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A framework for assessing 16S marker gene survey data analysis methods using mixtures.

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Abstract

Background: Analysis of 16S rRNA marker-gene surveys , used to characterize prokaryotic microbial communities, may be performed by numerous a variety of bioinformatic pipelines and downstream analysis methods. However, appropriate assessment datasets and statistics are needed as there is limited guidance on how to decide between methods, appropriate data sets and statistics for assessing these methods are needed. We developed a mixture dataset with real data complexity and an expected value for assessing available analysis methods. Mixtures of environmental samples are useful for assessment as they provide values calculated from measurements of the unmixed samples and the mixture design that can be compared to values recovered by each bioinformatic method. While experiments mixing complex samples have been used to assess other sequencing methods such as RNAseq, they have yet to be used to assess 16S rRNA sequencing.

Results: We developed an assessment framework for 16S rRNA bioinformatic pipelines and downstream analysis methods. We generate an assessment dataset using sequencing analysis methods based on a two-sample titration mixture design. The sequencing data were processed using multiple bioinformatic pipelines, dataset and metrics to evaluate OTU count table characteristics. Our qualitative assessment evaluates feature presence/absence exploiting features only present in unmixed samples or titrations by testing if random sampling can explain their observed relative abundance. Our quantitative assessment evaluates how well relative and differential abundance values agree with values expected from the mixture design. We evaluated count tables generated by three commonly used bioinformatic pipelines as demonstration: i) DADA2 a sequence inference method, ii) Mothur a de novo clustering method, and iii) QIIME with which uses open-reference clustering. The mixture dataset was used to qualitatively and quantitatively assess count tables generated using the pipelines.

The qualitative assessment was used to evalute features only present in unmixed samples and titrations. The abundance Qualitative assessment indicated that the majority of Mothur and QIIME features specific to unmixed samples and or titrations were explained by sampling alone. However, for random sampling alone but not DADA2 over a third of the unmixed sample and titration specific feature abundance could not be explained by sampling alone. The quantitative assessment evaluated pipeline performance by comparing observed to expected relative and differential abundance values. Overall the observed relative abundance features. When combined with assessments of count table sparsity, these results indicate that DADA2 has a higher false negative rate whereas Mothur and QIIME have higher false positive rates. Quantitative assessment indicated that, overall, observed relative abundance and differential abundance values were consistent with the expected values. Though outlier features were observed across all pipelines . expected values for all three pipelines. We also identified subsets of features measured with high error by all pipelines evaluated. We could not identify the source of bias in these poor performing features based on previously studied sources of bias, indicating that further analysis of potentially unknown and unaccounted for biases is warranted.

Conclusions: Using a novel mixture dataset and assessment methods we quantitatively and qualitatively. We developed a novel framework for assessing 16S rRNA marker-gene survey analysis methods based on mixture experiments. To demonstrate the assessment framework we evaluated count tables generated using three bioinformatic pipelines. The dataset and methods assessment framework developed for this study will serve as a valuable community resource for assessing 16S rRNA marker-gene survey bioinformatic methods.

Keywords: 16S rRNA gene; assessment; bioinformatic pipeline; normalization; differential abundance

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¹Background 2 Targeted sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene , commonly known as 16S rRNA 2 ³marker-gene-surveys, is a commonly used method for characterizing microbial³ ⁴communities, microbiomesis commonly used to characterize microbial communities. ⁴ ⁵The 16S rRNA marker-gene-survey measurement process includes molecular ⁵ ⁶(e.g. PCR and sequencing) and computational steps (e.g., sequence clustering)⁶ ⁷[1]. Molecular steps are used steps to selectively target and sequence the 16S rRNA⁷ ⁸gene from prokaryotic organisms within a sample . The computational steps and ⁸ ⁹computational steps [1] computational steps convert the raw sequence data into⁹ ¹⁰a matrix with feature (e.g., operational taxonomic units) count table of feature ¹⁰ ¹¹relative abundance values , feature abundance relative to all other features, for ¹¹ ¹²each sample [1]. Both molecular and computational measurement process steps ¹² ¹³processes contribute to the overall measurement bias and dispersion [2, 1, 3]. Proper ¹³ ¹⁴measurement method evaluation allows for The need for datasets characterizing ¹⁴ ¹⁵complex microbial communities with some degree "ground truth" has emerged in ¹⁵ ¹⁶ order to properly characterize the accuracy of the characterization of how individual 16 ¹⁷steps impact the measurement processes as a whole and determine where to focus ¹⁷ ¹⁸efforts for improving the measurement process. Appropriate datasets and methods ¹⁸ ¹⁹are needed to evaluate the 16S rRNA marker-gene-survey measurement process. ¹⁹ ²⁰A sample or dataset with "ground truth" is needed to characterize measurement ²⁰ ²¹process accuracy. marker-gene-survey measurement process. Diverse bioinformatic pipelines used to generate count tables produce data²² ²³with diverse characteristics. For example the commonly used QIIME, Mothur, ²³ ²⁴and DADA2 pipelines produce feature sets and count tables with different ²⁴ ²⁵characteristics. Mothur uses de novo clustering for feature inference [4, 5]. Pairwise ²⁵ ²⁶distances used in clustering are calculated from a multiple sequence alignment. ²⁶ ²⁷Quality filtered paired-end reads are merged into contigs, then aligned to a reference ²⁷ ²⁸multiple sequence alignment, followed by the removal of uninformative positions. ²⁸ ²⁹As a result the feature set representative sequences are shorter than the input²⁹ ³⁰ amplicons. For the QIIME open-reference clustering pipeline merged paired-end ³⁰ ³¹reads are first assigned to reference cluster centers [6, 7]. Next, unassigned reads³¹ ³²are clustered de novo. Unlike Mothur, the QIIME pipeline clustering method³² ³³uses pairwise sequence distances calculated from pairwise sequence alignments. ³³ ³⁴As a result, the QIIME pairwise distances are calculated using the full amplicon ³⁴ ³⁵ sequence, whereas Mothur pairwise distances are calculated using multiple sequence ³⁵ ³⁶ alignment with only informative positions. The DADA2 pipeline uses a probability ³⁶ ³⁷ model and maximization expectation algorithm for feature inference [8]. Unlike ³⁷ ³⁸distance-based clustering methods employed by the Mothur and QIIME pipelines, ³⁸ ³⁹DADA2 parameters determine if low abundance sequences are grouped with a³⁹ ⁴⁰higher abundance sequence. Numerous studies have evaluated quantitative and qualitative characteristics of 41 ⁴²the 16S rRNA measurement process using mock communities, simulated data, and ⁴² ⁴³environmental samples. To Mock communities are commonly used to assess the qualitative characteristics 44 ⁴⁵ of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process mock communities are commonly ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶used [9]. As the number of organisms in the mock community is known, the total ⁴⁶

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¹[9]. The use of mock communities in this fashion shows that surveys often result in ¹ ²number of features can be compared to the expected value. The number of observed ³features in a mock community is significantly higher than the expected number of ³ ⁴organism—that are significantly higher than the underlying features in the mock⁴ ⁵community [10]. The higher than expected number of features is often attributed ⁵ ⁶to sequencing and PCR artifacts as well as reagent contaminants [3, 11]. A notable ⁶ ⁷exception to this is mock community benchmarking studies evaluating sequencing ⁷ ⁸inference method is count tables generated using feature inference methods, such ⁸ ⁹as DADA2 [8]. Sequence inference methods which aim to reduce the number of ⁹ ¹⁰sequence artifact features. While mock communities have an expected number of ¹⁰ ¹¹features and composition features from sequence artifacts by using statistical models ¹¹ ¹²to group sequences by both similarity and abundance. Nonetheless, while mock ¹² ¹³communities are useful in this type of assessment, they lack the feature diversity and ¹³ ¹⁴ relative abundance diversity and dynamic range of feature present in real samples ¹⁴ The quantitative characteristics Quantitative assessment of 16S rRNA sequence 16 ¹⁷data are normally assessed using mock communities and simulated data . Mock ¹⁷ ¹⁸communities of equimolar and staggered concentration are used to assess relative ¹⁸ ¹⁹ abundance estimate quantitative accuracy [10] is informative but provides an ¹⁹ ²⁰incomplete characterization of the measurement process. Results from relative abun-²⁰ ²¹dance estimates using mock communities generated from mixtures of single organ-²¹ ²²ism's DNA have shown taxonomic specific effects where individual taxa are under ²² ²³or over represented in a sample. For example, Gram-negative bacteria have higher ²³ ²⁴extraction efficiency compared to Gram-positive bacteria, and are thus likely over ²⁴ ²⁵represented in count tables[12, 13]. Mismatches in the primer binding sites are ²⁵ ²⁶also responsible for taxonomic specific biases [3, 14, 15]. Additionally, taxon spe-²⁶ ²⁷cific biases due to sequence template properties such as GC content, secondary ²⁷ ²⁸structure, and gene flanking regions have been observed [16, 17, 15]. Simulated ²⁸ ²⁹count tables However, due to limited community complexity the applicability of ²⁹ ³⁰mock community assessment results to more complex environmental samples is ³⁰ ³¹unknown. Environmental sample complexity can be modeled using simulated and ³¹ ³²have been used to assess differential abundance method (fold change differences in ³²) ³³relative abundance) methods, where specific taxa are artificially overrepresented over ³³ ³⁴represented in one set of samples compared to another [18]. Using However, using ³⁴ ³⁵simulated data to assess log fold-change estimates only evaluates the computational³⁵ ³⁶steps of the measurement process. ³⁷ Quantitative and qualitative assessment can also be performed using sequence ³⁷ ³⁸data generated from mixtures of environmental samples. While simulated data and ³⁸ ³⁹mock communities are useful in evaluating and benchmarking new methods, one³⁹ ⁴⁰needs to consider that methods optimized for mock communities and simulated data ⁴⁰ ⁴¹ are not necessarily optimized for the sequencing error profile and feature diversity ⁴¹ ⁴²of real samples. Data from environmental samples, which are real samples, are real ⁴³environmental samples are often used to benchmark new molecular laboratory and ⁴³ 44 computational methods. However, without an expected value to compare to expected 44 ⁴⁵values for use in assessment, only measurement precision, or agreement with other ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶methods—can be evaluated. By mixing environmental samples, expected values ⁴⁶

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AssessmentFramework.pdf Figure 1 Assessment Framework. A) Count tables evaluated by the assessment framework are generated from the assessment dataset using marker-gene survey bioinformatic pipelines. Count table rows are features identified by the bioinformatic pipeline and column are samples, four PCR replicates (labeled A-D) were sampled for PRE and POST and titrations, to simplify the diagram only three titrations are shown. B) Pictorial depiction of abundance values of the seven feature types observed and used in the assessment framework, C) Qualitative and quantitative assessment metrics used in the assessment framework. The artifactual feature proportion metric (AFP) is a qualitative assessment of feature presence/absence based on unmixed-specific or titration-specific artifactual features. Sparsity (SPAR) is a qualitative assessment of the proportion of observed features in each sample relative to the total observed features. Relative abundance metric (Rel) plot is a quantitative assessment of the relationship between the observed and expected relative 10 abundance values. The difference is used to calculate the error rate (|Obs-Exp|/Exp) from 11 which the bias metric (median(error)) and variance metric (RCOV) are calculated. The 12 differential abundance (Diff) metric assesses the relationship between the expected log fold-change and estimated log fold-change is shown. Points represent the log fold-change between two titrations, point text indicates the titrations compared. A linear model is fit to the data. The 14 14 model fit information is used for the differential abundance bias (1 - slope) and variance metrics 15 Each feature type in (B) is labeled with the assessments shown in (C) in which 16 they are employed. 17 18 19 19 ²⁰are calculated using information from the unmixed samples and mixture design.²⁰ ²¹Mixtures of environmental samples were previously used to evaluate gene expression²¹ ²²measurements [19, 20, 21]. ²³ In the present study, we developed a mixture dataset of extracted DNA from ²³ ²⁴human stool samples for assessing Here we present a framework for assessing ²⁴ ²⁵computational methods used to analyze 16S rRNA sequencing. The mixture²⁵ ²⁶datasets were processed using three bioinformatic pipelines. We developed metrics²⁶ ²⁷for qualitative and quantitative assessment of the bioinformatic pipeline results.²⁷ ²⁸The quantitative results were similar across pipelines, but the qualitative results²⁸ ²⁹varied by pipeline. We have made both marker-gene-survey data. The framework is²⁹ ³⁰comprised of a 16S rRNA two-sample titration dataset, generated using mixtures³⁰ ³¹of human stool sample DNA extracts, along with metrics to assess the quantitative ³¹ ³²and qualitative characteristics of count tables generated using marker-gene-survey³² ³³computational methods. To demonstrate usage of this assessment framework, we³³ ³⁴evaluated three bioinformatic pipelines. Both the dataset and metrics developed in ³⁴ ³⁵this study publicly available for evaluating are publicly available and can be used³⁵ ³⁶to evaluate and optimize new and existing bioinformatic pipelines. 37 37 38 38 Results ³⁹Two-Sample Titration DesignAssessment Framework ⁴⁰ Samples collected at multiple timepoints during a Enterotoxigenic E. coli (ETEC) ⁴⁰ ⁴¹vaccine trial [22] were used to generate a two-sample titration dataset for assessing ⁴¹ ⁴²the Our framework assesses the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the ⁴² ⁴³16S rRNA marker-gene survey measurement process. Samples from five trial⁴³ ⁴⁴participants were selected for our measurement process (Fig. 1). The framework ⁴⁴ ⁴⁵evaluates count tables generated by bioinformatic pipelines from a dataset developed ⁴⁵

⁴⁶specifically for use in this framework. The qualitative assessment provides insight ⁴⁶

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experimentalDesign.pdf

Figure 2 Sample selection and experimental design for the two-sample titration 16S rRNA marker-gene survey assessment dataset. A) Pre- and post-exposure (PRE and POST) samples from five vaccine trial participants were selected based on *Escherichia coli* abundance measured using qPCR and 454 16S rRNA sequencing (454 NGS), data from Pop et al. [23]. Counts represent normalized relative abundance values for 454 NGS and copies of the heat-labile toxin gene per μL , a marker gene for ETEC, for qPCR, PRE and POST samples are indicated with orange and green data points, respectively. Grey points are other samples from the vaccine trial time series. B) Proportion of DNA from PRE and POST samples in titration series samples. PRE samples were titrated into POST samples following a log_2 dilution series. The NA titration factor represents the unmixed PRE sample. C) PRE and POST samples from the five vaccine trial participants, subjects, were used to generate independent two-sample titration series. The result was a total of 45 samples, 7 titrations \pm 2 unmixed samples times 5 subjects. Four replicate PCRs were performed for each of the 45 samples resulting in 190 PCRs.

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 $q_{ij} = \theta_i q_{post,j} + (1 - \theta_i) q_{pre,j}$

13 13 ¹⁴into how much confidence a user can have in feature presence/absence. The ¹⁴ ¹⁵quantitative assessment evaluates the bias and variance of relative and differential 15 ¹⁶abundance estimates. 17 18 Assessment Dataset - Mixture Design 18 19Using mixtures of environmental samples we generated a dataset with expected 19 20 values for use in our assessment framework. For mixture datasets, expected values 20 21can be obtained using information from unmixed samples and the mixture design.21 22Our mixture dataset uses a two-sample titration dataset. Trial participants₂₂ 23(subjects) and sampling timepoints were selected based on E. coli abundance23 24data collected using qPCR and 16S rRNA sequencing from Pop et al. [23]. Only24 ₂₅individuals with no E. coli detected in samples collected from trial participants prior₂₅ ₂₆to ETEC exposure (PRE) were used for our two-samples titrations. Post ETEC₂₆ ₂₇exposure (POST) samples were identified as the timepoint titration mixture design, 27 28 where DNA collected from five vaccine trial participants before and after exposure to 28 20 ETEC with the highest pathogenic E. Escherichia coliconcentration for each subject 29 30 (Fig. 2A). Due to limited sample availability, for E01JH0016 the timepoint with the 30 31 second highest E. coli concentration was used as the POST sample. Independent 32 titration series were generated for each subject, where POST samples were titrated 32 33 into PRE samples with POST proportions of 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16, 1/32, 1/1,024, 33 ₃₄ and 1/32,768 was mixed following a log₂ dilution series (Fig. 2B). Unmixed (PRE₃₄ and POST) sample DNA concentration was measured using NanoDrop ND-1000 36 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc. Waltham, MA USA). Unmixed samples were diluted 36 $_{37}$ to 12.5 $ng/\mu L$ in tris-EDTA buffer before mixing.). Each sample was sequenced in quadruplicate. For our two-sample titration $_{\tt 38}$ mixture design, the expected feature relative abundance can be is calculated using equation (1), where θ_i , is the proportion of POST DNA in titration i, q_{ij} is the relative abundance of feature j in titration i, and the relative abundance of feature j in the unmixed PRE and POST samples is $q_{pre,j}$ and $q_{post,j}$. Throughout the rest of the manuscript, samples collected prior to and after $E.\ coli$ exposure are referred to as PRE and POST respectively. 44 45 45

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Sample selection and experimental design for the two-sample titration 16S ¹
² rRNA marker-gene-survey assessment dataset. A) Pre- and post-exposure (PRE ²
³ and POST) samples from five vaccine trial participants were selected based on ³
⁴ Escherichia coli abundance measured using qPCR and 454 16S rRNA sequencing ⁴
⁵ (454-NGS), data from Pop et al. [23]. Counts represent normalized relative ⁵
⁶ abundance values for 454-NGS and copies of the heat-labile toxin gene per μL , ⁶
⁷ a marker gene for ETEC, for qPCR. PRE and POST samples are indicated with ⁷
⁸ orange and green data points, respectively. Grey points are other samples from the ⁸
⁹ vaccine trial time series. B) Proportion of DNA from PRE and POST samples in ⁹
¹⁰ titration series samples. PRE samples were titrated into POST samples following a ¹⁰
¹¹ log ₂ dilution series. The NA titration factor represents the unmixed PRE sample. ¹¹
¹² C) PRE and POST samples from the five vaccine trial participants, subjects, were ¹²
¹³ used to generate independent two-sample titration series. The result was a total of
¹⁴ 45 samples, 7 titrations + 2 unmixed samples times 5 subjects. Four replicate PCRs ¹⁴
¹⁵ were performed for each of the 45 samples resulting in 190 PCRs. 16
Quantutive Assessment
¹⁸ The qualitative assessment shows how well pipelines differentiate true biological ¹⁸
¹⁹ sequences from measurement process artifacts. Inadequate processing of artifacts.
²⁰ results in false positive and false negative features where false positives are features
²¹ in a count table that are not present in the sequenced sample and false negative ²¹
²² features are biological sequences in a sample not represented in the count table. ²²
²³ Our qualitative assessment methods characterize the artifactual feature proportion ²³
²⁴ (the frequency of artifactual features in a count table) by estimating the proportion ²⁴
²⁵ of titration- and unmixed-specific features (Fig. 1B) that cannot be explained by ²⁵
²⁶ sampling alone. We combine the artifactual feature proportion assessment results ²⁶
27 with sparsity estimates to hypothesize whether the artifactual features are primarily 27
28 false positives or negatives. Sparsity is defined as the fraction of 0 valued cells in 28
²⁹ the count table (Fig. 1C).
30
³¹ Dataset characteristics 31
$^{32}Quantitative_Assessment$
³³ To evaluate count table abundance values, our quantitative assessment uses ³³
³⁴ error, bias, and variance metrics (Fig. 1C). Error metrics measure agreement ³⁴
³⁵ between observed and expected abundance values. The bias and variance metrics ³⁵
³⁶ summarise feature-level performance. Bias metrics summarise the overall agreement ³⁶
³⁷ with expected values and the variance metric characterizes the distribution of ³⁷
the agreement. Overall, pipeline performance is evaluated by comparing count ³⁸
³⁹ table metric distributions. Additionally, feature-level metrics are indicators of
feature-specific biases. 40
teature-specific biases. 41 41
Assessment Dataset Characterization and Validation
⁴³ To assure the mixture dataset is suitable for use in our assessment framework.
44 we first validated the titration series and raw sequence data. The mixture dataset 45
⁴⁵ had sufficient sample coverage, reads per sample, and read quality for use in our ⁴⁵
⁴⁶ assessment framework. The number of reads per sample and distribution of base ⁴⁶

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¹ quality scores by position was consistent across subjects (Fig. S5). There were
$^{2}8.9548 \times 10^{4} $ (152,267 - 3,195) sequences per sample, median and range. Average ²
³ base quality score was greater than 30 over the length of the amplicon when ³
⁴ considering both forward and reverse reads (Fig. S5B).
⁵ Additionally, we characterized subject specific differences to inform the interpretation
⁶ of our assessment results. No subject specific differences in base quality score ⁶
⁷ were observed (Fig. S5). However, average read depth was greater for E01JH004 ⁷
⁸ compared to the other individuals (Fig. S5). Community composition differences
⁹ between PRE and POST samples and individuals was characterized using alpha ⁹
¹⁰ and beta diversity (Fig. S6). Overall alpha diversity was higher for POST except ¹⁰
¹¹ for E01JH0011, though differences in diversity between PRE and POST varied ¹¹
¹² by individual. Based on the beta diversity the community composition within ¹³
¹³ individuals differed between the PRE and POST samples. Note that assessment ¹³
¹⁴ metrics defined above and results reported below are based on within subject ¹⁴ 15
comparisons.
10 validate the two-sample titration assessment dataset, we evaluated two
¹⁷ assumptions about the titrations: (1) The samples were mixed volumetrically in a ¹⁷
$^{18}log_2$ dilution series according to the mixture design. (2) The unmixed PRE and 18
¹⁹ POST samples have the same proportion of prokaryotic DNA. To validate the ¹⁹
²⁰ sample volumetric mixing exogenous DNA (ERCC plasmids) were spiked into the ²⁰
²¹ unmixed samples before mixing and quantified using qPCR (Fig. S1B). The stool ²¹
²² samples used to generate the mixtures have both eukaryotic (primarily human) ²²
²³ DNA and prokaryotic DNA. If the proportion of prokaryotic DNA differs between ²³
²⁴ the unmixed samples, then the amount of DNA from the unmixed samples in a ²⁴
²⁵ titration targeted by 16S rRNA gene sequencing is not consistent with the mixture ²⁵
²⁶ design. We quantified the proportion of prokaryotic DNA in the unmixed samples ²⁶
²⁷ using a qPCR assay targeting the 16S rRNA gene (Fig. S1C).
Our assessment dataset validation results indicated that the samples were 28
²⁹ volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design (Table S1) but prokaryotic ²⁹
³⁰ DNA proportion varied across the titration series (Fig. S2). To account for ³⁰
³¹ deviations from the mixture design due to differences in the proportion of ³¹
³² prokaryotic DNA in the unmixed samples, we estimated the proportion of ³²
³³ POST in each titration using the 16S rRNA sequencing data (Fig. S3) and the ³³
³⁴ estimated POST proportions were used in our assessment metric calculations. See ³⁴
³⁵ Supplemental Material for the assessment dataset validation methods and results. ³⁵
36 36
³⁷ Count Table Assessment Demonstration 37
³⁸ Next, we demonstrate the utility of our assessment framework on count tables
³⁹ generated using three different bioinformatic pipelines; DADA2, Mothur and ³⁹
⁴⁰ QHME. First, we provide high level summary statistics for initial insight into how ⁴¹ the count tables differ. Next, we compare the assessment framework results for the ⁴¹
⁴² three count tables. 43 43
44 Count Table Characteristics Sequence dataset characteristics. (A) Distribution in 45
⁴⁵ the number of reads per barcoded sample (Library Size) by individual. Boxplots ⁴⁵
⁴⁶ summarize data distribution with horizontal bar as median, boxes indicating ⁴⁶

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1 Table 1 Summary statistics for the different bioinformatic pipelines. DADA2 is a denoising sequence inference pipeline, QIIME is an open-reference clustering pipeline, and Mothur is a de-novo clustering 2 pipeline. No template controls were excluded from summary statistics. Sparsity is the proportion of 2 0's in the count table. Features is the total number of OTUs (QIIME and Mothur) or SVs (DADA2) in the count. Sample coverage is the median and range (minimum-maximum) per sample total 4 abundance. Drop-out rate is the proportion of reads removed while processing the sequencing data for 4 each bioinformatic pipeline.

Pipelines	Features	Sparsity	Total Abundance	Drop-out Rate
DADA2	3144	0.93	68649 (1661-112058)	0.24 (0.18-0.59)
Mothur	38358	0.98	53775 (1265-87806)	0.4 (0.35-0.62)
QIIME	11385	0.94	25254 (517-46897)	0.7 (0.62-0.97)

interquartile range, whiskers $\pm 1.5 \times IQR$, and black points outliers. The dashed 11 horizontal line indicates overall median library size. Excluding one PCR replicate 12 from subject E01JH0016 titration 5 that had only 3,195 reads. (B) Smoothing 13 spline of the base quality score (BQS) across the amplicon by subject. Vertical lines 14 indicate approximate overlap region between forward and reverse reads. Forward 15 reads go from position 0 to 300 and reverse reads from 464 to 164.

Relationship between the number of reads and features per sample by bioinformatic pipeline. (A) Scatter plot of observed features versus the number of reads per sample. (B) Observed feature distribution by pipeline and individual. Excluding one PCR replicate from subject E01JH0016 titration 5 with only 3,195 reads, and the Mothur E01JH0017 titration 4 (all four PCR replicates), with 1,777 observed features.

Comparison of dataset taxonomic composition across pipelines. Phylum (A) and Order (B) relative abundance by pipeline. Taxonomic groups with less than 1% total relative abundance were grouped together and indicated as other. Pipeline genus-level taxonomic assignment set overlap for the all features (C) and the upper quartile genera by relative abundance for each pipeline (D).

We first characterize the number of reads per sample and base quality score distribution. The number of reads per sample and distribution of base quality scores by position was consistent across subjects (Fig. ??). Two barcoded experimental samples had less than 35,000 reads. The rest of the samples with less than 35,000 reads were no template PCR controls (NTC). Excluding one failed reaction with 22,700 reads and NTCs, there were 8.9548 × 10⁴ (3195-152267) sequences per sample, 33 median and range. Forward reads had consistently higher base quality scores relative 4 to the reverse reads with a narrow overlap region with high base quality scores for 5 both forward and reverse reads (Fig. ??B).

The resulting The count tables generated using the four bioinformatic pipelines of twere characterized for three bioinformatic pipelines vary in pre-processing and seature inference methods. These differences are reflected in the count table number of features, sparsity, and filter total abundance, and drop-out rate (Table 1, Figs. sparsity, sparsity, and filter total abundance, and drop-out rate (Table 1, Figs. sparsity, sparsity, and filter total abundance, and drop-out rate (Table 1, Figs. sparsity). The pipelines evaluated employ different approaches for handling sparsity reads resulting in large differences in the drop-out rate and the pipeline sparsity fraction of raw sequences not included in the count table (Table 1). QIIME pipeline sparsity has the highest drop-out rate and number of features per sample but fewer total sparsity fractions than Mothur. The targeted amplicon region has a relatively small overspansity fraction of the pipelines sparsity fraction of the count table (Table 1). The features than Mothur features than Mothur features and number of features per sample but fewer total sparsity fractions are reflected in the count table (Table 1). The features than Mothur features per sample but fewer total sparsity fractions are reflected in the count table (Table 1).

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¹ ends of the reads especially the reverse reads resulting in a high proportion of un- ¹
² successfully merged reads pairs (Fig. ??B). Furthermore, increasing the drop-out ²
³ S5B). Further increasing the filter rate, QIIME excludes singletons — (features only ³
⁴ observed once in the dataset , to remove potential sequencing artifacts from the ⁴
⁵ dataset. QHME and DADA2 pipelines were similarly sparse (the fraction of zero ⁵
⁶ values in count tables)despite differences in the number of features and drop-out ⁶
⁷ rate. The expectation is that this mixture dataset will be less sparse relative to ⁷
⁸ other datasets. This is due to the redundant nature of the samples where the 35 ⁸
⁹ titration samples are derived directly from the 10 unmixed samples, along with ⁹
¹⁰ four PCR replicates for each sample. With sparsity greater than 0.9 for the three ¹⁰
¹¹ pipelines it is unlikely that any of the pipelines successfully filtered out a majority ¹¹
¹² of the sequencing artifacts.
Dataset taxonomic assignments Feature taxonomic composition also varied by 13
¹⁴ pipeline (Fig. ??). S8). The three pipelines generated unique feature sets in terms ¹⁴
¹⁵ of sequence length and amplicon position (see pipeline description). Therefore, ¹⁵
¹⁶ we used feature taxonomic assignments for cross-pipeline community composition ¹⁶
¹⁷ comparison. Phylum and order relative abundance is similar across pipelines (Fig. ¹⁷
¹⁸ ??A S8A & B). The observed differences are attributed to different taxonomic ¹⁸
¹⁹ classification methods and databases used by the pipelines. DADA2 and QHME ¹⁹
²⁰ pipelines differed from Mothur and QHME for Proteobacteria and Bacteriodetes. ²⁰
²¹ Regardless of the relative abundance threshold, for genus sets most genera were 21
²² unique to individual pipelines (Fig. ???C_S8C & D). Sets —(shared taxa between ²²
²³ pipelines, with QIIME had the fewest genera, excluding the DADA2-QIIME set. ²³
²⁴ QIIME was the only pipeline to use open-reference clustering and the Greengenes ²⁴
²⁵ database. Mothur and DADA2 both used the SILVA dataset. The Mothur and ²⁵
²⁶ DADA2 pipeline use different implementations implementations of the RDP naïve ²⁶
²⁷ Bayesian classifier, which may be partially responsible for the Mothur, unclustered, ²⁷
²⁸ and DADA2 differences.
29
³⁰ Titration Series Validation
³¹ Qualitative Assessment
³² To validate the two-sample titration dataset for use in abundance assessment ³²
³³ we evaluated two assumptions about the titrations: 1. The samples were mixed ³³
³⁴ volumetrically in a log ₂ dilution series according to the mixture design. 2. The ³⁴
³⁵ unmixed PRE and POST samples have the same proportion of prokaryotic DNA. ³⁵
³⁶ The stool samples used to generate the mixtures have both eukaryotic (primarily ³⁶
³⁷ human) DNA and prokaryotic DNA. If the proportion of prokaryotic DNA differs ³⁷
³⁸ between the unmixed samples, then the amount of DNA from the unmixed samples ³⁸
³⁹ in a titration targeted by 16S rRNA gene sequencing is not consistent with the ³⁹
⁴⁰ mixture design. To validate the sample volumetric mixing exogenous DNA was ⁴⁰
⁴¹ spiked into the unmixed samples before mixing and quantified using qPCR . To ⁴¹
⁴² evaluate if the PRE and POST samples had the same proportion of prokaryotic ⁴²
⁴³ DNA total prokaryotic DNA in the titrations samples was quantified using a qPCR ⁴³
⁴⁴ assay targeting the 16S rRNA gene.
45
⁴⁶ Spike-in qPCR results 46
<u>-</u>

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qualPlot-1.pdf

Figure 3 Prokaryotic DNA concentration Distribution of (ng/ulA) across titrations measured using a 16S rRNA qPCR assay. Separate linear models, Prokaryotic DNA concentration versus θ were fit observed count values for each individual, titration-specific features and R^2 (B) expected count values for unmixed-specific features by pipeline and p-values were reported individual. Red lines indicate negative slope estimates and blue lines positive slope estimates. p-value The orange horizontal dashed line indicates significant difference from the expected slope a count value of 0. The grey regions indicate the linear model 95% confidence interval. Multiple test correction was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. One of the E01JH0004 PCR replicates for titration 3-1. (θ = 0.125C) was identified as an outlier, with a concentration Proportion of 0.003, titration-specific features and was excluded from (D) unmixed-specific features with an adjusted p-value < 0.05 for the linear model Bayesian hypothesis test and binomial test respectively. The linear model slope was still significantly different from 0-We failed to accept the null hypothesis when the outlier was included p-value < 0.05, indicating that the discrepancy between the feature only being observed in the titrations or unmixed samples cannot be explained by sampling alone.

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14 ₁₅Titration series volumetric mixing was validated by quantifying ERCC plasmids₁₅ $_{16}$ spiked into the POST samples using qPCR. The qPCR assay standard curves had a_{16} $_{17}$ high level of precision with R^2 values close to 1 and amplification efficiencies between $_{17}$ 18 0.84 and 0.9 for all standard curves indicating the assays were suitable for validating ₁₉the titration series volumetric mixing (Table ??). For our log₂ two-sample-titration₁₉ mixture design the expected slope of the regression line between titration factor and 21 Ct is 1, corresponding to a doubling in template DNA every PCR cycle. The qPCR 21 ₂₂assays targeting the ERCCs spiked into the POST samples had R² values and slope, 23 estimates close to 1 (Table ??). Slope estimates less than one were attributed to 23 24 assay standard curve efficiency less than 1 (Table ??). ERCCs spiked into PRE 24 samples were not used to validate volumetric mixing as PRE sample proportion differences were too small for qPCR quantification. The expected C_t difference for $_{26}$ the entire range of PRE concentrations in only 1. When considering the quantitative limitations of the qPCR assay these results confirm that the unmixed samples were olumetrically mixed according to the two-sample titration mixture design. ERCC Spike-in qPCR assay information and summary statistics. ERCC is the ERCC identifier for the ERCC spike-in, Assay is TaqMan assay, and Length and GC are the size and GC content of the qPCR amplicon. The Std. R^2 and Efficiency statistics were computed for the standard curves. R^2 and slope for titration qPCR results for the titration series. Subject ERCC Assay Length Std. R^2 E R^2 SlopeE01JH0004 012 Ac03459877-a1 77 0.9996 86.19 0.98 0.92E01JH0011 157 Ac03459958-a1 71 0.9995 87.46 0.95 0.90E01JH0016 108 Ac03460028-a1 74 0.9991 $7.33\ 0.95\ 0.84{\rm E}01{\rm JH}0017\ 002\ Ac03459872-a1\ 69\ 0.9968\ 85.80\ 0.89\ 0.93{\rm E}01{\rm JH}0038^{36}$ 035 Ac03459892-a1 65 0.9984 86.69 0.95 0.94 38 39 $^{39}Prokaryotic\ DNA\ Concentration$ Observed changes in prokaryotic DNA concentration across titrations indicate 40 ⁴¹the proportion of prokaryotic DNA from the unmixed PRE and POST samples in a ⁴²titration is inconsistent with the mixture design (Fig. ??). A qPCR assay targeting ⁴² ⁴³the 16S rRNA gene was used to quantify the concentration of prokaryotic DNA in ⁴³ 44 the titrations. An in-house standard curve with concentrations of 20 ng/ul, 2ng/ul, 44 ⁴⁵and 0.2 ng/ul was used, with efficiency 91.49, and R² 0.999. If the proportion of ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶prokaryotic DNA is the same between PRE and POST samples the slope of the ⁴⁶ Olson et al. Page 12 of 31

¹ concentration estimates across the two-sample titration would be 0. For subjects ¹
² where the proportion of prokaryotic DNA is higher in the PRE samples, the slope ²
³ will be negative, and positive when the proportion is higher for POST samples. ³
⁴ The slope estimates are significantly different from 0 for all subjects excluding ⁴
⁵ E01JH0011 (Fig. ??). These results indicate that the proportion of prokaryotic ⁵
⁶ DNA is lower in POST when compared to the PRE samples for E01JH0004 and ⁶
⁷ E01JH0017 and higher for E01JH0016 and E01JH0038.
8 8
⁹ Theta Estimates
¹⁰ Human stool sample DNA extracts vary in the proportion of eukaryotic (primarily ¹⁰
¹¹ human) and prokaryotic DNA in the sample. To account for differences in the ¹¹
¹² proportion of prokaryotic DNA in PRE and POST samples (Fig. ??) we inferred ¹²
¹³ the proportion of POST sample prokaryotic DNA in a titration, θ , using the $16S^{13}$
¹⁴ rRNA sequencing data (Fig. ??). Overall the relationship between the inferred and ¹⁴
¹⁵ mixture design θ values were consistent across pipelines but not subject whereas ¹⁵
the θ estimate 95% CI varied by both subject and pipeline. For study subjects ¹⁶
* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
17 E01JH0004, E01JH0011, and E01JH0016 the inferred and mixture design θ values 17
¹⁸ were in agreement, in contrast to study subjects E01JH0017 and E01JH0038. For ¹⁸
¹⁹ E01JH0017 the inferred values were consistently less than the mixture design values.
²⁰ Whereas for E01JH0038 the inferred values were consistently greater than the ²⁰
²¹ mixture design values. These results were consistent with the qPCR prokaryotic ²¹
²² DNA concentration results with significantly positive slopes for E01JH0004 and ²²
²³ E01JH0016 and significantly negative slope for E01JH0038 (Fig. ??).
Theta estimates by titration, biological replicate, and bioinformatic pipeline. The 24
$^{25}\mathrm{points}$ indicates mean estimate of 1000 bootstrap theta estimates and errorbars $95\%^{25}$
²⁶ confidence interval. The black bar indicate expected theta values. Theta estimates ²⁶
²⁷ below the expected theta indicate that the titrations contain less than expected ²⁷
²⁸ bacterial DNA from the POST sample. Theta estimates greater than the expected ²⁸
29 theta indicate the titration contains more bacterial DNA from the PRE sample 29
³⁰ than expected.
31
³² Measurement Assessment 32
33 Next, we assessed the qualitative and quantitative nature of 16S rRNA measurement 33
34 process using our two-sample titration dataset. For the qualitative assessment, we 34
³⁵ analyzed the relative abundance of features only observed in To evaluate feature ³⁵
³⁶ presence-absence, the framework's qualitative assessment measures artifactual ³⁶
³⁷ feature proportion and count table sparsity. Low abundance features present only in ³⁷
³⁸ unmixed samples or titrations. These features are not expected given the titration ³⁸
³⁹ experimental design. The quantitative assessment evaluated relative and differential ³⁹
⁴⁰ abundance estimates. ⁴⁰
41 41
⁴² Qualitative Assessment 42
⁴³ Distribution of (A) observed count values for titration-specific features and (B) ⁴³
⁴⁴ expected count values for unmixed-specific features by pipeline and individual.
⁴⁵ The orange horizontal dashed line indicates a count value of 1. (C) Proportion of
⁴⁶ unmix-specific features and (D) titration-specific features with an adjusted p-value
umma-specime reasures and (D) titration-specime reasures with an adjusted p-value

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¹<0.05 for the Bayesian hypothesis test and binomial test respectively. We failed to ¹ ²accept the null hypothesis when the p-value < 0.05, indicating that the discrepancy ³between the feature only being observed in the titrations or unmixed samples cannot ³ ⁴be explained by sampling alone. ⁵ Unmixed- and titration-specific titration samples are expected due to random⁵ ⁶sampling. *Unmixed*- and *titration-specific* features were observed for all pipelines⁶ ⁷(titration-specific titration-specific: Fig. 3A, unmixed-specific unmixed-specific: Fig. ⁷) ⁸3B). For mixture datasets low abundance features present only in unmixed samples ⁸ ⁹and mixtures are expected due to random sampling Overall, the DADA2 count ¹⁰table had the largest number of artifactual features (Table S3). A summary of the ¹⁰ ¹¹titration-specific artifactual features is provided in the supplementary material. We next assessed the proportion of these artifactual features that could be 12 ¹³explained by sampling effects alone. For our two-sample titration datasetthere were 13 ¹⁴ unmixed-specific, there were unmixed-specific features with expected counts not ¹⁴ ¹⁵which could not be explained by sampling alone for all individuals and bioinformatic ¹⁵ ¹⁶pipelines (Fig. 3C). However, the proportion of unmixed-specific unmixed-specific ¹⁶ ¹⁷features that could not be explained by sampling alone varied by bioinformatic ¹⁷ ¹⁸pipeline. DADA2 had the highest proportion of unmixed-specific features not 18 ¹⁹explained by sampling unmixed-specific artifactual features whereas QIIME had ¹⁹ ²⁰the lowest proportion . Consistent which is consistent with the distribution of ²⁰ ²¹observed counts for titration-specific features more of the DADA2 features could not²¹ ²²be explained by sampling alone compared to the other pipelines titration-specific²² ²³feature observed counts (Fig. 3D). Overall, the We expected this mixture dataset to be less sparse relative to other datasets due²⁴ ²⁵to the redundant nature of the samples where the 35 titration samples are derived ²⁵ ²⁶directly from the 10 unmixed samples, along with four PCR replicates for each ²⁶ ²⁷sample. We observed overall sparsity of 0.93 and 0.94 for DADA2 count table had²⁷ ²⁸the largest number of observed features inconsistent with the titration experiment ²⁸ ²⁹design, while the same phenomenon is significantly reduced in the other pipelines²⁹ ³⁰ and QIIME respectively, and a higher value of 0.98 for Mothur 1). ³¹ To account for differences in microbial community composition across the five³¹ ³²individuals we also measured sparsity at the individual level (Table S2). Sparsity³² ³³at the individual-level is lower than overall sparsity for all three pipelines. In this³³ ³⁴case, average sparsity across individuals for 0.70 and 0.76 for DADA2 and Mothur, ³⁴ ³⁵while QIIME had a lower average sparsity across individuals of 0.56. Differences in ³⁵ ³⁶alpha and beta diversity for the five individual unmixed samples are consistent with ³⁶ ³⁷individual level sparsity and therefore reflects differences in individual microbial³⁷ ³⁸community composition. ³⁹ Based on the artifactual feature proportions and count table sparsity, DADA2³⁹ ⁴⁰artifactual features are likely due to false negative features, whereas the Mothur and ⁴⁰ ⁴¹QIIME high sparsity values were attributed to false positive features. Based on the ⁴¹ ⁴²observed sparsity levels it is unlikely that any of the pipelines successfully filtered ⁴² ⁴³out a majority of the sequencing artifacts. Both unmixed and titration-specific ⁴³ ⁴⁴features that can and cannot be explained by sampling alone contribute to sparsity ⁴⁴ ⁴⁵ and the differences in the artifactual feature proportion and sparsity provide insight ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶into how the pipelines treat sequencing artifacts.

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relAbuError-1.pdf

Figure 4 Relative abundance assessment. (A) A linear model of the relationship between the expected and observed relative abundance. The dashed grey line indicates expected 1-to-1 relationship. The plot is split by individual and color is used to indicate the different bioinformatic pipelinespipeline indicated by line color. A negative binomial model was used to calculate an average relative abundance estimate across the four PCR replicates. Points To highlight quantitative performance for higher abundance features, points with observed and expected relative abundance values less than 1/medianlibrary size (total abundance) were excluded from the data used to fit the linear modelplot. (B) Relative abundance error rate (|expected - observed|/expected) distribution by individual and pipeline.

relAbuErrorMetrics-1.pdf

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Figure 5 Comparison of pipeline relative abundance assessment feature-level error metrics. Distribution of feature-level relative abundance (A) bias metric - median error rate and (B) variance - robust coefficient of variation (RCOV = (IQR)/|median|RCOV = IQR/|medianerrorrate|) by individual and pipeline. For both the bias and variance metrics lower values are better. Boxplot outliers, $1.5 \times IQR$ from the median were excluded from the figure to prevent extreme metric values from obscuring metric value visual comparisons.

18 19 Quantitative Assessment 19

Maximum feature-level error rate bias (median error rate) and variance (robust²⁰
 21COV) by pipeline and individual.

22 For the relative abundance assessment

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²⁴Relative Abundance Assessment To assess count table feature relative abundance²⁴ ²⁵values, we evaluated the consistency of the observed and expected relative abun-²⁵ ²⁶dance estimates for a feature and titration as well as feature-level bias and vari-²⁶ ²⁷ance. The PRE and POST estimated relative abundance and inferred θ values were²⁷ ²⁸used to calculate titration and relative abundance error rates. Relative abundance²⁸ ²⁹error rate is defined as |exp - obs|/exp, where exp and obs is the expected and ²⁹ ³⁰observed relative abundance. To control for biases in feature inference, the three³⁰ ³¹pipelines were compared to an unclustered dataset. The unclustered count table³¹ ³²was generated using the 40,000 most abundant features from Mothur's initial³² ³³preprocessing (see Methods for details). Unclustered pipeline θ estimates were used ³³ ³⁴to calculate the error rates for all pipelines to prevent over-fitting. Only features ob-³⁴ ³⁵served in all PRE and POST PCR replicates and PRE and POST specific features³⁵ ³⁶were included in the analysis (Table ??). PRE and POST specific features were ³⁶ ³⁷defined as present in all four of the PRE or POST PCR replicates, respectively, but ³⁷ ³⁸none of the PCR replicates for the other unmixed samples. There is lower confidence³⁸ ³⁹in PRE or POST feature relative abundance when the feature is not observed all³⁹ ⁴⁰4 PCR replicates, therefore these features were not included in the analysis, S3). ⁴⁰ ⁴¹Overall, agreement between inferred and observed relative abundance was high for ⁴¹ ⁴²all individuals and bioinformatic pipelines (Fig. 4A). The error rate distribution ⁴² ⁴³was similarly consistent across pipelines, including long tails (Fig. 4B). To assess quantitative accuracy across pipelines, we compared the feature-level ⁴⁵relative abundance error rate bias (median error rate, Fig. 5A) and variance 45

 $^{46}(RCOV = (IQR)/|median| \text{ Fig. 5B})$ across pipelines and individuals and variance 46

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Differential Abundance Assessment logFCerror-1.pdf

Figure 6 Differential abundance quantitative assessment. (A) Linear model or of the relationship between log fold-change estimates estimated and expected values log fold-change relative abundance between titrations for PRE-specific and PRE-dominant features by pipeline and individual, line color indicates pipelines. Dashed grey line indicates expected 1-to-1 relationship between the estimated and expected log fold-change. (B) Log fold-change error (|exp-est|) distribution by pipeline and individual.

logFcErrorMetrics-1.pdf

Figure 7 Feature-level $\frac{\log - fold}{\log + gold}$ differential abundance assessment. Log-fold change error bias (A) and variance (B) metric distribution by subject and pipeline. The bias (1-slope) and variance (R^2) metrics are derived from the linear model fit to the estimated and expected log fold-change values for individual features. Boxplot outliers, $1.5 \times IQR$ from the median were excluded from the figure to prevent extreme metric values from obscuring metric value visual comparisons.

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using mixed effects models. To control for subject specific differences, subject was 15 included in the model as a random effect. Large bias and variance metric values were observed for all pipelines (Table ??). Features with large bias and variance metrics. $^{18}1.5 imes IOR$ from the median , were deemed outliers. To prevent these outlier features ¹⁹ from biasing the comparison they were not used to fit the mixed effects model. ¹⁹ Multiple comparisons test (Tukey) was used to test for significant differences in 20 ²¹feature-level bias and variance between pipelines. A one-sided alternative hypothesis ²²was used to determine which pipelines had smaller feature-level error rateS3) ²³Feature-level relative abundance error rate bias (median error rate, Fig. 5A) was ²⁴ significantly different between pipeline, but no statistically significant differences were observed for the variance metric, (RCOV = (IQR)/|median|, Fig. 5B) across ²⁶pipeline. The Mothur, DADA2, and QIIME feature-level bias-biases were all sig-27 nificantly different from each other $(p < 1 \times 10^{-8})$. DADA2 had the lowest mean ²⁸feature-level bias (0.2), followed by Mothur (0.28), with QIIME having the high-²⁸ ²⁹ est bias (0.33) (5B). Large variance metric values were observed for all individuals ²⁹ and pipelines (Table ???S3). The feature-level variance was not significantly differ-³¹ent between pipelines, Mothur = 0.83, QIIME = 0.71 and DADA2 = 1 (Fig. ³¹) ³²5B). We evaluated whether poor feature-level relative abundance metrics can be ³² ³³ attributed to specific taxonomic groups or phylogenetic clades. While a significant ³³ ³⁴ overall phylogenetic signal was detected for both the bias and variance metric, no ³⁴ 35 specific taxonomic groups or phylogenetic clades were identified with exceptionally 35 ³⁶poor performance in our assessment.

The agreement between log-fold change estimates and expected values were in- 38 dividual specific and consistent across pipelines (Fig. 6A). The individual specific 39 deflect was attributed to the fact that unlike relative abundance assessment, the in- 40 ferred θ values were not used to calculate expected values. Inferred θ values were 41 not used to calculate the expected values because all of the titrations and the θ^{42} estimates for the higher titrations were included and they were not monotonically 43 decreasing and therefore. Using the inferred θ resulted in unrealistic expected \log^{44} 45 fold-change values, e.g., negative log-fold changes for PRE specific features. The 45 fold-change estimates and expected values were consistent across pipelines with 46

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one notable exception. For : for subject E01JH0011, the Mothur log fold-change
² estimates were more consistent with expected values than the other pipelines. How- ²
³ ever, as θ was not corrected for differences in the proportion of prokaryotic DNA ³
⁴ between the unmixed PRE and POST samples, it cannot be said whether Mothur's
⁵ performance was better than the other pipelines.
⁶ The log fold-change error distribution was consistent across pipelines (Fig. 6B).
⁷ There was a long tail of high error features in the error distribution for all pipelines
⁸ and individuals. The log fold-change estimates responsible for the long tail could not ⁸
⁹ be attributed to specific titration comparisons. Additionally, we compared log-fold ⁹
¹⁰ change error distributions for log-fold change estimates using different normalization ¹⁰
¹¹ methods. Error rate distributions, including the long tails, were consistent across ¹¹
¹² normalization methods. Furthermore, Seeing as the long tail was observed for the ¹²
¹³ unclustered data as well, the log-fold change estimates contributing to the long tail ¹³
thicrustered data as wen, the log-rold change estimates contributing to the long tan ¹⁴ are likely due to a bias associated with the molecular laboratory portion of the ¹⁴
¹⁵ measurement process and not the bioinformatic pipelines computational portion. ¹⁵
¹⁶ Exploratory analysis of the relationship between the log fold-change estimates and ¹⁶
¹⁷ expected values for individual features indicated that the long tails were attributed ¹⁸
to feature specific performance.
reasure-level log fold-change bias and variance metrics were used to compare
²⁰ pipeline performance (Fig. 6). Similar to relative abundance, feature-level bias and ²⁰
²¹ variance metrics are defined as the $1-slope$ and R^2 for linear models of the esti- ²²
²² mated and expected log fold-change for individual features and all titration com-
parisons. For the bias metric, $1 - slope$, the desired value is 0 (i.e., log fold-change ²³
²⁴ estimate = log fold-change expected), with negative values indicating the log-fold ²⁴
²⁵ change was consistently underestimated and positive values consistently overesti- ²⁶
mated. The linear model R^2 value was used to characterize the feature-level \log^{26}
²⁷ fold-change variance as it indicates consistency between log fold-change estimates ²⁷
²⁸ and expected values across titration comparisons. To compare bias and variance ²⁸
²⁹ metrics across pipelines, mixed-effects models were used. The log fold-change bias ²⁹
³⁰ and variance metrics were not significantly different between pipelines (Bias: $F = {}^{30}$
31 0, 2.51, p = 0.99, 0.08, 6B, Variance: F = 47.39, 0.23, p = 0, 0.8, Fig. 6C). We ³¹
³² also evaluated whether poor feature-level metrics could be attributed to specific ³²
³³ elades for taxonomic groups. Similar to the relative abundance estimate, while a ³³
³⁴ phylogenetic signal was detected for both the bias and variance metrics, no specific ³⁴
35 taxonomic groups or phylogenetic clades that performed poorly were identified.
36 36
³⁷ Discussion
³⁸ Mixtures of environmental samples have been used to assess RNAseq and microarray
³⁹ gene expression measurements [19, 20, 21]. However, this is the first time mixtures
⁴⁰ have been used to assess microbiome measurement methods. We developed a novel
41 assessment framework utilizing a mixture dataset for evaluating marker-gene-survey 42
computational methods (Fig. 1).
We assessed the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of count tables 43
44 generated using different bioinformatic pipelines and 16S rRNA marker-gene survey
⁴⁵ mixture dataset. The mixture dataset followed Using mixtures of environmental
⁴⁶ samples, expected values for use in assessment can be obtained using information ⁴⁶

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¹from unmixed samples and how the samples were mixed. Our assessment dataset ¹ ²follows a two-sample titration mixture design, where DNA collected from five² ³vaccine trial participants before and after exposure to pathogenic Escherichia coli³ ⁴from five vaccine trial participants (subjects) were was mixed following a loq_2 ⁵dilution series (Fig. 2). Qualitative count table Count table qualitative character-⁶istics were assessed using relative abundance information for features observed ⁶ ⁷only in titrations (titration-specific) and unmixed samples . We quantitatively ⁷ ⁸assed count tables by comparing feature relative and differential abundance ⁸ ⁹(unmixed-specific) (Fig. 1B). Statistical tests were used to determine if the absence ¹⁰ of unmixed-specific features from titrations or absence of titration-specific features ¹⁰ ¹¹from unmixed samples could be explained by random sampling. Count tables ¹¹ ¹²were quantitatively assessed by comparing observed feature relative abundance ¹² ¹³and feature differential abundance estimates to expected values. Quantitative ¹³ ¹⁴performance was characterized using error rate, along with feature-level bias ¹⁴ ¹⁵variance metrics we developed (Fig. 1C). 16 17 ¹⁷Count Table Assessment Demonstration ¹⁸We demonstrated our novel assessment approach by evaluating assessment framework⁸ ¹⁹on count tables generated using different by three commonly used bioinformatic ¹⁹ ²⁰pipelines, QIIME, Mothur, and DADA2. The Mothur pipeline uses de novo²⁰ ²¹clustering for feature inference [4, 5]. Pairwise distances used in clustering are ²¹ ²²calculated using a multiple sequence alignment. The quality filtered paired-end reads²² ²³are merged into contigs. The pipeline then aligns contigs to a reference multiple ²³ ²⁴sequence alignment and removes uninformative positions in the multiple sequence ²⁴ ²⁵alignment. The QHME pipeline uses open-reference clustering where merged ²⁵ ²⁶ paired-end reads are first assigned to reference cluster centers [6, 7]. Next QHME²⁶ ²⁷clusters unassigned reads de novo. Unlike Mothur, the QHME clustering method²⁷ ²⁸uses pairwise sequence distances calculated from pairwise sequence alignments. As a²⁸ ²⁹result, the QHME pairwise distances are calculated using the full ~436 bp sequences²⁹ 30 whereas Mothur pairwise distances were calculated using a 270 bp multiple sequence 30 ³¹ alignment. The objective of any pipeline is to differentiate true biological sequences ³¹ ³²from measurement process artifacts along with accurate abundance estimates. ³² ³³Our qualitative assessment results, when combined with sparsity information ³³ ³⁴provides a new method for evaluating how well bioinformatic pipelines account ³⁴ ³⁵ for sequencing artifacts without loss of true biological sequences. Additionally, our ³⁵ ³⁶quantitative assessment results identified previously unknown feature specific biases ³⁶ ³⁷in abundance estimates. The qualitative assessment evaluates if titration- and unmixed-specific features³⁸ ³⁹can be explained by random sampling alone (Fig. 1B). Titration- and unmixed-specific ⁴⁰features not explained by sampling are artifacts of the measurement process. These ⁴⁰ ⁴¹artifacts can be viewed as false-positives, not representative of actual sequences ⁴¹ ⁴²in a sample, or false-negatives, actual sequences in a sample not represented by ⁴² ⁴³count table features. Artifacts can be PCR errors such as chimeras, reads with ⁴³ ⁴⁴high sequencing error rates, or cross sample contamination [26][27][28]. Count table ⁴⁴ ⁴⁵sparsity information (the proportion of zero-valued cells) provides additional insight ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶into the qualitative assessment results.

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¹ A high false negative rate provides an explanation for DADA2pipeline uses a ¹
² probability model and maximization expectation algorithm for feature inference ²
³ [8]. Unlike distance-based clustering methods employed by the Mothur and QHME ³
⁴ pipelines, 's high proportion of artifact titration- and unmixed-specific features ⁴
⁵ and count table having comparable sparsity to the other pipelines despite having
⁶ significantly fewer features (Fig. S5 and Table 1). The DADA2 parameters determine ⁶
⁷ if low abundance feature inference algorithm may be aggressively grouping lower ⁷
⁸ abundance true sequences with higher abundance sequences are grouped with a ⁸
⁹ higher abundance sequence. As a control, we compared our quantitative assessment ⁹
¹⁰ results for the three pipelines to a count table of unclustered features. The ¹⁰
¹¹ unclustered features were generated using the Mothur pipeline preprocessing ¹¹
¹² methods result, the low abundance sequences are not present in samples leading ¹²
¹³ to increased sparsity and high abundance unmixed- and titration-specific features. ¹³
¹⁴ This aggressive grouping of sequences is a design choice made by the algorithm ¹⁴
15 developers. The DADA2 documentation states that the default setting for OMEGA 15
¹⁶ is conservative to prevent false positives at the cost of increasing false negatives ¹⁶
¹⁷ [8]. Using the qualitative assessment methods described here, a user can adjust the ¹⁷
18 OMEGA A parameter to obtain a false-negative rate appropriate for their study.
19
²⁰ Quantitative Assessment While the relative abundance bias metric was sig- ²⁰
²¹ nificantly different between pipelines, overall, pipeline choice had minimal im- ²¹
²² pact on the quantitative assessment results when accounting for subject-specific ²²
pact on the quantitative assessment results when accounting for subject-specific ²³ effects deviations in the proportion of prokaryotic DNA from PRE and POST ²³
~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
samples in a titration from the mixture design. Outlier features — (those with extreme ²⁴ ).
²⁵ quantitative analysis bias and variance metrics, were observed for all pipelines and ²⁶
26 both relative and differential abundance assessments. Outlier features are not likely 26
a pipeline artifact
Outlier features could not be attributed to bioinformatic pipelines and are likely ²⁸
²⁹ due to biases in the molecular biology part of the measurement process. Outlier ²⁹
³⁰ features are unlikely pipeline artifacts as they were observed in count tables gener- ³⁰
31 ated using the unclustered pipeline as well as standard bioinformatic pipelines. $\overline{We}^{31}$
³² Additionally, we were unable to attribute outlier features to relative abundance val- ³²
33 ues, log fold-change between unmixed samples, and sequence GC content. Features 33
³⁴ Furthermore, features with extreme metric values were not limited to any specific ³⁴
³⁵ taxonomic group or phylogenetic clade. <del>Outlier features could not be attributed to 35</del>
³⁶ bioinformatic pipelines and are likely due to biases in the molecular biology part ³⁶
³⁷ of the measurement process. PCR amplification is PCR amplification bias (a well- ³⁷
³⁸ known source of bias in the molecular biology part of the measurement process) ³⁸
³⁹ is one possible explanation for the outlier features [29]. Mismatches in the primer ³⁹
binding regions impact PCR efficiency and are a potential cause for poor feature- ⁴⁰
specific performance [30]. Additional research is needed before outlier features are ⁴¹
⁴² can be attributed to mismatches in the primer binding regions.  43
44 Qualitative Assessment The qualitative assessment evaluated whether features 45
45 only observed in unmixed samples or titrations could be explained by sampling 46
⁴⁶ alone.Features present only in titrations or unmixed samples not due to random

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'sampling are bioinformatic pipeline artifacts. These artifacts can be categorized'
² as false negative or false positive features. A false negative occurs when a lower ²
³ abundance sequence representing an organism within the sample is clustered with a ³
⁴ higher abundance sequence from a different organism. False positives are sequencing ⁴
⁵ or PCR artifacts not appropriately filtered or assigned to an appropriate feature by ⁵
⁶ the bioinformatic pipeline.
⁷ Count table sparsity, the proportion of zero-valued cells, provides additional ⁷
⁸ insight into the qualitative assessmentresults. A high rate of false negative ⁸
⁹ features is a potential explanation for Based on our assessment results, we ⁹
¹⁰ suggest using DADA2 count table's poor performance in the qualitative assessment ¹⁰
¹¹ and comparable sparsity for feature-level abundance analysis, e.g. differential ¹¹
¹² abundance testing. While DADA2 performed poorly in our qualitative assessment, ¹²
the pipeline performed better in the quantitative assessment compared to the 13
¹⁴ other pipelines <del>despite having significantly fewer features (Fig. 3 and Table 1).</del> ¹⁴
other pipelines <del>despite naving significantly level leatures (Fig. 3 and Table 1).</del> 15 The Additionally, the DADA2 feature inference algorithm may be aggressively 15
¹⁶ grouping lower abundance true sequences with higher abundance sequences. As a
¹⁷ result, the low abundance sequences are not present in samples leading to increased ¹⁷
¹⁸ sparsity and higher abundance unmixed- and titration-specific features. Adjusting ¹⁸
¹⁹ the poor qualitative assessment results due to false-negative features are unlikely ¹⁹
²⁰ to negatively impact feature-level abundance analysis. When determining which ²⁰
²¹ pipeline to use for a study, users should consider whether minimizing false positives ²¹
${}^{22}(DADA2 \\ parameters, specifically~the~{\tt OMEGA_A}~parameter~in~{\tt setDadaOpt}.~Along~these \\ {}^{22}(DADA2 \\ parameters)$
²³ lines, the DADA2 documentation states that the default setting for OMEGA_A is ²³
²⁴ conservative to prevent false positives at the cost of increasing false negatives [8]. 2 ⁴
²⁵ or false negatives (Mothur) is more appropriate for their study objectives. Based on ²⁵
²⁶ our findings we find that users of DADA2 can be more confident that an observed ²⁶
²⁷ feature represents a member of the microbial community and not a measurement ²⁷
28 artifact, but careful examination of sequences assigned to features of interest should 28
²⁹ still be performed.
30 False positive features provide an explanation for Mothur and QHME pipelines 30
³¹ having lower proportion of unmixed- and titration-specific features not explained ³¹
³² by sampling but high sparsity (Fig. 3 and Table 1). The statistical tests used ³²
³² by sampling but high sparsity (Fig. 3 and Table 1). The statistical tests used ³² to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³⁴ considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³ ³⁴ considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ ³⁵ between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low ³⁵
<ul> <li>³³to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only</li> <li>³⁴considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish</li> <li>³⁵between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low</li> <li>³⁶abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and</li> </ul>
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³⁴ considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low ³⁵ abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and ³⁶ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁷
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³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³ teonsiders feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ to between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low ³⁵ to abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and ³⁶ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁷ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁸ microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the ³⁸ observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. ³⁹
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³ ³⁴ considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ ³⁵ between true low abundance unmixed and titration-specific features and low ³⁵ ³⁶ abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and ³⁶ ³⁷ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁷ ³⁸ microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the ³⁸ ³⁹ observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. ³⁹ ⁴⁰ Similarly, significantly more features than expected are commonly observed for mock ⁴⁰
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³ teonsiders feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ to between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low ³⁵ to abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and ³⁶ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁷ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁸ microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the ³⁸ observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. ³⁹
³³ to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only ³³ ³⁴ considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish ³⁴ ³⁵ between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low ³⁵ ³⁶ abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and ³⁶ ³⁷ three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While ³⁷ ³⁸ microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the ³⁸ ³⁹ observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. ³⁹ ⁴⁰ Similarly, significantly more features than expected are commonly observed for mock ⁴⁰ ⁴¹ community benchmarking studies evaluating the QHME and Mothur pipelines [24]. ⁴¹ ⁴²
33 to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only 34 considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish 34 between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low 35 abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and 36 abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and 36 microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the 38 observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. 39 doserved sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. 40 Similarly, significantly more features than expected are commonly observed for mock 41 community benchmarking studies evaluating the QHME and Mothur pipelines [24]. 41 42 43 False positive features can be reduced, but not eliminated, using smaller amplicon 43
33 to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only 34 considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish 34 considers feature abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low 35 between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low 36 abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and 36 three times more features compared to DADA2, respectively (Table 1). While 37 microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the 39 observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. 39 community, significantly more features than expected are commonly observed for mock 40 community benchmarking studies evaluating the QHME and Mothur pipelines [24]. 41 community benchmarking studies evaluating the QHME and Mothur pipelines [24]. 42 community features can be reduced, but not climinated, using smaller amplicon 43 community is larger than 44 community in the study is larger than 44 community features can be reduced, but not climinated the study is larger than 44 community features can be reduced.
33 to determine if the specific features could be explained by sampling alone only 34 considers feature abundance. Therefore, the statistical test is not able to distinguish 34 between true low abundance unmixed—and titration-specific features and low 35 abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and 36 abundance sequence artifacts. Mothurand QHME count tables have ten times and 36 microbial abundance distributions are known to have long tails, it is likely that the 38 observed sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. 39 doserved sparsity is an artifact of the 16S rRNA sequencing measurement process. 40 Similarly, significantly more features than expected are commonly observed for mock 41 community benchmarking studies evaluating the QHME and Mothur pipelines [24]. 41 42 43 False positive features can be reduced, but not eliminated, using smaller amplicon 43

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¹sequence error rate from 0.29% to 0.06% by using paired-end reads that completely ¹ ²overlap. The larger region used in this study has a smaller overlap between the² ³forward and reverse reads. As a result, merging the forward and reverse reads did³ ⁴not allow for sequence error correction that occurs when a smaller amplicon is ⁴ ⁵used. However, even when targeting smaller regions of the 16S rRNA gene both the⁵ ⁶de-novo (Mothur) and open-reference clustering (QHME) pipelines produced count⁶ ⁷tables with significantly more features than expected in evaluation studies using ⁷ ⁸mock communities. Prevalence filtering is used to exclude low abundance features, ⁸ ⁹predominantly measurement artifacts [31]. For example, a study exploring the⁹ ¹⁰microbial ecology of the Red-necked stint Calidris ruficollis, a migratory shorebird, ¹⁰ ¹¹used a hard filter to validate their study conclusions are not biases by false positive ¹¹ ¹²features. The study authors compared results with and without prevalence filter ¹² ¹³ensuring that the study conclusions were not biased by using the arbitrary filter or ¹³ 14including the low abundant features [32]. 14 15 16 Using Mixtures to Assess 16S rRNA Sequencing 16 17Mixtures of environmental samples have previously been used to assess RNAseq17 18and microarray gene expression measurements. However, this is the first time 18 19mixtures have been used to assess microbiome measurement methods. Using our 19 20 mixture dataset we developed novel methods for assessing marker-gene-survey 20 21 computational methods. Our quantitative assessment allowed for the characterization, 220 of relative abundance values using a dataset with a larger number of features and 22 23dynamic range compared to mock community assessments. As a result, we identified 23 24 previously unknown feature specific biases. Based on our subject-specific results 24 25 observation, we recommend that studies using stool samples seeking inferences in a 25 26 longitudinal series of multiple subjects carefully estimate bacterial DNA proportions 26 ₂₇and adjust inferences accordingly. Additionally, our qualitative assessment results, 27 28 when combined with sparsity information provide a new method for evaluating how 28 29 well bioinformatic pipelines account for sequencing artifacts without loss of true 29 30 biological sequences. There were also 31 Using Mixtures to Assess 16S rRNA Sequencing - Lessons Learned There are limitations using our mixture dataset. These limitations included: assessment dataset, these include: (1) Lack of agreement between the proportion of unmixed samples prokaryotic DNA from the unmixed samples in the titrations and the mixture design. The (2) The mixture design resulted in a limited number of ³⁶ features used in the different analysis and range of expected log-fold changes. These limitations are described below along with recommendations for addressing them ³⁹ in future studies. Differences in the proportion of prokaryotic DNA in the samples used to gener-⁴¹ ate the two-sample titrations series resulted in differences between the true mixture ⁴² proportions and mixture design. We attempted to account for differences in mixture ⁴² ⁴³proportion from mixture design by estimating mixture proportions using sequence ⁴³ ⁴⁴data . Similar to how the proportion of mRNA to estimate mixture proportions ⁴⁴ ⁴⁵ similar to how mRNA proportions in RNA samples was were used in a previous mix-⁴⁵ ⁴⁶ture study [19]. We used an assay targeting the 16S rRNA gene to detect changes in ⁴⁶

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the concentration of prokaryotic DNA across titrations, but were unable to quantify
$^2{\rm the}$ proportion of prokaryotic DNA in the unmixed samples using qPCR data. Us- 2
³ ing the 16S sequencing data_rRNA sequencing data, we inferred the proportion of ³
⁴ prokaryotic DNA from the POST sample in each titration. However, the uncertainty ⁴
⁵ and accuracy of the inference method are not known, resulting in an unaccounted ⁵
⁶ for error source source of error.
⁷ A better method for quantifying sample prokaryotic DNA proportion or using ⁷
⁸ samples with consistent proportions would increase confidence in the expected value
⁹ and, in-turn, error metric accuracy. Limitations in the prokaryotic DNA qPCR as- ⁹
osay's concentration precision limits the assay's suitability s suitability for use in 1
¹ mixture studies. Digital PCR provides a more precise alternative to qPCR and ¹¹
² is, therefore, a more appropriate method. Alternatively using samples where the
³ majority of the DNA is prokaryotic would minimize this issue. Mixtures of environ-
⁴ mental samples can also be used to assess shotgun metagenomic methods as well.
⁵ As shotgun metagenomics is not a targeted approach, differences in the proportion ¹⁸
6 of prokaryotic DNA in a sample would not impact the assessment results in the 16
⁷ same way as 16S rRNA marker-gene-surveys.
⁸ Using samples from a vaccine trial allowed for the use of a specific marker with an ¹⁸
9 expected response, $E.\ coli,$ during methods development. However, the high level 19
0 of similarity between the PRE and POST unmixed samples resulted in a limited 20
¹ number of features that could be used in the quantitative assessment results. Using ²¹
² more diverse samples to generate mixtures would address this issue. Alternatively, ²²
³ instead of mixing PRE and POST samples from the same individual, mixing PRE ²³
⁴ and POST samples from different individuals would have resulted in additional ²⁴
⁵ features for use in our quantitative assessment. While unmixed sample similarity ^{2t}
⁶ impacts the number of features that can be used in the quantitative assessment, ²⁶
the qualitative assessment is not impacted by unmixed sample similarity. Finally, ²¹
8 a symmetric mixture design, for example one with unmixed PRE and POST ratios 26
⁹ of 1:4, 1:2, 1:1, 2:1, and 4:1, would provide a larger dynamic range of abundance ^{2t}
⁰ values for assessing both PRE and POST specific features.
1 31
² Conclusions ³²
³ Our two-sample-titration dataset and assessment methods Our assessment framework
⁴ can be used to evaluate and characterize bioinformatic pipelines and clustering ³
⁵ methods. The sequence dataset presented in this study can be processed with 16S ³¹
⁶ rRNA marker-gene survey analysis methods, in particular count tables produced by ³
⁷ any 16S rRNA bioinformatic pipeline. <del>Our quantitative and qualitative assessment</del> ³¹
⁸ can then be performed on the count table and the results compared to those obtained
⁹ using the pipelines presented here. The three pipelines we evaluated produced sets ³⁰
⁰ of features varying in total feature abundance, number of featuresper samples, ⁴⁰
¹ and total features. The objective of any pipeline is to differentiate true biological ⁴ :
² sequences from measurement process artifacts. In general, based on our evaluation
³ results we suggest using We demonstrated our assessment framework with three
4commonly used bioinformatic pipelines. Our qualitative assessment results indicated 4
⁵ that the QIIME and Mothur pipelines produced count table with more false-positive
⁶ features whereas the DADA2 for count table had more false-negative features. ⁴⁶

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Overall the three pipelines performed well in our quantitative assessment. However, ¹
² feature-level abundance analysis, e.g. differential abundance testing. While DADA2 ²
³ performed poorly in our qualitative assessment, the pipeline performed better in ³
⁴ the quantitative assessment compared to the other pipelines. Additionally, <u>analysis</u> ⁴
⁵ identified poorly performing features and the DADA2 poor qualitative assessment ⁵
⁶ results due to false-negative features are unlikely to negatively impact sources of ⁶
⁷ bias responsible for this poor feature-level abundance analysis . When determining ⁷
⁸ which pipeline to use for a study, users should consider whether minimizing false ⁸
⁹ positives (DADA2) or false negatives (Mothur) is more appropriate for their study
¹⁰ objectives. When a sequencing dataset is processed using DADA2, the user can be ¹
¹¹ more confident that an observed feature represents a member of the microbial ¹
¹² community and not a measurement artifact. Pipeline parameter optimization ¹
¹³ could address DADA2 false-negative issue. For the Mothur and QHME pipelines, ¹
¹⁴ prevalence filtering will reduce the number of false-positive features. Feature-level ¹
15 quantitative performance are unknown. Therefore, feature-level results for any $16\mathrm{S}^1$
¹⁶ rRNA marker-gene survey should be interpreted with care, as the biases responsible ¹
¹⁷ for poor quantitative assessment are unknown. Addressing both of these issues re- ¹
¹⁸ quires advances in both the molecular biology and computational components of ¹
¹⁹ the measurement process.
20 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21
²¹ Methods
²² Titration Validation 2
²³ qPCR was used to validate volumetric mixing and check for differences in the ²
1
²⁴ proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the ²⁵ 25
<ul> <li>²⁴proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the</li> <li>²⁵</li> <li>²⁶Assessment Framework</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>²⁴proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the</li> <li>²⁵</li> <li>²⁶Assessment Framework</li> <li>²⁷To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>²⁴proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the</li> <li>²⁵</li> <li>²⁶Assessment Framework</li> <li>²⁷To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey</li> <li>²⁸analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were</li> </ul>
²⁴ proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the ²⁵ ²⁶ Assessment Framework ²⁷ To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey ²⁸ analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were ²⁹ volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids
<ul> <li>²⁴proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the</li> <li>²⁵</li> <li>²⁶Assessment Framework</li> <li>²⁷To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey</li> <li>²⁸analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were²</li> <li>²⁹volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids</li> <li>³⁰were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374)</li> </ul>
24 proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 22 26 Assessment Framework 27 To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey 28 analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were 29 volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids 30 were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) 31 (Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 $\mu L$ tris-EDTA buffer and
24 proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 25 26 Assessment Framework 27 To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey 28 analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were 29 volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids 20 were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) 31 (Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 $\mu L$ tris-EDTA buffer and 32 22 $\mu L$ of resuspended plasmids was spiked into the appropriate unmixed sample. 3
²⁴ proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 25 26 Assessment Framework 27 To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey 28 analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were 29 volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids 30 were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) 31 (Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 μL tris-EDTA buffer and 32 μL of resuspended plasmids was spiked into the appropriate unmixed sample. 33 Plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 36 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 36 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 37 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 37 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 37 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 38 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 38 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 39 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 39 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 39 plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample samples after unmixed sample samples after unmixed samples after unmixed sample samples after unmixed samples aft
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²⁴ proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 25 26 Assessment Framework 27 To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey 28 analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were 29 volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids 20 were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) 31 (Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 $\mu L$ tris-EDTA buffer and 322 $\mu L$ of resuspended plasmids was spiked into the appropriate unmixed sample. 33 Plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 34 was normalized to 12.5 $ng/\mu L$ . POST sample ERCC plasmid abundance was 35 quantified using TaqMan gene expression assays (FAM-MGB, Catalog # 4448892, 3448892)
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<ul> <li>²⁴proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 25</li> <li>²⁶Assessment Framework</li> <li>²⁷To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey ²⁸analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were ²⁹volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids ³⁰were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) ³¹(Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 μL tris-EDTA buffer and ³²2 μL of resuspended plasmids was spiked into the appropriate unmixed sample. ³³Plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration ³⁴was normalized to 12.5 ng/μL. POST sample ERCC plasmid abundance was ³⁵quantified using TaqMan gene expression assays (FAM-MGB, Catalog # 4448892, ³⁶ThermoFisher) specific to each ERCC plasmid and TaqMan Universal MasterMix ³⁷H (Catalog # 4440040, ThermoFisher Waltham, MA USA). titration dataset(Fig. ³⁸1). Qualitative assessment evaluates feature presence-absence. The quantitative ³⁹assessment evaluates the relative and differential abundance estimates. ⁴⁰To check for differences in the proportion of bacterial DNA in the ⁴⁴Assessment Dataset - Mixture Design</li> </ul>
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²⁴ proportion of prokaryotic DNA across titrations. To ensure the 25 ²⁶ Assessment Framework ²⁷ To assess the qualitative and quantitative performance of marker-gene survey 28 analysis methods we developed a framework utilizing our two-sample titrations were 29 volumetrically mixed according to the mixture design, independent ERCC plasmids 30 were spiked into the unmixed PRE and POST samples [33] (NIST SRM SRM 2374) 31 (Table ??) . The ERCC plasmids were resuspended in 100 μL tris-EDTA buffer and 322 μL of resuspended plasmids was spiked into the appropriate unmixed sample. 33 Plasmids were spiked into unmixed samples after unmixed sample concentration 34 was normalized to 12.5 ng/μL. POST sample ERCC plasmid abundance was 35 quantified using TaqMan gene expression assays (FAM-MGB, Catalog # 4448892, 36 ThermoFisher) specific to each ERCC plasmid and TaqMan Universal MasterMix 37 II (Catalog # 4440040, ThermoFisher Waltham, MA USA). titration dataset(Fig. 38 1). Qualitative assessment evaluates feature presence-absence. The quantitative 39 assessment evaluates the relative and differential abundance estimates. 40 To check for differences in the proportion of bacterial DNA in the 41 42 Assessment Dataset - Mixture Design 43 To provide a dataset with real-world complexity and expected values for qualitative 44 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 42 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 43 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 44 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 44 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 44 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples. Samples 44 and quantitative assessment we used mixtures of environmental samples.
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<sup>1</sup>from five trial participants were selected for our two-sample titration dataset. <sup>1</sup>
 <sup>2</sup>Trial participants (subjects) and sampling timepoints were selected based on E.<sup>2</sup>
 <sup>3</sup>coli abundance data collected using qPCR and 16S rRNA sequencing from Pop<sup>3</sup>
 <sup>4</sup>et al. [23]. Only individuals with no E. coli detected in samples collected from <sup>4</sup>
 <sup>5</sup>trial participants prior to ETEC exposure (PRE) were used for our two-samples <sup>5</sup>
 <sup>6</sup>titrations. Post ETEC exposure (POST) samples were identified as the timepoint <sup>6</sup>
 <sup>7</sup>after exposure to ETEC with the highest E. coli concentration for each subject<sup>7</sup>
 <sup>8</sup>(Fig. 2A). Due to limited sample availability, for E01JH0016 the timepoint with the <sup>8</sup>
 <sup>9</sup>second highest E. coli concentration was used as the POST sample. Independent<sup>9</sup>
<sup>10</sup>titration series were generated for each subject. POST samples were titrated into <sup>10</sup>
<sup>11</sup>PRE samples with POST proportions of 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16, 1/32, 1/1,024, and <sup>11</sup>
<sup>12</sup>1/32,768 (Fig. 2B). Unmixed (PRE and POSTsamples, titration bacterial) sample <sup>12</sup>
<sup>13</sup>DNA concentration was quantified using the Femto Bacterial DNA quantification <sup>13</sup>
<sup>14</sup>kit (Zymo Research, Irvine CA), All samples were run in triplicate along with an <sup>14</sup>
<sup>15</sup>in-house E. coli DNA log<sub>10</sub> dilution standard curve. qPCR assays were performed <sup>15</sup>
<sup>16</sup>using the QuantStudio Real-Time aPCR (ThermoFisher), Amplification data and <sup>16</sup>
<sup>17</sup>Ct values were exported as tsv files using QuantStudio TM Design and Analysis 17
<sup>18</sup>Software v1.4.1. Statistical analysis was performed on the exported data using <sup>18</sup>
<sup>19</sup>custom scripts in R [34]. The qPCR data and scripts used to analyze the data <sup>19</sup>
<sup>20</sup>are available at .
                                                                                                    22
<sup>22</sup>Sequencing</sup>
<sup>23</sup>measured using NanoDrop ND-1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc. Waltham, MA<sup>23</sup>
<sup>24</sup>USA). Unmixed samples were diluted to 12.5 ng/\mu L in tris-EDTA buffer before <sup>24</sup>
<sup>25</sup>mixing. The resulting titration series was composed of 45 samples, seven titrations<sup>25</sup>
<sup>26</sup> and two unmixed samples for each of five subjects) the five subjects.
<sup>27</sup> The 45 samples were processed using the Illumina 16S library protocol (16S<sup>27</sup>
<sup>28</sup>Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation, posted date 11/27/2013, down-<sup>28</sup>
<sup>29</sup>loaded from https://support.illumina.com). This protocol specifies an initial<sup>29</sup>
<sup>30</sup>PCR of the 16S rRNA genePCR, followed by a sample indexing PCR, sample<sup>30</sup>
<sup>31</sup>concentration normalization, and sequencing.
<sup>32</sup> A total of 192 16S rRNA PCR assays were run including four sequenced across <sup>32</sup>
<sup>33</sup>two 96-well plates including four PCR replicates per sample and 12 no-template<sup>33</sup>
<sup>34</sup>controls, using Kapa HiFi HotStart ReadyMix reagents (KAPA Biosystems, Inc. <sup>34</sup>
<sup>35</sup>Wilmington, MA). The initial PCR assay targeted the V3-V5 region of the 16S<sup>35</sup>
<sup>36</sup>rRNA gene, Bakt_341F and Bakt_806R [14]. The V3-V5 region is 464 base pairs<sup>36</sup>
<sup>37</sup>(bp) long, with forward and reverse reads overlapping by 136 bp, using 2 X 300 bp<sup>37</sup>
<sup>38</sup>paired-end sequencing [35] ( http://probebase.csb.univie.ac.at). Primer se-<sup>38</sup>
^{39}quences include overhang adapter sequences for library preparation (forward primer ^{39}
<sup>40</sup>5'- TCG TCG GCA GCG TCA GAT GTG TAT AAG AGA CAG CCT ACG GGN<sup>40</sup>
<sup>41</sup>GGC WGC AG - 3' and reverse primer 5'- GTC TCG TGG GCT CGG AGA<sup>41</sup>
^{42}TGT GTA TAA GAG ACA GGA CTA CHV GGG TAT CTA ATC C - ^{3}). For ^{42}
<sup>43</sup>quality control, the PCR product Kapa HiFi HotStart ReadyMix reagents (KAPA<sup>43</sup>
<sup>44</sup>Biosystems, Inc. Wilmington, MA) was used to PCR the 16S rRNA gene. The <sup>44</sup>
<sup>45</sup>PCR product amplicon size was verified using agarose gel electrophoresis<del>to check</del><sup>45</sup>
<sup>46</sup> amplicon size. Concentration measurements were made after the initial 16S rRNA 46
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¹PCR, the indexing PCR, and normalization steps. DNA concentration was mea-²sured using the QuantIT Picogreen dsDNA Kit (Cat # P7589, ThermoFisher Sci-² ³entific) and fluorescent measurements were made with a Synergy2 Multi-Detection³ ⁴MicroPlate Reader (BioTek Instruments, Inc, Winooski, VT). ⁵ Initial PCR products were purified using 0.8X AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coul-⁵ ⁶ter Genomics, Danvers, MA) following the manufacturer's protocol. After purifica-⁶ ⁷tion, the 192 samples were indexed using the Illumina Nextera XT index kits A⁷ ⁸and D (Illumina Inc., San Diego CA) and then purified using 1.12X AMPure XP⁸ ⁹beads. Prior to pooling purified sample concentration was normalized using Sequal-⁹ ¹⁰Prep Normalization Plate Kit (Catalog n. A10510-01, Invitrogen Corp., Carlsbad, ¹⁰ ¹¹CA), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Pooled library concentration was ¹¹ ¹²checked using the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Part# Q32851, Lot# 1735902, ¹² ¹³ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA USA). Due to the low pooled amplicon library DNA¹³ ¹⁴concentration, a modified protocol for low concentration libraries was used. The li-¹⁴ ¹⁵brary was run on an Illumina MiSeq, and base calls were made using Illumina Real¹⁵ ¹⁶Time Analysis Software version 1.18.54. The sequence data was deposited in the ¹⁶ ¹⁷NCBI SRA archive under Bioproject PRJNA480312. Individual SRA run accession ¹⁷ ¹⁸numbers and metadata in Supplemental Table. Sequencing data quality control met-¹⁸ ¹⁹rics for the 384 fastg sequence files (192 samples with forward and reverse reads) ¹⁹ ²⁰were computed using the Bioconductor Rqc package [36, 37]. The sequence data was ²⁰ ²¹deposited in the NCBI SRA archive under Bioproject PRJNA480312. Individual²¹ ²²SRA run accession numbers and metadata in Supplemental Table. 23 ²⁴Sequence Processing</sup> ²⁵Sequence data were processed using four bioinformatic pipelines: a de-novo clus-²⁵ ²⁶tering method - Mothur [5], an open-reference clustering method - QIIME [7], ²⁶  27 and a sequence inference method - DADA2 [8], and unclustered sequences as  $a^{27}$ ²⁸control. The code used to run the bioinformatic pipelines is available at https: ²⁸ 29//github.com/nate-d-olson/mgtst pipelines. The Mothur pipeline follows the developer's MiSeq SOP [5, 24]. The pipeline was³⁰ ³¹run using Mothur version 1.37 (http://www.mothur.org/). We sequenced a larger³¹ ³²16S rRNA region, with smaller overlap between the forward and reverse reads, ³² ³³than the 16S rRNA region the SOP was designed. Pipeline parameters modified to ³³ ³⁴account for difference in overlap are noted for individual steps below. The Make-³⁴ ³⁵file and scripts used to run the Mothur pipeline are available https://github.³⁵ 36 com/nate-d-olson/mgtst_pipelines/blob/master/code/mothur. The Mothur 36 ³⁷pipeline includes an initial preprocessing step where the forward and reverse reads³⁷ ³⁸are trimmed and filtered using base quality scores and were merged into sin-³⁸ ³⁹gle contigs for each read pair. The following parameters were used for the ini-³⁹ ⁴⁰tial contig filtering, no ambiguous bases, max contig length of 500 bp, and max ⁴⁰ ⁴¹homopolymer length of 8 bases. For the initial read filtering and merging step, ⁴¹ ⁴²low-quality reads were identified and filtered from the dataset based on the pres-⁴² ⁴³ence of ambiguous bases, failure to align to the SILVA reference database (V119, ⁴³ 44 https://www.arb-silva.de/) [38], and identification as chimeras. Prior to align-44 ⁴⁵ment, the SILVA reference multiple sequence alignment was trimmed to the V3-V5⁴⁵ ⁴⁶region, positions 6,388 and 25,316. Chimera filtering was performed using UChime ⁴⁶

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<sup>1</sup>(version v4.2.40) without a reference database [26]. OTU clustering was performed <sup>1</sup>
 <sup>2</sup>using the OptiClust algorithm with a clustering threshold of 0.97 [4]. The RDP<sup>2</sup>
 <sup>3</sup>classifier implemented in Mothur was used for taxonomic classification against the<sup>3</sup>
 <sup>4</sup>Mothur provided version of the RDP v9 training set [39].
 <sup>5</sup> The QIIME open-reference clustering pipeline for paired-end Illumina data was<sup>5</sup>
 <sup>6</sup>performed according to the online tutorial (Illumina Overview Tutorial (an IPython<sup>6</sup>
 <sup>7</sup>Notebook): open reference OTU picking and core diversity analyses, http://qime.<sup>7</sup>
<sup>8</sup>org/tutorials/) using QIIME version 1.9.1 [7]. Briefly, the QIIME pipeline uses<sup>8</sup>
 <sup>9</sup>fastq-join (version 1.3.1) to merge paired-end reads [40] and the Usearch algorithm<sup>9</sup>
<sup>10</sup>[41] with Greengenes database version 13.8 with a 97% similarity threshold [42] was <sup>10</sup>
<sup>11</sup>used for open-reference clustering.
<sup>12</sup> DADA2, an R native pipeline was also used to process the sequencing data<sup>12</sup>
<sup>13</sup>[8]. The pipeline includes a sequence inference step and taxonomic classifica-<sup>13</sup>
<sup>14</sup>tion using the DADA2 implementation of the RDP naïve Bayesian classifier [39]<sup>14</sup>
<sup>15</sup>and the SILVA database V123 provided by the DADA2 developers [38, https: <sup>15</sup>
16//benjjneb.github.io/dada2/training.html].
<sup>17</sup> The unclustered pipeline was based on the Mothur de-novo clustering pipeline, <sup>17</sup>
<sup>18</sup>where the paired-end reads were merged, filtered, and then dereplicated. Reads were <sup>18</sup>
<sup>19</sup> aligned to the reference Silva alignment (V119, https://www.arb-silva.de/), and <sup>19</sup>
<sup>20</sup>reads failing alignment were excluded from the dataset. Taxonomic classification<sup>20</sup>
<sup>21</sup>of the unclustered sequences was performed using the same RDP classifier imple-<sup>21</sup>
^{22}mented in Mothur used for the de-novo pipeline. To limit the size of the dataset ^{22}
^{23}the most abundant 40,000 OTUs (comparable to the Mothur dataset), across all^{23}
<sup>24</sup>samples, were used as the unclustered dataset.
25
                                                                                                       25
<sup>26</sup> Titration Proportion Estimates
<sup>27</sup>The following linear model was used to infer the proportion of prokaryotic DNA, <sup>27</sup>
<sup>28\theta</sup>, in each titration. Where \mathbf{Q}_i is a vector of titration i feature relative abundance <sup>28</sup>
<sup>29</sup>estimates and \mathbf{Q}_{pre} and \mathbf{Q}_{post} are vectors of feature relative abundance estimates<sup>29</sup>
30 for the unmixed PRE and POST samples. Feature relative abundance estimates 30
31 were calculated using a negative binomial model.
32
                                                                                                       32
33
                                                                                                       33
         \mathbf{Q}_i = \theta_i(\mathbf{Q}_{post} - \mathbf{Q}_{pre}) + \mathbf{Q}_{pre}
34
                                                                                                       34
35
   To fit the model and prevent uninformative and low abundance features from 36
<sup>37</sup>biasing \theta estimates, only features meeting the following criteria were used. Features
<sup>38</sup>included in the model were observed in at least 14 of the 28 total titration PCR<sup>38</sup>
<sup>39</sup>replicates (4 replicates per 7 titrations), demonstrated greater than 2-fold difference <sup>39</sup>
40 in relative abundance between the PRE and POST samples, and were present in 40
<sup>41</sup>either all four or none of the PRE and POST PCR replicates.
   16S rRNA sequencing count data is known to have a non-normal mean-variance 42
<sup>43</sup>relationship resulting in poor model fit for standard linear regression [18]. <sup>43</sup>
<sup>44</sup>Generalized linear models provide an alternative to standard least-squares regression. <sup>44</sup>
<sup>45</sup>The above model is additive and therefore \theta_i cannot be directly inferred in log-space. <sup>45</sup>
<sup>46</sup>To address this issue, we fit the model using a standard least-squares regression <sup>46</sup>
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¹ then obtained non-parametric 95 % confidence intervals for the $\theta$ estimates by ¹
² bootstrapping with 1000 replicates.
3
⁴ Qualitative Assessment
⁵ Our qualitative measurement
6
7 Artifactual Feature Proportion Our qualitative assessment evaluated features only 7
⁸ observed in unmixed samples (PRE or POST) , unmixed-specific, or titrations, ⁸
⁹ titration-specific. Unmixed- or only in titrations. The former we will refer to as ⁹
10 unmixed-specific features and the latter we will refer to as titration-specific features 10
¹¹ (Fig. 1B). <i>Unmixed</i> - and <i>titration-specific</i> features are can arise from errors in ¹¹
12 the PCR/sequencing, feature inference processes, or due to differences in sampling 12
¹³ depth(number of sequences)between the unmixed samples and titrations, artifacts ¹³
¹⁴ of the feature inference process, or PCR/sequencing artifacts. Measurement process ¹⁴
¹⁵ artifacts should be considered false positives or negatives. To provide context for ¹⁶
¹⁶ the artifactual feature proportion results count table sparsity was used (Fig. 1C). ¹⁶
¹⁷ Sparsity is defined as the proportion of 0 valued cells in a matrix.
¹⁸ Hypothesis tests were used to determine if differences in sampling depth random ¹⁸
¹⁹ sampling alone, here sequencing depth, could account for unmixed-specific unmixed-
²⁰ and <i>titration-specific</i> features. p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons us- ²¹
²¹ ing the Benjamini & Hochberg method [43]. For <i>unmixed-specific</i> features, the a ²¹
• • •
²² binomial test was used to evaluate if true feature relative abundance is less than ²³
the expected relative abundance. A binomial test could not be used to evaluate The 24
²⁴ binomial test was infeasible for <i>titration-specific</i> features, as the hypothesis would be 24
²⁵ formulated as such. Given observed counts and the titration total feature abundance ²⁶
²⁶ , the true feature relative abundance. Because the count table abundance values
²⁷ for these features was 0 in the unmixed samples, their estimated probability of
28 occurrence $\pi_{min}$ is equal to 0. As non-zero counts were observed the true feature
²⁹ proportion is non-zero, and the test always 0, and thus, the binomial test fails.
³⁰ Therefore, we formulated a Bayesian hypothesis test for $titration$ -specific features $-$
A Bayesian hypothesis test detailed by equation (2). This Bayesian approach 31
³² was used to evaluate if the true feature proportion is less than the minimum de-
³³ tected proportion. The Bayesian hypothesis test was formulated using equation
³⁴ . Which Note that when assuming equal priors, $P(\pi < \pi_{min}) = P(\pi \ge \pi_{min})$ , ³⁴
$P(\pi < \pi_{min}) = P(\pi > \pi_{min})$ (2) reduces to (3). For equations and $\pi$ is We define
$\frac{36}{\pi}$ as the true feature proportion, $\frac{\pi_{min}}{\pi_{min}}$ is $\frac{\pi_{min}}{\pi_{min}}$ the minimum detected proportion,
$^{37}C$ is $C$ the expected feature counts, and $C_{obs}$ is $C_{obs}$ the observed feature counts.
³⁸ Simulation was used to generate possible values of $C$ , assuming $C$ has a binomial ³⁶
³⁹ distribution given the observed sample total feature abundance, and a uniform ³⁰
⁴⁰ probability distribution for $\pi$ between 0 and 1. $\pi_{min}$ Count values for $C$ were
⁴¹ simulated using a beta prior (with varying alpha and beta values) for $\pi > \pi_{min}$
⁴² and a uniform distribution for $\pi < \pi_{min}$ . Higher values of alpha and beta will skew ⁴²
⁴³ the prior right and left respectively. Our Bayesian hypothesis tests (Eg. (3)) results ⁴³
⁴⁴ were largely unaffected by beta distribution parameterization (Fig. S4). $\pi_{min}$ was
⁴⁵ calculated using the mixture equation (1) where $q_{pre,j}$ and $q_{post,j}$ are $min(\mathbf{Q}_{pre})^{45}$
⁴⁶ and $min(\mathbf{Q}_{post})$ $q_{pre,j}$ and $q_{post,j}$ are $min(\mathbf{Q}_{pre})$ and $min(\mathbf{Q}_{post})$ across all features

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<sup>1</sup>for a subject and pipeline. Our assumption is that \frac{\pi}{\pi} is less than \frac{\pi_{min}}{\pi_{min}} for \frac{\pi_{min}}{\pi_{min}}
 <sup>2</sup>features not observed in unmixed samples<del>due to random sampling.</del> Artifacts not <sup>2</sup>
 <sup>3</sup>explained by sequencing alone are likely errors in the sequence measurement and
 <sup>4</sup>inference processes, and thus, false positives or negatives.
                                                                                                          6
 <sup>7</sup> p = P(\pi < \pi_{min} | C \ge C_{obs})
    = \frac{P(C \ge C_{obs} | \pi < \pi_{min}) P(\pi < \pi_{min})}{P(C \ge C_{obs} | \pi < \pi_{exp}) P(\pi < \pi_{min}) + P(C \ge C_{obs} | \pi \ge \pi_{min}) P(\pi \ge \pi_{min})}
                                                                                                      (2)^{8}
                                                                                                          10
11
                                                                                                          11
                                                                                                          12
12
        p = \frac{P(C \ge C_{obs} | \pi < \pi_{min})}{P(C > C_{obs})}
                                                                                                      (3)_{13}
13
14
                                                                                                          14
15 Quantitative Assessment
                                                                                                          15
16For quantitative assessment, we compared observed relative abundance and log16
17 fold-changes to expected values derived from the titration experimental design. 17
18Feature average relative abundance across PCR replicates was calculated using a18
19 negative binomial model, and used as observed relative abundance values (obs) for 19
20the relative abundance assessment. Average relative abundance values were used20
21to reduce PCR replicate outliers from biasing the assessment results. Equation (1)21
<sup>22</sup>and inferred \theta values were used to calculate the expected relative abundance values<sup>22</sup>
<sup>23</sup>(exp). Relative abundance error rate is defined as |exp - obs|/exp.
<sup>24</sup> We developed bias and variance metrics to assess feature performance. The<sup>24</sup>
<sup>25</sup>feature-level bias and variance metrics were defined as the median error rate and <sup>25</sup>
<sup>26</sup>robust coefficient of variation (RCOV = IQR/median) respectively. Mixed-effects<sup>26</sup>
<sup>27</sup>models were used to compare feature-level error rate bias and variance metrics across<sup>27</sup>
<sup>28</sup>pipelines with subject as a random effect. Extreme feature-level error rate bias and <sup>28</sup>
<sup>29</sup>variance metric outliers were observed, these outliers were excluded from the mixed<sup>29</sup>
<sup>30</sup>effects model to minimize biases due to poor model fit and were characterized <sup>30</sup>
<sup>31</sup>independently.
32 Log fold-change between samples in the titration series including PRE and POST<sup>32</sup>
<sup>33</sup>were compared to the expected log fold-change values to assess differential abun-<sup>33</sup>
<sup>34</sup>dance log fold-change estimates. Log fold-change estimates were calculated using<sup>34</sup>
^{35}EdgeR [44, 45]. Expected log fold-change for feature j between titrations l and m^{35}
<sup>36</sup>is calculated using equation (4), where \theta is the proportion of POST bacterial DNA<sup>36</sup>
<sup>37</sup>in a titration, and q is feature relative abundance. For features only present in PRE<sup>37</sup>
<sup>38</sup>samples, the expected log fold-change is independent of the observed counts for the <sup>38</sup>
<sup>39</sup>unmixed samples and is calculated using (5). Features only observed in POST sam-<sup>39</sup>
<sup>40</sup>ples, POST-specific, expected log fold-change values can be calculated in a similar <sup>40</sup>
<sup>41</sup>manner. However, POST-specific features were rarely observed in more than one<sup>41</sup>
<sup>42</sup>titration and therefore were not suitable for use in our assessment. Due to a limited <sup>42</sup>
<sup>43</sup>number of PRE-specific features, both PRE-specific and PRE-dominant features<sup>43</sup>
<sup>44</sup>were used in the differential abundance assessment. PRE-specific features were de-<sup>44</sup>
<sup>45</sup>fined as features observed in all four PRE PCR replicates and not observed in any <sup>45</sup>
<sup>46</sup>of the POST PCR replicates and PRE-dominant features were also observed in all<sup>46</sup>
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¹four PRE PCR replicates and observed in one or more of the POST PCR replicates ¹ ²with a log fold-change between PRE and POST samples greater than 5. 3 4  $logFC_{lm,j} = log_2 \left( \frac{\theta_l q_{post,j} + (1 - \theta_l) q_{pre,i}}{\theta_m q_{post,j} + (1 - \theta_m) q_{pre,j}} \right)$ 5  $(4)^5$ 8 8  $logFC_{lm,i} = log_2\left(\frac{1-\theta_l}{1-\theta_m}\right)$  $(5)^9$ 10 10 Count Table Assessment Demonstration Demonstrate framework by comparing the qualitative and quantitative assessment results across the three pipelines. We first characterized overall differences in the count tables produced by the three pipelines. This characterization included calculating the number of features, total abundance by sample, dropout-rate, and 15 taxonomic composition. 17 18 ¹⁸Qualitative Assessment ¹⁹For the qualitative assessment we compare the proportion of artifactual features. The artifactual feature proportion was defined as the proportion of *unmixed*- and ²⁰ ²¹titration-specific features with abundance values that could not be explained by ²¹  22 sampling alone. These are PCR replicates with p-values less than 0.05 after multiple  22 ²³hypothesis test correction for the binomial and bayesian hypothesis tests described²³ ²⁴in the assessment framework methods section. We additionally used the count ²⁴ ²⁵table sparsity values to draw conclusions regarding the mechanism responsible for ²⁵ ²⁶different artifactual feature proportions. 27 ²⁸Quantitative Assessment ²⁹Mixed-effects models were used to compare feature-level error rate bias and variance²⁹ ³⁰metrics across pipelines with subject as a random effect. Extreme feature-level³⁰ ³¹error rate bias and variance metric outliers were excluded from this analysis to³¹ ³²minimize biases due to poor model fit. Features with large bias and variance metrics. ³²  $^{33}1.5 \times IQR$  from the median, were deemed outliers. These outlier features were  33 ³⁴characterized independently in a separate analysis. We fit the following mixed effect model to test for differences in measurement bias³⁵ ³⁶across pipelines 37 37 38 38  $e_{ijk} = b + b_i + z_j + \epsilon_{ijk}$ 39 where  $e_{ijk}$  is the observed error across features and tritations k for pipeline  $i^{40}$ on individual j.  $b_i$  is a fixed term modeling the pipeline effect,  $z_j$  is a random ⁴²effect (normally distributed with mean 0) capturing overall bias differences across ⁴² ⁴³individuals. We fit a similar model for differences in error variance across pipelines. We used estimated terms  $\hat{b}_i$  from the mixed effects model to test for pair-wise 45 ⁴⁶differences across pipelines. These multiple comparisons were performed with ⁴⁶

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¹ Tukey's HSD test. A one-sided alternative hypothesis was used to determine which	$h^1$
² pipelines had smaller feature-level error rate.	2
3	3
4 Declarations	4
5Ethics approval and consent to participate	5
6 ^{Not} applicable.	6
7	7
7 Consent for publication 8Not applicable.	8
9	9
Availability of data and material	10
¹⁰ Sequence data was deposited in the NCBI SRA archive under Bioproject PRJNA480312. Individual SRA run 11accession numbers and metadata in Supplemental Table. The code used to run the bioinformatic pipelines is	11
available at https://github.com/nate-d-olson/mgtst_pipelines. Scripts used to analyze the data are available	e
12at https://github.com/nate-d-olson/mgtst_pub.	12
13 ₁₄ Competing interests	13
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.	14
15	15
16Funding	16
17 This work was partially supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH) [NIH R01HG005220 to H.C.B.]	17
18 Authors' contributions	18
19NDO, HCB, OCS, MS, and WT designed the experiment, SL and SH performed the laboratory work. NDO,	19
HCB <del>and MS</del> , MS, and DJB analyzed the data. NDO, DJB, and HCB wrote the manuscript. All authors provided feedback on manuscript drafts and approved the final manuscript.	20
21	21
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