

1 Full title:

2 **New insights in host-associated microbial diversity with broad and**  
3 **accurate taxonomic resolution.**

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5 Running title:

6 Broad and precise microbiome structure resolution

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31 **Figures:**

32 Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4 and Figure 5, Figure 6 (all in color)

33

34 **Supporting Information:**

35 SI, File S1 (oligonucleotide sequences), File S2 (Data for Figure 6)

36

## 37 Summary

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- Deep microbiome profiling has sparked a revolution in biology, recontextualizing mechanisms such as macroorganismal adaptation and evolution. Amplicon sequencing has been critical for characterization of highly diverse microbiomes, but several challenges still hinder their investigation: (1) Poor coverage of the full diversity, (2) Read depth losses and (3) Erroneous diversity inflation/distortion.
- We developed a modular approach to quickly profile at least 8 interchangeable loci in a single sequencing run, including a simple and cost-effective way to block amplification of non-targets (like host DNA). We further correct observed distortion in amplified diversity by phylogenetically grouping erroneous OTUs, creating a phylogeny-based unit we call OPUs.
- Our approach achieves full, accurate characterization of a mixed-kingdom mock community of bacteria, fungi and oomycetes at high depth even in non-target contaminated systems. The OPU concept enables much more accurate estimations of alpha and beta diversity trends than OTUs and overcomes disagreements between studies caused by methodology. Leveraging the approach in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* phyllosphere, we generated to our knowledge the most complete microbiome survey to date.
- Microbiomes are extremely diverse, extending well beyond bacteria and fungi. Our method makes new questions in a variety of fields tractable with accurate, systems-based overviews of microbial community structures.

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### Keywords:

microbiome, erroneous diversity, microbial diversity, holobiont, amplicon sequencing, bacteria, fungi, oomycete, protist

## 73 Introduction

74 A revolution in biology is currently underway as our understanding of various  
75 systems is brought into the context of newly characterized structures and  
76 roles of symbiotic microbial consortia. This transformation is the result of  
77 growing research on microbiota associated with various abiotic or biotic  
78 systems (270 vs. 3494 publications had the words “Microbial community” or  
79 “Microbiome” in the title in 2005 vs. 2015 according to a PubMed search on  
80 Mar 22, 2016). Strong interest in this field is not surprising considering that  
81 research is turning up important roles of the community context of  
82 microorganisms in systems as diverse as biotechnological transformations  
83 (Werner *et al.*, 2011) and plant and animal health and fitness (Hehemann *et*  
84 *al.*, 2010, Mills *et al.*, 2013, Panke-Buisse *et al.*, 2015, Rolli *et al.*, 2015).

85 A typical approach employed by microbiome researchers is first to  
86 characterize microbial community structures in a system of interest. To do so,  
87 many studies rely on amplicon sequencing of phylogenetically informative  
88 genomic loci to generate microbiota profiles. These profiles are then linked to  
89 specific experimental parameters, host phenotypes or performance  
90 measurements. Community profiling based on ribosomal gene phylogeny  
91 dates to Pace and colleagues (Stahl *et al.*, 1985) who in 1985 reported on  
92 isolating and sequencing the 5S rRNA gene in environmental samples to  
93 identify abundant but uncultured bacteria. The technology has come a long  
94 way: As with many recent important developments in biology, rapid and  
95 inexpensive DNA sequencing technology has been an enabling force in  
96 microbiome research. Its democratization, however, is due to development of  
97 highly parallel library indexing which made high-throughput amplicon  
98 sequencing extremely inexpensive on a per sample basis (Hamady *et al.*,  
99 2008).

100 Today, with for example the MiSeq platform, amplicon libraries are routinely  
101 and rapidly generated from hundreds of samples and sequenced together in a  
102 single run. This process generates millions of sequences up to 600 bp in  
103 length (Caporaso *et al.*, 2012), enabling extremely deep profiling of targeted  
104 microbial groups. In the first experiment of the current study, we used the  
105 Illumina MiSeq to characterize *A. thaliana* root compartments more deeply

106 than we could previously with 454 pyrosequencing (Schlaeppli *et al.*, 2014) in  
107 hope of gaining new insights. We show that better diversity recovery with the  
108 Illumina protocol, not read depth, enabled better differentiation of soil and  
109 rhizosphere compartments. In addition to the need to maximize microbial  
110 diversity coverage, we identified two other problems limiting characterization  
111 of diverse microbial communities: (1) Losses to read depth because of non-  
112 target amplification and (2) Artificial inflation/distortion of diversity due to  
113 erroneous OTUs.

114 Limited profiling of diversity extends well beyond bacteria, since microbiomes  
115 are often composed of species from all kingdoms of life. These cohabiting  
116 members interact with the environment and influence one another via direct  
117 associations (Fisher & Mehta, 2014) or indirectly via a host (Hajishengallis,  
118 2015). To resolve these interactions and model microbial community  
119 dynamics, robust systems approaches are needed (Lima-Mendez *et al.*,  
120 2015). For example, analysis of modularity in microbial correlation networks  
121 (i.e., co-occurring groups of microbes) has revealed rice root-associated  
122 prokaryotes involved in methane cycling (Edwards *et al.*, 2015) as well as  
123 modules of fungi and bacteria that together correlate with certain soil  
124 parameters (de Menezes *et al.*, 2015). To improve the usefulness of such  
125 approaches, some studies are profiling a larger diversity like bacteria and  
126 fungi simultaneously (Marupakula *et al.*, 2016). Such approaches can reveal,  
127 for example, keystone species that underlie microbial community structures  
128 because they interact heavily, linking external abiotic and biotic sources of  
129 variation to the community (Berry & Widder, 2014). Recent studies in  
130 phyllosphere microbial communities (Agler *et al.*, 2016) and in ocean samples  
131 (Chow *et al.*, 2014) have emphasized that keystone microbes participate  
132 heavily in inter-kingdom interactions. Thus, broad coverage of diversity is  
133 critical to pinpoint these important microbes in community surveys.

134 Parallel amplification and sequencing of multiple loci is one way to cover more  
135 diversity and for this approach many well-characterized targets are available.  
136 Among other target loci, structures of communities can be probed *via* the 16S  
137 rRNA gene (Baker *et al.*, 2003), the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region 1  
138 or 2 (Blaalid *et al.*, 2013) or the 18S rRNA gene (Hugerth *et al.*, 2014) for  
139 prokaryotic, fungal, and other eukaryotic microbes, respectively. For most of

140 these targets, many possible primer sets are available, each bringing their  
141 own biases and specificities. Therefore, including multiple loci from a single  
142 gene target can be advantageous and provide complementary information  
143 (Wang *et al.*, 2016). Whatever the target choice, modular methods are  
144 needed to quickly adapt methodology to specific questions because  
145 represented diversity varies considerably between different microbial  
146 communities. Previously, we developed a method to prepare, sequence and  
147 analyze two loci from each of bacteria (16S), fungi (ITS) and oomycetes (ITS)  
148 in parallel and used it to evaluate microbial structure and interactions in the  
149 *Arabidopsis thaliana* phyllosphere (Agler *et al.*, 2016). Here, we use a mixed  
150 mock community of microorganisms to optimize it for high throughput,  
151 resolution and accuracy.

152 We also address the two other major barriers to full characterization of  
153 microbial communities. The first is amplification of host or non-target  
154 organismal DNA such as mitochondrial 16S, chloroplast 16S or non-target  
155 genomic ITS sequences that can lead to major loss of useful reads (Bulgarelli  
156 *et al.*, 2012, Ihrmark *et al.*, 2012). We developed “blocking oligos” that  
157 inexpensively and nearly completely eliminated non-target amplification in  
158 mock communities with simulated “host” contamination. We also show that  
159 their use does not bias results and that they can be adapted to block  
160 amplification of undesirable microbial targets. Second, we addressed false  
161 trends in recovered microbial community diversity arising because of  
162 sequencing errors (Kunin *et al.*, 2010). Here, we introduce the “operational  
163 phylogenetic unit” (OPU) – phylogenetic groupings of erroneous OTUs. We  
164 show that this method resolves differences between our 454 and Illumina  
165 methods caused by errors. We also demonstrate that OPUs can be used to  
166 generate a phylogenetic beta diversity distance metric even for fungal ITS  
167 reads and that they are a much more accurate direct measure of species  
168 richness than OTUs.

169 Finally, we leverage all of these benefits to profile microbes associated with  
170 leaves of wild *A. thaliana* plants. To demonstrate full modularity and that any  
171 desirable locus could be included, we expand to target microbial eukaryotes  
172 with two loci of the 18S rRNA gene (8 loci total). The result is deep profiling of  
173 all 8 loci and to our knowledge the most complete picture to date of diversity

174 in a microbial community. We provide all tools and information needed for  
175 researchers to analyze up to 50 samples with the 8 loci described here or to  
176 expand the system for their needs. Together, these simple solutions will  
177 enable researchers to rapidly, accurately and nearly completely characterize  
178 many microbial communities in a single sequencing run. We expect these  
179 methods to broaden the applicability and impact of amplicon sequencing  
180 experiments.

181

## 182 **Materials and Methods**

### 183 **Comparison of methods for amplicon sequencing**

184 We first tested an amplification and sequencing protocol for the Illumina  
185 MiSeq that includes amplicon generation in two PCR steps (**Fig. S1**). We  
186 prepared bacterial 16S rRNA gene libraries from 3 bulk soil, 3 plant  
187 rhizosphere and 2 plant root samples from the 'Eifel' natural site experiment  
188 (Experiment 1, **Table S1**) and sequenced them as described in **SI methods**.  
189 We combined Illumina data with data from the same samples previously  
190 generated using 454 technology (Schlaeppli *et al*, 2014) and generated OTUs  
191 as described in **SI methods**. We then summarized OTUs by taxonomy and  
192 generated plots at the phylum level (all taxa) or the family level (the 20 most  
193 abundant taxa). We compared the cumulative OTU discovery vs. depth  
194 between the two technologies by rarifying tables at read depth intervals of 10  
195 between 0 and 100 and 100 between 100 and 3000 and counting the number  
196 of unique and shared OTUs generated by each technology. Finally, we  
197 compared the ability of the technologies to discriminate between  
198 compartments of *Arabidopsis thaliana* roots by plotting boxplots of Bray-Curtis  
199 or weighted UniFrac distances between sample classes using phyloseq  
200 (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) and ggplots2.

### 201 **Optimizing modular, multi-locus library preparation and sequencing**

202 We expanded the method used in the first experiment to target multiple loci in  
203 a single sequencing run (Experiment 2, **Table S1** and **Table S2**). Accuracy  
204 was tested by amplifying mixed kingdom mock communities (**Table S3**) in 6  
205 separate PCR reactions targeting two loci from phylogenetically informative  
206 regions of each of bacteria (16S rRNA V3-V4 and V5-V7), fungi (ITS1 and 2)

207 and oomycetes (ITS1 and 2). We tested effects of library preparation  
208 methodology by performing PCR in one step (35 cycles) or two steps (10 then  
209 25 cycles or 25 then 10 cycles) (**Fig. S1b** and **Table S1**). For two-step  
210 preparations, the primers used in the first step consisted of unmodified  
211 universal amplification primers (**Fig. 1a**). For single-step preparations and for  
212 the second step in two-step preparations, primers were a concatenation of the  
213 Illumina adapter P5 (forward) or P7 (reverse), an index sequence (reverse  
214 only), a linker region, and the universal primer for the region being amplified  
215 (**Fig. 1b, Fig. S1a** and **File S1**). Details of all PCR steps can be found in the  
216 **SI methods**. Libraries were purified, quantified, and combined in equimolar  
217 concentrations. Sequencing was on a single Illumina MiSeq lane (Illumina,  
218 Inc.) by adapting the approach of Caporaso et al. (Caporaso *et al*, 2012) for  
219 multiple loci (**Fig. S1c** and **File S1**). This recovers ~8% more high quality  
220 bases than protocols relying on Illumina sequencing primers (calculated in **SI**  
221 **Note**).

222 Details on generating OTU tables and taxonomy from raw multi-locus data  
223 can be found in the **SI Methods**. We summarized bacterial, fungal and  
224 oomycete OTU tables by taxonomic rank, converted abundances to relative  
225 values and plotted the family-level taxonomic distribution directly from this  
226 data with the package ggplots2 in R. To calculate distances of samples from  
227 expected, we added the expected distributions (**Table S3**) to the OTU tables  
228 and summarized taxa at the family level. After removing “host“-derived reads,  
229 we calculated Bray-Curtis distances between samples using Vegan (Oksanen  
230 *et al.*, 2013). We plotted distances from expected distributions in boxplots  
231 using ggplots2. Each box represents three “replicate” libraries generated with  
232 the same mixed kingdom mock community template but with differing  
233 amounts of “host“ DNA added.

#### 234 **Avoiding non-target template amplification with “blocking oligos”**

235 To make the method applicable to host-associated studies, we addressed  
236 non-target amplification in library preparation. In short, primers specific to the  
237 known, undesirable template (hereafter “blocking oligos”) are designed to bind  
238 nested inside the universal primer binding sites (Experiment 3, **Table S1**).  
239 Thereby, most amplicons made in the first PCR step from non-target template  
240 are short and lack the universal primer sequences. These cannot be

241 elongated in the second PCR step and subsequently are not sequenced (**Fig.**  
242 **1b**, **Fig. S1b** and **S1c**). Blocking oligos were designed for the *A. thaliana*  
243 chloroplast (16S rRNA V3-V4 region) or mitochondria (16S rRNA V5-V7  
244 region) and the *A. thaliana* ITS1 and ITS2 regions by adapting the approach  
245 of Lundberg et al. (Lundberg *et al.*, 2013) originally for PNA clamps. See **SI**  
246 **Methods** and **Fig. S2** for details of design and use in library preparation and  
247 **File S1** their sequences. To analyze the percent reduction in host plant-  
248 associated reads when blocking oligos were employed, we considered the  
249 relative abundance of reads associated with the class “Chloroplast” or the  
250 order “*Rickettsiales*” in the 16S OTU tables and reads in the kingdom  
251 “*Viridiplantae*” in the ITS OTU tables in samples with *A. thaliana* DNA and with  
252 and without blocking oligos.

### 253 **Clustering OTUs by phylogeny into OPUs**

254 For the 454/Illumina comparison and multi-kingdom mock community data,  
255 OTUs were clustered into phylogenetically closely related groups that we  
256 called operational phylogenetic units (OPUs, **Fig. 1c**, Experiment 4 in **Table**  
257 **S1**). In short, OTUs were divided at the rank of family, combined with  
258 sequences from the taxonomy reference databases and a phylogenetic tree  
259 was built for each by alignment with MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004). UPGMA trees  
260 for each family were created with the R function hclust. The tree was  
261 dynamically split into clusters using the hybrid method in cutreeDynamic in the  
262 dynamicTreeCut package (Langfelder *et al.*, 2008) in R. This method was  
263 designed to identify clusters in trees similar to hierarchical clustering but  
264 without predetermined clustering depths. It dynamically identifies groups of  
265 tips in a dendrogram that form clusters using both the tree and the distance  
266 matrix that the tree is based on. A set of user-defined parameters define the  
267 cluster detection sensitivity and we found that setting the minimum cluster  
268 size to 15 and the deepSplit parameter to 3 was effective for OTU clustering.  
269 We then generated a map of the OTUs in each OPU and generated an OPU  
270 abundance table.

271 For the 454/Illumina data, overlap of OPU generation between technologies  
272 and Bray-Curtis distance plots were generated exactly as described above for  
273 OTUs. For mock communities, species richness estimates were based on  
274 data from the evenly distributed mock community template with *A. thaliana*

275 “host” contamination, amplified in 2 steps (10 cycle / 25 cycle) with blocking  
276 oligos. We used QIIME 1.8.0 (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010) to calculate the number  
277 of observed species in 10 rarefactions at 30 evenly spaced depths based on  
278 the OPU table, the OTU table, and the tables of OTUs grouped taxonomically  
279 at levels species, genus, family and order. The maximum depth was based on  
280 the OPU read depth since a few reads were discarded during OPU generation  
281 (Bacteria V3/V4: 2530, V5/V6/V7: 34780, Fungi ITS1: 9930, ITS2: 48400,  
282 Oomycete ITS1: 26820, ITS2: 5000). We plotted the average number of  
283 observed species against sequencing depth for the bacterial 16S V3-V4  
284 dataset and the ratios of observed:expected OTUs and OPUs for all datasets.

### 285 **Characterizing *A. thaliana* phyllosphere microbiota**

286 We used the multi-locus approach to characterize the phyllosphere  
287 microbiome of *A. thaliana* leaves infected with the oomycete pathogen *Albugo*  
288 *laibachii* with near-complete taxonomic coverage (Experiment 5 in **Table S1**  
289 and **Table S2**). Whole leaves (defined as a single whole rosette) or  
290 endophytic fractions of leaves (defined as in (Agler *et al.*, 2016)) were  
291 collected in the wild (a total of 18 samples - 9 whole leaf, 9 endophyte) and  
292 were immediately frozen on dry ice. DNA extraction was performed as  
293 described previously (Agler *et al.*, 2016). Library preparation, sequencing and  
294 analysis was performed as described above. To more completely cover  
295 eukaryotic microbial diversity, we expanded the 6 loci method to 8 with two  
296 additional 18S rRNA gene loci (V4-V5 and V8-V9, see **File S1**).

297 To reduce *A. thaliana* or *A. laibachii* amplification in the 18S region we  
298 designed additional blocking oligos for both of these organisms (**File S1**). We  
299 tested them by preparing 18S amplicons from two mock communities  
300 consisting of *A. thaliana* (97% or 87%), *A. laibachii* (0 or 10%), *Sphingomonas*  
301 sp. (1.5%), *Bacillus* sp. (1.5%) and 0.001% to 1% of target *Saccharomyces*  
302 *cerevisiae*. (**Table S4**).

303 To provide a complete and concise picture of the diversity of microbiota  
304 inhabiting *A. thaliana*, we combined the data from all samples. To visualize  
305 data, we assigned taxonomy to OTUs and generated two phylogenetic trees  
306 where branches represent unique genera. Trees were generated from the  
307 taxonomic lineages (*not* OTU sequence similarity) with the ape package in R  
308 and output as newick files (Paradis *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, OTUs from taxa

309 not represented in the databases are simply grouped as “Unclassified”. These  
310 were uploaded to iTOI v3.1 (Letunic & Bork, 2016) to color branches by  
311 taxonomy or by targeted regions. The first tree, for Eukaryotes, includes data  
312 from the 18S and ITS targeted regions. The second tree includes data from  
313 the 16S targeted regions.

#### 314 **Data Availability and Figure Regeneration**

315 Raw sequencing data is being made publicly available *via* Qiita  
316 (<https://qiita.ucsd.edu/>) study number 10408 and is currently available for  
317 direct download at:  
318 [http://bioinfo.mpijz.mpg.de/download/MethodPaper\\_Share/](http://bioinfo.mpijz.mpg.de/download/MethodPaper_Share/). All modified  
319 databases, OTU tables and metadata files, as well as scripts and instructions  
320 to generate OPUs and recreate the main figures are available at Figshare  
321 (<https://figshare.com/s/07b3493d1f6442d34dfd>).

322

## 323 **Results**

### 324 **Pattern recovery depends on diversity coverage but is obscured by** 325 **erroneous OTUs**

326 We first re-analyzed the 454-generated bacterial 16S data from (Schlaeppli *et*  
327 *al*, 2014), confirming that rhizosphere and soil compartments from *A. thaliana*  
328 roots were weakly distinct (**Fig. 2a**). We hypothesized that because of their  
329 relatively high alpha diversity, higher read depth was needed to differentiate  
330 microbiota between the compartments. Thus, we reanalyzed the same set of  
331 samples at higher depth (86,406-211,907 reads/sample vs. 12,699-20,844  
332 reads/sample previously) with our protocol for the Illumina platform (**Fig. 1a**  
333 **and 1b and Table S1**). Bray-Curtis distances, which consider all OTUs  
334 equally, suggested that the Illumina method indeed better distinguished  
335 rhizosphere and soil compartments (**Fig. 2a**). Surprisingly, this was depth-  
336 independent and was also true for differences between other compartments.  
337 This was apparently driven by widely divergent OTU profiles with only 35% of  
338 all OTUs observed in both datasets (**Fig. 2b**, 700 and 1424 OTUs were  
339 unique to 454 and Illumina, respectively). Huge numbers of unique OTUs  
340 suggested that either: (1) Differences in the methods of library generation and  
341 sequencing resulted in little overlap or (2) OTUs were inflated by error. To

342 check this, we calculated between-sample weighted UniFrac distances, which  
343 gives less importance to differences caused by closely related, likely  
344 erroneous OTUs (**Fig. 2a**). With this metric only soil and rhizosphere  
345 compartments were better differentiated in the Illumina dataset, suggesting a  
346 mixture of real differences and erroneous OTUs leading to false diversity  
347 trends. True differences could be due to higher sensitivity with the Illumina  
348 method to the phyla *Verrucomicrobia*, *TM7* and *Chloroflexi*, which were more  
349 abundant in that dataset (**Fig. S3**). However, there were apparently too many  
350 errors to locate soil/rhizosphere differential OTUs with certainty. In any case,  
351 the role of improved taxonomic resolution in detecting fine differences  
352 between datasets motivated us to expand to target loci beyond prokaryotes.

353

### 354 **A fully modular, multi-locus approach to improve insight into microbial** 355 **diversity**

356 We previously (Agler *et al*, 2016) adapted our 2-step Illumina amplicon library  
357 generation protocol to simultaneously target 6 genomic loci, two from each of  
358 bacteria, fungi and oomycetes. Here, we optimized the protocol by extensively  
359 testing variations of it on a mock community consisting of microbes from the  
360 three kingdoms (**Table S3**). We found that for all three kingdoms, taxa  
361 distributions (shown at the order level in **Fig. 3a** and **Fig. S4a**) were similar to  
362 expected. Mocks with staggered distributions of microorganisms were  
363 generally closest to expected (**Fig. 3b** and **Fig. S4b**) because the effect of  
364 underestimated taxa was sometimes stronger in even communities (e.g., the  
365 order *Mucorales* was not efficiently recovered by fungal ITS1 primers **Fig. 3a**  
366 **and Tables S5-S7**). Recovered community structures were reproducible,  
367 since the distance of technical replicates from the expected distribution was  
368 consistent (**Fig. 3b** and **Fig. S4b**). 2-step amplification recovered microbial  
369 community structures that were closer to the expected than 1-step  
370 amplification although the trend was not significant in all datasets. Further,  
371 leaving the bulk of PCR cycling for the second step (10 cycles followed by 25  
372 cycles) tended to give the most accurate results. These close-to-expected  
373 taxonomy distributions were based on OTUs grouped by taxonomy. At the  
374 OTU level we again observed inflated diversity due to erroneous OTUs. OTUs  
375 overestimated species richness by on average 257.5%, 2575% and 387.5%

376 (only considering OTUs in the expected taxa) for bacteria, fungi and  
377 oomycetes, respectively (**Tables S5-S7**).

378 We tested applicability of our method to host-associated microbiomes by  
379 mixing 90% *A. thaliana* “host” DNA and 10% mock communities (**Fig. 3**). Non-  
380 target host-derived DNA amplification accounted for up to 94% of reads  
381 (chloroplast-derived in the 16S V3-V4 dataset) and much less but still  
382 significant amounts in other target regions (**Fig. 3a and Fig. S4**). Therefore,  
383 we developed and implemented “blocking oligos” to reduce amplification of  
384 non-target DNA template. This method largely recovered read depth by  
385 eliminating 60 - 90% of chloroplast contamination in bacterial 16S  
386 communities and nearly all of the small amount of contamination in fungal ITS  
387 communities (**Fig. 4a**). Importantly, employing blocking oligos did not change  
388 the recovered distribution of taxa (each of the 2-step amplification boxplots in  
389 **Fig. 3b** included a replicate with blocking oligos but all had the same distance  
390 to expected). Thus, whereas extensive host contamination would obscure all  
391 but the most abundant microbes, blocking oligos enable deeper amplicon  
392 sequencing to uncover rare microbiota.

393

#### 394 **Recognizing true diversity trends with phylogenetic OTU clustering**

395 Prolific generation of erroneous OTUs strongly distorted true diversity  
396 patterns. Since erroneous OTUs derive from the same true sequence (**Fig.**  
397 **1c**), they should cluster closely in phylogenetic trees. Using this principle we  
398 grouped OTUs generated in the 454/Illumina comparison into a unit that we  
399 call operational phylogenetic units (OPUs). This approach reduced the total  
400 from 3268 OTUs to 293 OPU. OPUs properly grouped divergent erroneous  
401 OTUs generated with 454 and Illumina since overlap between them increased  
402 from 35% (OTUs, **Fig. 2b**) to 90% (OPUs, **Fig. 5a**). There were only 11 and  
403 21 OPUs unique to 454- and Illumina, respectively. Bray-Curtis distances  
404 based on OPUs (**Fig. 5b**) closely resembled UniFrac distances based on  
405 OTUs (**Fig. 2a**) where Illumina only better distinguished soil and rhizosphere  
406 compartments. We determined that 16 OTUs (maximum 150.8 reads/sample)  
407 and 10 OPUs (maximum 213.7 reads/sample) significantly contributed to  
408 observed soil/rhizosphere differentiation (**Table S8**). Significant OTUs and  
409 OPUs were in agreement, since both were dominated by the phylum

410 *Chloroflexi* (4 of 6 OTUs with > 20 reads/sample and the most abundant OPU,  
411 **Table S8**).

412 We used the mock community dataset to check if OPUs can provide accurate  
413 diversity estimates in all target loci. Indeed, all OPU rarefaction curves quickly  
414 reached an asymptote close to expected species richness (**Fig. 5c**).  
415 Considering only expected families, species richness was estimated at 110%,  
416 87.5% and 87.5% of expected for bacteria, fungi and oomycetes, respectively  
417 (**Tables S5-S7**). For fungal and oomycete ITS2 data, richness was estimated  
418 perfectly in all families, and the same was true for most families in other  
419 datasets (**Tables S5-S7**). Considering all discovered OPUs and OTUs  
420 (including non-targets and contaminants), phylogenetic grouping reduced the  
421 average total number of observed units from 86 to 30.5 (OTUs to OPUs) for  
422 bacteria (20 expected), 121.5 to 7 for fungi (4 expected) and 26 to 7.5 for  
423 oomycetes (4 expected) (**Fig. 5d and Tables S5-S7**). Comparatively, OTUs  
424 and even OTUs grouped by taxonomy extensively overestimated diversity and  
425 their non-asymptotic rarefaction curve suggests continued inflation with  
426 deeper sequencing (**Fig. 5c**). Overall, OPUs contribute to drastically improved  
427 microbial diversity profiles from amplicon sequencing data.

428

#### 429 **Towards a complete survey of complex host-associated microbiomes**

430 Next, we leveraged the full modularity of our approach to provide a near-  
431 complete survey of prokaryotic and eukaryotic diversity in *A. thaliana* leaves  
432 collected in several locations using 8 loci (2 for each of bacteria, general  
433 eukaryotes, fungi and oomycetes). Since the leaves of *A. thaliana* are often  
434 infected by the obligate biotroph pathogen *A. laibachii*, templates from leaves  
435 are dominated by *Arabidopsis* and *Albugo* genomic DNA. To overcome non-  
436 target amplification of these two organisms by universal 18S primers, another  
437 set of blocking oligos were designed. We tested the oligos by preparing 18S  
438 amplicons from mock community templates (**Table S4**) containing bacterial,  
439 *A. thaliana*, *A. laibachii* and target *S. cerevisiae* genomic DNA. Quantification  
440 (qPCR) of target levels in the 18S libraries showed that blocking non-targets  
441 increased target levels between ~57x (1% target template) and ~57,000x  
442 (0.001% target template) (tested in the 18S V4-V5 region, **Fig. 4b**).

443 Here, we present the most complete picture of the *A. thaliana*-associated  
444 microbiome (and to our knowledge any microbiome) ever assembled in a  
445 single amplicon sequencing run (**Fig. 6**) based on combined diversity in 24  
446 leaf samples collected from three wild locations. As expected, the 18S rRNA  
447 gene primers recovered a wide diversity of fungal and non-fungal eukaryotic  
448 microbiota, including various algae, cercozoa and amoebzoa (**Fig. 6a**). They  
449 even suggested that insects and helminthes are or were present on the  
450 leaves (**File S2**). The fungal and oomycete ITS datasets complemented the  
451 broader 18S data with more specificity in those groups – together, these two  
452 accounted for 44% of tree tips (observed genera, **Fig. 6a**). The prokaryote  
453 trees further demonstrate complementarity for primer sets targeting the same  
454 groups of microbes (**Fig. 6b**). Here, 42% of observed genera were discovered  
455 by both primer sets, with complementary diversity discovery especially in the  
456 phyla *Cyanobacteria* (V3-V4 dataset) and *Firmicutes* (V5-V7 dataset).

457

## 458 **Discussion**

459 Amplicon sequencing of phylogenetically or functionally informative loci has  
460 become an indispensable technique in a variety of biology-related fields  
461 because its targeted approach (compared to untargeted approaches like  
462 metagenomics) allows the most accurate annotation possible by using  
463 specialized databases (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006). It has revealed that microbial  
464 community structuring is more complex than previously thought and  
465 suggested extensive interactions between (a)biotic factors and microbes (de  
466 Menezes *et al.*, 2015) and between microbes even across kingdoms (Aglar *et*  
467 *al.*, 2016, Lima-Mendez *et al.*, 2015). To understand these interactions,  
468 microbiome researchers need to be able to more completely characterize  
469 diversity in a single sequencing run. The current method enables this by  
470 targeting at least 8 loci in parallel. This drastic increase in resolution critically  
471 overcomes an inherent uncertainty in systems-scale investigations of factors  
472 contributing to microbial community structures.

473 A key technique enabling the current advances is employment of a two-step  
474 amplicon library preparation as opposed to a single step amplification. Many  
475 commonly used protocols (e.g., the Earth Microbiome Project 16S protocol

476 based on (Caporaso *et al.*, 2011)) recommend using large, concatenated  
477 primers and one-step amplification. The advantages in technical  
478 reproducibility of a two-step approach that excludes concatenated primers in  
479 the first step were already described by Berry *et al.* (Berry *et al.*, 2011) for T-  
480 RFLP or 454 amplicon sequencing. For Illumina sequencing, concatenated  
481 primer bias was addressed with a 3-step approach: A 2-step amplification plus  
482 adapter ligation (Herbold *et al.*, 2015). That approach also allowed  
483 characterization of multiple gene regions, but a “head” sequence was  
484 concatenated to universal primers in the first amplification step. Our use of  
485 only universal primers in the first step, therefore, probably explains why mock  
486 community structure recovery was very accurate and replicable. Additionally,  
487 our approach adds all required adapters for sequencing in the second  
488 amplification step, eliminating problems associated with adapter ligation  
489 (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989).

490 Another major problem in amplicon sequencing is associated with using  
491 “universal” primers that in host-associated amplified non-target species,  
492 sacrificing read depth and masking diversity (Hanshew *et al.*, 2013).  
493 Previously, peptide nucleic acid “clamps” were used that were highly specific  
494 to non-target templates and which physically block their amplification  
495 (Lundberg *et al.*, 2013). These clamps work efficiently in single-step  
496 amplifications, but their production is expensive, limiting rapid development  
497 and deployment of multiple clamps for new loci or for blocking several non-  
498 targets. Other approaches, like using oligonucleotide clamps that physically  
499 block the universal primer binding site (Vestheim & Jarman, 2008) are not  
500 applicable here because target and non-target binding sites are too highly  
501 conserved. Alternatively, blocking oligos are versatile and cheap and can be  
502 extensively tested at very low costs and adapted to virtually any target. Some  
503 universal primers targeting fungal ITS amplify fungal targets more efficiently  
504 than host, which explains why we had only minor host contamination in mixed  
505 mock community libraries. However, when fungal templates are less abundant  
506 they can significantly amplify plant ITS (Ihrmark *et al.*, 2012). Because  
507 blocking oligos did not bias results, it is beneficial to always include them  
508 when relative abundance of target and non-target DNA is unknown.

509 One of the most persistent problems identified so far in amplicon sequencing  
510 is vast inflation of OTU diversity, mostly caused by sequencing errors (Kunin  
511 *et al*, 2010). Despite useful approaches to remove erroneous reads (Bokulich  
512 *et al.*, 2013, Reeder & Knight, 2010) or to reduce erroneous OTUs (Edgar,  
513 2013) false diversity trends are commonly observed (Sinclair *et al.*, 2015).  
514 Errors explain the popularity of phylogenetics-based tools for beta diversity  
515 estimation based on the Kantorovich-Rubinstein metric, such as UniFrac  
516 (Evans & Matsen, 2012, Lozupone & Knight, 2005) or alpha diversity metrics  
517 like Faith's PD (Faith, 1992). These weight differences in samples caused by  
518 distantly related OTUs more heavily since erroneous OTUs should be  
519 phylogenetically closely related. They have been very successful in identifying  
520 real differences between samples even when sequencing error is high.  
521 However, they are generally not applicable to loci like ITS, where extreme  
522 variability makes drawing phylogenetic relationships between all sequences  
523 questionable (Schoch *et al.*, 2012). Additionally, the assumptions of  
524 phylogenetic approaches do not hold when distantly related microbes occupy  
525 similar niches. For example, the basidiomycete yeast-like *Pseudozyma* spp.  
526 are phenotypically and ecologically much more similar to species like  
527 *Dioszegia* sp. (Inácio *et al.*, 2005) than to plant pathogenic members of its  
528 close relative *Ustilago* sp (Lefebvre *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, complementary  
529 approaches are needed that are sensitive to shifts in abundance among  
530 closely related taxa but which accurately delineate true and erroneous taxa.  
531 The OPU approach addresses this problem because they are in principle like  
532 phylogenetic diversity metrics – very closely related (likely erroneous) OTUs  
533 are grouped into a unit which can be used to generate standard beta or alpha  
534 diversity metrics. Therefore, the results are less abstract than UniFrac or  
535 Faith's PD (which lacks a taxonomic unit) and should be more sensitive to  
536 changes in abundance of closely related taxa. The term OPU was discussed  
537 elsewhere (Pernthaler & Amann, 2005) in the context of using phylogenetic  
538 grouping of organisms to move away from a specific percent identity as a  
539 working taxonomic unit but not as a systematic way to group erroneous  
540 OTUs. This concept was implemented in approaches to dynamically group  
541 amplicon reads by phylogeny based on tree cutting. Here clusters of reads  
542 were identified by training on a subset of data with known taxonomies (White

543 *et al.*, 2010) or by known differences in substitution errors between or within  
544 species (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). General applicability of these approaches is  
545 unclear because of the major computational resources needed to cluster raw  
546 reads and because inferring phylogeny among all reads is questionable at  
547 some highly divergent loci like ITS (Schoch *et al.*, 2012). Our implementation  
548 on the other hand uses pre-clustering of reads into OTUs and taxonomic  
549 groups. In this way large datasets are not a barrier because parallelization  
550 can be maximized according to available resources. Further, OTUs split by a  
551 taxonomic rank, e.g., family, are closely related and phylogenetic relationships  
552 can be determined even at highly divergent ITS loci. Therefore, diversity  
553 metrics based on OPUs represent a much needed phylogenetic method for  
554 loci that are not conserved enough to build alignments for example for  
555 UniFrac distances.

556 The realization of the immense complexity of biological systems – and our  
557 inability to adequately describe them - has led to many important, unresolved  
558 issues. For example, there is ongoing debate about what it means to view  
559 macroorganisms as holobionts, since symbiotic microbiota affect host health  
560 and fitness (Brucker & Bordenstein, 2013, Sharma *et al.*, 2014). Unanswered  
561 questions also linger, like what causes host genotype-independent taxonomic  
562 conservation of plant root microbiomes over broad geographic distances  
563 (Hacquard *et al.*, 2015). The tools described here will significantly increase  
564 the ability of researchers to accurately resolve microbial communities,  
565 addressing one of the primary limitations to progress. Although challenges  
566 remain, we expect this approach to equip researchers to make better  
567 hypotheses and to address seemingly intractable questions. These advances  
568 will thereby assist in increasing discovery of the important roles of microbiota.

569

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579

### 580 **Author contribution**

581 MA and EK conceptualized the project, designed and developed the  
582 methodology and wrote the manuscript. For the technology comparison, ND  
583 and SH performed experiments and MA, ND and SH analyzed the data. AM  
584 adapted the method to the 18S rRNA region and assessed plant-associated  
585 microbial communities. MA performed all other experiments and designed and  
586 wrote the scripts to process and analyze the data.

587

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## 818 **Figures**

819

### 820 **Figure 1. Strategy to increase taxonomic coverage and accuracy of**

821 **amplicon sequencing.** A. In the first step, 8 individual PCR reactions are  
822 performed per sample each targeting a specific gene region. B. Blocking  
823 oligos are employed in the first PCR step which are specific for non-target  
824 templates so that these cannot be elongated to the final libraries with  
825 concatenated primers in the second step. P5 and P7 are standard Illumina  
826 adapter sequences. L indicates the linker sequence. C. Inflation of the number  
827 of observed OTUs caused largely by sequencing error is addressed by  
828 dividing them up by taxonomic lineages, building a phylogenetic tree and then  
829 clustering closely related members into operational phylogenetic units  
830 (OPUs).

831

### 832 **Figure 2. A comparison of 454- vs. Illumina-based amplicon sequencing** 833 **protocols shows little overlap of OTUs, suggesting high erroneous OTU**

834 **generation.** A. Bray-Curtis distances based on OTU relative abundances  
835 suggest that data recovered with the Illumina protocol significantly better  
836 distinguishes all pairs of compartments. Weighted UniFrac, however,  
837 suggests that the Illumina protocol only better distinguishes rhizosphere and  
838 soil compartments, implying that differences between others were due to  
839 closely related and probably erroneous OTUs. B. Between 454 and Illumina  
840 datasets, rarefaction curves of the number of OTUs discovered with  
841 increasing read depth suggest that erroneous OTUs are very common since  
842 most OTUs are unique to datasets produced by one or the other technology,  
843 with only about one-third of all OTUs found in both datasets. The rarefaction  
844 curves are separated into OTUs that are unique to Illumina, unique to 454 or  
845 shared by both technologies.

846

### 847 **Figure 3. Reproducible and accurate characterization of mock** 848 **communities of bacteria, fungi, and oomycetes by amplicon sequencing.**

849 A. Observed taxa at the order level in sequenced mock communities closely  
850 matched expected communities. The taxa "Other" is primarily non-target  
851 amplification from *A. thaliana* "host" DNA that was added to test blocking

852 oligomers which prevent “host” DNA amplification. “NA” indicates a sample  
853 where sequencing depth was too low after subsampling to be included. B.  
854 Distance (Bray-Curtis distance based on relative abundance of order-level  
855 taxa) of sequenced communities from the expected distribution where 0 is  
856 identical and 1 is unrelated. Even or staggered refers to the distribution of the  
857 organisms in the mock communities (see expected distributions in A). PCR  
858 Steps refers to a 1-step (35 cycles with concatenated primers) or 2-step (10 or  
859 25 cycles with standard primers followed by 25 or 10 cycles with extension  
860 primers containing Illumina adapters) amplification protocol. Letters indicate  $p$   
861  $< 0.1$  (FDR-corrected) based on pairwise t-tests between groups.

862

863 **Figure 4. Employing blocking oligomers greatly reduces non-target and**  
864 **increases target yield in amplicon libraries.** A. Near-complete reduction of  
865 amplification of *A. thaliana* “host” non-target plastid 16S or ITS by employing  
866 blocking oligos in preparation of mock community libraries. B. Relative  
867 increase of target (*Saccharomyces* sp.) 18S V4-V5 region amplicons (qPCR  
868  $2^{-\Delta Cq}$  values relative to measurement without blocking oligomers) in mock  
869 community libraries prepared with blocking oligomers to reduce *A. thaliana*  
870 and *A. laibachii* non-target amplification.

871

872 **Figure 5. Clustering of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) into**  
873 **operational phylogenetic units (OPUs) by their phylogenetic relatedness**  
874 **corrects erroneous diversity discovery.** A. Between 454 and Illumina  
875 datasets, the number of shared and unique OPUs and the fraction of shared  
876 OPUs demonstrates that OTU clustering greatly reduces erroneous dataset  
877 disagreements compared to Fig. 2B. B. Bray-Curtis distances based on OPUs  
878 displays similar trends as weighted UniFrac distances with the only significant  
879 differences between rhizosphere and soil compartments. C. Rarefaction  
880 curves of observed units at the OTU level, various taxonomic ranks, and for  
881 OPUs for bacterial 16S V3/V4 amplicon data show that unclustered OTUs and  
882 most taxonomic ranks greatly overestimate the expected diversity and the  
883 curves do not reach an asymptote, while OPUs quickly reach an asymptote  
884 close to the expected diversity. D. Numbers of observed OTUs or OPUs vs.  
885 expected units for all target regions demonstrates near-expected numbers of

886 taxa in all target regions. Data in C. and D. is generated from the evenly  
887 distributed mock community with *A. thaliana* “host” DNA and using host-  
888 blocking oligomers and only considers OTUs and OPUs in the expected  
889 taxonomic families.

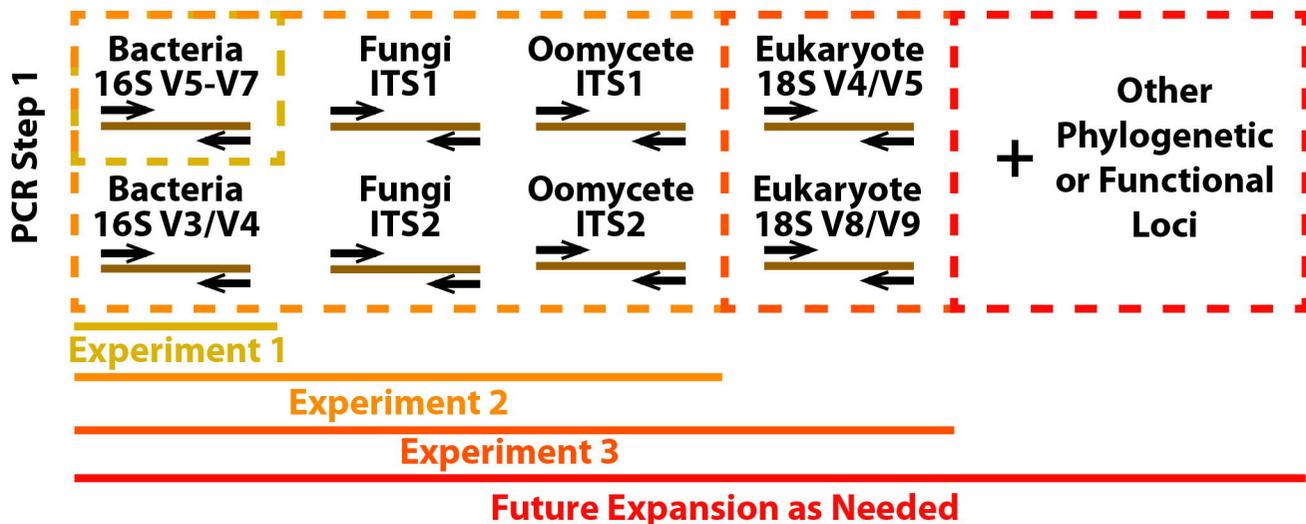
890

891 **Figure 6. A comprehensive overview of high diversity microbiomes**  
892 **inhabiting *A. thaliana* leaves revealed by parallel amplicon sequencing**  
893 **of 8 loci targeting eukaryotes and prokaryotes microbes.** A. 6 loci  
894 targeting eukaryotes: Two regions of the 18S rRNA gene (V4-V5 and V8-V9),  
895 two regions of the fungal ITS (ITS 1 and 2) and two regions of the oomycete  
896 ITS (ITS 1 and 2) revealed a diverse eukaryotic microbiota. The 18S loci  
897 revealed the broadest diversity but was complemented by fungi and  
898 oomycete-specific primer sets which had more detailed resolution within these  
899 groups. “Target loci specificity” refers to the taxa identified with each target  
900 group (Eukaryotes) or locus (Prokaryotes). B. 2 loci targeting prokaryotes:  
901 Two regions of the 16S rRNA gene (V3-V4 and V5-V7) that amplify mostly  
902 bacteria revealed a largely overlapping diversity profile complemented by  
903 unique discovery of taxa from each of the two target regions.

904

## A. Modular, multi-locus amplicon targeting approach

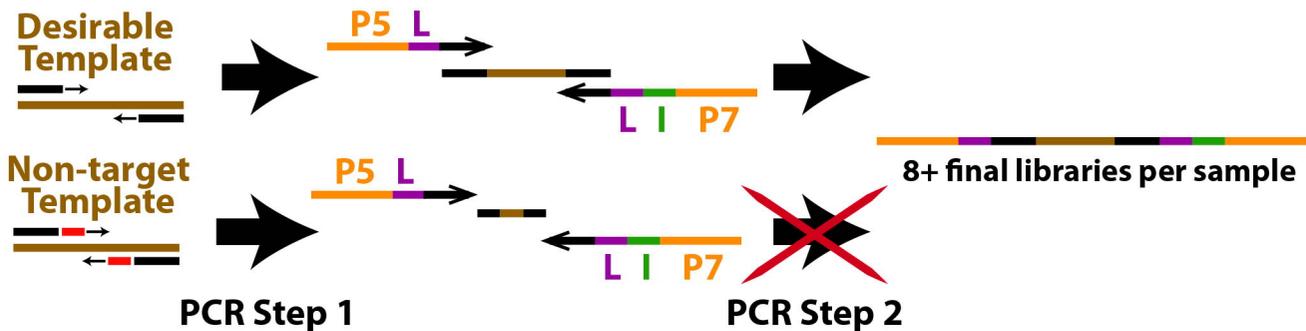
8+ individual PCR reactions per sample



## B. Blocking non-target host or microbial amplification

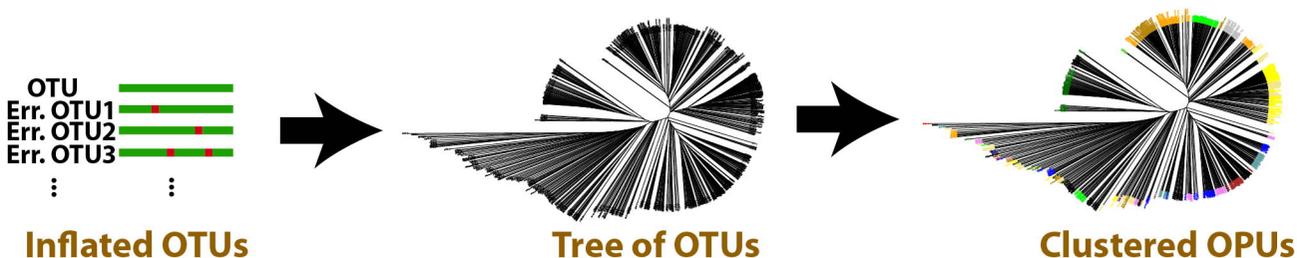
Specific non-target blocking oligos in PCR step 1 (for each of 8+ target regions)

Concatenated primers complementary to universal primer in PCR step 2

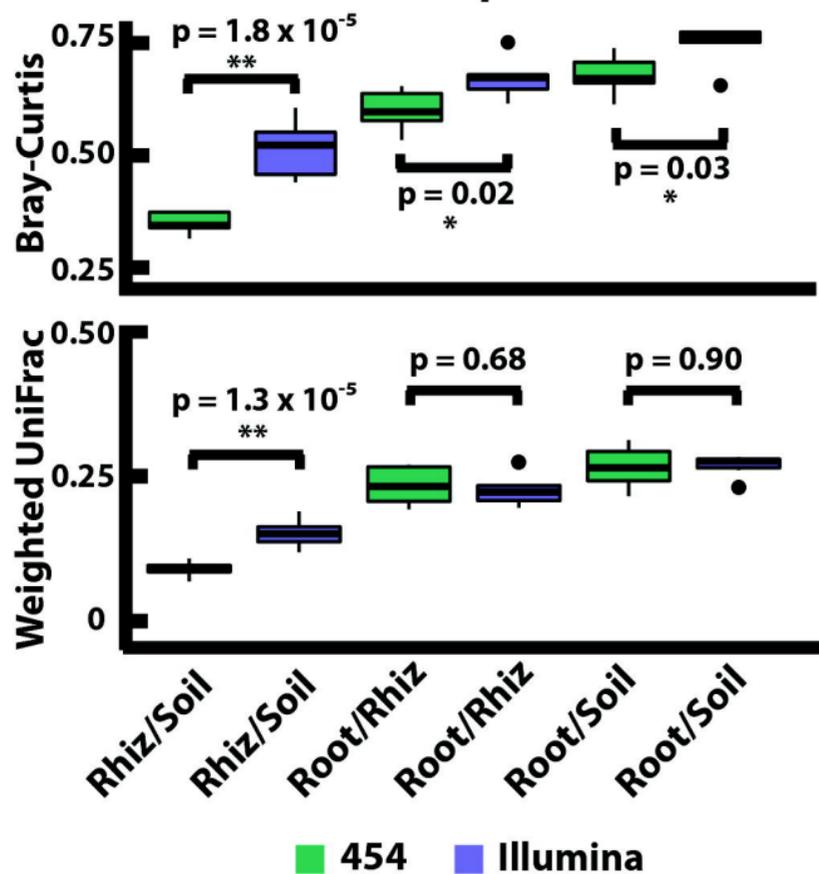


## C. Eliminating diversity inflation

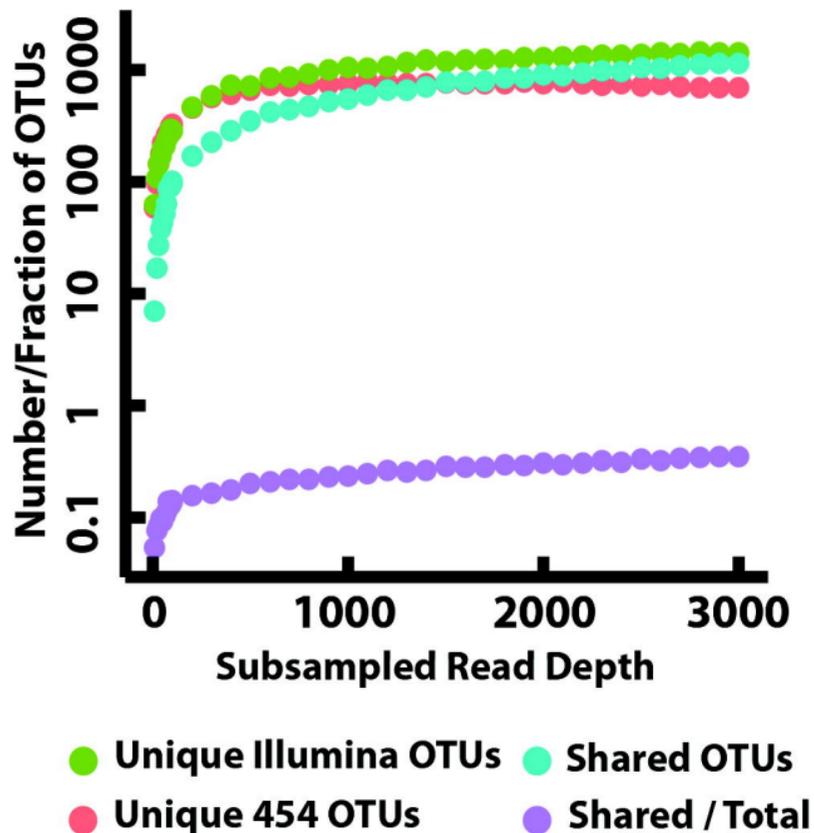
Cluster OTUs into "OPUs" by phylogenetic similarity



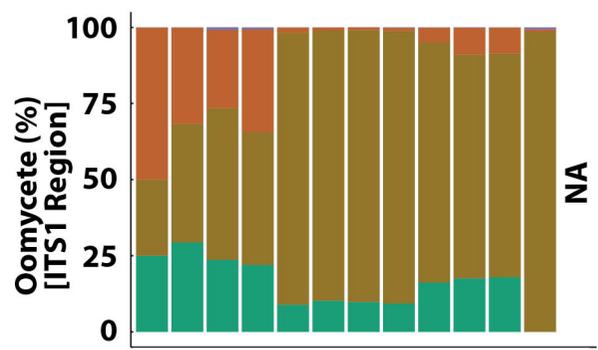
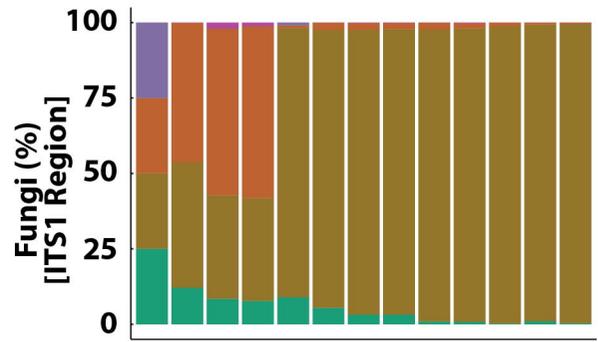
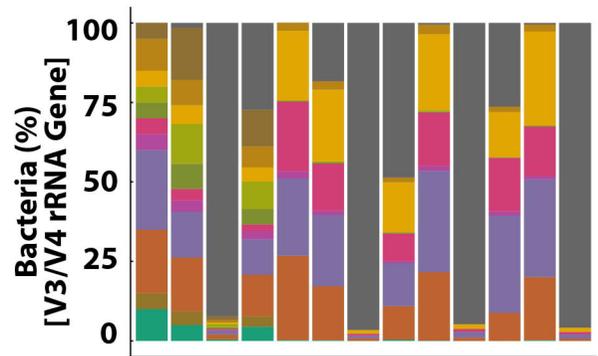
### A OTU-based Distances Between Compartments



### B 454 vs. Illumina OTU Observation Curves



**A. Microbial Relative Abundance Including *A. thaliana* amplicons**



|          |           |   |   |           |   |   |           |   |   |        |   |   |
|----------|-----------|---|---|-----------|---|---|-----------|---|---|--------|---|---|
| Expected | -         | + | + | Expected  | - | + | +         | - | + | +      | - | + |
|          | -         | - | + |           | - | - | +         |   | - | -      |   | + |
|          | 2 (10/25) |   |   | 2 (10/25) |   |   | 2 (25/10) |   |   | 1 (35) |   |   |
|          | Even      |   |   | Staggered |   |   |           |   |   |        |   |   |

**Expected Taxa:**

- Actinomycetales
- Bacteroidales
- Bacillales
- Lactobacillales
- Clostridiales
- Rhodobacteriales
- Neisseriales
- Campylobacteriales
- Enterobacteriales
- Pseudomonadales
- Deinococcales
- Other (Nontarget)

- Saccharomycetales
- Sordariomycetes
- Usilaginales
- Mucorales
- Other (Nontarget)

- Peronosporales
- Pythiales
- Saprolegiales
- Other (Nontarget)

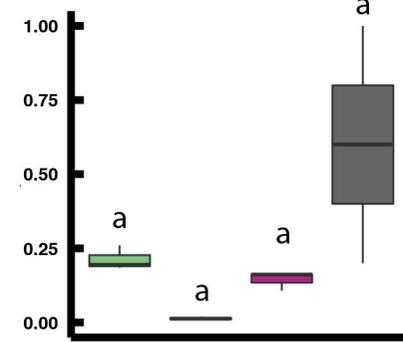
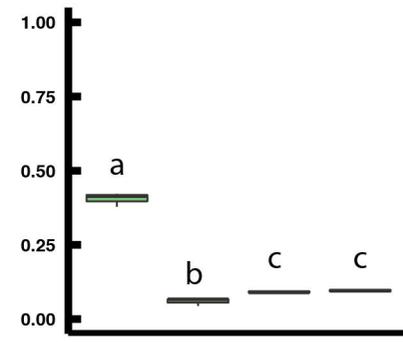
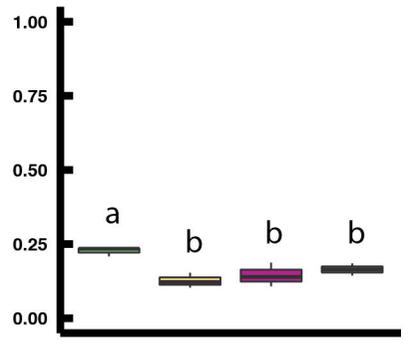
← Nontarget DNA

← Nontarget Blocking

← PCR Steps →

← Community Ratios →

**B. Distance to Expected Excluding *A. thaliana***



↑

↑

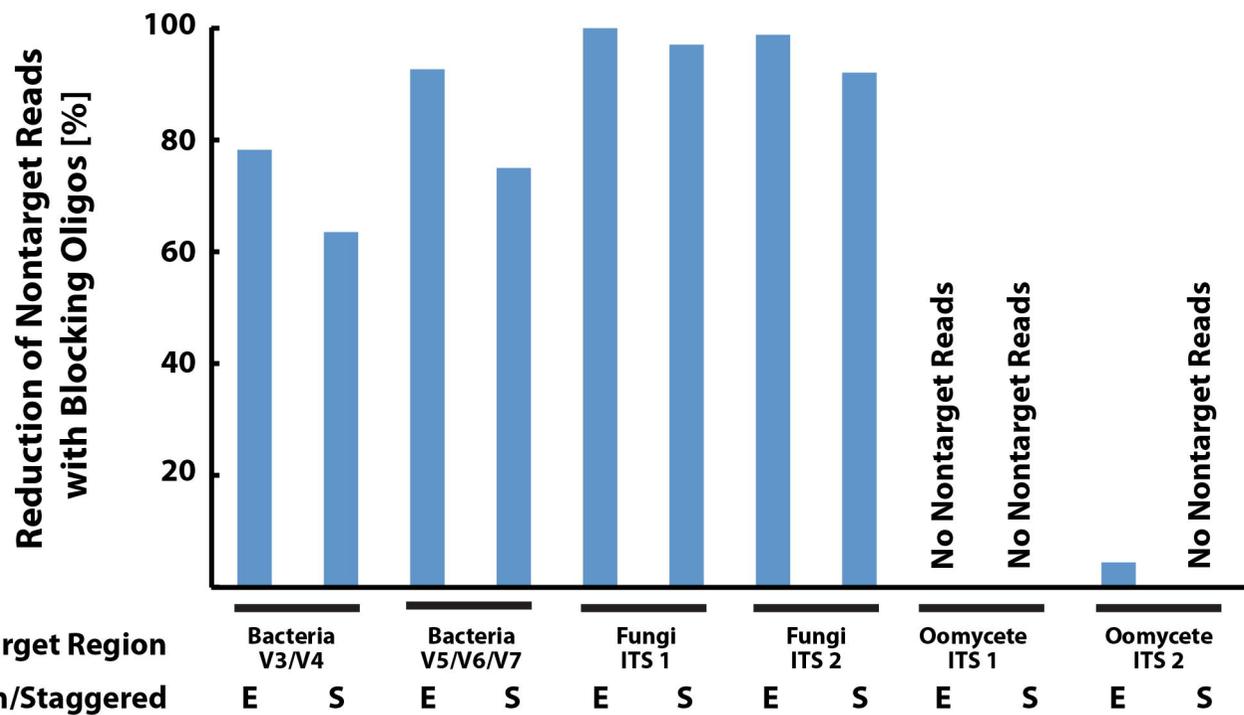
↑

↑

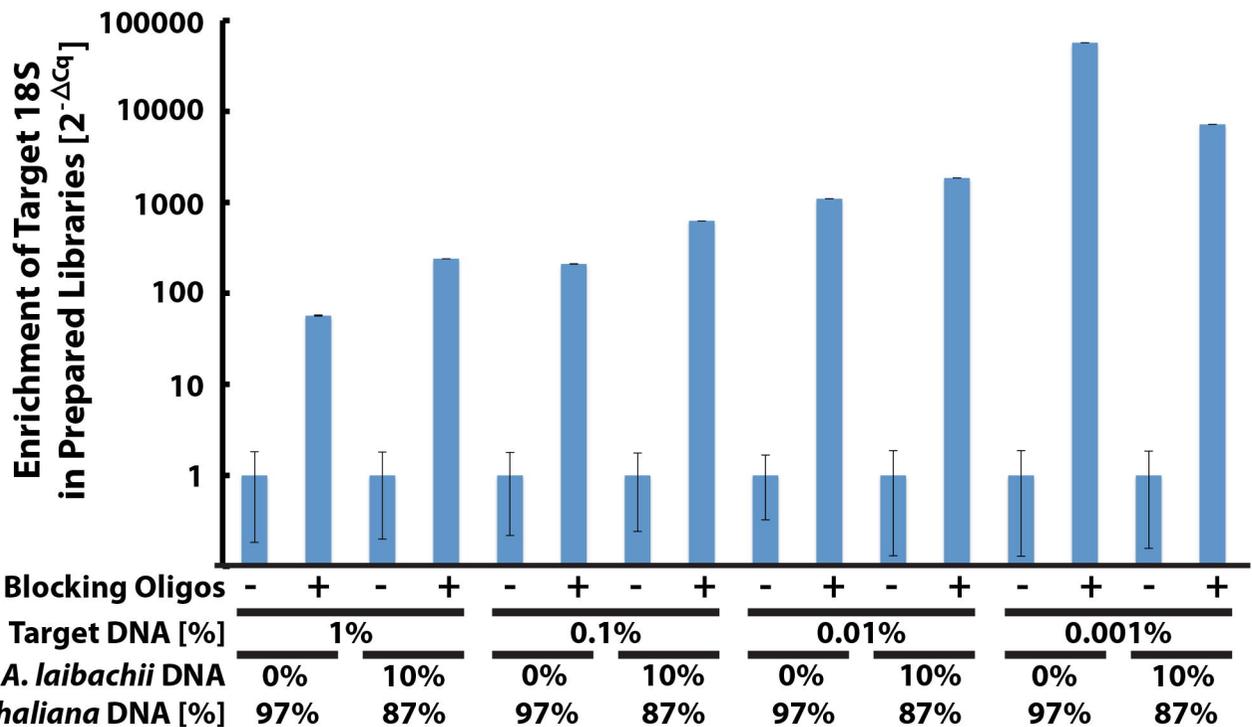
2 (10/25) 2 (10/25) 2 (25/10) 1 (35)

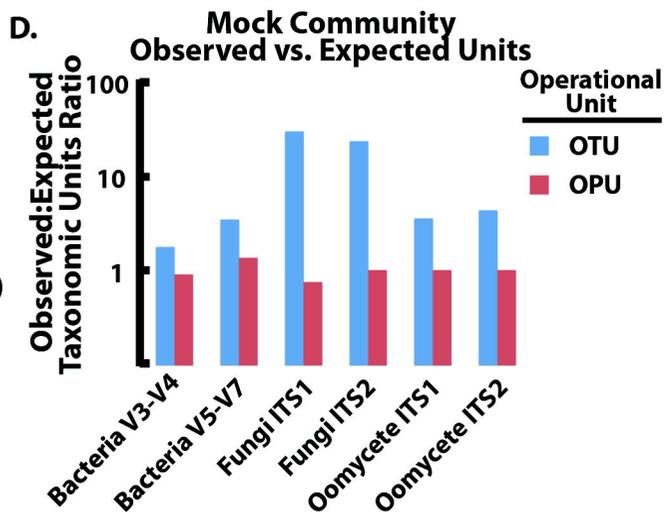
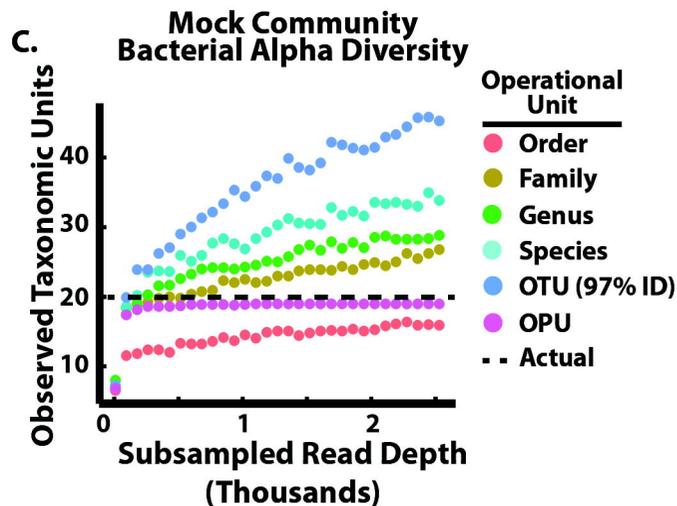
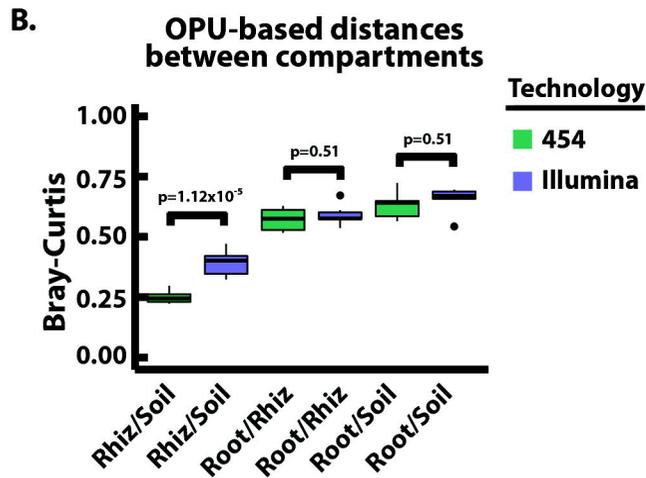
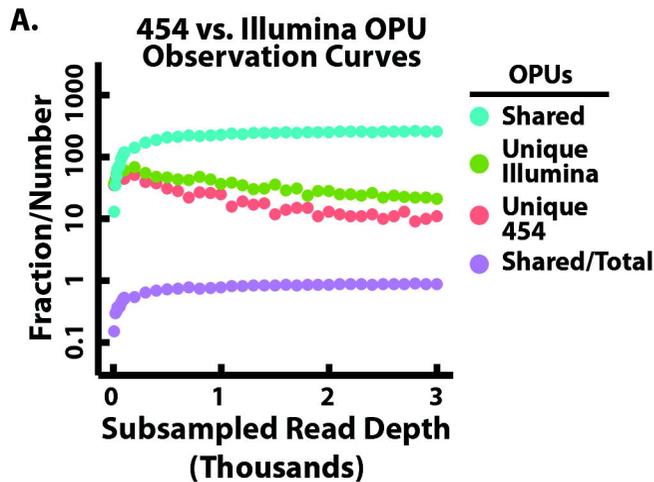
Even Staggered

A.



B.



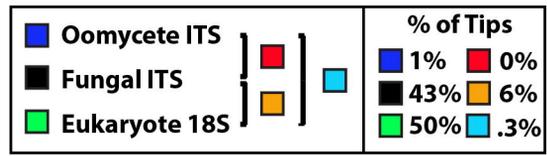
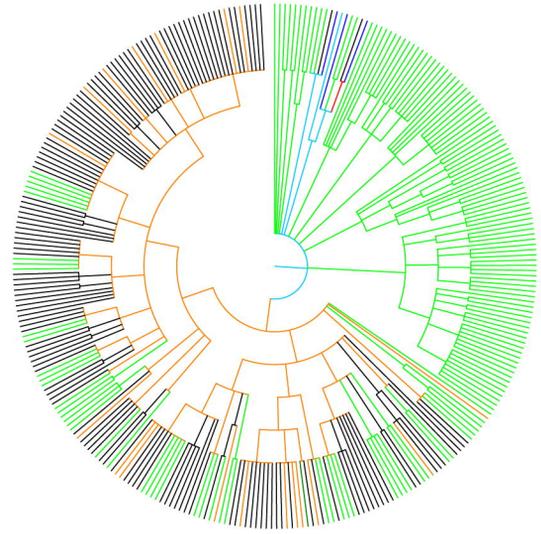
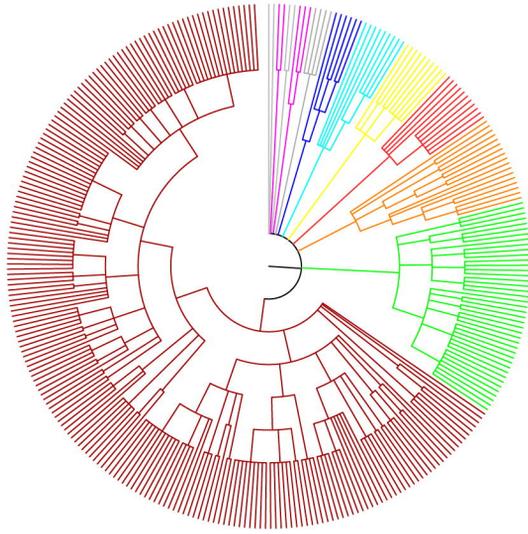


# Recovered Diversity

# Target loci specificity

A.

Eukaryotes



B.

Prokaryotes

