliably quantify microbial metabolites formed 11 under defined physiological conditions. These developments range from rapid sample 12 collection, instant guenching of microbial activity, extraction of the relevant intracellular 13 metabolites as well as quantification of these metabolites using enzyme based and or 14 modern high tech hyphenated analytical protocols, mainly chromatographic techniques 15 coupled to mass spectrometry (LC-MS<sup>n</sup>, GC-MS<sup>n</sup>, CE-MS<sup>n</sup>), where n indicates the 16 number of tandem mass spectrometry, and nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy 17 (NMR).

18

19

## 1 Introduction

2 Quantitative understanding of microbial metabolism and its in vivo regulation requires 3 knowledge of both extracellular and intracellular metabolites. Traditionally, this 4 knowledge is acquired through fast sampling, instant arrest of metabolic activity and 5 deactivation of endogenous enzymatic activity, metabolite extraction and subsequent 6 quantification of intracellular reactants (metabolites). Extracellular metabolites are 7 guantified in the cell free supernatant obtained either by filtration or centrifugation at low 8 temperatures. The ongoing guest towards understanding *in vivo* regulation of microbial 9 metabolic networks has been the primary fuel for the recent rapid developments in 10 metabolomics, i.e. quantification of the total complement of metabolites inside 11 (endometabolome) and outside (exometabolome) a cell under different growth 12 conditions. Although, the term metabolome has only surfaced in the late 90's (Oliver et 13 al., 1998; Tweeddale et al., 1998), metabolomics research has been in existence since 14 the late 1960 and early 1970's (Harrison & Maitra, 1969; Gancedo & Gancedo, 1973). In 15 recent years, various extensions of metabolite analysis terminology have also surfaced 16 so as to differentiate qualitative analysis of both exometabolome and endometabolome 17 referred to as metabolite footprinting and metabolite fingerprinting, respectively. On the 18 contrary, quantitative analysis of known pre-defined metabolites is referred to as target 19 analysis (Jewett et al., 2006). Metabolomics research has become so relevant that it has 20 recently culminated in the formation of a Metabolomics Society as well as a dedicated 21 journal called Metabolomics, launched in 2005.

However, routine detection and quantification of intracellular metabolites *in vivo* remains a challenge, therefore most metabolomics research relies on the isolation of metabolites from biological sample (i.e. *in vitro* analysis). Therefore, successful application of the

craft of metabolomics dictates development and integration of robust and reliable
 protocols ranging from microbial cultivation techniques (defined biomass), biomass
 sampling procedures, isolation/extraction of relevant metabolites of interest as well as
 quantitative analysis of these metabolites.

5 Weibel *et al.* (1974) reported a rapid sampling technique for yeast cells with a very short 6 time interval between harvesting and simultaneous inactivation and intracellular 7 metabolites extraction from the cells. This method laid the foundation for quantitative 8 analysis of the microbial metabolome as reported later by Saez & Lagunas, (1976). The 9 method was further refined and automated by de Koning & van Dam (1992), Gonzalez 10 *et al.* (1997), Schaefer *et al.* (1999), Theobald *et al.* (1993 and 1997), and Visser *et al.* 11 (2002).

12 It is desirable that effective instant quenching methods for metabolic activity fulfil some 13 basic requirements such as: no cell leakage should occur during the process or if 14 leakage does occur, the leaked metabolites should be quantifiable. Many researchers 15 have embarked on systematic investigations of various quenching methods and the 16 outcome has been that most prokaryotic microorganisms (bacteria) behave differently 17 when exposed to the almost universal cold methanol protocol than eukaryotic 18 microorganisms (e.g. yeasts and filamentous fungi). Recently, some authors have 19 evaluated cold methanol protocol as an extraction protocol for extracting intracellular 20 metabolites in *E. coli* and *Corynebacterium glutamicum* (Maharjan & Ferenci, 2003; 21 Wittman et al., 2004).

22 Microbial metabolomic strategies generally aim at quantifying microbial substrates and 23 products at two levels, i.e. outside the cells (extracellular) and inside the cells 24 (intracellular). It is therefore important to distinguish the origin of the substrates and

1 products from the culture as extracellular or intracellular. The first step in distinguishing 2 the origin of these metabolites is to separate the cells (biomass) from the culture 3 supernatant. This challenge is widely achieved by rapid sampling techniques from 4 bioreactors, followed by rapid quenching (arrest) of metabolic activity. Figure 1 depicts 5 all common steps involved in metabolomics studies ranging from sample collection to 6 metabolite analysis. Rapid quenching of microbial metabolic activity is traditionally 7 achieved by instant change of sample temperature to either low (e.g. <-40°C) or high 8 temperatures (e.g.  $>+80^{\circ}$ C), or by applying extreme sample pH to either high (alkali, e.g. 9 KOH or NaOH) or low (acid, e.g. perchloric acid, HCl or trichloroacetic acid). Following 10 rapid quenching, the cells are separated from the medium by centrifugation at low 11 temperatures or filtration, however, the former tend to be the preferred choice. The 12 biomass is then permeabilized to extract intracellular metabolites usually with organic 13 solvents, i.e. ethanol or chloroform at high or low temperatures respectively. The organic 14 solvents are then removed usually by evaporation under vacuum. The remaining residue 15 is resuspended in small volume of ultra-pure water, centrifuged and the supernatant 16 stored at low temperatures until analysis with appropriate analytical method (Figure 1). 17 Metabolite analysis methods vary from enzymatic based methods (Bergmeyer et al. 18 1985) to modern hyphenated techniques such as gas chromatography coupled to mass 19 spectrometry (GC-MS) or liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) and 20 most recently capillary electrophoresis mass spectrometry (CE-MS). It is important at 21 this stage to mention that an ideal quenching and extraction protocol should meet 22 certain minimum prerequisites, amongst which are:

Quenching procedures should ideally instantly arrest (freeze) cellular metabolic
 activity.

1	2. No significant cell membrane damage should occur during the quenching
2	procedure as this might lead to the loss of intracellular metabolites from cells due
3	to leakage.

- 3. The extraction procedure should extract as wide a range of metabolites as
  possible.
- 6 4. The procedure should not modify the intracellular metabolites, neither physically7 nor chemically, so as to make them unidentifiable.

5. The resulting sample matrix should be compatible or amenable to the analyticalmethod of choice.

10

# 11 Biomass source

12 Metabolomics studies requires biomass source which is achieved by growing 13 microorganisms under controlled environment in bioreactors. In a bioreactor, 14 temperature, pH, medium components as well as dissolved gas concentrations such 15 as oxygen  $(O_2)$  and carbon dioxide  $(CO_2)$  are easily controlled so that the 16 microenvironment is well defined. Well defined growth conditions are necessary in 17 order to establish standard and reproducible reference culture conditions. In addition, 18 bioreactors can be operated in a batch, fed-batch or continuous mode (Figure 2). 19 Recently, the majority of the researchers in metabolomics tend to prefer continuous 20 culture mode of bioreactor operation for several reasons:

- 21
- Specific growth rate ( $\mu$ ) = dilution rate (D) can be well defined and fixed.

23

22

- One specific growth limiting medium component such as carbon source can be imposed.

- By fixing the specific growth rate, all other fluxes such as specific substrate
   uptake rate (q<sub>s</sub>); oxygen uptake rate (OUR) as well as carbon dioxide
   evolution rate (CER) are fixed.
- 4 5

Physiological steady state condition can easily be achieved and reproduced.

6 However, during growth in a continuous culture mode, the residual substrate 7 concentration (e.g. glucose) is usually very low, in the range of approximately 12 mg/l 8 and 20 mg/l for E. coli K12 W3110 and for S. cerevisiae CEN.PK 113-7D grown at a dilution rate of 0.1 h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.05 h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Chassagnole *et al.*, 2002; Mashego *et* 9 10 al., 2003). It is therefore, critical to rapidly collect the sample from the bioreactor and 11 arrest cellular metabolism instantaneously upon the transfer of broth from the bioreactor, 12 failure of which would result in the disturbance of the physiological steady state of the 13 culture due to substrate deprivation. In contrast to the continuous culture mode, rapid 14 sampling is not of critical importance in batch cultures, mainly because substrate 15 concentration may be high enough not to lead to a significant change of the 16 physiological state of the cells.

17 One disadvantage of the chemostat culture conditions is that the culture medium 18 composition is designed in such a way that only one growth limiting medium component 19 such as carbon source is limiting whereas other components, e.g. phosphate and 20 sulphate are in excess. For example, in glucose limited *E. coli* culture medium, typical 21 residual phosphate and sulphate concentration is in the order of 4 mM and 6 mM 22 respectively. Therefore, separation of the biomass from the rest of the high residual salt 23 containing supernatant following the quenching step is critical. After the separation of 24 the biomass, the high salt content that remains attached to the biomass is removed by

washing the cell pellet with similar quenching solution at low temperature (<-40°C). This</li>
washing step is necessary; especially when liquid chromatography coupled to
electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry based analysis method is used, since LCESI-MS/MS is prone to ion suppression (e.g. phosphate and sulphate).

5

#### 6 Rapid Sampling techniques

7 Rapid sampling techniques have been developed so that the resulting samples 8 represent *in vivo* conditions. These sampling techniques are necessitated by the high 9 turnover rates of intracellular metabolites such as glucose-6-phosphate and ATP, which 10 are usually in the order of 1-2 seconds (Weibel et al., 1974; de Koning & van Dam, 11 1992). Therefore, successful capture of the *in vivo* snapshot of the metabolic state of the 12 cells and metabolite pool levels requires that the time between sample collection and 13 quenching should ideally be shorter than the turnover rates for such metabolites. 14 Furthermore, during pulse response experiments, in which a growth limiting medium 15 component such as glucose is instantly increased in a chemostat, simultaneous rapid 16 sampling and quenching of metabolic activity is indispensable for studying the rapid 17 dynamics of cellular metabolism, see Figures 3 & 4. Rapid sampling protocols have 18 been used successfully for yeast, bacteria and filamentous fungi (Theobald *et al.*, 1993; 19 Weuster-Botz, 1997; Schaefer et al., 1999; Lange et al., 2001; Buziol et al., 2002; Visser 20 et al., 2002; Ruiter & Visser, 1996).

Schaefer *et al.* (1999) reported an automated sampling device capable of a sampling frequency of 0.22 seconds per sample. The sample flasks are fixed in a transport magazine moving horizontally by a step engine. Useful application of this sampling device was demonstrated through measurements of the intracellular metabolites of *E.* 

1 coli K-12 grown to steady state in a continuous culture and then perturbed by the 2 instantaneous increase in residual glucose concentration. Furthermore, Buchholz et al. 3 (2002) used the same device to follow over 30 intracellular metabolites response in E. 4 coli after glucose or glycerol perturbations. In the guest to capture fast reaction 5 dynamics in E. coli K12 after a glucose pulse, Buziol et al. (2002) developed the 6 stopped-flow sampling technique capable of achieving sampling times as fast as 100 7 milliseconds between glucose stimulus point and the first sample collection point. This 8 sampling frequency was facilitated by the applied high bioreactor overpressure of 0.4-9 0.5 bar. The stopped-flow sampling technique was successfully used by Chassagnole et 10 al. (2002) for following intracellular concentrations of metabolites and coenzymes in E. 11 coli at transient conditions.

12 Visser et al. (2002) developed a rapid sampling and perturbation device (BioScope) 13 which is a mini plug flow reactor that can be coupled to the steady state bioreactor that 14 serves as a source for biomass. The steady state biomass is directed into the BioScope 15 where it is perturbed with various agents such as ethanol, glucose and most recently 16 acetaldehyde (Mashego et al., 2006a). This device has become relevant in microbial 17 research since it has been used with Penicillium chrysogenum, Saccharomyces 18 cerevisiae and E. coli (Nasution et al., 2006; Mashego et al., 2006b) and tends to 19 generate extensive and rich data sets from a single chemostat as can be seen in 20 Figures 3 and 4.

21

#### 22 Exometabolome

23 Measurement of excreted extracellular metabolite levels (exometabolome) as well as 24 substrate concentrations is indispensable in metabolomics studies. In the literature,

1 many different methods have been described to rapidly arrest metabolic activity for 2 measurement of the residual substrate concentration in glucose limited chemostat 3 cultures as well as during dynamic perturbation experiments (Theobald et al., 1993; 4 Postma et al., 1989: van Hoek et al., 1999). Theobald et al. (1993) used pre-cooled 15 5 ml glass tubes containing 10-15 glass beads (diameter 4 mm) at -10 °C and later pre-6 cooled tubes filled with 10-15 stainless steel spheres (4mm diameter) at -10°C for 7 rapidly cooling the broth for subsequent analysis of extracellular metabolites. Postma et 8 al. (1989), Verduyn et al. (1992), van Hoek et al., (1999) and Diderich et al. (1999) used 9 fast sampling of the broth directly into liquid nitrogen, followed by thawing in ice with 10 gentle shaking to keep the cell suspension at 0 °C. The suspension was later 11 centrifuged to separate biomass from the supernatant. Most recently, Mashego et al. 12 (2003) critically evaluated sampling protocols for reliable determination of residual 13 glucose concentration in glucose limited chemostat cultures of yeast. These authors 14 concluded that use of liquid nitrogen as a quenching method to rapidly arrest cellular 15 metabolism for quantitative analysis of extracellular glucose is not a very reliable 16 method, whereas the filter syringe steel beads protocol work very well (Figure 3). This 17 method has been demonstrated to work satisfactory for extracellular metabolites such 18 as pyruvate, acetate and ethanol in S. cerevisiae, Penicillium chrysogenum and E. coli 19 (Mashego et al., 2006b; Nasution et al., 2006; unpublished data).

20

## 1 Endometabolome

# 2 Quenching methods for microbial cells metabolic activity (Table I)

3 Bacteria

Jensen et al. (1999) used 60% v/v methanol at -35 °C to bring about fast and complete 4 5 stop of metabolic activity in Lactobacillus lactis. These authors noticed cell leakage of 6 intracellular metabolites into the guenching solution, although the extent of the leakage 7 was not quantified. Buchholz et al. (2001), Kaderbhai et al. (2003), Al Zaid Siddiguee et 8 al. (2004); Oldiges et al., (2004) and Hogue et al. (2005) guenched E. coli cells with 60% 9 methanol solution buffered with 70mM HEPES at -50°C, -40°C, and -80°C, respectively, 10 but again these authors neither mentioned nor tested cell leakage during the guenching 11 procedure. Liquid nitrogen (-196 °C) has been used by Chassagnole et al. (2002) for 12 rapid guenching of *E. coli* metabolic activity. This method requires thawing of the frozen 13 sample followed by separation of the cells from the medium by centrifugation. It is highly 14 likely that during the freezing of the biomass, ice crystals may damage the cell 15 membranes, thus leading to metabolite leakage and hence inaccurate quantification of 16 the metabolites.

Wittmann *et al.* (2004) reported a systematic investigation of the effect of cold shock on the intracellular quantification of amino acids in *Corynebacterium glutamicum*. They investigated and compared quenching the cells with 60% methanol/water at -58°C; 10mM HEPES buffered 60% v/v methanol at -58°C, cold 0.9% NaCl at -0.5°C, and quick filtration. They concluded that all quenching methods tested led to the cell leakage in *C. glutamicum* and hence these methods were found not to be suitable for quantification of intracellular metabolites in this organism and that quick filtration without quenching was

most suitable for quantification of intracellular metabolites exhibiting time constants
significantly larger than the sampling time.

3

#### 4 Filamentous fungi

5 Ruijter & Visser (1996) employed 60% v/v methanol buffered with ethanolamine (pH 7.3) 6 at -45°C to quench metabolic activity of Aspergillus niger. Glycolytic intermediates, 7 pyridine and adenine nucleotides were quantified enzymatically. These authors did not 8 observe any leakage of metabolites during guenching. Hajjaj et al. (1998) compared two 9 rapid guenching techniques (i.e. liquid nitrogen and cold 10mM HEPES buffered 10 methanol, 60 % v/v at -40°C) in the filamentous fungus *Monascus ruber*. They found that 11 arrest of metabolism was equally effective using both methods; however, no data on cell 12 leakage during the guenching procedure was reported. The cold methanol (60% v/v) 13 quenching protocol has been recently used in our laboratory for quantification of 14 intracellular metabolites of glycolysis, TCA cycle, and adenine nucleotides in Penicillium 15 chrysogenum (Nasution et al. 2006). In this work, the data of ATP analysis used as an 16 indicator metabolite for leakage suggested that no significant leakage occurred since 17 ATP was not detected in the quenching nor washing fluid.

18

# 19 Yeast

20 Cold methanol (60%v/v) has been widely used to quench metabolic activity in 21 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (de Koning & van Dam 1992, Gonzalez *et al.* 1997, Visser *et* 22 *al.* 2002, Mashego *et al.* 2004). This method is popular mainly because it allows instant 23 quenching of metabolic activity followed by separation of biomass from the growth 24 medium, so that biomass can be extracted with minimal contamination from medium

1 salts, usually present at high levels, as well as metabolites that are present both 2 intracellularly and extracellularly such as pyruvate. Castrillo et al. (2003) reported an 3 optimized protocol for metabolome analysis in yeast using direct infusion electrospray 4 mass spectrometry. These authors tested cold methanol based guenching fluid buffered 5 with HEPES, PIPES and Tricine and concluded that the latter was more efficient as it is 6 a non-salt buffer compatible with electrospray mass spectrometry. However, these 7 authors did not report on cell leakage during the guenching procedure. Furthermore, the 8 metabolite analysis was not quantitative but rather were qualitative based on the peak 9 sharpness.

10 Most recently, Villas-Bôas et al. (2005a) have reviewed and evaluated the whole sample 11 preparation procedures for the analysis of intracellular metabolites in a batch grown S. 12 cerevisiae CEN.PK 113-7D. These authors observed leakage of intracellular metabolites 13 (TCA cycle, organic acids and amino acids) in yeast during the methanol/water 14 quenching procedure. Furthermore, they noticed varying efficacy of six different 15 extraction procedures as well as losses of metabolites during sample concentration by 16 lyophilization and solvent evaporation. However, sugar phosphates were not detected in 17 the guenching fluid, suggesting that leakage of metabolites during the guenching 18 procedure is not universal but rather metabolite specific.

19

# 20 Extraction methods for intracellular metabolites

Intracellular metabolites should be exposed to various analytical procedures, usually by
exposing cells to cell membrane permeabilizing agents (Table II). These agents should
neither physically nor chemically modify the metabolites targeted for analysis.
Furthermore, the extraction procedure should extract as many metabolites as possible

1 with minimal degradation. The inherent dilution effects of some of the procedures should 2 be kept as minimal as possible. In the forefront of the extraction agents (Table II) are 3 boiling 75% ethanol (v/v) (Gonzalez et al., 1997; Hajjaj et al., 1998; Visser et al., 2002; Maharjan & Ferenci, 2003; Mashego et al., 2004; Villas-Bôas et al. 2005a; Nasution et 4 5 al., 2006); 50-100% methanol (Tweeddale et al., 1998; Maharjan & Ferenci, 2003; Wittman et al., 2004; Villas-Bôas et al., 2005a); trichloroacetic acid, acetic acid, 6 7 hydrochloric acid, perchloric acid, Tris-H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/EDTA, ethyl acetate or KOH (Bagnara & 8 Finch, 1972; Lilius et al., 1979; de Koning & van Dam, 1992; Theobald et al., 1993; 9 Tweeddale et al., 1998; Schaefer et al., 1999; Chassagnole et al., 2002; Oldiges et al., 10 2004; Kammerer et al., 2004; Villas-Bôas et al., 2005a; Kayser et al., 2005; Weber et al., 11 2005); chloroform or toluene (de Koning & van Dam, 1992; Tweeddale et al., 1998; 12 Jensen et al., 1999; Maharjan & Ferenci, 2003; Villas-Bôas et al., 2005a); as well as hot 13 water (Bhatthacharya et al., 1995. Recently, an extraction method of intracellular 14 metabolites in *Mycobacterium bovis* combining deep freezing in liquid nitrogen and 15 mechanical grinding of cells has been reported (Jaki et. al., 2006). Typical metabolites 16 extracted with these methods include intermediates from glycolysis, tricarboxylic acid 17 cycle, pentose phosphate pathway as well as purine and pyridmidine nucleotides, amino 18 acids and other low molecular weight compounds.

19

## 20 Analytic platforms

Traditionally, quantitative analysis of exometabolome and endometabolome has been carried out using enzyme-based assays (Bergmeyer *et al.*, 1985; Hajjaj *et al.*, 1998; Ruijter & Visser, 1996; Theobald *et al.*, 1993 and 1997). However, the available small sample volumes and the relatively large volumes needed in those assays limit the

analysis to single or a few metabolites per sample. Additionally, the reliable
quantification of intracellular metabolite concentrations is hindered by the low
concentrations of these compounds in cells and is exacerbated by the dilution of the
already low metabolite concentrations during the quenching/extraction steps.
Furthermore, the complex cellular matrix might interfere with the analytical procedures
applied.

7 The advent of high sensitivity liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-ESI/MS<sup>n</sup>), 8 gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS<sup>n</sup>) and most recently capillary 9 electrophoresis-mass spectrometry (CE-MS<sup>n</sup>) has broadened the range of techniques 10 available for the quantification of intracellular and extracellular metabolites (Cech & 11 Enke, 2001; Tomer, 2001; Buchholz et al., 2001 and 2002; van Dam et al., 2002; 12 Castrillo et al., 2003; Farre et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2005; Edwards & Thomas-Oates, 13 2005; Villas-Bôas et al., 2006; Ramautar et al., 2006). These methods combine 14 chromatographic techniques for separation of metabolites based on their physical and 15 chemical properties coupled to mass detection with mass spectrometry (Dunn & Ellis, 16 2005; Dunn et al., 2005). The advantages which have led to the increasing use of these 17 analytical techniques are the high sensitivity, the simultaneous quantification of many 18 different metabolites (glycolysis, tricarboxylic acid cycle and pentose phosphate 19 pathway) and the small sample volumes (10µL) required for analysis with a detection 20 limit in the picomole range (van Dam et al., 2002; Villas-Bôas et al., 2005b). Although 21 successful, there are still some challenges with the LC-ESI-MS/MS analytical technique, 22 amongst which are the high salt content of typical microbial complex media samples that 23 interferes with the operation of electrospray ion sources by clogging the skimmer and 24 obscuring or suppressing the ionisation efficiency of the ESI (Shi, 2002; Fernie et al.,

1 2004). Additionally, carbon limited growth conditions are advocated for cultivating 2 reproducibly biomass, in which the medium composition is designed in such a way that 3 all required nutrients except for the one under investigation such as a carbon source should typically be in excess, i.e. 20-50% more than minimally required to support a pre-4 5 defined biomass concentration. This excessive extra mineral salts levels invariably leads 6 to an even higher salt load of the samples and hence ion suppression to the ESI. 7 However, most recently, ion suppression problem in the ESI has been alleviated by the 8 introduction of the Mass Isotopomer Ratio Analysis of U-<sup>13</sup>C-Labeled Extracts 9 (MIRACLE; Mashego et al., 2004) and Isotope Dilution Mass Spectrometry (IDMS; Wu et al., 2005), which uses fully <sup>13</sup>C-labeled metabolites as internal standard (Figure 4). In 10 11 addition, IDMS analytical method eliminates the traditionally required spiking and 12 standard additions needed for metabolite recovery studies during the extraction procedures as well as during analysis. Furthermore, successful measurement of <sup>13</sup>C-13 14 label distributions of free intracellular metabolites from steady state grown S. cerevisiae 15 by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry has been reported (van Winden et al. 16 2005). This method is crucial in metabolic flux analysis studies as well as identification 17 and validation of metabolic network structure.

GC-MS<sup>n</sup> analysis method measures volatile compounds and non volatiles that can be volatilized through derivatization protocols, thus adding more steps to the analytical protocols (Koek *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, efficient and reproducible derivatization methods which are central to the success of GC-MS metabolome analysis methods need to be developed and fine tuned so as to minimize likely errors propagated by these additional steps in the quantitative analysis of the metabolome.

CE-MS<sup>n</sup> metabolome analysis protocols are still in their infancy, although promising as
 has recently been demonstrated (Edwards *et al.*, 2006; Ramautar *et al.*, 2006).

3

#### 4 Conclusion and Future Outlook

5 Great progress in microbial metabolomics has been achieved in the last 37 years. 6 However, it is clear that there appears to be no universal methodology in microbial 7 metabolomics for instantaneous quenching of microbial metabolic activity, extraction of 8 all low molecular weight metabolites and analysis of these metabolites of interest. This 9 challenge is exacerbated by the high degree of chemical diversity such as polar and 10 non-polar characteristics inherent to low molecular weight metabolites. Obviously, the 11 current procedures appear to be strongly organism dependent/specific as well, hence 12 procedures developed for metabolome quantification in prokaryotes (e.g. bacteria) 13 cannot be directly transferred to eukaryotes (e.g. yeast or filamentous fungi) without 14 optimization. The main problem that remains to be resolved is leakage of intracellular 15 metabolites into the surrounding medium during the quenching step especially in 16 prokaryotes). Therefore, a leakage test is essential - albeit often neglected - when a 17 guenching protocol is developed for precise guantification of the metabolites. Similar 18 arguments hold for the extraction protocols, in that the losses of metabolites need to be 19 established and corrected for during the extraction step or labeled internal standards 20 have to be used to correct for the possible metabolite losses. The latter procedure, i.e. 21 labelled internal standards has successfully been used before in Saccharomyces 22 cerevisiae (Figure 4) and Penicillium chrysogenum (Wu et al., 2005; Nasution et al., 23 2006). Furthermore, designing a single method that could separate all metabolites 24 appears to be unthinkable given the wide diversity in chemical and physical properties

inherent to the metabolites constituting the microbial metabolome. Therefore, it appears
more practical to develop techniques dedicated to and targeting classes of metabolites,
i.e. sugar intermediates, organic acids, amino acids, and cofactors. As suggested before
by Nielsen & Oliver, (2005) and Griffin, (2006), the development of a metabolomics
database containing accurately measured metabolite concentrations under given sets of
standard culture conditions would serve as a reference guide and could position
metabolomics as an essential part of microbial research and technology.

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Quenching agent	Buffer	Temperature	Microorganism	Reference
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	-	-40°C	L. lactis	Jensen <i>et al</i> ., (1999)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O		-40°C	S. cerevisiae	Mashego <i>et al</i> ., (2004)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O		-40°C	S. cerevisiae	Villas-Bôas <i>et al</i> ., (2005a)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	HEPES	-40°C	Monascus ruber	Hajjaj <i>et al</i> ., (1998)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	HEPES	-40°C/-50°C	E. coli	Buchholz <i>et al</i> ., (2001); Oldiges <i>et al.,</i> 2004
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	HEPES	-40°C/-50°C	C. glutamicum	Wittmann <i>et al</i> ., (2004)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	HEPES	-40°C/-50°C	E. coli	Al Zaid Siddiquee et al., (2004)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	Ethanolamine	-45°C	A. niger	Ruijter & Visser, (1996)
60% (v/v) MeOH/H <sub>2</sub> O	Tricine	-40°C	S. cerevisiae	Castrillo <i>et al</i> ., (2003)
Liquid nitrogen	-	-150°C	Monascus ruber	Hajjaj <i>et al</i> ., (1998)
Liquid nitrogen	-	-150°C	E. coli	Buziol et al., (2002); Chassagnole et al., (2002)

Table I. Comparison of various quenching protocols for microbial metabolic activity

Extraction agent	xtraction agent Temperature Microorganism		Reference
75% Ethanol	> 80°C	S. cerevisiae, Monascus ruber	Gonzalez et al., (1997); Hajjaj et al., (1998); Castrillo
			<i>et al.</i> , (2003)
75% Ethanol	> 80°C	S. cerevisiae, E. coli, P. chrysogenum	Visser <i>et al.</i> , (2002)
Perchloric acid	-25°C, -80°C	S. cerevisiae	Theobald <i>et al</i> ., (1993 and 1997)
Perchloric acid	-80°C, -25°C	Monascus ruber	Hajjaj <i>et al</i> ., (1998)
Perchloric acid	-80°C, -25°C	<i>E. coli</i> K-12 W3110	Chassagnole <i>et al</i> ., (2002); Oldiges <i>et al.,</i> 2004
Tris-H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> /EDTA	90°C	<i>E. coli</i> K-12 W3110	Buziol <i>et al</i> ., (2002); Chassagnole <i>et al.,</i> (2002)
Ethyl acetate	ambient	Streptomyces spheroides;	Kammerer et al. (2004)
		Streptomyces roseochromogenes	
Water	100°C	E. coli	Bhattacharya <i>et al</i> . (1995)
КОН	ambient	S. cerevisiae	Theobald <i>et al</i> ., (1993 and 1997)
КОН	ambient	Monascus ruber	Hajjaj <i>et al</i> ., (1998)
KOH	ambient	E. coli	Chassagnole <i>et al</i> ., (2002)
KOH	ambient	A. niger	Ruijter & Visser, (1996)
α-aminobutyrate	α-aminobutyrate 100°C <i>C. glutamicum</i>		Wittmann <i>et al.</i> , (2004)
Chloroform	-	Monascus ruber	Hajjaj <i>et al</i> ., (1998)
Chloroform	-	L. lactis	Jensen <i>et al</i> . (1999)

Table II. Comparison of various microbial biomass extraction protocols for intracellular metabolites

# Figure legends

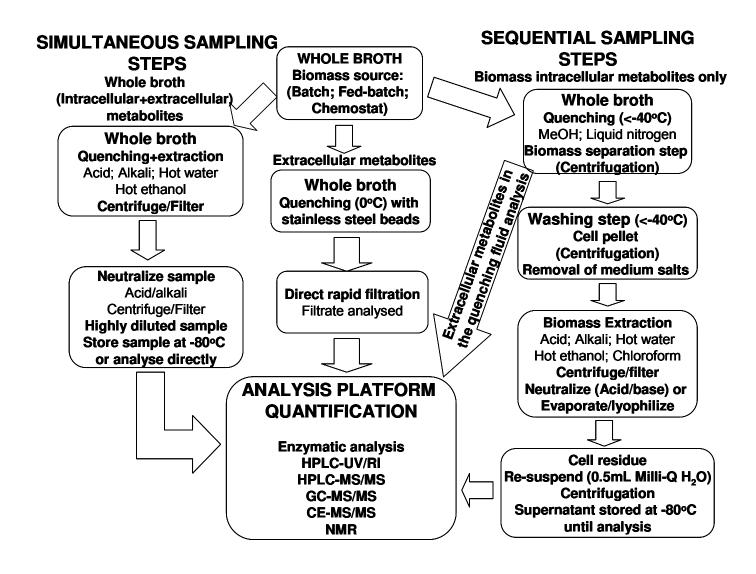
Figure 1. Flow diagram of sampling procedure, metabolic activity quenching, intracellular metabolite extraction (endometabolome), extracellular metabolite (exometabolome) and analysis procedures for quantification

Figure 2. Typical bioreactor. When valves A and B are closed, the bioreactor is operating in a batch mode. When valve A is open and fresh medium is fed to the bioreactor, the bioreactor is operating in a fed-batch mode, and volume does not remain constant, but increases. This mode of bioreactor operation is widely used in industry. When both valve A and B are open and  $F_{in} \approx F_{out}$ ; the bioreactor is operated in continuous mode. The bioreactor volume remains constant.

Figure 3. Extracellular glucose concentration profile obtained by rapid sampling after a glucose pulse applied to aerobically, glucose-limited grown *S. cerevisiae* at D=0.05  $h^{-1}$ .

Figure 4. Intracellular glucose-6-phosphate concentration profile obtained by rapid sampling, quenching and extraction of biomass after a glucose pulse applied to aerobically, glucose-limited grown *S. cerevisiae* at D=0.05  $h^{-1}$ .





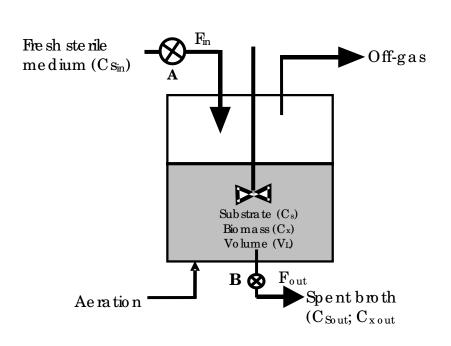


Figure 2

Figure 3

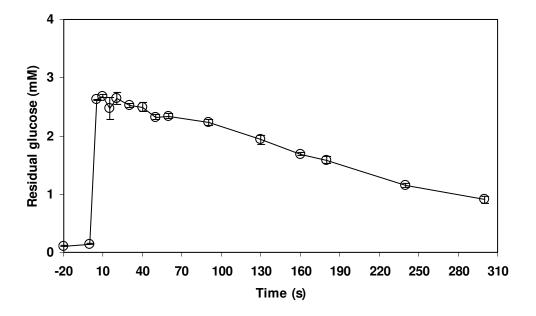


Figure 4

