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Distribution-Based Clustering: Using Ecology To Refine the Operational Taxonomic Unit

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Abstract

 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) sequencing, commonly used to survey microbial communities, begins by grouping individual reads into operational taxonomic units (OTUs). There are two major challenges in calling OTUs: identifying bacterial population boundaries, and differentiating true diversity from sequencing errors. Current approaches to identify taxonomic groups or eliminate sequencing errors rely on sequence data alone, but both of these activities could be informed by the distribution of sequences across samples. Here we show that using the distribution of sequences across samples can help identify population boundaries even in noisy sequence data. The logic underlying our approach is that bacteria in different populations will often be highly correlated in their abundance across different samples. Conversely, 16S rRNA sequences derived from the same population, whether slightly different copies in the same organism, variation of the 16S rRNA gene within a population or sequences generated randomly in error, will have the same underlying distribution across sampled environments. We present a simple OTU calling algorithm ("distribution-based clustering") that uses both genetic distance and the distribution of sequences across samples, and demonstrate it is more accurate than other methods at grouping reads into OTUs in a mock community. Distribution-based clustering also performs well on environmental samples: it is sensitive enough to differentiate between OTUs that differ by a single base pair, yet predicts fewer overall OTUs than most other methods. This program can decrease the total number of OTUs with redundant information and improve the power of many down-stream analyses to describe biologically relevant trends.

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Introduction

 Identifying meaningful OTUs is a significant bottleneck in the analysis of 16S rRNA sequences from complex microbial communities, particularly for large datasets generated by next-generation sequencing. Spurious sequences created by PCR or sequencing errors can greatly inflate the total number of OTUs (i.e. alpha diversity) of a sample if not treated properly [\(1,](#page-32-0) [2\)](#page-32-1). Although attempts have been made to address the problem of inflated alpha diversity from erroneous OTUs [\(1,](#page-32-0) [3-5\)](#page-32-2), there have been few attempts to make OTUs that more accurately reflect ecologically cohesive bacterial populations.

 Most common methods of forming OTUs with next-generation sequencing use a single genetic cut-off for creating OTUs. The most common approach for calling OTUs is to cluster sequences into groups based on sequence identity or genetic distances alone [taxonomy-independent [\(6\)](#page-32-3), taxonomy-unsupervised [\(7\)](#page-32-4) or *de novo* [\(8\)](#page-32-5) clustering]. Sequences are usually aligned using a pairwise or multiple alignment algorithm to create a distance matrix, and sequences are clustered based on a sequence identity cut-off. Many heuristics have been developed to decrease computational demand of OTU calling with varying degrees of accuracy, such as CD- HIT [\(9\)](#page-32-6), UCLUST [\(8\)](#page-32-5), DySC [\(10\)](#page-32-7) and ESPRIT [\(11\)](#page-33-0), among others. Another approach is to bin sequences into groups within a well- curated database of known sequences [taxonomy-dependent [\(6\)](#page-32-3), phylotyping [\(12\)](#page-33-1) or closed-reference [\(13\)](#page-33-2) clustering]. Sequences that do not match the database are lost, even though they could represent important, novel organisms. To overcome this problem, novel sequences

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 [\(21,](#page-33-10) [22\)](#page-33-11). Many attempts have been made to reduce the impact of sequencing error on the estimate of total diversity from chimeric sequences and PCR and sequencing errors [\(3-5\)](#page-32-2). With good quality filtering and strict error correcting software, many errors can be detected and removed from the dataset, reducing the effective error rate. However, these methods do not help in identifying how these "cleaned" sequences should be grouped into OTUs for down-stream analyses. We hypothesized that identifying the appropriate grouping for each taxonomic lineage and detecting many methodological errors can be accomplished using the distribution of sequences across samples. Bacteria in different populations will respond uniquely to variation in environmental conditions, resulting in a different distribution across sampled environments. This has been demonstrated for different taxa under a range of conditions [\(14,](#page-33-3) [15\)](#page-33-4) and during disturbance [\(16\)](#page-33-5). Conversely, 16S rRNA sequences derived from the same population will have the same distribution across sampled environments, whether the sequences are from slightly different copies of the 16S rRNA gene in the same organism, variation of the 16S rRNA sequence within a population or sequences generated randomly in error. Thus, whether the underlying distribution is the same for ecological (i.e. same population of bacteria) or methodological reasons (i.e. sequencing error), they should be considered as a group and merged into one OTU. Our goal was to develop a simple algorithm using the distribution of 16S rRNA sequences across samples to inform the creation of OTUs for large next generation sequencing studies. This method accommodates differences in the level of genetic differentiation across taxa and reduces the number of redundant OTUs

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- **Materials and Methods**
- *Previously generated mock community*

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 for library recognition (PE-III-PCR-F : 5'- AATGA TACGG CGACC ACCGA GATCT ACACT CTTTC CCTAC ACGAC GCTCT TCCGA TCT 3'; PE-III-PCR-001-096: 5'- CAAGC AGAAG ACGGC ATACG AGAT**N NNNNN NNN**CG GTCTC GGCAT TCCTG CTGAA CCGCT CTTCC GATCT 3' where N's indicate the presence of a unique barcode listed in Table S3).

 Real-time PCR before the first-step PCR reaction was done to ensure uniform amplification and avoid over-cycling all templates. Both real-time and first step PCR reactions were done similar to the manufacture's protocol for Phusion polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) as described in SI. Samples were divided into four 25 μl replicate reactions during both first and second step cycling reactions and cleaned using Agencourt AMPure XP- PCR purification (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA). Environmental libraries were created as previously described using the two-step primer skipping library protocol [\(26\)](#page-34-2). Libraries were multiplexed together with other libraries not used in this study and sequenced using the paired-end approach on either the Genome Analyzer IIx or HiSeq 2000 Illumina sequencing machines at the BioMicro Center (MIT, Cambridge, MA). Environmental libraries were sequenced with 2 x 144 bases and mock community samples done with 2 x 100.

Pre-and post-clustering quality control

 Raw data was quality filtered using QIIME (version 1.3.0) [\(27\)](#page-34-3) before processing with any clustering algorithm. The fastq files were processed using the split_library_fastq.py program of QIIME, truncating sequences when a base quality dropped below Phred quality score 17, which corresponds to a probability of error

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Closed-reference, open-reference and de novo *clustering methods*

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 Distribution-based clustering works by identifying bacterial populations at different levels of genetic differentiation for different taxonomic lineages by relying on the distribution of sequences across samples (i.e. the ecology) to determine where to draw population boundaries. Sequences that differ by only one base but that are found in different samples, suggesting they did not arise from the same underlying distribution, and should be considered separately in downstream analyses and put into different OTUs (Fig. 1a). Conversely, 16S rRNA sequences drawn from the same underlying distribution across samples could be generated from differences between 16S rRNA operons in the same organism, variation of the 16S rRNA gene within a population or generated from random sequencing errors from a true sequence in the sample. These sequences should be grouped together and considered as a unit (Fig. 1b). A statistical test (i.e. chi-squared test) can be used to determine whether two sequences have a similar distribution across libraries. Applying these metrics can merge sequences derived from the same population (e.g. sequencing error or inter-operon variation) but retain ecologically distinct sequence types, even if they occur at the same genetic distance. It is important to note that the distribution-based approach will generate more spurious OTUs when sequencing errors are created in a non-random way across samples (i.e. higher error rates in a subset of libraries).

Distribution-based clustering algorithm

 Distribution-based clustering requires two input files, an OTU-by-library matrix and a distance matrix. Both the distribution and abundance are obtained from the OTU-by-library matrix. The distance matrix is important for ordering sequences according to increasing distance from the candidate sequences as described below. Any method can be used to create a distance matrix. We use FastTree [\(29\)](#page-34-5) with the -makematrix option using both the aligned and unaligned sequences as inputs. This creates Jukes-Cantor corrected distances, and balances speed with accuracy. While this method works well on these mock communities, other distance matrices may be used as input, which may or may not improve accuracy. OTUs are built in a step-wise manner (Fig. 2), as described below.

276 Step 1.) Choose a candidate sequence. This sequence will either be added to an

existing OTU, or create a new OTU with itself as the representative depending on the

results of the subsequent steps. Consider candidate sequences from the pool of

existing unique sequences, in order of decreasing abundance. Abundance is defined

as the number of times each sequence has been seen across all libraries.

Step 2.) Choose an OTU from the pool of existing OTUs, sorted by decreasing

282 distances of the representative sequence from the candidate. An OTU is evaluated if

the representative sequence of the OTU is within the maximum genetic variation

- allowed to be within the same population (default -dist 0.1, the Jukes-Cantor
- corrected distance of 0.1). Jukes-Cantor corrected genetic distances were calculated
- using the -makematrix flag of FastTree [\(29\)](#page-34-5), but other distance matrices can be
- used. The important information is the relative relationship of OTU representatives

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 to the candidate sequence. Additionally, genetic distance is determined from the minimum of aligned and unaligned distance, to reduce the impact of misalignment. If an OTU is found whose representative sequence is within the genetic distance cut- off, proceed to step 3. Otherwise, stop the search and go to step 6. Step 3.) Determine whether the representative sequence of the candidate OTU 293 satisfies the abundance criteria. The abundance of the representative sequence must be greater than a user-defined abundance threshold, defined as a k-fold increase over the abundance of the candidate sequence. To remove sequencing errors, thus creating OTUs that represent true sequences (not populations), 10-fold abundance threshold is appropriate (-abund 10, default). This high abundance threshold restricts the total number of comparisons to OTUs with representatives that are much more abundant than the candidate sequences, which is common for sequences generated in error. To create OTUs that represent populations, a lower abundance threshold should be used, allowing for comparisons with candidate sequences that are at a similar abundance to the OTU representative (-abund 0). This low abundance threshold provides the possibility to merge sequences together that were generated from inter-operon variation or sequence variation with the population. If the representative sequence satisfies the abundance criteria, proceed to step 4. Otherwise, return to step 2 and choose another candidate OTU. Step 4.) Determine whether the candidate and representative sequences are distributed across samples in a similar manner. The candidate sequence will be merged into the OTU unless there is evidence that its distribution is different from the distribution of the representative. The distribution of candidate sequence (i.e.

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 observed distribution) and the OTU representative sequence (i.e. expected distribution) is similar if the chi-squared test results in a p-value above a user- defined cut-off (default = 0.0005). Sequences with low counts (e.g. singletons) will also result in high p-values. P-values are calculated using R statistical language (chisq.test) or simulated (chisq.test:simulate.p.value) when the expected is below 5 for more than 80% of the compared values. As an additional option, the Jensen- Shannon divergence (JSD) can be used. JSD is commonly used to measure the distance between two distributions and can be applied when the difference between distributions is statistically significant but distributed in a similar manner (i.e. the chi squared test is too sensitive). JSD will commonly merge distributions that look similar by eye but are found to have statistically significant differences. However, it cannot be used as the sole metric, as it performs poorly on distributions with low counts. If the distributions are different, the next OTU is evaluated (step 2). Otherwise, proceed to step 5. Step 5) Add the sequence to OTU. If the candidate sequence is distributed similarly to the representative sequence of the candidate OTU, the candidate sequence is added to the OTU and step 1 is repeated. Step 6.) Define OTU representatives. If none of the existing OTUs satisfy the criteria outlined above, an OTU is created with the candidate sequence as the representative of the OTU. This new OTU will not be merged with OTUs, but other sequences may be added.

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- 379 sequences in different OTUs originating from different inputs. False negatives (FN)
- 380 are defined as a pair of sequences in different OTUs originating from the same input
- 381 or if either of a pair of reads was not assigned into an OTU (only affecting closed-
- 382 reference clustering). These were calculated with various scripts using the resulting
- 383 OTU list from each algorithm along with a mapping file indicating the input
- 384 (determined as above) and a translation file mapping reads to libraries
- 385 (https://github.com/spacocha/Distribution-based-
- 386 clustering/tree/master/confusion matrix calc).
- 387 The F-score was calculated as:

388
$$
f
$$
 - score = $2 \cdot \frac{precision \cdot recall}{precision + recall}$

389 where precision is defined as:

$$
390 \quad precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}
$$

391 and recall is defined as:

$$
392 \quad \text{recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}
$$

393 Matthew's correlation coefficient (MCC):

$$
394 \qquad MCC = \frac{TP \cdot TN - FP \cdot FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FN)(TP + FP)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}}
$$

395 as previously described [\(30\)](#page-34-6) with the definition of TP, FP, TN and FN described

396 above.

397

398 *Comparison with the input community*

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Results

Distribution-based clustering goals

 Our goal was to develop a clustering algorithm that merges sequences derived from the same input organism or template but keep separate those originating from different input organisms or templates (Fig. 1). Sequences derived from the same input could represent micro-diversity from inter-operon variation, closely related organisms within the community with highly similar functions and the same fitness across sampled environments, or sequencing error. However, we also wanted an algorithm that has the sensitivity to detect different populations, even if the similarity between sequences in different populations is greater than what is typically used for species designations (i.e. above 97% sequence identity), or within the range of sequencing error. We compare the resulting method using two

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 different experimental mock communities to demonstrate how this algorithm compares to more commonly applied clustering methods based on sequence identity alone.

Distribution-based clustering more accurately clusters sequences created in error

 Distribution-based clustering creates OTUs that more accurately represent the input sequences based on the total number of OTUs, how sequences are grouped together into OTUs and distribution of OTUs across samples. 38 mock template sequences remain in distinct OTUs in both distribution-based and open-reference clustering, resulting in the largest number of OTUs containing at least one of the input sequences ("Correct"; Fig. 3a). *De novo* clustering has fewer correct OTUs because some sequences are merged into the same OTU. Closed-reference clustering retains fewer correct OTUs because some of the community members do not match the database with sufficient identity. Distribution-based clustering predicts the lowest number of spurious, incorrect OTUs ("Incorrect"; Fig. 3a). Open-reference clustering predicts the largest number of incorrect OTUs of all methods.

 Distribution-based clustering also groups together reads originating from the same template sequence more accurately. A typical benchmark of OTU accuracy is whether the algorithms cluster sequences that are within a specific genetic distance or sequence identity threshold [\(12\)](#page-33-1). However, our benchmark is whether reads that originate from the same mock template are grouped together and reads originating from different templates are kept apart. The F-score and Matthew's correlation coefficient are both measures of classification accuracy that have been used

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 previously to benchmark OTU definitions [\(12\)](#page-33-1). By either metric, distribution-based clustering out-performs all of the other methods at accurately discriminating input sequences (Fig. 3b). *De novo* clustering predicts more true positives than distribution-based clustering, but also predicts about 10 times more false positives than distribution-based clustering (Table 1) because it tends to over-cluster the closely related true sequences. Closed-reference clustering has the lowest scores due to a large number of false negatives for sequences that do not match the database. Distribution-based clustering produces a resulting community that is more similar to the input community in both total number and relative abundance of OTUs. The number of reads mapping to each OTU from one high quality library

 (com9) was compared to the input sequences using the Jensen-Shannon divergence (Fig. 3c). Distribution-based clustering (both complete and parallel applications- see

Complete vs. Parallel algorithm in Materials and Methods for details) had the

smallest Jensen-Shannon divergence from the input community of all clustering

algorithms. Both *de novo* algorithms result in the largest divergence from the true

distribution of all clustering methods because some input sequences are merged

together. Closed-reference clustering discarded many input sequences that did not

match the database, resulting in a larger calculated divergence from the input

community. Open-reference clustering does not merge as many input sequences as

de novo clustering and does not discard any true sequences like closed-reference

clustering, but was still less accurate than distribution-based clustering.

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Filtering out low abundance OTUs

distribution-based clustering predicted 76 and 75 total OTUs, respectively, the

fewest total number of OTUs of all clustering methods (Fig. 4a). It also more

Comparison with unknown samples

 Along with comparisons between clustering methods on a simple, well- defined mock community, we also applied all clustering methods to an environmental sample set. This sample set was generated from 25 samples from a depth profile of a stratified lake sample (Mystic Lake, Winchester, MA), where different depths corresponded to distinct biogeochemical conditions. We generated two datasets for this analysis. First, we made an Illumina 16S rRNA library from

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 DNA extracted from water collected approximately every meter from the surface to the bottom (22 meters depth). Additionally, we generated Sanger-sequencing based 16S rRNA libraries from two depths (6 and 21 meters). The distribution of the Illumina library sequences was used in the clustering method and Illumina sequences that match different Sanger clones were used as a control comparison, since these sequences were observed independently in the Illumina and Sanger datasets. Closed-reference clustering over-filters environmental data The closed-reference clustering method predicts the fewest number of OTUs of all methods (Fig. 5a). Although the total number of OTUs in the sample is unknown, the Illumina sequences that match the Sanger library mock community can be used to compare clustering methods on the unknown sample. 89 Illumina sequences match one or more of the Sanger sequences. As we saw with the simple mock community, which was generated from clones of these sequences, the closed- reference method discards many sequences that are missing representative sequences in the database. Closed-reference clustering discards 15 of the 89 sequences with more than 1000 counts across all libraries. The most abundant discarded sequence is classified as Cyanobacteria with a distribution that corresponds to a peak in oxygen below the thermocline. This suggests that the very low number of OTUs predicted by the closed-reference method is an underestimate and that this method excluded biologically interesting information.

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Over-clustered environmental data

clustering predicted about 9,000 fewer OTUs than both *de novo* open-reference (Fig

5a). When filtering out singletons (i.e. OTUs with 1 count), distribution-based

- clustering still predicted a few thousand fewer total OTUs than either *de novo* or
- open-reference clustering. However, after filtering out OTUs with less than 10
- counts across all libraries, the difference was less obvious (Table 2). Distribution-

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 based clustering was also sensitive enough to keep closely related sequences with distinct distributions in separate OTUs (Fig. 5b).

 Distribution-based clustering can function to identify all likely sequences in the sample (i.e. remove sequencing error) or be used to group all sequences together that are within a population (i.e. ecologically relevant populations). To eliminate sequencing error, the representative sequence of the OTU must be at least 10-fold more abundant than other sequences in the OTU, since sequences created in error are typically less than 10% of the abundance original sequence. This is comparable to the analysis done with the mock community generated from 16S plasmid templates (Fig. 3). Under these conditions, sequences in Fig. 5c would remain as distinct OTUs. However, it may be redundant to consider each sequence as a separate OTU because they are genetically similar and distributed in a similar manner. Thus, the distribution-based algorithm can also be adjusted to merge sequences in Fig. 5c by using no abundance cut-off and comparing the sequence distributions with JSD (see Materials and Methods for details). This is comparable to the analysis done on the mock community generated from genomic DNA extracted from different organisms (Fig. 4). Under the adjusted parameters, distribution- based clustering predicts 11,871 OTUs total, and created three OTUs with more than one sequence matching Sanger clones, including the sequences in Fig. 5c. *Run-time of each clustering algorithm*

 The total computational time for distribution-based clustering is much longer than any of the other clustering methods. Table 3 shows typical run times for

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 approximately 500,000 total reads (5,489 unique sequences) in the mock and 7.5 million reads (120,601 unique sequences). Only the parallelized distribution-based clustering used multiple processors to complete, and run time of other methods could be improved even further by using multiple processors. However, it is clear that there is a significant difference in speed between distribution-based clustering and the other methods.

Issues affecting sequence and distribution accuracy

 The sequences and distribution of OTUs across libraries should represent the true distribution as accurately as possible. Recommendations made from previous studies were followed during library construction to reduce PCR amplification biases, including reducing the cycle number and pooling replicate PCR reactions [\(31,](#page-34-7) [32\)](#page-34-8). While these measures help, the resulting sequences and distributions across libraries is primarily affected by two things: mismatches between the primer and template sequences and sequence-specific errors of the Illumina sequencing platform from a poor quality run.

Sequence-specific sequencing errors

 The distribution-based clustering method is sensitive to errors that are generated in a non-random way across samples. Since the algorithm assumes that differences in the distribution of sequences across samples represent important information, this assumption is invalid when differences are due to methodological errors. In our analysis, the most obvious cause of non-random errors results from

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Discussion

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 We present a novel method of calling OTUs that uses the ecology of the organisms they represent to inform the clustering. Typically, only genetic information is considered when forming OTUs. Incorporating information such as abundance and distribution into the OTU formation process creates OTUs that more accurately cluster sequences by the template or organism of origin and improves the information content of the resulting OTUs.

 The gross trends in the data are similar, regardless of clustering algorithms. Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plots, which identify the most obvious differences between samples, were similar across clustering methods (Fig. S7 and S8). PCoA are particularly effective when the variable of interest (e.g. depth, disease state) is associated with major changes in community structure, but are less effective at detecting subtle variations in community structure. Furthermore, they cannot pinpoint the specific sequences that drive these associations. Other approaches, such as univariate tests including the Mann-Whitney U test and Fisher's exact test, and statistical learning techniques such as random forest classification can test for associations between bacterial species abundance and environmental metadata [\(36\)](#page-34-10). Optimizing the clustering algorithm to detect such associations will increase the chances of gaining important biological insight. Thus, accurate OTU formation may not be as critical when trends in the data can be discerned at higher taxonomic levels, such as the ratio of Bacteroidetes to Firmicutes in obesity [\(37\)](#page-35-0). However, differences between closely related organisms are crucial for identifying evolutionary and ecological mechanisms [\(18\)](#page-33-7). In such cases, distribution-based

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 clustering may be one of only a few tools that can be used to distinguish the signal from the noise of sequencing errors.

 Run time is currently a severe limitation to implementing distribution-based clustering on very large datasets. Although many improvements can be made to the algorithm itself to increase the speed of the program (likely with lower accuracy), any implementation will likely be more computationally intensive than other methods since it involves processing additional information. Steps can be taken to reduce total runtime, such as increasing the abundance skew (e.g. 100-fold more abundant representative sequences) or decreasing the total distance cut-off allowed 660 for forming clusters (e.g. cutoff=0.05), or filtering out low abundance sequences (e.g. filter out singletons). All of these steps decrease the total number of pairwise comparisons and reduce runtime. However, these will also decrease accuracy of the algorithm at removing incorrect OTUs (Fig. S4). There are some cases when the distribution-based clustering method should be used with caution. Distribution-based clustering predicts the most accurate OTUs when sequences are distributed in an ecologically meaningful way across samples, as in the mock community or in a stratified lake. However, methodological issues creating non-random errors across samples (e.g. different error rates across sequencing cells or runs) will increase the number of erroneous sequences that distribution-based clustering will keep as distinct OTUs (Table S5). However, distribution-based clustering still creates the most accurate OTUs of all clustering

methods, even with the methodological errors found in this analysis. Users should

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 also consider whether grouping sequences using a statistical test of similarity will impact the statistics of their downstream analyses.

 Although no method formed OTUs that were as accurate as the distribution- based method with these mock communities, there are situations when different methods might be a more appropriate choice. Closed-reference clustering has the advantage of speed and convenience, especially for downstream processing because information about the reference sequences can be pre-computed (e.g. phylogenetic trees, taxonomic information). *De novo* clustering may be a good choice for higher taxonomic level analyses, as over-clustering species should not affect phylum-level changes across samples, especially when the total number of predicted OTUs can affect the results. Open-reference clustering is less discriminating and tends to grossly over-estimate the number of OTUs. However, it seems to a good alternative when looking for trends between closely related organisms, especially if low abundance OTUs can be filtered out. When applied appropriately, each of the different clustering methods analyzed here can facilitate the discovery of important trends in 16S rRNA library sequence data. The introduction of the distribution-based clustering method gives researchers an additional tool that allows distinct OTUs to be retained even if they differ at a single base pair in a background of high micro-diversity or sequencing

error.

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-
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- **Titles and Legends to Figures**
-

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clustered reads originating from the same organism in cleaned, denoised and

chimera-free mock community. a.) The number of total OTUs predicted by each

clustering method. b.) The accuracy of each clustering method at grouping together

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 sequences that originated from the same organism as measured by both F-score (black bar) and Matthew's coefficient correlation (hatched bar). c.) The Jensen-Shannon divergence (JSD) is used as a measure of distance from the input of

881 resulting communities created by applying each clustering method.

 Figure 5 Evaluation of clustering methods on environmental samples from a stratified lake. a.) The total number of OTUs predicted by each clustering method for the entire lake. b.) Sequences displaying distinct ecological distributions but are merged by all clustering algorithms except distribution-based clustering. The solid line is the distribution of the resulting cluster, comprised mainly of two sequences (dotted and dashed lines). Distribution-based clustering keeps the two sequences distinct, but all other methods merge them into one OTU. c.) Sequences that represent micro-diversity within the environmental sample. The distribution-based clustering algorithm can be adjusted such that these sequences either remain distinct or can be clustered.

 Figure 6 Template abundance is highly correlated with input concentration when templates do not have mismatches in the primer-binding site. Additionally, stringent quality filtering can decrease the correlation with input concentration for poor quality sequencing runs. a) and b) show data from a high quality sequencing run and c.) and d.) show data from a low quality sequencing run. a) and c) show unfiltered data and b.) and d.) show filtered data. Abundance is determined as the number of reads with best blast hit to the mock community sequence. Input concentrations

- 901 were measured experimentally from mock community DNA template. Trendlines
- 902 and corresponding correlation coefficients (R^2) shown for reads with primer site
- 903 matches only (black square).

Depth (meters)

Depth (meters)

- **1 Table 1** The ability of each clustering algorithm to groups reads from the same
- 2 input sequence together into the same OTU
- 3

4

 $5⁻¹$ TP: True positives when two reads with best blast hits to the same mock

6 community input sequence cluster in the same OTU

 7^2 FP: False positives when two reads with best blast hits to different mock

8 community input sequences cluster in the same OTU

 9° ³ TN: True negatives when two reads with best blast hits to different mock

10 community input sequences cluster in different OTUs

 11 4 FN: False negative when two reads with best blast hits to the same mock

12 community and in different OTUs or when one of the reads is not assigned to any

- 13 OTUs (Closed-reference only)
- 14 ⁵ Average: Average-linkage hierarchical clustering

15

	Mock Community			Environmental Sample		
Method	No filter ²	>1	>10	No filter	>1	>10
DBC ¹ (complete)	124	82	63	NA	NA	NA
DBC (parallel)	175	136	83	14,234	11,762	6,087
De novo				23,616	17,261	7,875
(USEARCH)	390	226	86			
De novo (average -				NA	NA	NA
linkage)	336	169	70			
Closed-reference	700	430	160	9,799	7,867	4,046
Open-reference	385	257	119	23,047	15,833	6,310

Table 2. Total number of OTUs remaining after filtering out low abundance OTUs

¹ DBC: Distribution-based clustering

² Filtering criteria: Either all OTUs were included (*No filter*), or only OTUs with greater than 1 (>1) or greater than 10 (>10) counts were included

Table 3. Representative clustering times for mock community samples with various algorithms

¹ Times are approximated by the difference between the start time and end time in the shell script examples in SI.

² The mock community contains 565,498 total reads and 5489 unique sequences 3 The environmental sample contains 7,539,779 total reads and 120,601 unique sequences.

⁴ NA indicates that this method was not performed.

 5 The distribution-based clustering algorithm was the only one was parallelized. 60 -100 different processes were run at one time. Other methods would have had improved speeds if run in parallel.

**Supplementary
Information**

*Environmental
sample
collection*

Water was collected from Upper Mystic Lake, (Winchester, MA, \sim 42 26.155N,
71
08.
961W)
on
Aug,
13,
2008
using
a
peristatic pump
and
plastic
Tygon tubing. Tubing was lowered to a point \sim 1 m from the bottom, running the pump in reverse
to
prevent
water
from
entering
the
tubing
until
the
appropriate
depth
was reached.
Water
from
depth
was
allowed
to
flow
through
the
tubing
for
5
minutes before
14
mls
were collected
into
a
15
ml
sterile
falcon
tube
and immediately
placed on
dry
ice.
The
first
sample
was
taken
from
22m
depth and
subsequent
samples were
taken
every
meter
until
3m,
then
at
1.5m
and
the
surface.
Samples
were transported on dry ice and stored at -80 °C until processing (about 1 year later).

*DNA
extraction*

DNA
was
extracted
as
previously
described
(Blackburn
2010).
Briefly,
DNA was
extracted with
a
modified
version
of the
Qiagen
DNeasy
Blood
and
Tissue
Kit (Qiagen,
USA).
Water
was
filtered through
Swinnex
filter
holders
onto
0.22
μm filters (Millipore, Billerica, MA). Filters were sterilely cut and added to a 2 ml screw cap
tube
containing 0.25
g
of
0.1
mm
zirconium/glass
beads
(MoBio
Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA). 180 µ of lysis buffer consisting of 20 mM Tris HCl, 2 mM EDTA, and
1.2%
Triton‐X100
(pH
8.0) was
added
and
samples
were
placed
on
a
Mini Beadbeater-1 (BioSpec Products, Inc., Bartlesville, OK) for 1 minute at maximum speed. 180 μl of lysis buffer with 40 mg/ml lysozyme was added and the sample was incubated
at
37 **°**C
for
1
hr
with
shaking
(450
rpm).
50
μl
of
proteinase
K
was
added along
with
400
μl
of
AL
buffer
(Qiagen
DNeasy
kit)
without
ethanol.
Samples
were mixed and incubated at 56 °C for 45 min. followed by a 5 min. incubation at 95 °C. Samples were centrifuged and the liquid was transferred to a sterile 1.5 ml tube. 400
μl
of
100%
ethanol
was
added
and
the
liquid
was
added
to the
Qiagen
DNeasy column. DNA
was
washed
on
the
column
following
the
Qiagen
DNeasy
protocol, including 500 μl wash with AW1 and AW2 and a final elution in 100 μl AE.

*Mock
community
template
preparation*

To
make
the
clone
library,
16S
rRNA
sequences
were
amplified
with
Phusion polymerase
(New
England
Biolabs,
Ipswich,
MA)
and
27F
and
1492R
primers
(Lane 1991).
PCR
products
were
cloned
into
the
pCR
Blunt
II
plasmid
with
the
Zero
Blunt TOPO
PCR
cloning
kit
(Invitrogen,
Carlsbad, CA)
and
sequenced
in
at
least
one direction
with
Sanger
sequencing
(Genewiz,
South
Plainfield,
NJ).
Plasmids
were purified
using
the
plasmid
DNA
isolation
reagent
system
(Carolina
Biological
Supply Co.,
Burlington,
NC)
and
digested
with
restriction
enzyme NotI
(New
England Biolabs,
Ipswich,
MA)
to
linearize
the
plasmid.

*Illumina
library
preparation*

Real-time PCR reactions were done first to normalize template concentrations
and
avoid
cycling
any
templates
past
mid‐log
phase.
PCR
reactions for Illumina libraries were carried out as follows: 0.5 units of Phusion with 1 x High Fidelity buffer, 200 µM of each dNTP, 0.3 µM of PE16S_V4_U515_F and PE16S_V4_E786_R first step primers and approximately 40 ng of mixed DNA template were added for each 25 µl reaction. Additionally, 5 X SYBR Green I nucleic acid
stain
(Molecular
Probes,
Eugene,
OR)
was
added
for
real‐time
PCR.
Samples were cycled with the following conditions: denaturation at 98 °C for 30 sec annealing at 52 °C for 30 sec and extension at 72 °C for 30 sec. 14 cycles was midlog for all samples and was subsequently used as the number of cycles for the first step PCR. The first step PCR reaction was cycled as four 25 µl reactions for each sample.
PCR
reactions
were
pooled
and
cleaned
with
Agencourt
AMPure
XP‐ PCR purification (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA) according to the manufacture's protocol.

Illumina
specific
adaptors
were
added
during
a
second
step
amplification. The conditions for the second step PCR were similar to the first step, although 4μ of the purified first step reaction was used as a template and 0.4μ M of each PE-III-PCR‐F and
the
barcoded
reverse
primer
was
used
with
9
cycles.
Samples
were cycled as four 25 µl reactions and cleaned with Agencourt AMPure XP- PCR purification
system.
The
nine libraries
were
sequenced
in
groups
of
three
across three
lanes
(two
flow
cells)
on
both
the
Illumina
GA
II
and
HiSeq
at
the
Biomicro

Center
(MIT,
Cambridge,
MA)
with
93
other
samples
per
lane.

*Calculation
of
error
rate
per
sample*

Raw data from reads with an exact match to one of the nine barcodes used for this experiment
were
used
for
comparing
error
rates
across
flow
cells
and
lanes.
This was necessary because these samples were multiplexed into lanes containing up to 93
additional
unrelated
samples.
The raw,
unfiltered
fastq
files were
converted
into a
fasta
file
using
a
custom
perl
script.
Blast
was
used
to
map the
raw
sequences
to the
mock
community
members,
where
the
mock
community
database
was
trimmed to
the
amplified
region
between,
but
not
including,
the
forward
and
reverse
primer site.
Raw
sequences
were
only
considered
if
the
query
and
subject
start
and
stop positions
corresponded
to
the
full
length
of
the
Illumina
forward
read.
The
perfect match,
and
single
and
double
base
mismatches,
taken
from
the
blast
output,
were calculated
as
a
percent
of
the
total
that
map
to
the
full
length
Illumina
sequence
(Fig. S6).
Sequences
with
less
than
100%
query
or
subject
coverage
were
not
considered in
this
calculation.

*Commands used
during
processing*

The
following
commands
were
used
during
processing. Closed‐reference
clustering
with
QIIME (Shell): #!
/bin/sh #\$
‐S
/bin/bash #
‐cwd

source
/etc/profile.d/modules.sh module
load
qiime‐default module
load
mothur #fasta
file
name
in
QIIME
format
from
first
string
after
command FASTAFILE=\$1 #output
directory
as
second
string
after
command OUTPUT=\$2

#reference
fasta
file
(latest
greengenes
OTUS) REFERENCEFA~/greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/rep_set/97_otus.fasta #reference
taxonomies REFERENCETAX=~/greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/taxonomy/97_otu_taxonomy.txt PARAMS~/bin/methods_scripts/closed_ref_params.txt

```
echo
"Start
time"
date
+"%m‐%d‐%y"
date
+"%T"
```

```
pick_reference_otus_through_otu_table.py -o ${OUTPUT} -i ${FASTAFILE} -r
${REFERENCEFA}
‐t
${REFERENCETAX}
‐p
${PARAMS}
```

```
pick_rep_set.py --input ./${OUTPUT}/uclust_ref_picked_otus/*_otus.txt --
rep_set_picking_method
most_abundant
‐‐fasta_file
${FAST
AFILE}
‐o
./${OUTPUT}/uclust_ref_picked_otus/otus_rep_set.fa
```

```
echo
"End
time"
date
+"%m‐%d‐%y"
date
+"%T"
```

```
Closed‐reference
QIIME
parameters:
pick_otus:otu_picking_method
uclust_ref
pick_otus:refseqs_fp
 /greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/rep_set/97_otus.fasta
pick_otus:enable_rev_strand_match
True
pick otus: suppress new clusters True
```
Open-reference clustering with QIIME (shell) #!
/bin/sh #\$
‐S
/bin/bash

#
‐cwd

source
/etc/profile.d/modules.sh module
load
qiime‐default module
load
mothur #fasta
file
name
in
QIIME
format FASTAFILE=\$1 #output
folder
(unique) OUTPUT=\$2 #reference
fasta
file
(latest
greengenes
OTUS) REFERENCEFA=/data/spacocha/Qiime_dir/greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/rep_set/97 _otus.fasta #reference
taxonomies REFERENCETAX=/data/spacocha/Qiime_dir/greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/taxonomy /97_otu_taxonomy.txt PARAMS=/home/spacocha/bin/methods_scripts/open_ref_params.txt

echo
"Start
time" date
+"%m‐%d‐%y" date
+"%T"

pick_reference_otus_through_otu_table.py -o \${OUTPUT} -i \${FASTAFILE} -r \${REFERENCEFA}
‐t
\${REFERENCETAX}
‐p
\${PARAMS}

pick_rep_set.py --input ./\${OUTPUT}/uclust_ref_picked_otus/*_otus.txt -rep_set_picking_method
most_abundant
‐‐fasta_file
\${FAST AFILE}
‐o
./\${OUTPUT}/uclust_ref_picked_otus/otus_rep_set.fa

echo
"End
time" date
+"%m‐%d‐%y" date
+"%T"

Open‐reference
QIIME
parameters: pick_otus:otu_picking_method
uclust_ref pick_otus:refseqs_fp
greengenes/gg_12_10_otus/rep_set/97_otus.fasta pick_otus:enable_rev_strand_match
True pick_otus:suppress_new_clusters False

*De
novo* USEARCH (shell) #!
/bin/sh #\$
‐S
/bin/bash #
‐cwd

#fastafile FASTAFILE=\$1 #matfile MATFILE=\$2

```
echo
"Start
time"
date
+"%m‐%d‐%y"
date
+"%T"
```
perl
~/bin/fasta2uchime_mat.pl
\${MATFILE}
\${FASTAFILE}
>
\${FASTAFILE}.ab \sim /bin/usearch6.0.307_i86linux32 -cluster_fast \${FASTAFILE}.ab -id 0.97 -uc \${FASTAFILE}.uc perl
~/bin/UC2list2.pl
\${FASTAFILE}.uc
>
\${FASTAFILE}.list perl
~/bin/list2mat.pl
\${MATFILE}
\${FASTAFILE}.list
eco
>
\${FASTAFILE}.list.mat perl
~/bin/fasta2filter_from_mat.pl

\${UNIQUE}.list.mat
\${FASTAFILE}
> \${FASTAFILE}.list.mat.fa

echo
"End
time" date
+"%m‐%d‐%y" date
+"%T"

Mothur
command (batch)

unique.seqs(fasta=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.fa) align.seqs(fasta=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.fa, reference=/data/spacocha/tmp/silva.bacteria.fasta) screen.seqs(fasta=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.align, name=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.names,
start=13862, end=15958,minlength=76) filter.seqs(fasta=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.good.align,
vertical=T, trump=.) unique.seqs(fasta=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.good.filter.fasta, name=unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.good.names) system(cp
unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.good.filter.unique.names final.names) system(cp
unique.uchime.remove.tocluster.unique.good.filter.names
final.names) dist.seqs(fasta=final.fasta,
cutoff=0.15) cluster(column=final.dist,
name=final.names)

*Generation
of
principal
component
analysis
plots*

Principal
component
analysis
was
done
on
the
final
OTU
by
library
matrices
for
each clustering
algorithm
using
QIIME
beta_diversity_through_plots.py.
The
lowest number
of
sequences
in
a
library
was
determined
using
QIIME's
per_library_stats.py and input into beta diversity through plots.py (-e). Trees of the representative samples
were
made
with
FastTree.

*Simulated
mock
community
data
with
varying
error
rates
across
libraries*

To
determine
the
impact
of
different
error
rates across
libraries on
distribution‐ based clustering
performance,
simulated mock
community
was
generated
using
the template
sequences
for
each
members added
across
libraries.
The
total
number
of sequences
generated
was
proportional
to
measured
concentration
and
resulted
in the
creation
of
748,463 total *in
silico* reads.
The
geometric
mean
(R
version
2.12.1; rgeom) was used to create error rates of both 0.9 and 0.8 to simulate high and low quality
sequencing
runs,
respectively.
The
constant
error
rate
dataset
used
in
Table S5 was
0.9
for
all
libraries
while
the
variable
error
rate
dataset
was
0.90
for
6 libraries and 0.08 for 3 of the libraries.

The
geometric
mean
was
used
to
determine
which
of
the
simulated reads would contain errors and how many errors it would contain. This was implemented in
R
(version
2.12.1)
with
rgeom
using
the
total
read
count
needed
for
each sequence and the error rate. For example, if a template was supposed to have 10 reads with an error rate of 0.8, the results would look similar to the following: >
rgeom(10,0.8)

[1]
1
0
0
0
0
0
1
4
0
0

Where two sequences would have one bp different, one would have four mismatches
and
seven sequences
would
have
no
errors.

After
determining
how
many
errors
to
generate
for
each
read,
the
position
of the
errors
was
also
determined
in
R
using
the
hypergeometric
mean
(rhyper).
The distribution results in either 0 or 1 and depends on the input probability. Starting at the
3'
ending
position,
the
hypergenometric
mean
was
used
to
determine
whether to
alter
the
base to
another
random
base (1=alter,
0=evaluate
next
base).

The probability
of
having
an
error
decreased
toward
the
5'
end to
mimic
sequence quality
being
poor
at
the
3'
end.
This
was
repeated
until
the
required
number
of errors
was
generated.

Two datasets were
generated in
this
manner.
One
set
had
a
constant
error rate
across
all
libraries,
and
another
had
three
libraries
with
a
higher
error
rate.
The dataset was clustered using the distribution based clustering algorithm as normal and
the
results
are
presented
in
Table
S5.

**Supplementary
References**

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Supplementary Figures

Figure S1. Unique distributions across the mock libraries help to identify a mislabeled sequence in the reference dataset. a. The distribution of a sequence matching the reference sequence labeled *Providencia rettgeri* and the input distribution of Providencia alcalifaciens. This sequence also matched others strains labeled Providencia alcalifaciens in NCBI's nr database. It was changed to Providencia alcalifaciens. b.) The distribution of another sequence which corresponds to the correct input of *Providencia rettgeri*. This other sequence also hits many other Providencia rettgeri strain in NCBI's nr database. This sequence was included in the analysis as the reference sequence for *Providencia rettgeri*.

Figure S2. 16S rDNA library construct from two-step PCR. a.) 5' end of the Illumina library construct, including both first and second step forward primer sequences and sequencing primers. b.) 3' end of Illumina library construct including barcoded region and first step and second step reverse primers.

Figure S3. Distribution-based clustering results in a distribution of sequences that is most similar to the input distribution. Additionally, an intermediate amount of quality
filtering
results
in
a
better
representation
of
the
input
community
for
all clustering
methods.
The
Jensen‐Shannon
divergence
(JSDiv)
is
used
as
a
measure
of distance
between
the
input
concentration
and
resulting
OTU
counts
after
applying each
clustering
method
at
different
levels
of
quality
filtering.
At
the
highest
error rates, incorrect OTUs add to the distance from the true distribution. At the lowest error
rates,
the
small
number
of
reads
kept
creates
the
large
distance
values.
Both parallel
and
complete
distribution‐based
clustering
methods
result
in
OTUs
that
are most similar to the true distribution at intermediate levels of quality filter stringency.

Figure S4. Sensitivity of the resulting OTUs to changes in the distribution-based algorithm parameters. a.) Increasing the significance cut-off value of the chi-sq test creates
more
incorrect
OTUs
whereas
lower
p‐value
cut‐offs
tend
to
merge sequences.
X‐ axis
in
plotted
in
log
scale
b.)
Decreasing
the
abundance
criteria merges
true
input
sequences
with
similar
distributions,
but
increasing
the
cut‐off
to 10
mainly
detects
sequencing
errors.
X‐axis
is
plotted
in
log
scale
c.)
Lower
genetic similarity cutoffs generate more incorrect OTUs, whereas at high genetic cut-off values,
some
mock
community
sequences
with
similar
distributions
are
merged. "Correct" are the number of OTUs containing a single exact match to an input sequence. "Incorrect" are the number of OTUs that do not have any sequences exactly matching the input community. "Merged" are the number of OTUs that contain
more
than
one
sequence
matching
an
input
sequence.

Figure S5. Per base quality scores for the three lanes of Illumina. The quality of one set of samples was substantially worse than the others. (a) Flow 1, Lane 1, samples com4-com6 (b) Flow 2, Lane 1, samples com1-com3 (c) Flow 2, Lane 2, samples com7‐com9.

Figure S6. Error rates were higher on Flow cell 1 (Flow1) than Flow cell 2 (Flow2) causing
non‐random
distribution
of
erroneous sequences
across
samples.
(a)
Exact match,
single base
mismatches (single
error)
and
double
base
mismatches (double

error) as
a
percent
of
the
total
number
of
raw
(not
quality
filtered)
sequences
that blast to the entire 76 bp of any mock community member. Samples are labeled with the flow cell number (Flow1 or Flow2) corresponding to two different Illumina runs. Additionally,
the
corresponding
sample
name
(mix1‐9)
is
labeled
on
the
X‐axis. (b) The distribution of the true sequence (6m-94-27F) and a sequence with a single bp error sequence across samples after quality filtering and clustering. Although the single bp error sequence was generated from the true sequence, it does not have the same
distribution
across
samples
because
of
the
difference
in
error
rates
across flow
cells.
Y‐axis
is
log
scale.

Figure S7. Principal components analysis of mock community libraries com1-com9. The primary (P1) and secondary (P2) components are plotted for the (a) true input community and for each clustering method: (b) distribution-based clustering, complete; (c) distribution-based clustering, parallel; (d) *de novo*, usearch; (e) openreference
clustering;
(f) closed‐reference
clustering.
Samples
are
colored
according to the total number of input sequences: 1-10 input sequences, red triangle; 11-20, blue
circle;
21‐30
orange
square;
31‐40
green
triangle.

Figure S8. Principal components analysis of environmental samples from a stratified lake is similar across clustering algorithms. The primary (P1) and tertiary (P3)
components
are
plotted
for
(a)
distribution‐based
clustering,
(b) *de
novo* (USEARCH),
(c)
closed‐reference
and
(d)
open‐reference
clustering. Samples
are colored
according
to
depth:
surface
to
5
meters
(m)
depth,
red
circles;
6‐10
m, blue square; 11-12 orange triangle; 13-15 m, green triangle; 16-22 m, purple triangle; surface and end blank, yellow triangle.

**Supplementary
Tables**

Table
S1.
Mock
community
template
concentrations
and
primer
mismatches

¹ Samples were added to libraries in sequential order, starting with com1 and ending with com9. If a set was added to com1, it was also added to all subsequent libraries
com2
through
com9.

	Barcode		Flow cell		Diversity
Sample ID	Sequence	Description	No.	Lane No.	
		E8, plate			
com1	CGAATAT	63umP2	$\mathbf 1$	1	
		E9, plate			
com ₂	AAGGAAC	63umP2	1	1	
		E10, plate			
com ₃	GATTGAA	63umP2	1	1	
		H1, plate			
com4	CCGCACC	63umP1	2	1	
		H ₂ , plate			
com ₅	ATGCCAG	63umP1	$\overline{2}$	1	
		H ₃ , plate			
com ₆	TCGAACA	63umP1	$\overline{2}$	1	
		H ₁₀ , plate			
com7	GTACGTT	63umP3	1	2	
		H11, plate			
com8	AGTAGAT	63umP3	$\mathbf 1$	2	
		H12, plate			
com9	TCATTAA	63umP3	1	$\overline{2}$	

Table
S3.
Barcode
sequences
and
sequencing
outline

Table
S4.
Correlation
of
OTUs
from
various
clustering
methods
with matching Sanger
environmental
clone
sequence

*
Clone
names
and
the
corresponding
correlations
below
0.9
are
in
bold

Table
S5.
Correct
and
incorrect
OTUs
predicted
by
distribution‐based
clustering
on simulated
data

¹ Error rate generated from a geometric distribution was 0.9 for 9 libraries

² Error
rate
was
0.8
across
3
libraries
and
0.9
across
6
libraries