Assessing the comparability of different DNA extraction and amplification methods in gut microbial community profiling

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Abstract
Automated, high-throughput technologies are becoming increasingly common in microbiome studies to decrease costs and increase efficiency. However, in microbiome studies, small differences in methodology – including storage conditions, wet lab methods, sequencing platforms and data analysis – can influence the reproducibility and comparability of data across studies. There has been limited testing of the effects of high-throughput methods, including microfluidic PCR technologies. In this paper, we compare two extraction methods (the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit and the MoBio PowerSoil DNA Isolation kit), two taq polymerase enzymes (MyTaq HS Red Mix and Accustart II PCR ToughMix), two primer sets (V3–V4 and V4–V5) and two amplification methods (a common two-step PCR protocol and amplicon library preparation on the Fluidigm Access Array system that allows automated multiplexing of primers). Gut microbial community profiles were significantly affected by all variables. While there were no significant differences in alpha diversity measured between the two extraction methods, there was an effect of extraction method on community composition measured by unweighted UniFrac distances. Both amplification method and primers had a significant effect on both alpha diversity and community composition. The relative abundance of Actinobacteria was significantly lower when using the MoBio kit or Fluidigm amplification method, and the relative abundance of Firmicutes was lower when using the Qiagen kit. Microbial community profiles based on Fluidigm-generated amplicon libraries were not comparable to those generated with more commonly used methods. Researchers should carefully consider the limitations and biases that different extraction and amplification methods can introduce into their results. Additionally, more thorough benchmarking of automated and multiplexing methods is necessary to determine the magnitude of the potential trade-off between the quality and the quantity of data.

INTRODUCTION
The importance of the microbiome to many biological systems is becoming increasingly clear. However, large-scale studies of the microbiome are still limited by the available technology as processing large numbers of samples can be costly. Thus, there is great interest in automated, high-throughput technologies that increase efficiency and decrease costs. One popular tool to increase the speed of sample preparation that has been adopted by many labs is robotic DNA extraction, PCR setup and sample pooling. More recently, microfluidic PCR technology that allows the use of multiple primer pairs simultaneously, such as the Fluidigm Access Array system, has been introduced to maximize the types of data produced at once [1–9].

The Fluidigm system is attractive for microbiome research given that it allows for amplification of the region of interest and barcoding of samples within the same reaction. Additionally, the microfluidic nature of the system limits contamination, reduces primer bias by allowing for the use of multiple primers in separate reactions in a single run, and allows for the generation of multiple data types in one run (e.g. 16S, 18S, COI, trnL) [1, 5]. However, despite these clear benefits, drawbacks to the Fluidigm system exist. Most importantly, it confers limited control over reaction conditions, which is potentially problematic when working with low-quantity or low-quality DNA samples, or when using multiple primers with different optimal melting temperatures.

Systematic comparisons of microbiome methods indicate that small differences in methodology can influence the
reproducibility and comparability of data across studies. Storage conditions, DNA extraction and amplification methods, choice of PCR primers, sequencing technologies, and data cleaning and analysis pipelines all impact the estimated diversity and composition of a given bacterial community [10–13]. There have been no comparisons between microbiome data produced using Fluidigm-generated amplicon libraries and more commonly used protocols. However, given that the Fluidigm system limits several key aspects of 16S rRNA gene amplicon data generation, namely control over reaction conditions, there are likely to be differences. Understanding the magnitude of these differences is a critical next step in the continued development and adoption of this potentially transformative technology.

In this paper we compare the effects of Fluidigm amplification of the 16S rRNA gene to the effects of DNA extraction kit, polymerase enzyme and primer set selection on estimates of microbial community structure from faecal samples collected from wild white-faced capuchin monkeys (Cebus capucinus). We compare samples processed using one of two common commercial DNA extraction kits (QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit and MoBio PowerSoil DNA Isolation kit), one of two taq polymerases (MyTaq HS Red Mix and Accustart II PCR ToughMix), one of two primer sets (V3–V5 and V4–V5), and either a two-step PCR protocol or the Fluidigm Access Array (Fig. 1). While all of the differences in sample processing were expected to have some effect on the resulting data, our goal was to determine whether Fluidigm introduces a greater source of bias than other common sources of bias.

**METHODS**

**Sample collection**

Faecal samples (n=16) were collected from wild white-faced capuchin monkeys at La Suerte Biological Field Station (LSBFS) in north-eastern Costa Rica (10.445° N 83.784° W) between January 2013 and January 2014. Faecal samples were collected in sterile 15 ml tubes, fixed in 90% ethanol and stored at −20 °C prior to transport to University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). All data collection methods were approved by the University of Illinois IACUC, and LSBFS, MINAET, SINAC and CONAGEBIO in Costa Rica. Appropriate import permits were obtained from the CDC.

**DNA extraction**

A QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen) was used to extract DNA from faecal samples according to the manufacturer's protocol for 'Isolation of DNA from Stool for Human DNA Analysis'. The following modifications were used [14]: samples were mixed with Buffer ASL and then incubated for 1 h at room temperature. Next, Buffer AL was added to the samples, which were then incubated for an additional 20 min at 70 °C prior to elution. During the final elution step, Buffer AE was pre-warmed to 70 °C, added to the samples, and incubated for 20 min at room temperature prior to centrifugation.

A PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio) was also used to extract DNA from the same faecal samples using the manufacturer's protocol. The following modification was used: samples were incubated in Solution C1 at 65 °C for 10 min prior to vortexing horizontally for 10 min. Although Qiagen
and MoBio extractions were performed at different times, samples were stored at −80 °C between extractions and were homogenized prior to the first extraction. Thus, within-sample variation due to different time points is minimal. The modifications to both extraction protocols were made to minimize the impact of PCR inhibitors, such as tannins and other plant secondary compounds, that are common in wild non-human primate faecal samples.

### PCR amplification and sequencing

All samples extracted with both the Qiagen and the MoBio kits were amplified using a two-step PCR amplification protocol. The same protocol was utilized for all samples, once using MyTaq HS Red Mix (Bioline) and once using AccuStart II PCR ToughMix (QuantaBio). The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using two different primer sets (Table 1) with Fluidigm CS1 and CS2 linker sequences added. The first PCR was carried out in a total volume of 25 µl, consisting of 2 µl of DNA sample (taken directly from the DNA extraction), 12.5 µl of 2× MyTaq or AccuStart, 1.25 µl of 10 µM forward primer, 1.25 µl of 10 µM reverse primer and 8 µl of molecular grade H2O. The following PCR programme was used: 3 min at 95 °C; 28 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 45 s at 55 °C and 45 s at 72 °C; 1 min at 72 °C; and hold at 4 °C indefinitely. PCR products were verified using a 1 % agarose gel. A second amplification was performed using the Fluidigm AccessArray primers containing sample-specific barcodes and Illumina sequencing adapters. The second PCR was carried out in a total volume of 20 µl, containing 1 µl of DNA (taken directly from the DNA extraction), 10 µl of 2× MyTaq HS Red Mix or AccuStart II PCR ToughMix, 4 µl of 0.4 µM Fluidigm AccessArray Barcoded primers for Illumina, and 5 µl of molecular-grade H2O. The following PCR programme was used: 5 min at 95 °C; eight cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 45 s at 72 °C; and hold at 4 °C indefinitely. PCR products were purified and normalized using a Sequlap Prep Normalization Plate and were then sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq V3 platform using a 2×300 nt sequencing kit at the University of Illinois Chicago DNA Services Facility.

PCR amplification using the Fluidigm Access Array system was performed for samples extracted with the Qiagen kit at the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center at the UIUC. After DNA extracts were quantified on a Qubit, they were diluted to a concentration of 2 ng µl−1. For each sample the following reagents were combined to create a mastermix for amplification: 0.5 µl 10× FastStart Reaction Buffer without MgCl2 (Roche), 0.9 µl 25 mM MgCl2, 0.25 µl DMSO, 0.1 µl 10 mM PCR-grade Nucleotide Mix, 0.05 µl 5 U µl−1 FastStart High Fidelity Enzyme Blend (Roche), 0.25 µl 20× Access Array Loading Reagent (Fluidigm Corp.) and 0.95 µl molecular-grade water. Mastermix was aliquoted to 48 wells of a PCR plate. To each well, 1 µl DNA sample and 1 µl Fluidigm Illumina linkers with unique barcode were added. A 20× primer solution was prepared by adding 2 µl of forward and reverse primers for the V3–V5 region of the 16S rRNA gene (Table 1), 5 µl of 20× Access Array Loading Reagent and water to a final volume of 100 µl, and the solution was aliquoted to a separate 48-well PCR plate. A 4 µl aliquot of sample was loaded in the sample inlets and 4 µl of primer solution was loaded in primer inlets of a previously primed Fluidigm 48.48 Access Array integrated fluidic circuit (IFC). The IFC was placed in an AX controller (Fluidigm Corp.) for microfluidic loading of all primer/sample combinations. Following the loading stage, the IFC plate was loaded on the Fluidigm Biomark HD PCR machine and samples were amplified using the following Access Array cycling programme without imaging: 2 min at 50 °C, followed by 20 min at 70 °C, followed by 10 min at 95 °C, followed by 10 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by two cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 80 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by eight cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by two cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 80 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by eight cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by five cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 80 °C, 30 s at 60 °C and 1 min at 72 °C. Following amplification, PCR products were harvested using 2 µl of Fluidigm Harvest Buffer loaded into the sample inlets. PCR products were then transferred to a new 96-well plate and quantified on a Qubit fluorimeter. Samples were pooled in equal amounts according to product concentration. The pooled products were size selected on a 2 % agarose E-gel (Life Technologies) and extracted from the isolated gel slice with a Qiagen gel extraction kit (Qiagen). Cleaned, size-selected products were run on an Agilent Bioanalyzer to confirm the appropriate profile and determination of average size. Amplicons were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq V3 platform using a 2×300 nt sequencing kit at the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center at the UIUC. Amplification and sequencing of 16S rRNA genes was performed simultaneously with amplification and sequencing of other genes of interest (COI, trnL, rbcL, 12S rRNA).

### Sequence processing and analysis

Both forward and reverse reads were analysed separately, allowing us to better understand the effect of primer set and to account for the minimal overlap of the longer primer set. Reads were trimmed and quality-filtered in QIIME [15], resulting in 4841508 forward and 4099102 reverse sequences. There were

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**Table 1. 16S V4–V5 and 16S V3–V5 primers used in this study.**

| Primer         | Reference |
|---------------|-----------|
| 16S V4–V5 forward (519f) | [39]       |
| 16S V4–V5 reverse (926r) | [39]       |
| 16S V3–V5 forward (357f) | [22]       |
| 16S V3–V5 reverse (926r) | [22]       |
an average of 33,857 forward sequences (range=31–81,071) and 28,665 reverse sequences (range=13–75,649) per sample.

Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were picked using an open reference method with the sortmerna_sumaclust algorithm and taxonomy was assigned using the Greengenes 13.8 database in QIIME. Samples were rarefied to an even sampling depth of 4800 sequences prior to downstream analysis. Both alpha diversity and beta diversity metrics were calculated in QIIME. Alpha diversity metrics included Faith’s Phylogenetic Distance, Chao 1 and Shannon diversity index. Beta diversity metrics included both unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances.

**Statistical analysis**

Linear mixed effects models were used to examine the effect of amplification method, primer set and extraction kit on the number of sequences, OTUs, alpha diversity metrics and
relative abundances of major phyla. Pairwise comparisons between extraction methods and amplification method treatments were carried out using Tukey contrasts. Permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was used to assess the effect of both amplification and extraction method on unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances. The original sample was included in all models to control for repeated measures. LEfSe was used to determine which taxa discriminated each amplification and extraction method [16], using an linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size threshold of 3.

RESULTS

Effect of extraction method on alpha diversity

There were no significant differences in the number of sequences or observed OTUs between extraction methods (Fig. 2). Similarly, there was no significant effect of extraction method on most measures of alpha diversity when analysing forward or reverse reads (Fig. 2). However, Shannon diversity was higher in Qiagen samples (forward reads: $F_{1,123} = 7.070$, $P = 0.009$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123} = 5.925$, $P = 0.016$).

Effect of extraction method on beta diversity

Extraction method had a significant effect on gut microbial community composition (Figs 3 and 4). PERMANOVA results indicated that extraction method had a significant influence on unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances when analysing both the read 1 and read 2 sequences (Table 2).

Effect of extraction method on individual taxa

Extraction method had a significant effect on the relative abundance of both *Actinobacteria* (forward reads: $F_{1,123} = 5.925$, $P = 0.016$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123} = 8.917$, $P = 0.003$) and *Firmicutes* (forward reads: $F_{1,123} = 8.423$, $P = 0.004$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123} = 5.757$, $P = 0.018$) (Fig. 5). The Qiagen extraction method had higher relative abundances of *Actinobacteria* and lower

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Fig. 3. Nonlinear multidimensional scaling plot visualizing the effects of amplification method, primer set and extraction method on weighted UniFrac distances for forward (a) and reverse (b) reads. Forward reads show a clear separation between primer sets (V3–V5 vs. V4–V5) and amplification methods (Fluidigm vs. Accustart and MyTaq), but not extraction methods.

Fig. 4. Differences in the relative abundance of major phyla across different amplification methods (Accustart, Fluidigm, and MyTaq), primer sets (V3–V5 and V4–V5) and extraction methods (Qiagen and MoBio kits) for forward (a) and reverse (b) reads. All factors influenced estimates of gut microbial community composition.
Table 2. PERMANOVA results for full models examining the effect of amplification method, extraction method, primer set and original faecal sample identity on both unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances calculated separately from forward sequences and reverse sequences

| Effect of            | Amplification | Extraction | Primer set | Sample      |
|----------------------|---------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| Forward read         | Unweighted    | F=5.688, R²=0.067, P<0.001 | F=2.550, R²=0.015, P<0.001 | F=19.809, R²=0.117, P<0.001 | F=2.959, R²=0.017, P<0.001 |
|                      | UniFrac       |            |            |             |             |
|                      | Weighted      | F=4.134, R²=0.045, P<0.001 | F=2.313, R²=0.013, P=0.039 | F=33.110, R²=0.181, P<0.001 | F=5.895, R²=0.032, P<0.001 |
| Reverse read         | Unweighted    | F=7.070, R²=0.088, P<0.001 | F=3.483, R²=0.022, P<0.001 | F=7.022, R²=0.044, P<0.001 | F=3.260, R²=0.020, P<0.001 |
|                      | UniFrac       |            |            |             |             |
|                      | Weighted      | F=2.295, R²=0.030, P=0.011 | F=2.043, R²=0.013, P=0.059 | F=5.775, R²=0.038, P<0.001 | F=7.653, R²=0.050, P<0.001 |

relative abundances of Firmicutes. Extraction method did not have a significant effect on the relative abundance of Bacteroidetes or Proteobacteria. In the LEfSe analysis of differences in extraction method, Alcaligenaceae, Burkholderiaceae, Pseudomonadaceae, Xanthomonadaceae and an unclassified family within OD1 were differentially abundant in Qiagen samples when analysing the forward read, while only Alcaligenaceae, Burkholderiaceae, Pseudomonadaceae and Xanthomonadaceae were differentially abundant in Qiagen samples when analysing the reverse read (Fig. 6). When examining forward reads, MoBio-extracted samples were discriminated by Lachnospiraceae, Micrococcaceae and an unclassified family within Proteobacteria, while an unclassified family within Proteobacteria discriminated MoBio-extracted samples when examining reverse reads (Fig. 6).

**Effect of amplification method on alpha diversity**
Amplification method did not have a significant effect on the number of sequences per sample but did significantly affect the number of observed OTUs per sample when analysing forward reads (F1,113=31.637, P<0.001), but not reverse reads (Fig. 7). Pairwise comparisons of the forward reads showed significantly lower numbers of observed OTUs in the Fluidigm treatment compared with Accustart (forward: z=-4.129, Padj<0.001) and MyTaq samples (z=-5.437, Padj<0.001) (Fig. 7).

Amplification method also had a significant effect on three alpha diversity metrics when examining the forward sequences (Faith’s PD: F1,113=37.579, P<0.001; Chao 1: F1,113=43.902, P<0.001; Shannon Index: F1,113=5.535, P=0.005) (Fig. 7). Chao 1 scores differed significantly between amplification methods when analysing reverse sequences (F1,113=3.481, P=0.034) (Fig. 8). Pairwise comparisons of read 1 data only showed that Fluidigm samples had significantly lower Faith’s PD compared with both MyTaq and Accustart treatments (z=-6.411, Padj<0.001 and z=-5.664, Padj<0.001). Pairwise comparisons of forward reads showed that Fluidigm samples had significantly lower Chao 1 scores than Accustart samples (z=-5.073, Padj<0.001) and MyTaq samples had higher Chao 1 scores than Accustart samples (z=3.572, Padj=0.0258) and Fluidigm samples (z=6.556, Padj<0.001). Pairwise comparisons of forward reads showed significantly lower Shannon Index scores in Fluidigm samples compared with both MyTaq and Accustart samples (z=-3.111, Padj=0.005 and z=-3.653, Padj<0.001), but found no significant differences between Shannon Indexes of MyTaq and Accustart samples. Simpson’s evenness index did not differ between amplification methods when analysing either forward or reverse reads.

**Effect of amplification method on beta diversity**
Amplification method also affected estimates of gut microbial community composition (Figs 3 and 4). PERMANOVA results indicated that amplification method had a significant influence on both unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances when examining either read (Table 2). Pairwise PERMANOVAs showed that estimates of community composition differed significantly between Fluidigm and Accustart (forward reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=8.376, R²=0.100, Padj<0.001; weighted UniFrac: F=5.918, R²=0.073, Padj=0.001; reverse reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=10.649, R²=0.124, Padj<0.001; weighted UniFrac: F=3.564, R²=0.045, Padj=0.011) and Fluidigm and MyTaq (forward reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=8.025, R²=0.097, Padj<0.001; weighted UniFrac: F=5.342, R²=0.066, Padj=0.001; reverse reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=10.445, R²=0.122, Padj<0.001; weighted UniFrac: F=3.260, R²=0.042, Padj=0.012) samples, but did not differ between Accustart and MyTaq samples (forward reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=0.718, R²=0.006, Padj=0.918; weighted UniFrac: F=0.307, R²=0.003, Padj=0.968; reverse reads: unweighted UniFrac: F=1.407, R²=0.011, Padj=0.052; weighted UniFrac: F=0.423, R²=0.003, Padj=0.880).

**Effect of amplification method on individual taxa**
Amplification method had a significant effect on the relative abundance of Actinobacteria (forward reads: F1,113=5.659, P=0.005; reverse reads: F1,113=4.293, P=0.016), Bacteroidetes (forward reads: F1,113=3.066, P=0.050; reverse reads: F1,113=6.241, P=0.003) and Firmicutes (forward reads: F1,113=3.497, P=0.033; reverse reads: n.s.) (Fig. 5). Pairwise comparisons of forward reads showed that MyTaq samples had significantly lower relative abundances of Bacteroidetes compared with both Accustart (z=-2.374, P=0.0438) and Fluidigm samples (z=-2.516, P=0.030) and that Fluidigm
samples had significantly higher relative abundances of *Firmicutes* than either MyTaq (forward reads: \( z = 3.069, P = 0.006 \)) or Accustart samples (forward reads: \( z = 3.122, P = 0.005 \)). Amplification method had a significant effect on the relative abundance of *Proteobacteria*, but only when analysing the reverse reads (reverse reads: \( F_{2,123} = 4.246, P = 0.017 \)). Pairwise comparisons showed that Fluidigm samples had lower relative abundances than both Accustart (forward reads: \( z = -2.648, P = 0.020 \); reverse reads: \( z = -2.595, P = 0.024 \)) and MyTaq samples (forward reads: \( z = -3.074, P = 0.006 \); reverse reads: \( z = -2.805, P = 0.013 \)).

The results of the LEfSe analysis showed multiple families that were overrepresented in all treatments (Fig. 8). The specific families that were overrepresented differed based on whether forward or reverse reads were analysed. When analysing forward reads, *Ruminococcaceae* and *Coriobacteriaceae*, as well as unclassified families within *Bacteroidetes*, *Tenericutes*
and Cyanobacteria were overrepresented in MyTaq samples; Acetobacteraceae, Bacteroidaceae, Burkholderiaceae, Rhizobiaceae, Sphingomonadaceae and an unclassified family within Firmicutes were overrepresented in Fluidigm samples; and Bifidobacteriaceae, Campylobacteraceae, Chitinophagaceae, Coriobacteriaceae, Helicobacteraceae, Neisseriaceae, Succinivibrionaceae and an unclassified family within Proteobacteria were overrepresented in Accustart samples. When analysing reverse reads, Bifidobacteriaceae, Coriobacteriaceae, Ruminococcaceae and an unclassified family within Tenericutes were overrepresented in MyTaq samples; Burkholderiaceae, Rhizobiaceae and Sphingomonadaceae were overrepresented in Fluidigm samples; and Bacteroidaceae, Campylobacteraceae, Chitinophagaceae, Helicobacteraceae, Neisseriaceae, Succinivibrionaceae and an unclassified family within Proteobacteria were overrepresented in Accustart samples.

**Effect of primer set on alpha diversity**

Alpha diversity was significantly affected by which primer set was used (Fig. 9). While the total number of sequences did not differ between primer sets, the V3–V5 primer set had significantly fewer observed OTUs (forward reads: $F_{1,123}=40.915, P<0.001$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123}=6.047, P=0.015$). Samples amplified with the V3–V5 primer also had significantly lower Faith’s PD (forward reads: $F_{1,123}=18.591, P<0.001$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123}=10.683, P=0.001$) and Chao 1 scores (forward reads: $F_{1,123}=44.709, P<0.001$; reverse reads: n.s.). Shannon diversity was higher in V3–V5 samples, but only when analysing the reverse reads ($F_{1,123}=25.767, P<0.001$). Simpson’s evenness index did not differ between primer sets.

**Effect of primer set on beta diversity**

Estimates of gut microbial community composition were significantly different between primer sets (Figs 3 and 4). PERMANOVAs showed a significant influence of primer set on both unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances (Table 2). The magnitude of this effect was much higher for forward sequences.

**Effect of primer set on individual taxa**

Samples amplified with the V4–V5 primer set had higher relative abundances of Actinobacteria (forward reads: $F_{1,123}=65.730, P<0.001$; reverse reads: $F_{1,123}=21.969, P<0.001$) (Fig. 5). Bacteroidetes and Proteobacteria also differed significantly between primer sets (Fig. 5). Analysing the forward reads indicated that the relative abundances of Bacteroidetes were higher and Proteobacteria were lower when using the
V4–V5 primer set (Bacteroidetes: $F_{1,123}=5.835$, $P=0.017$; Proteobacteria: $F_{1,123}=4.520$, $P=0.036$). However, analysing the reverse reads gave the opposite result – relative abundances of Bacteroidetes were lower and Proteobacteria were higher when using the V4–V5 primers (Bacteroidetes: $F_{1,123}=45.186$, $P<0.001$; Proteobacteria: $F_{1,123}=1.091$, $P=0.298$). The relative abundances of Firmicutes did not differ significantly between primer sets.

LEfSe results indicated several phylogenetically diverse taxa were differentially abundant when using different primer sets (Fig. 10). When analysing forward reads, Bifidobacteriaceae, Lachnospiraceae, Micrococcaceae, Neisseriaceae, Ruminococcaceae and an unclassified family within Proteobacteria discriminated the V4–V5 primer set. When analysing forward reads, Coxillaceae, Enterococcaceae, and unclassified families within Firmicutes and Tenericutes discriminated
the V3–V5 primer set. Additional taxa distinguished primer sets when analysing reverse reads – the V4–V5 samples were discriminated by Beutenbergiaceae, Bifidobacteriaceae, Chthoniobacteraceae, Eubacteriaceae, Neisseriaceae, Paraprevotellaceae, Ruminococcaceae, Scytonemataceae, and unclassified families within Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes and Cyanobacteria; while Coxiellaceae, Prevotellaceae and an unclassified family within Tenericutes distinguished the V3–V5 primer set.

**DISCUSSION**

Extraction method, choice of taq polymerase and primer set all had significant effects on gut microbial community
characterization. Differences between samples amplified on the Fluidigm Access Array system and samples amplified using a more common two-step PCR protocol, as well as differences between primer sets were substantial. In fact, primer set or amplification method explained the largest proportion of the variance in all models, while differences between samples accounted for more of the variation than extraction method in most models (Table 1). These findings suggest that the use of current Fluidigm technology and choice of primers for microbiome analyses must be carefully considered.

Effects of extraction kit
Several studies have shown that extraction method can have a significant influence on DNA yield, DNA purity, amplification and sequencing success, and taxonomic community profiles [17–21]. However, others indicate that the proportion of
variation explained by extraction method is much lower than the proportion explained by other experimental factors, such as individual, population or body site [22–24]. Our findings replicate those reported by Wu et al. [22] and suggest that there are small, but potentially important, differences between extraction methods. Specifically, extraction method appears to limit the ability to detect the presence or absence of rarer taxa and alters the relative abundance of some microbial taxa, but it does not obscure differences between samples [18, 23, 25].

A potential major driver of the impact of extraction kit is bead-beating. Previous studies report that bead-beating is a better method for recovering DNA from Gram-positive bacteria [18, 19, 26], but see [24]. Our results support this evaluation. Bacterial taxa that discriminated the Qiagen kit tended to be Gram-negative (Alcaligenaceae, Burkholderiaceae, Pseudomonadaceae and Xanthomonadaceae), while families that distinguished samples extracted with the MoBio kit tended to be Gram-positive (Lachnospiraceae and Micrococcaceae). However, some Gram-negative taxa discriminated
These results are similar to the findings of other studies the reverse primer sequences in both primer sets were similar. The observed differences are intensified unweighted UniFrac distances, and the relative abundance set on most alpha diversity metrics, both weighted and platforms [10–13, 32]. We saw a substantial effect of primeronomic specificity and compatibility with various sequencing platforms. With respect to taq polymerase, our results also generally agreed with the existing literature. A few studies have shown that the choice of taq polymerase can alter estimates of bacterial community structure and diversity [27, 28] and that using a proofreading taq polymerase can increase the rates of PCR artefacts and chimeras at high cycle numbers [29]. However, other studies have found that the effects of taq polymerase on 16S community profiling are slight, particularly when compared with the effects of other methodological differences [20, 30]. The differences between Accustart and MyTaq in our experiment were minimal. Differences between MyTaq and the Fluidigm polymerase or Accustart and the Fluidigm polymerase accounted for the majority of pairwise differences in alpha diversity, beta diversity and the abundance of specific taxa.

Samples amplified on the Fluidigm Access Array had significantly lower alpha diversity using most metrics and had a significant effect on the estimated taxonomic composition of the microbial community. Due to the constraints of the Fluidigm system, it is difficult to determine whether the observed patterns are a result of differences in PCR cycle number (33 for Fluidigm vs. 36 for the two-step PCR method), lower template concentration for Fluidigm samples, differences in reaction reagents and conditions (including taq polymerase), slightly lower sequencing depth for Fluidigm samples, the fact that sequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons prepared with Fluidigm was performed simultaneously with amplicons of other marker genes of interest prepared on the same Fluidigm run, differences in sequencing chemistry (Illumina V2 vs. V3), or a combination of all of these factors, as all of these may influence estimates of community composition [27, 30, 31]. It is likely that the small effects of all of these factors combined result in a large influence on estimates of community composition and are also compounded by suboptimal PCR conditions for these primers. However, regardless of the mechanism, microbial community profiles based on Fluidigm-generated amplicon libraries do not seem to be comparable to those generated with more commonly used methods.

**Effects of primer set**

There is a general consensus that different primer sets and target regions of 16S vary in their taxonomic coverage, taxonomic specificity and compatibility with various sequencing platforms [10–13, 32]. We saw a substantial effect of primer set on most alpha diversity metrics, both weighted and unweighted UniFrac distances, and the relative abundance of most major phyla. The observed differences are intensified when examining only the forward reads, unsurprisingly, as the reverse primer sequences in both primer sets were similar. These results are similar to the findings of other studies comparing multiple primer sets that find both differences in estimates of taxonomic composition and alpha diversity [33]. Additionally, the length of the V3–V5 primer set combined with our choice of sequencing platform limited our ability to analyse paired sequence reads.

**Effects of sequencing chemistry**

While we were not able to formally test for the impact of the differences in sequencing chemistry between the Fluidigm treatment and the other treatment groups, we feel it is unlikely that sequencing chemistry is causing the observed differences. While most studies of the effects of sequencing technology have focused on cross-platform differences [30, 34–37], comparisons of the V2 and V3 MiSeq chemistries result in similar estimates of taxonomic composition of microbial communities [38]. The V3 MiSeq chemistry used for the Fluidigm samples does have a longer read length, higher cluster density and increased sequencing depth, which should increase alpha diversity. In contrast, samples amplified on the Fluidigm platform in the present study have decreased alpha diversity.

**Overall conclusions and recommendations**

In summary, while the results produced by many of the methods we tested are generally comparable, researchers should still be aware of the limitations and biases that methodological differences can introduce into their results. Choice of primer set can have a large influence on estimates of microbial community composition, and researchers should carefully weigh the taxonomic biases of a primer set against the expected composition of the microbial community of interest. The difference between the Fluidigm Access Array amplification method and two-step PCR protocols was substantial and suggests that researchers should cautiously consider whether the benefits of using the Fluidigm Access Array for amplicon library preparation outweigh the downsides. Further benchmarking, including testing the V4–V5 primer set on the Fluidigm platform, to identify which specific factors are contributing to the differences between the amplification methods will be important. In addition, the development of primers that are more efficient with the allowable Fluidigm reaction conditions and give comparable results to the V4–V5 primer set or technological development that enables variation in reaction temperatures between individual wells within a single microfluidic PCR run may be necessary to increase the comparability of results. Microfluidic PCR has the potential to greatly increase the types of data that can be generated without increased time or costs, but further optimization is necessary prior to integrating microfluidic PCR into microbiome protocols on a large scale.

**Funding information**

Funding was provided by Northwestern University, UIUC, and a Lewis and Clark Fund for Exploration and Field Research grant through the American Philosophical Society.
Acknowledgements
We would like to thank Mark Band, Chris Wright and Alvaro Hernandez at the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center of UIUC and Stefan Green at the Sequencing Core of the University of Illinois Chicago. This research was supported in part through the computational resources and staff contributions provided by the Genomics Compute Cluster, which is jointly supported by the Feinberg School of Medicine, the Center for Genetic Medicine, and Feinberg’s Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Genetics, the Office of the Provost, the Office for Research, and Northwestern Information Technology. The Genomics Compute Cluster is part of Quest, Northwestern University’s high-performance computing facility, with the purpose to advance research in genomics. All sequence data for this project can be found at qiita.ucsd.edu, Qiita computing facility, with the purpose to advance research in genomics. The Sequencing Core of the University of Illinois Chicago. This research was supported by the University of Illinois at Chicago. This research was funded. K.R.A. (ORCiD: 0000-0003-2722-9414) was involved in the study ID 12551. We also would like to thank Paul Garber for his advice and guidance throughout the project.

Conflicts of interest
The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Author contributions
E.K.M. (ORCID: 0000-0001-5446-8563) contributed to conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing of the original draft and funding. R.S.M. (ORCID: 0000-0002-1484-0292) contributed to the methodology, resources, supervision, review and editing of the manuscript, and funding. K.R.A. (ORCID: 0000-0003-2722-9414) contributed to the conceptualization, methodology, resources, supervision, review and editing of the manuscript, project administration and funding.

Ethical statement
Data collection methods were approved by the University of Illinois IACUC, and La Suerte Biological Field Station, MNAET, SINAC and CONAGEOBIO in Costa Rica. Appropriate import permits were obtained from the CDC.

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