

# Impact of bead-beating intensity on microbiome recovery in mouse and human stool: *Optimization of DNA extraction*

---

Bo Zhang<sup>1\*</sup>, Matthew Brock<sup>1\*</sup>, Carlos Arana<sup>1</sup>, Chaitanya Dende<sup>1</sup>, Lora Hooper<sup>1</sup> and Prithvi Raj<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Immunology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX 75390, USA \*Microbiome Research Laboratory (MRL)

## Correspondence:

Prithvi Raj, Microbiome Research Laboratory (MRL) Department of Immunology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX 75390, USA Email: [prithvi.raj@utsouthwestern.edu](mailto:prithvi.raj@utsouthwestern.edu)

**Keywords:** Microbiome, 16S Sequencing, OTU, DNA extraction, Bead beating

# **Abstract**

DNA extraction methods play an important role in the acquisition of accurate and reproducible 16S sequencing data in microbiome studies. In this study, we assessed the impact of bead-beating intensity during DNA extraction on microbiome recovery in mouse and human stool. We observed a higher DNA yield, better DNA integrity, higher *Shannon's entropy* and *Simpson's index* in samples beaten for 4 and 9 minutes as compared to unbeaten samples. 16S sequencing data showed that bead beating has a statistically-significant ( $p<0.05$ ) impact on the recovery of many clinically relevant microbes that live in the mouse and human gut, including *Bifidobacterium*, *Sutterella* and *Veillonella*. It was observed that 4 minutes of bead beating promotes recovery of about 70% of OTUs in mouse and human stool, while the remaining 30% requires longer bead beating. In conclusion, our study indicates adjustments in bead beating treatment based on the composition of the specimen and the targeted bacteria.

## Introduction:

High throughput sequencing technology is commonly used to characterize microbial composition of biological specimens. This approach can be applied to capture microbial diversity in human and environmental specimens with unprecedented depth (1-4). A number of prior studies provide evidence that methods of sample collection, storage and DNA extraction are critical for accurate profiling of microbiota in environmental (5-7) or human samples (8-10). In particular, it is increasingly apparent that the DNA extraction method is crucial to the accuracy of microbiome analysis (11-13). Given that the microbial composition of a niche is generally diverse with significant variations in cell membrane structures and functions among community members, obtaining a complete and unbiased representation of microbial DNA from all community members is technically challenging.

There is growing evidence that complete lysis of bacterial cell walls is critical for optimum yield of DNA. Lysis protocols include procedures that lead to physical and or enzymatic disruption of the microbial cell wall (5, 14, 15). It has been observed that extended lysis time and mechanical disruption can enhance nucleic acid yield. However, extended lysis time can also reduce molecular complexity by shearing genomic DNA into smaller fragments (16, 17). In general, bacterial cells are lysed to release the nucleic acids and the remaining proteins are discarded. Gram-positive bacteria pose the greatest challenge for complete lysis due to their thick cell walls and complex cell wall composition, consisting of several layers of peptidoglycan (18).

Given that the precise composition of pathogenic clinical specimens is mostly unknown and may vary significantly from sample to sample, an ideal DNA extraction method should accurately

recover DNA from a wide variety of bacteria and avoid the bias that can be introduced by incomplete cell wall lysis. Bead-beating is a method of mechanical disruption that is performed prior to standard DNA extraction. In this step, ceramic or glass beads are added to the tube containing microbial samples. This is followed by moderate to high speed shaking, causing collisions between the beads and the samples. Bead-beating has become a common method of bacterial cell lysis in microbial metagenomics studies, and a number of different bead beating protocols have been used to extract microbial DNA from stool samples (19). Here we have assessed the impact of bead-beating time on extraction efficiency of nucleic acids and abundance and composition of bacterial OTUs in mouse and human stool.

## **Materials & Methods**

### **Sample collection**

We collected two mouse (C57/Bl6) stool samples, designated WT1 and WT2, and two human stool samples, designated Hum1 and Hum2. The stool samples were collected under sterile conditions and stored in DNA/RNA shield, a nucleic acid stabilizing solution from Zymo Research (R1100). DNA/RNA shield provides an accurate molecular signature of the sample at the time of collection by preserving nucleic acids at ambient temperature and inactivating organisms including infectious agents.

### **DNA extraction**

We used the ZymoBIOMICS™ DNA Miniprep Kit (D4300) for DNA extraction on both mice and human stools. Figure 1 illustrates the experimental workflow of the study. Each of the mouse and

human stool samples was aliquoted into four subsamples for the experiment. About 200 mg of feces was aliquoted into a ZR BashingBead lysis tube (0.1 and 0.5 mm). For lysis, 750 ul of ZymoBIOMICS lysis solution was added to each sample tube. Next, each sample tube was tightly closed and loaded onto the PowerLyzer 24 Homogenizer (110/220 V) from Qiagen for bead beating. WT1 and WT2 and Hum1 and Hum2 were two independent replicates of mouse and human feces, respectively. We selected four different bead beating time points as illustrated in Figure 1: 0 minutes (no bead-beating at all), 1 minute (one cycle of shaking), 4 minutes (2 cycles of 2 minute shaking, with a 30 second pause after each cycle) and 9 minutes (4 cycles of 2 min and 1 cycle of 1 minute, with a 30 second pause after each cycle). Each of these samples were bead-beaten at a speed of 2200 RPM and were maintained at a temperature of 20°C throughout the bead beating process. Following beat-beating and lysis, DNA was purified using the ZymoBIOMICS protocol, and 100 ul was eluted for downstream experiments. The DNA concentration was measured using the Picogreen method (Invitrogen Quant-iT™ Picogreen dsDNA Assay Kit Reference No. P11496 on Perkin Elmer 2030 Multilabel Reader Victor X3) and DNA integrity number (DIN) was determined on 4150 Tapestation from Agilent using Agilent's gDNA Screen Tape (Reference No. 5067-5365) and Agilent's gDNA Reagents (Reference No. 5067-5366).

### **16S rRNA gene sequencing**

10-50 ng of purified DNA from stool was used to amplify hypervariable region V3-V4 of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene using the Illumina Nextera protocol (Part # 15044223 Rev. B). A single amplicon of about 460 bp was amplified using the 16S Forward Primer (5'TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG) and

the 16S Reverse Primer  
(5'GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC

) as described in the Illumina protocol. The PCR product was purified using Agencourt AmpureXP beads from Beckman Counter Genomics. We used the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Reference no. 15052166) for 16S amplification. Illumina adapter and barcode sequences were ligated to the amplicon in order to attach them to the MiSeqDx flow cell and for multiplexing. Quality and quantity of each sequencing library were assessed using Bioanalyzer and picogreen measurements, respectively. The libraries were then pooled in equal concentrations according to picogreen measurements. Each pool was quantified using KAPA Biosystems Library Quant Kit (illumina) ROX Low qPCR Mix (Reference No. 07960336001) on an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR system. According to the qPCR measurements, 6 pM of pooled libraries was loaded onto a MiSeqDX flow cell and sequenced using MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 600 Cycles PE (Paired end 300 bp). Raw fastq files were demultiplexed based on unique barcodes and assessed for quality.

# **16S data analysis pipeline**

Samples with more than 50K QC pass sequencing reads were used for downstream 16S OTU analysis. Taxonomic classification and Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) abundance analysis were done using the CLC Bio microbial genomics module (<https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/plugins/clc-microbial-genomics-module/>). Individual sample reads were annotated with the Greengene database and taxonomic features were identified. Alpha and beta diversity analysis was done to understand within- and between-treatment group diversity, respectively. Raw fastq files from this study have been submitted to the Sequence Read Archive with ID PRJNA625828.

# **Results**

## **Assessment of DNAs extracted using different bead beating times**

First, we measured the amount of total DNA recovered from each bead-beating treatment. As expected, the bead-beaten samples yielded higher amounts of DNA as compared to unbeaten samples. As shown in Supplementary Fig.1 A-B, the highest yields were observed in samples beaten for 4 or 9 minutes. The DNA integrity number (DIN) was highest in samples treated for 1 and 4 minutes (Supplementary Fig.1C-D). The number of pass filter sequencing reads was highest in mouse stool samples that were beaten for 4 and 9 minutes (Supplementary Fig.1E). However, in human stool samples, the highest pass filter reads were obtained at the 1 and 4-minute time points (Supplementary Fig.1F). We also compared the total number of high-confidence OTUs annotated in all the samples. As shown, the highest OTUs were observed in samples beaten for 4 or 9 minutes (Supplementary Fig. 1G-H). Overall, 4 minutes of beating time was found to give the optimum results for all the assessed parameters.

## ***Actinobacteria* requires extensive bead beating for maximal recovery**

QC pass sequencing reads were used to define OTUs (operational taxonomic units) at different taxonomic levels such as phylum, class, order, family, genus, and species (Fig. 2A-B, Supplementary Table S1-S4). 16S analysis showed that *Actinobacteria* were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) underrepresented in unbeaten samples. Their maximal recovery was observed after 4 and 9-minutes of bead-beating (Fig.2C-D). On the other hand, *Proteobacteria*, which are Gram-negative organisms, were better captured in unbeaten samples or after just 1 minute of bead beating (Fig. 2I&J). Bacteroidetes were least affected by bead-beating time in both mouse and human stool samples (Fig. 2G&H). Results for *Firmicutes* were not consistent between mouse and human

samples, as more *Firmicutes* were recovered at 4 and 9 minutes of bead-beating of mouse stool whereas no such trend was observed in the human samples. The aggregated phylum level abundances and comparative statistics between time points in mouse and human data are given in Supplementary Tables S3 and S4, respectively. Differential abundance analysis revealed OTUs that differed significantly between 0, 1, 4 and 9-minutes of bead-beating of mouse and human stool (Supplementary Tables S5 & S6). Supplementary Tables 7A&B list genus level annotations of top OTUs in mouse and human stool.

### **High bacterial diversity in bead beaten samples**

Alpha diversity analysis showed higher phylogenetic richness in bead beaten samples as compared to unbeaten samples (Supplementary Fig.2A, E). Shannon's entropy and Simpson's indices are metrics that are commonly used for measurement of bacterial diversity. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 2B &F, higher Shannon entropy was observed after 1, 4 and 9-minutes of bead beating as compared no bead beating. Similarly, Simpson's indices were higher in bead-beaten samples, further suggesting high bacterial recovery at 4 and 9 minutes of bead beating (Supplementary Fig. 2C&G). As shown in Supplementary Tables S8 & S9, bead beaten samples showed a 1.1-fold increase in phylogenetic diversity, *Simpson's index* and *Shannon entropy* as compared to unbeaten sample. Beta diversity analysis showed that all bead beaten samples clustered more closely to one another than to unbeaten samples (Supplementary Fig. 2D&H). Overall, it was observed that most of the diversity was captured by beating for 4 minutes and no significant increase in diversity was noticed with further bead beating.



# **Bead beating duration strongly impacts recovery of clinically relevant bacteria**

Differential abundance analysis on the most abundant OTUs revealed five clusters of bacteria (Fig. 3A, Supplementary Table S10). As shown, cluster 1 (C1) was comprised of *Bifidobacterium* and *Ruminicoccus* in human stool. Maximum recovery of these bacteria was observed after 4 and 9 minutes of beating as compared to no bead beating (C1 in Fig.3A). On the other hand, abundance of *Sutterella*, *Veillonella dispar* and *Veillonella parvula* DNA was highest in samples that were unbeaten or beaten for 1 minute as compared to samples beaten for 4 or 9 minutes (C2 in Fig. 3A). Another cluster of bacteria in human stool was comprised of *Blutia obeum*, *Bifidobacterium longum*, *Coprococcus*, *Dorea* and *Streptococcus*. These organisms were more highly represented at the 4-minute timepoint and did not show a significant increase in recovery with longer bead beating (i.e., 9 minutes). Cluster 4 (C4) was comprised of *Lactobacillus reuteri*, *Allobaculum* and *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* in mouse stool. Maximum abundance of these bacteria was observed after 9 minutes of bead beating (Fig. 3A, C4). On the other hand, bacteria of the *Rikenellaceae*, *Desulfovibrio*, *Bacteroidales* and *Clostridiales* groups showed maximum abundance in unbeaten samples, as shown in cluster 5 (C5) of Fig. 3A.

Interestingly, we found that bead beating intensity has a strong impact on the recovery of clinically-relevant inhabitants of mouse and human gut, including members of the genera *Bifidobacterium*, *Sutterella* and *Veillonella*. As shown in Fig. 3B-E, replicates of mouse and human stool showed maximum abundance of *Bifidobacterium* in samples beaten for 9 minutes, with 30 -100-fold higher recovery in mouse and 2-16-fold higher recovery in human stool upon bead beating. On the other hand, maximum abundance of *Sutterella* was observed in mouse and human stool samples that were unbeaten or beaten for the least amount of time (Fig. 3F-I). We observed a 2-4-fold reduction

in *Sutterella* abundance in bead beaten stool, suggesting an adverse effect of beating on recovery of DNA from this bacterial group. These results were consistent across mouse and human stool replicates (Fig. 3F-I, Supplementary data in Table S11-12).

### **Optimum bead beating time for maximal recovery of microbiome diversity**

We compared various parameters including nucleic acid yield, DNA integrity, sequencing depth and OTU counts across beating times in order to determine the optimum beating intensity for mouse and human stool analysis. We found that optimum data were obtained with 4 and 9 minute bead beating treatment as compared to no bead beating or beating for 1 minute. Comparison of samples beaten for 4 and 9 minutes did not show marked differences. In data from mouse stool, there were only 7 OTUs (out of 24 major OTUs) whose abundance differed significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) between samples beaten for 4 and 9 minutes. These were *Bifidobacterium*, *Adlercreutzia*, *Allobaculum*, *Coriobacteriaceae*, *Lactobacillus*, *Turicibacter* and *Ruminicoccus* (Supplementary Table S7A-B). Similarly, *Streptococcus*, *Suttrella*, *Dorea*, *Parabacteroides* and *Bifidobacterium* were 5 of 27 major OTUs in human stool that differed significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) in samples beaten for 4 versus 9 minutes. These results suggest that up to 70% of microbial signatures can be captured with just 4 minutes of bead beating. However, stool samples rich in bacteria such as *Bifidobacterium*, *Streptococcus* and *Adlercreutzia*, etc. may require more than 4 minutes of beating for maximal DNA recovery. These results suggest that 4-5 minutes of bead beating may be sufficient to capture most of the bacterial diversity in mouse and human stool.

## Discussion:

In this study we have systematically assessed the impact of bead beating on microbiome analysis of mouse and human stool. Due to multiple technical and environmental factors, an accurate and reproducible characterization of microbiota composition is a major challenge. Methods of sample storage and collection, DNA extraction, sequencing library preparation and bioinformatics analysis have been shown to contribute variability in 16S results (20-24). Of these, the DNA extraction method is among the most important in that it can introduce bias at the initial step.

Several studies have reported optimization of DNA extraction methods and have developed protocols for extracting microbial DNA from stool samples (8, 9). Large scale microbiome studies such as Human Microbiome Project (HMP), MetaHIT, and the Earth Microbiome Project have reported improved versions of DNA extraction protocols for various types of samples (25-27). The published literature suggests that complete lysis of bacterial cell walls using beads can markedly impact DNA yield as well downstream 16S sequencing results (28, 29). Observed maximal recovery of *Actinobacteria* in samples subjected to bead beating for 9 minutes is consistent with published literature that reports enhanced nucleic acid recovery from Gram-positive organisms with longer disruption of the bacterial cell wall (30). However, there are also other factors such as volume and temperature of elution buffer, type of lysis beads, lysis tubes and columns that were not evaluated in the current study but can also impact overall DNA yield and sequencing data quality.

Our data suggest that bead beating duration strongly impacts the recovery of DNA from several groups of bacteria. For example, optimization of the duration of bead beating enhanced DNA

recovery from *Bifidobacteria*, *Sutterella* and *Veillonella*, three clinically-relevant bacterial groups that are important members of the mouse and human gut microbiome (19, 31-35). *Bifidobacterium*, a genus that is significantly underrepresented in the analysis of unbeaten stool, is one of the major colonizers of the human gastrointestinal tract. These microbes have been shown to provide health benefits to their host and are investigated in the context of various human diseases such as colorectal cancer, necrotizing enterocolitis and inflammatory bowel diseases (31).

By contrast, we found that recovery of DNA from certain bacterial groups was reduced by bead beating. For example, DNA from *Sutterella* and *Veillonella* showed reduced prevalence in samples after bead beating, suggesting sensitivity of these microbes to extensive mechanical lysis. These bacteria are also clinically relevant, as altered abundance of *Sutterella* has been associated with many clinical conditions such as autism spectrum disorder, down syndrome and inflammatory bowel disease (32, 33). Similarly, epidemiological studies in young children have associated *Veillonella* with asthma (34), bronchiolitis (36) and autism (35). Since abundance of these microbes could be clinically informative, it is important to be able accurately and precisely determine their abundance in clinical specimens. Our data suggest that studies targeting *Bifidobacteria* should incorporate longer (up to 9 minutes) bead beating protocols in order to ensure maximal recovery of DNA from these bacteria, while those targeting organisms such as *Sutterella* and *Veillonella* should avoid extensive bead beating for maximal recovery and accurate representation. Our data indicate that 4-5 minutes of bead beating may be appropriate to process samples where the composition of microbiomes are unknown.

In summary, our study demonstrates that the duration of bead beating has a strong impact on the recovery of DNA from clinically relevant microbiota in both mouse and human gut. Our data suggest that a minimum of 4 minutes of bead beating (using Qiagen PowerLyzer) can result in recovery of about 70% of gut microbiota DNA signatures. Further, our study identifies particular groups of bacteria in mouse and human stool that can be recovered with up to 4 minutes of bead beating and those that require extensive bead beating for maximal recovery.

277  
278  
279  
280  
281  
282  
283  
284  
285  
286  
287  
288  
289  
290  
291  
292  
293  
294  
295  
296  
297  
298  
299

**Acknowledgments:**

This study was supported by the UT Southwestern Microbiome Research Laboratory. Authors gratefully acknowledge donors of deidentified human stool samples for the study.

**Author contributions**

B.Z. and M.B. performed experiments; C.A. performed sequencing quality control, C.D. collected mouse stool for study, L.V.H. contributed to manuscript editing and P.R. conceived and designed the experiments and wrote the manuscript.

**Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

**Data availability:** Raw fastq files from mouse and human experiments have been deposited in NCBI SRA database with accession no. PRJNA625828

## Figure legends.

### Figure 1. Experimental workflow for 16S sequencing

Illustration of the experimental workflow. Two mouse and two human stool samples were homogenized using a PowerLyzer 24 Homogenizer (110/220V; Qiagen). DNA was extracted using four different bead beating times, followed by 16S rRNA gene sequencing and analysis.

### Figure 2. *Actinobacteria* are strongly impacted by bead beating in mouse and human stool

Panels A-B: Color coded bar plots showing the phylum level abundance across different bead beating treatments in mouse and human stool, respectively. Panels C-D show abundance of *Actinobacteria* across bead beating treatments in mouse and human stool, respectively. Panels E-F show abundance of *Firmicutes* in mouse and human stool beaten for different times. Panel G-H shows abundance of *Bacteroidetes* in mouse and human stool. Similarly, in Panels I-J, bar plots show abundance of *Proteobacteria* across four bead beating time points in mouse and human stool. Statistical p-values are denoted with \*, # and \$ represent comparison with samples that were unbeaten, or beaten for 1 minute and 4 minutes, respectively.

### Figure 3. Bacterial clusters defined by bead beating time

Panel A: Results of differential abundance analysis. The heatmap shows the top 30 differentially recovered OTUs in mouse and human stool. Panels B-E show the abundance of *Bifidobacterium* across four beating treatments in mouse and human stool. Similarly, Panels F-I show the abundance of *Sutterella* across four beating treatments in mouse and human stool. Data from replicates of mouse and human sample is presented. Statistical p-values

denoted with \*, # and \$ represent comparison with samples that were unbeaten, or beaten for  
1 minute and 4 minutes, respectively.



346

## 347 **References:**

- 348 1. Werner JJ, Zhou D, Caporaso JG, Knight R, Angenent LT. Comparison of Illumina paired-end and  
349 single-direction sequencing for microbial 16S rRNA gene amplicon surveys. The ISME journal.  
350 2012;6(7):1273-6.
- 351 2. The Integrative Human Microbiome Project. Nature. 2019;569(7758):641-8.
- 352 3. Gill SR, Pop M, Deboy RT, Eckburg PB, Turnbaugh PJ, Samuel BS, et al. Metagenomic analysis of  
353 the human distal gut microbiome. Science. 2006;312(5778):1355-9.
- 354 4. Nelson KE, Weinstock GM, Highlander SK, Worley KC, Creasy HH, Wortman JR, et al. A catalog of  
355 reference genomes from the human microbiome. Science. 2010;328(5981):994-9.
- 356 5. Bag S, Saha B, Mehta O, Anbumani D, Kumar N, Dayal M, et al. An Improved Method for High  
357 Quality Metagenomics DNA Extraction from Human and Environmental Samples. Sci Rep. 2016;6:26775.
- 358 6. Baker GC, Smith JJ, Cowan DA. Review and re-analysis of domain-specific 16S primers. Journal of  
359 microbiological methods. 2003;55(3):541-55.
- 360 7. Tremblay J, Singh K, Fern A, Kirton ES, He S, Woyke T, et al. Primer and platform effects on 16S  
361 rRNA tag sequencing. Frontiers in microbiology. 2015;6:771.
- 362 8. Costea PI, Zeller G, Sunagawa S, Pelletier E, Alberti A, Levenez F, et al. Towards standards for  
363 human fecal sample processing in metagenomic studies. Nat Biotechnol. 2017;35(11):1069-76.
- 364 9. Sinha R, Abu-Ali G, Vogtmann E, Fodor AA, Ren B, Amir A, et al. Assessment of variation in  
365 microbial community amplicon sequencing by the Microbiome Quality Control (MBQC) project  
366 consortium. Nat Biotechnol. 2017;35(11):1077-86.
- 367 10. Brooks JP, Edwards DJ, Harwich MD, Jr., Rivera MC, Fettweis JM, Serrano MG, et al. The truth  
368 about metagenomics: quantifying and counteracting bias in 16S rRNA studies. BMC microbiology.  
369 2015;15:66.

- 370 11. Momozawa Y, Deffontaine V, Louis E, Medrano JF. Characterization of bacteria in biopsies of  
371 colon and stools by high throughput sequencing of the V2 region of bacterial 16S rRNA gene in human.  
372 PLoS One. 2011;6(2):e16952.
- 373 12. Willner D, Daly J, Whiley D, Grimwood K, Wainwright CE, Hugenholtz P. Comparison of DNA  
374 extraction methods for microbial community profiling with an application to pediatric bronchoalveolar  
375 lavage samples. PLoS One. 2012;7(4):e34605.
- 376 13. Wu GD, Lewis JD, Hoffmann C, Chen YY, Knight R, Bittinger K, et al. Sampling and  
377 pyrosequencing methods for characterizing bacterial communities in the human gut using 16S sequence  
378 tags. BMC microbiology. 2010;10:206.
- 379 14. Gill C, van de Wijkert JH, Blow F, Darby AC. Evaluation of Lysis Methods for the Extraction of  
380 Bacterial DNA for Analysis of the Vaginal Microbiota. PLoS One. 2016;11(9):e0163148.
- 381 15. Valentini A, Taberlet P, Miaud C, Civade R, Herder J, Thomsen PF, et al. Next-generation  
382 monitoring of aquatic biodiversity using environmental DNA metabarcoding. Mol Ecol. 2016;25(4):929-  
383 42.
- 384 16. von Wintzingerode F, Gobel UB, Stackebrandt E. Determination of microbial diversity in  
385 environmental samples: pitfalls of PCR-based rRNA analysis. FEMS microbiology reviews. 1997;21(3):213-29.
- 386 17. Dilhari A, Sampath A, Gunasekara C, Fernando N, Weerasekara D, Sissons C, et al. Evaluation of  
387 the impact of six different DNA extraction methods for the representation of the microbial community  
388 associated with human chronic wound infections using a gel-based DNA profiling method. AMB Express.  
389 2017;7(1):179.
- 390 18. Kim SJ, Chang J, Singh M. Peptidoglycan architecture of Gram-positive bacteria by solid-state  
391 NMR. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2015;1848(1 Pt B):350-62.

- 393 19. Fiedorova K, Radvansky M, Nemcova E, Grombirikova H, Bosak J, Cernochova M, et al. The  
394 Impact of DNA Extraction Methods on Stool Bacterial and Fungal Microbiota Community Recovery. *Front*  
395 *Microbiol.* 2019;10:821.
- 396 20. A review of 10 years of human microbiome research activities at the US National Institutes of  
397 Health, Fiscal Years 2007-2016. *Microbiome.* 2019;7(1):31.
- 398 21. Penington JS, Penno MAS, Ngui KM, Ajami NJ, Roth-Schulze AJ, Wilcox SA, et al. Influence of  
399 fecal collection conditions and 16S rRNA gene sequencing at two centers on human gut microbiota  
400 analysis. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):4386.
- 401 22. Carroll IM, Ringel-Kulka T, Siddle JP, Klaenhammer TR, Ringel Y. Characterization of the fecal  
402 microbiota using high-throughput sequencing reveals a stable microbial community during storage. *PLoS*  
403 *One.* 2012;7(10):e46953.
- 404 23. Gorzelak MA, Gill SK, Tasnim N, Ahmadi-Vand Z, Jay M, Gibson DL. Methods for Improving  
405 Human Gut Microbiome Data by Reducing Variability through Sample Processing and Storage of Stool.  
406 *PLoS One.* 2015;10(8):e0134802.
- 407 24. Rintala A, Pietila S, Munukka E, Eerola E, Pursiheimo JP, Laiho A, et al. Gut Microbiota Analysis  
408 Results Are Highly Dependent on the 16S rRNA Gene Target Region, Whereas the Impact of DNA  
409 Extraction Is Minor. *J Biomol Tech.* 2017;28(1):19-30.
- 410 25. Structure, function and diversity of the healthy human microbiome. *Nature.*  
411 2012;486(7402):207-14.
- 412 26. Qin J, Li R, Raes J, Arumugam M, Burgdorf KS, Manichanh C, et al. A human gut microbial gene  
413 catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. *Nature.* 2010;464(7285):59-65.
- 414 27. Marotz C, Amir A, Humphrey G, Gaffney J, Gogul G, Knight R. DNA extraction for streamlined  
415 metagenomics of diverse environmental samples. *Biotechniques.* 2017;62(6):290-3.

28. Teng F, Darveekaran Nair SS, Zhu P, Li S, Huang S, Li X, et al. Impact of DNA extraction method and targeted 16S-rRNA hypervariable region on oral microbiota profiling. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):16321.
29. Lim MY, Song EJ, Kim SH, Lee J, Nam YD. Comparison of DNA extraction methods for human gut microbial community profiling. *Syst Appl Microbiol.* 2018;41(2):151-7.
30. Yuan S, Cohen DB, Ravel J, Abdo Z, Forney LJ. Evaluation of methods for the extraction and purification of DNA from the human microbiome. *PLoS One.* 2012;7(3):e33865.
31. O'Callaghan A, van Sinderen D. Bifidobacteria and Their Role as Members of the Human Gut Microbiota. *Front Microbiol.* 2016;7:925.
32. Wang L, Christophersen CT, Sorch MJ, Gerber JP, Angley MT, Conlon MA. Increased abundance of *Sutterella* spp. and *Ruminococcus torques* in feces of children with autism spectrum disorder. *Mol Autism.* 2013;4(1):42.
33. Zhang M, Ma W, Zhang J, He Y, Wang J. Analysis of gut microbiota profiles and microbe-disease associations in children with autism spectrum disorders in China. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):13981.
34. Arrieta MC, Stiemsma LT, Dimitriu PA, Thorson L, Russell S, Yurist-Doutsch S, et al. Early infancy microbial and metabolic alterations affect risk of childhood asthma. *Sci Transl Med.* 2015;7(307):307ra152.
35. Strati F, Cavalieri D, Albanese D, De Felice C, Donati C, Hayek J, et al. New evidences on the altered gut microbiota in autism spectrum disorders. *Microbiome.* 2017;5(1):24.
36. Hasegawa K, Linnemann RW, Mansbach JM, Ajami NJ, Espinola JA, Petrosino JF, et al. The Fecal Microbiota Profile and Bronchiolitis in Infants. *Pediatrics.* 2016;138(1).

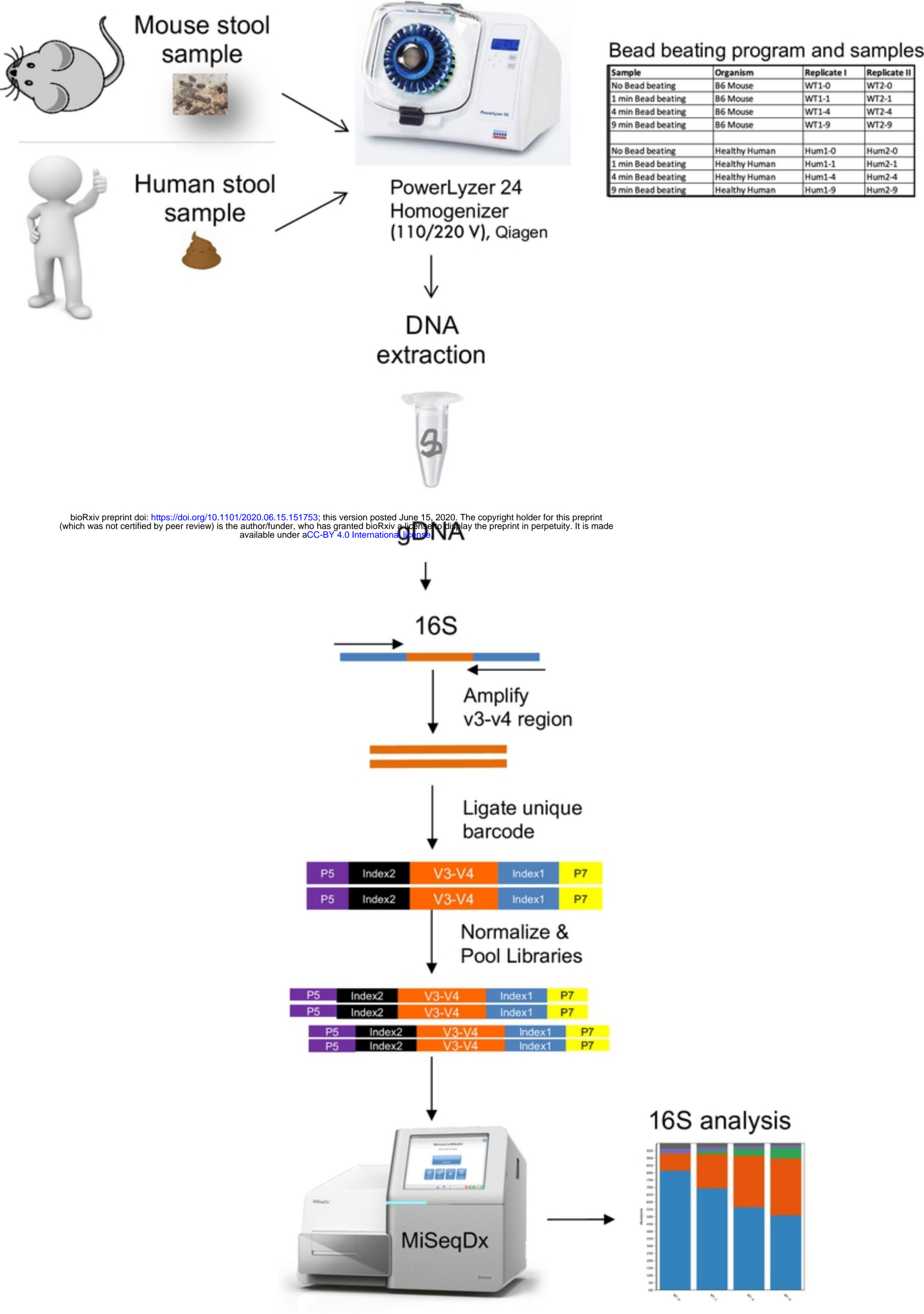


Fig 1

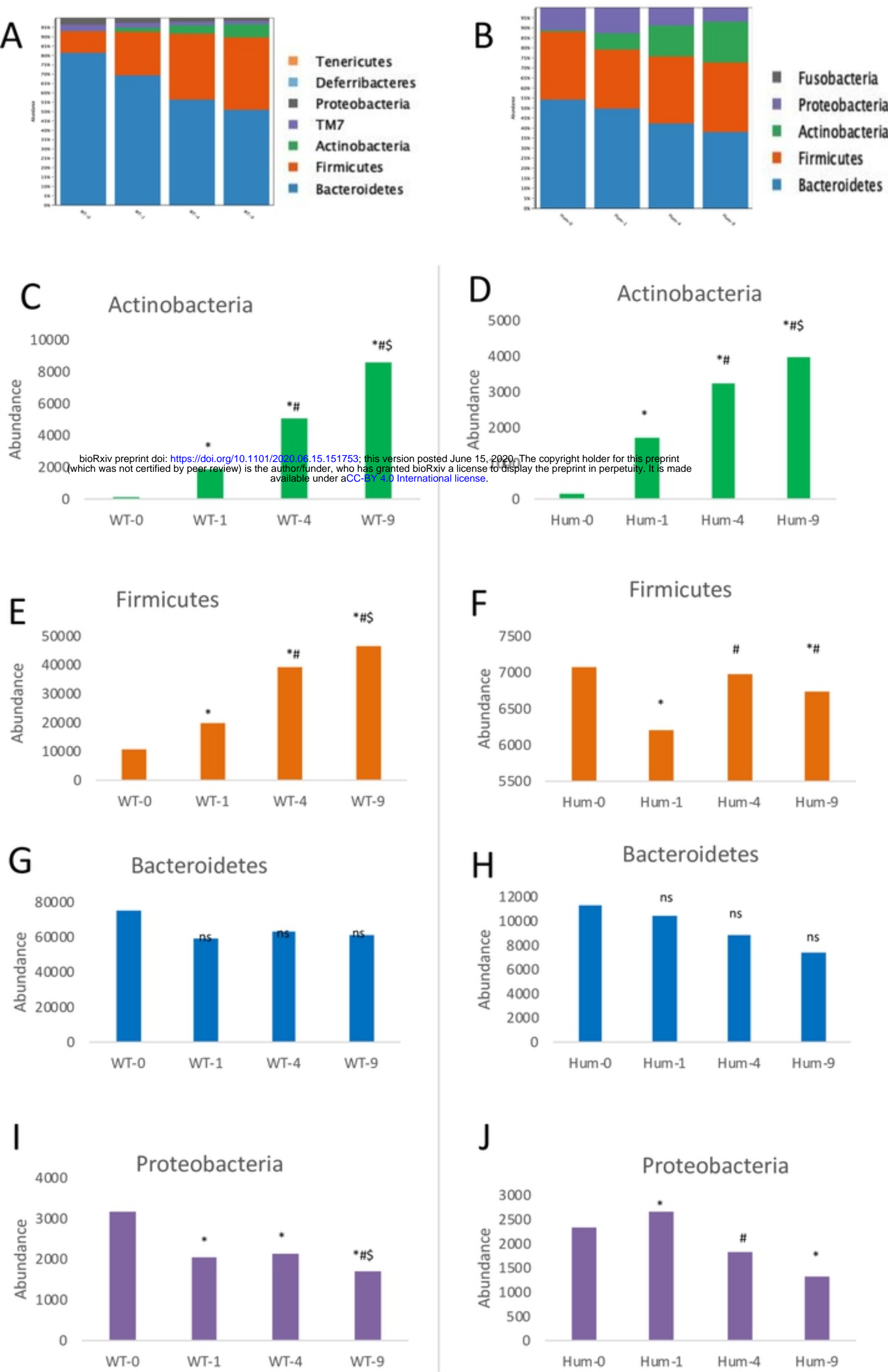
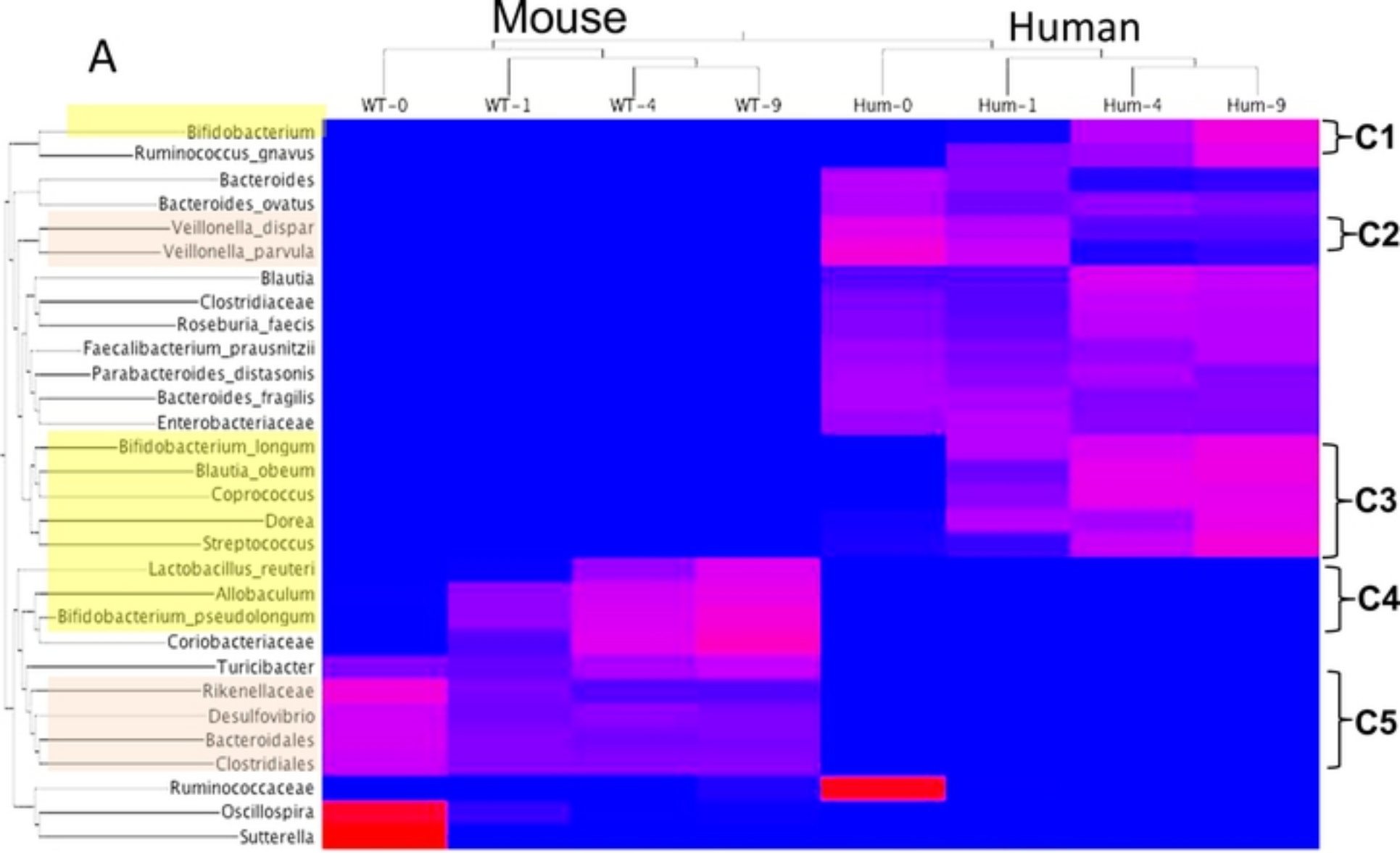


Fig 2





bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.15.151753>; this version posted June 15, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

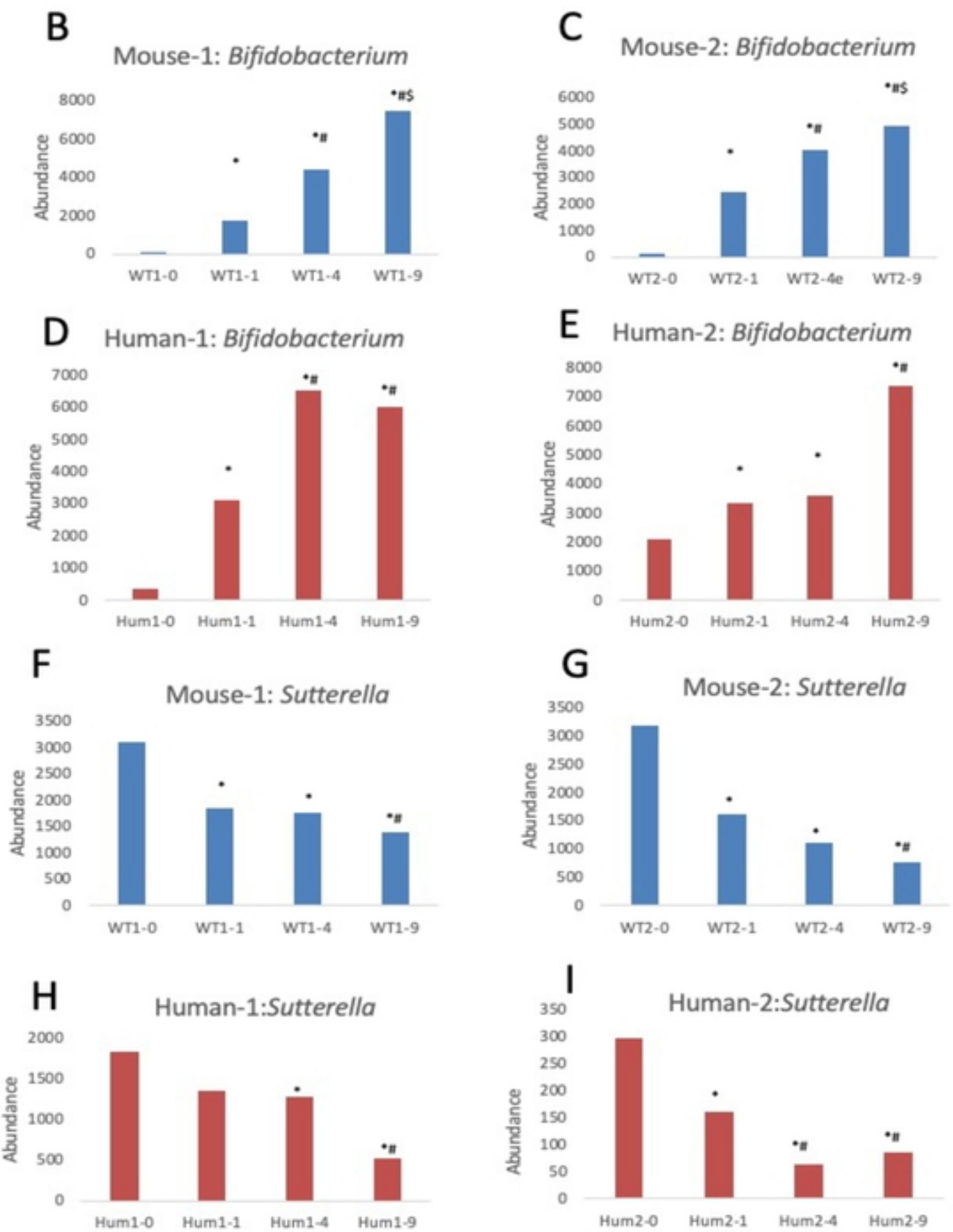


Fig 3