



Time to act-assessing variations in qPCR analyses in biological nitrogen removal with examples from partial nitrification/anammox systems

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Total number of authors:

11

Published in:

Water Research

Link to article, DOI:

[10.1016/j.watres.2020.116604](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2020.116604)

Publication date:

2021

Document Version

Peer reviewed version

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

Citation (APA):

Agrawal, S., Weissbrodt, D. G., Annavajhala, M., Jensen, M. M., Arroyo, J. M. C., Wells, G., Chandran, K., Vlaeminck, S. E., Terada, A., Smets, B. F., & Lackner, S. (2021). Time to act-assessing variations in qPCR analyses in biological nitrogen removal with examples from partial nitrification/anammox systems. *Water Research*, 190, Article 116604. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2020.116604>

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1 ***Time to act – assessing variations in qPCR analyses in biological nitrogen***
2 ***removal with examples from partial nitrification/anammox systems***

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27 **Keywords:** *deammonification; Nitrobacter; Nitrospira; DNA extraction; nitrification;*
28 *inter-laboratory*

30 **Abstract**

31 Quantitative PCR (qPCR) is broadly used as the gold standard to quantify microbial
32 community fractions in environmental microbiology and biotechnology. Benchmarking
33 efforts to ensure the comparability of qPCR data for environmental bioprocesses are
34 still scarce. Also, for partial nitrification/anammox (PN/A) systems systematic
35 investigations are still missing, rendering meta-analysis of reported trends and generic
36 insights potentially precarious. We report a baseline investigation of the variability of
37 qPCR-based analyses for microbial communities applied to PN/A systems. Round-
38 robin testing was performed for three PN/A biomass samples in six laboratories, using
39 the respective in-house DNA extraction and qPCR protocols. The concentration of
40 extracted DNA was significantly different between labs, ranged between 2.7 and 328
41 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass. The variability among the qPCR abundance data of different labs
42 was very high (1–7 log fold) but differed for different target microbial guilds. DNA
43 extraction caused maximum variation (3–7 log fold), followed by the primers (1–3 log
44 fold). These insights will guide environmental scientists and engineers as well as
45 treatment plant operators in the interpretation of qPCR data.

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Fluorescence-based quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) is a popular tool in
49 environmental microbiology and biotechnology (Sanz and Köchling, 2007; Yoo *et al.*,
50 2017). It allows investigations into the microbial community and functional ecology of
51 complex and multi-species biosystems. In qPCR, the template DNA is initially
52 denatured, followed by annealing of specific primers and subsequently extending the
53 complementary strand by a DNA polymerase, which, in a series of cycles results in an
54 exponential increase in amplicon numbers. The use of a fluorescent dye binding to the
55 double stranded DNA enables quantification of the amplicon in every PCR cycle.
56 Therefore, the success of qPCR relies mainly on (1) the DNA extraction efficiency
57 which influences the quality of DNA templates, because coextraction of humic
58 substances has been reported to severely inhibit qPCR (Roh *et al.*, 2006; Han, Li, *et*
59 *al.*, 2013), and (2) the availability and selection of appropriate primers. Many studies
60 emphasize the importance of careful primer selection, with a special focus on primer
61 specificity and a targeted amplification product (Frank *et al.*, 2008; Smith and Osborn,
62 2009; Guo and Zhang, 2013a; Orschler *et al.*, 2019).

63 Its simplicity, combined with its potential for high analytical sensitivity for absolute
64 quantification of target genes and specificity, makes it the method of choice for a suite
65 of applications (Orschler *et al.*, 2019). Many fields, like biological, microbiological,
66 immunological, medical, agricultural, environmental, and engineering sciences employ
67 PCR methods to detect specific genes (usually as a proxy for a specific microbe or a
68 group of microbes) in a background of genes (extracted from a microbiome sample).
69 More than 166,000 published studies collected using “Real time PCR” as keyword in
70 the SCOPUS database (accessed 08/04/2020) have used this well-recognized

71 analytical procedure for the quantification of phylotypes and genes in biological
72 samples.

73 The lack of *a priori* knowledge of a certain microbiome limits the application of qPCR
74 on poorly or newly-examined microbiomes as a primary probing step (Orschler *et al.*,
75 2019). Rather, open-format metagenetic (e.g., based on 16S rRNA gene amplicon
76 sequencing) or metagenomic (based on shotgun sequencing) approaches must first
77 be employed to provide necessary information for primer choice or design (Pester *et*
78 *al.*, 2014; Fumasoli *et al.*, 2017). However, such approaches are vastly more costly
79 and analysis-intensive, and furthermore, they do not provide absolute abundance
80 information (Widder *et al.*, 2016). qPCR has therefore been heralded as the 'gold
81 standard' for quantification of specific microbial populations or functional genes.

82 Wastewater microbiomes, such as activated sludge, granular sludge or biofilms, have
83 been extensively examined using qPCR methods. The additional information that
84 becomes available by qPCR analyses is particularly important for systems with delicate
85 metabolic interactions due to the required syntrophy between different microbial
86 groups. Partial nitrification/anammox (PN/A), a process whose success largely depends
87 on such a delicate balance between multiple microbial functions (Vlaeminck *et al.*,
88 2012; Agrawal *et al.*, 2018), has thus been widely investigated by qPCR (De Clippeleir
89 *et al.*, 2013; Hu *et al.*, 2013; Gilbert *et al.*, 2014; Pellicer-Nàcher *et al.*, 2014; Persson
90 *et al.*, 2014; Ma *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2017). qPCR provides the opportunity to
91 quantitatively follow and understand the microbial community, its functionalities and
92 the competition for resources during the conversion of nitrogen from ammonium to
93 dinitrogen gas. Notwithstanding the apparent simplicity and quantitative nature of
94 qPCR, its application to identical microbial communities using different primer pairs
95 can result in different relative abundances of target microbial groups. For example,

96 Orschler *et al.*, (2019) reported up to 40% and Han, Huang, *et al.*, (2013) up to 22%
97 variation in the relative abundance of anoxic ammonium-oxidizing bacteria (AnAOB) in
98 a wastewater microbiome depending on the primers used. Due to the discrepancies in
99 qPCR results in PN/A studies, Zhang and Okabe (2020) also emphasized that the
100 comparison of AnAOB compositions between studies may not be entirely accurate.
101 One of the reasons for these discrepancies is a general lack of standardization of
102 qPCR analyses in the field of wastewater treatment. To allow for better comparability
103 between reported results, similar to other research fields like plant pathology (Braun-
104 Kiewnick *et al.*, 2016), surface water for pathogens (Shanks *et al.*, 2012), or soil
105 microbiomes (Pan *et al.*, 2010), benchmarking efforts have to be made. Until now only
106 one study (Rocha *et al.*, 2018) has performed inter-laboratory assessments of qPCR
107 analyses in the field of wastewater treatment, however, focused only on antibiotic
108 resistance genes.

109 The standardization in reporting of individual qPCR assays and their analysis has been
110 accelerated by the introduction of the framework “minimum information for publication
111 of quantitative real-time PCR experiments” (MIQE guidelines) which suggests to
112 provide information about the qPCR assay reagents, primer sequences, qPCR
113 conditions, and data analysis software in the publications (Bustin *et al.*, 2009).
114 However, the accuracy and precision of qPCR based analyses of microbial community
115 compositions have rarely been questioned or examined, which is in clear contrast to
116 analytical methods for environmental or water chemistry (Eaton *et al.*, 2005; European
117 Commission, 2009). We posit that the qPCR assay, *per se*, is not the primary cause of
118 inaccuracy and imprecision. Most laboratories to date, if not explicitly stated, adhere to
119 the MIQE guidelines. However, we postulate that deviating results, to a larger extent,
120 derive from differences in preparatory steps (such as DNA extraction (Guo and Zhang,

121 2013b)) and the use of differing qPCR primer sets for the same target groups that vary
122 widely in selectivity (Dechesne *et al.*, 2016), and the resulting conversion between
123 gene copy numbers and inferred community fractions (Kembel *et al.*, 2012).

124 Here we aimed to assess biases and imprecisions associated with qPCR quantification
125 of the core guilds in a community of multiple interacting functional groups, *in casu* PN/A
126 communities: where aerobic ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB), AnAOB, and aerobic
127 nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) all interact. To this end, round robin testing was set up
128 by six laboratories for three different biomass samples. Each laboratory employed
129 literature-documented procedures (i.e., qPCR primers and conditions) and adhered to
130 the *in-house* standard operating protocols (SOPs). The results are intended to raise
131 awareness of the need for global harmonization of the SOPs in qPCR and data
132 analyses – and wet-lab / dry-lab molecular biology methods in general – in order to
133 substantially decrease the levels of analytical variations, and thereby increase
134 comparability.

135

136 **2. Materials and Methods**

137 **2.1. Sample collection and exchange**

138 We collected 50 ml fresh sample from three different lab-scale PN/A reactors in three
139 different countries. These three reactors employed different technologies, i.e., one was
140 a sequencing batch reactor, one a fixed bed biofilm reactor, and one a rotating
141 biological contractor. All systems had been operated for at least several months or
142 even years under PN/A conditions. The samples were stored in a freezer (-80°C) until
143 shipping to the six participating laboratories, here listed in alphabetical order: Columbia
144 University, USA; Ghent University, Belgium; Northwestern University, USA; Technical

145 University of Darmstadt, Germany; Technical University of Denmark, Denmark; Tokyo
146 University of Agriculture and Technology, Japan. Participating laboratories were
147 blinded to sample collection methods or sample types until consolidated data release
148 at the end of the baseline experiment.

149

150 **2.2. DNA extraction**

151 All laboratories upon receipt of the samples froze the sample sets at -80°C before
152 DNA extraction. The majority of laboratories (4/6) used the FastSpin soil kit for DNA
153 extraction, and one used the Qiagen QIAamp kit. One laboratory used an in-house
154 protocol. See Supplementary Data (DNA extraction protocols.xlsx) for the detailed
155 DNA extraction protocol of each laboratory.

156 **2.3. qPCR**

157 Quantification was based on (i) 16S rRNA genes targeting AnAOB, *Nitrobacter*,
158 *Nitrospira*, and total bacteria, and on (ii) functional genes for hydrazine synthase (*hzsA*)
159 and hydrazine oxidoreductase (*hzo*) for AnAOB, ammonia monooxygenase (*amoA*) for
160 AOB, nitrite oxidoreductase (*nxrA*) for *Nitrobacter*, and nitrite oxidoreductase (*nxrA* and
161 *nxB*) targeting *Nitrospira*. These genes were selected based on their wide usage in
162 WWTP microbiome studies (Agrawal et al., 2018). All participating laboratories
163 performed qPCR using their established protocols. Primers used by each lab are
164 provided in the supplementary information (List of primers used.xlsx).

165

166 **2.4. Data Analysis**

167 Comparative analysis of extracted DNA, as well as qPCR data, was performed in order
168 to determine the extent of variation. The Box-plot analysis was performed in ggplot2
169 (3.1.1) and vegan (2.5.4) R packages for variance assessment (Wickham, 2016).
170 Bray–Curtis dissimilarity index was used to identify which laboratories showed more
171 consensus in qPCR data, across and within the samples, for each target gene,
172 respectively. Two-way ANOVA analysis was performed to determine the significant
173 factors (i.e., DNA extraction, primers, labs) responsible for the observed variance, and
174 to compare qPCR data interpretation approaches (i.e., absolute quantification vs.
175 proportionality) to determine the approach with less variance.

176

177 **2.5. Data Availability**

178 The authors declare that all the data supporting the findings of this study are available
179 within the article and its supplementary appendix.

180

181 **3. Results and Discussion**

182 To evaluate the reproducibility of qPCR results, six labs carried out qPCR analyses on
183 the same three biomass samples (S1 – S3) employing their routine protocols. The
184 biomass samples originated from three laboratory PN/A-reactors at three different labs
185 and were distributed amongst all six labs. We first compared the protocols used in each
186 lab to determine the similarities and differences (Figure 1) and their impact on qPCR
187 measurement outputs.

188

189 **3.1. Yield of DNA**

190 All labs extracted DNA according to their established methods. Lab 1 to Lab 4 used
191 the Fast DNA Spin kit (physical extraction method); (2) Lab 5 used an *in-house*
192 prepared Fast prep method (physical extraction method); and (3) Lab 6 used the
193 QIAmp DNA kit (enzymatic lysis) (Figure 1). The yield of extracted DNA varied
194 significantly (p -value is $< .00001$) between the labs, and was affected by the selected
195 extraction kit and by protocol particularities between labs that used the same extraction
196 kit, i.e. labs 1, 2, 3 and 4 (Figure 2 A). Although labs 1, 2, 3 and 4 used the same
197 extraction method, the mass fractions of extracted DNA ranged from 3 – 173 ng mg⁻¹
198 wet biomass for S1, 34 – 226 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass for S2, and 3 – 123 ng mg⁻¹ wet
199 biomass for S3. These four labs used the same protocol, the only difference being the
200 duration of the homogenization step. Labs 1, 2, and 3 performed homogenization only
201 for 40 seconds, whereas lab 4 for 1 minute. The longer homogenization yielded more
202 DNA, as shown in Figure 2 A. This increase in recovery of DNA was likely due to better
203 lysis of microcolonies and separation of cells from the extracellular polymeric
204 substances (EPS). Both have been reported to impact the recovery of DNA (Guo and
205 Zhang, 2013b; Albertsen *et al.*, 2015).

206 Lab 5 used an *in-house* Fastprep method which resulted in an overall lower recovery
207 of DNA ranging from 4 – 13 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass for S1, 42 – 63 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass
208 for S2, and 7 – 10 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass for S3, even though it also used a physical
209 extraction method similar to those labs using the commercial kits. The commercial kits
210 include a spin column for purification and recovery of DNA. The *in-house* Fastprep
211 method included chloroform/isoamyl alcohol purification and isopropanol precipitation.
212 This procedure requires several transfer steps for purification of the DNA, and thus,
213 results in loss of DNA during the multiple transfer stages, which is unavoidable (Merk
214 *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, lab 5 used agarose gel electrophoresis as a final purification

215 step, which could also result in a lower DNA yield (Miller *et al.*, 1999). Previous studies
216 comparing DNA extraction methods with activated sludge samples report higher DNA
217 yields using physical over enzymatic extraction (Vanysacker *et al.*, 2010; Guo and
218 Zhang, 2013b). Our data does not distinctly support this. Figure 2 A reveals that lab 6,
219 using the enzyme-based extraction, recovered the most DNA for S1 (i.e. 205 – 328
220 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass) and was second to lab 4 for S2 (i.e. 141 – 224 ng mg⁻¹ wet
221 biomass) and S3 (i.e. 54 – 76 ng mg⁻¹ wet biomass). The different architecture of the
222 PN/A biomass compared to that of activated sludge flocs might be one reason for the
223 different performance of the enzyme-based method. Due to the lack of consensus in
224 the performance of the different extraction methods, it is time to reassess DNA
225 extraction methods according to the needs and analytical goals of various
226 environmental biotechnology applications, such as the PN/A system.

227 **3.2. Quantification of AnAOB, AOB, and NOB**

228 All six labs performed qPCR analysis for AOB, AnAOB, *Nitrobacter*, *Nitrospira* and total
229 bacteria (EUB), but the primers used for each target group varied between the labs
230 (Figure 1). The slopes of the standard curves, Y-intercept values and amplification
231 efficiencies are provided in the supplementary information. Figure 2 B clearly shows
232 the impact of this matter. The different microbial guilds were affected differently by the
233 DNA extraction method and primer choices of the laboratories, respectively. In the case
234 of AnAOB, the measured abundances varied even between the labs that used the
235 same primers (i.e., 3 log fold difference between lab 3 and lab 6). At the same time,
236 the results were relatively similar between labs using different primers (i.e., labs 1 and
237 2). Although labs 1, 2, 3 and 4 used different primers, the measured abundances for
238 sample S2 and S3 were relatively similar. Similar observations were made when
239 comparing abundances measured using functional genes (S.Figure 1). The AOB

240 abundance results, however, varied significantly, exhibiting up to 6 log fold variations
241 (Figure 2 B), even though all labs used the same primer pair. Also, the total bacteria
242 (EUB) concentrations measured by labs 1, 4, and 6 varied significantly between
243 $2.27E+02$ gene copies/ng DNA (lab 1) to $2.87E+09$, gene copies/ng DNA (lab 6),
244 although the same primer pair was used with different DNA extraction methods. For
245 *Nitrobacter* and *Nitrospira* there was an up to 7 log fold variation between abundances
246 measured in the different laboratories (Figure 2 B, S.Figure 1), suggesting that both,
247 DNA extraction method and primer choices, affected their quantification. Overall, lab 6
248 reported a higher abundance of all the microbial targets in comparison to the other labs
249 (S.Figure 2). This suggests that the use of enzyme-based DNA extraction led to either
250 over-estimation or the physical extraction methods led to an under-estimation of the
251 target microbial groups.

252 **3.3. Variation due to the DNA extraction method**

253 DNA extraction methods are a known source of variation between assays aiming at
254 quantifying the composition of microbial communities (Smith and Osborn, 2009; Bonot
255 *et al.*, 2010; Albertsen *et al.*, 2015). We separated the variations caused by the different
256 DNA extraction methods from the variation due to the different samples by comparing
257 the global abundance (across all three samples) measured by the labs using the same
258 extraction method, *i.e.*, FastDNA Spin Kit (S.Figure 3 A). The largest variation was
259 observed for AOB concentrations (6 log fold variation) even though all labs used the
260 same primer set. For AnAOB, EUB, and *Nitrobacter* the observed variations were 5 log
261 fold, for *Nitrospira* 3 log fold.

262 The abundance variation due to different extraction methods was also compared
263 between labs (S.Figure 3 B). The two-way ANOVA revealed a significant effect of the

264 DNA extraction method ($p < 0.0001$) on the observed abundances compared to the
265 primer pairs. The most significant effect of the extraction method appeared for AnAOB
266 quantification. Previous studies have only focused on the evaluation and design of
267 primer pairs for AnAOB identification and quantification (Harhangi *et al.*, 2012; Han,
268 Huang, *et al.*, 2013; Sonthiphand and Neufeld, 2013) but neglected the impact of DNA
269 extraction on the quantification of AnAOB. There is no disagreement about the need
270 for good primer pairs. However, there is a lack of studies to anticipate whether the most
271 commonly used DNA extraction methods for activated sludge are also suitable for
272 PN/A microbial communities containing AnAOB. The specific nature of PN/A
273 communities, be it the dense granules or biofilm that is formed in these systems or the
274 specific cell morphology of AnAOB, could be an important factor. The same goes for
275 other specific factors of other microbial communities which differ from activated sludge
276 in terms of composition and structure (for example, the differentiation between more
277 planktonic or more biofilm favoring environments).

278

279 **3.4. Sample-specific effect on variation**

280 To quantify the sample effect on the measured abundances, we evaluated within- and
281 between-sample variations (Figure 3). Each of the box plots in Figure 3 summarizes
282 gene abundances for each functional guild, regardless of the extraction method and
283 the applied primer sets. Overall, variations differed between samples, with the
284 maximum variation in sample S1 followed by S2 and S3 (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity
285 index: S1= 0.93; S2= 0.76; and S3= 0.69). However, the variations varied for each
286 microbial target in the samples, respectively. The largest variation for AnAOB and

287 *Nitrobacter* occurred in S1, while the abundances of EUB, AOB, and *Nitrospira* varied
288 mainly in S2.

289

290 **3.5. Quantification using ratios**

291 Studies on developing and troubleshooting of PN/A systems require quantifying the
292 amounts of AOB, AnAOB, *Nitrobacter*, and *Nitrospira*, respectively. Although the
293 absolute quantity of the target microorganisms in a PN/A system is desired, the results
294 are often also interpreted as the proportion of AnAOB relative to other microbial groups
295 (i.e. AOB, *Nitrobacter*, *Nitrospira*). For example, Winkler *et al.*, 2012; Shi *et al.*, 2016
296 and Wang *et al.*, 2019, discussed the performance of their reactors in terms of the ratio
297 of AnAOB to other microbial groups. Therefore, we also compared the ratios of
298 AnAOB:AOB; AnAOB:*Nitrobacter* and AnAOB:*Nitrospira* resulting from the
299 quantitative analyses of the different labs. Figure 4 shows that the variation between
300 the ratios of AnAOB:AOB was smaller than the variation between the absolute
301 abundances of AnAOB and AOB by the different labs. However, this was not true for
302 the AnAOB:*Nitrobacter* and AnAOB:*Nitrospira* ratios. Proportionality could help to
303 reduce the impact of the systematic variations, because ratios are unaffected from the
304 scale of the data (van den Boogaart and Tolosana-Delgado, 2008), but one needs to
305 be careful and determine whether usage of ratios is valid only for an individual qPCR
306 analysis or for all the qPCR analyses.

307

308 **3.6. Guidance for dealing with the current situation**

309 This collaborative effort was stimulated by the need for reproducibility and
310 transferability of qPCR analyses of PN/A systems, in order to establish common and

311 generic process insights as well as a consensus on the approaches to perform
312 analyses and data interpretation. Meta-understanding of the process should be as
313 generic as possible, moving beyond multiple individual case studies (Agrawal *et al.*,
314 2018; Li *et al.*, 2018; Orschler *et al.*, 2019). We found that each step of qPCR
315 quantification, including sample handling, DNA extraction, primers, qPCR kits, and
316 data analysis, has the potential to introduce variations of comparable effect size to that
317 of sample differences. Along with previous studies related to molecular
318 characterizations of activated sludge systems (Bru *et al.*, 2008; Smith and Osborn,
319 2009; Albertsen *et al.*, 2015; Keene-Beach and Noguera, 2018), our results indicate
320 that carrying out qPCR analyses is challenging at present because almost any protocol
321 choice has the potential to yield unique results.

322 Therefore, the goal of this research was to assess the extent of variation in qPCR
323 analyses of BNR systems using PN/A as an example and provide information that
324 allows environmental scientists, engineers, and WWTP operators to make informed
325 choices. Therefore, answers are needed for the following questions: (1) How should
326 data analysis and interpretation occur?; (2) What is the tolerance range for the
327 variations and how can data be interpreted within the given variation ranges?; (3) In
328 which case can such measurements be used, and in which case not? Or simply: can
329 we even rely on this data?; (4) Can we compare studies with each other?; (5) How do
330 we consider the uncertainties in these results, e.g., when such data is used in
331 mathematical models.

332 In the end, one has to be aware of variation ranges, and integrate them in data
333 interpretation, as practically feasible. Summarizing our qPCR analyses of PN/A
334 systems, we herewith advocate a decision tree (Figure 5) that can help to objectively
335 interpret and compare qPCR results. The decision tree intends to visualize and

336 integrate the scale of the uncertainty associated with the qPCR data analysis. The fix-
337 point for the interpretation is the availability of a reference gene - here we define
338 reference gene as a gene that represents the total bacterial population of a sample.

339 Previously published PN/A studies that also focus on the microbial community can be
340 divided into two groups: (1) studies that use the 16S rRNA gene or other housekeeping
341 genes like *rpoB* gene as reference gene (Dahllöf *et al.*, 2000), to determine the total
342 bacterial population and use those as a basis to quantify the total microbial community
343 in a reactor (for example Park *et al.*, 2010; Pellicer-Nàcher *et al.*, 2014; Blum, 2018);
344 (2) studies that do not quantify the total bacterial population and only focus on certain
345 target microbial groups (for example De Clippeleir *et al.*, 2013; Persson *et al.*, 2017;
346 Zhao *et al.*, 2018). Such uses of qPCR are common and permeate the literature for
347 quantification of target microbial groups. Therefore, as a first step, it is essential to
348 determine whether a reference gene, which represent the total bacterial abundance, is
349 quantified or not; and whether the presence of the reference gene is as expected or
350 not. This can serve as a first base to determine the extent of uncertainty in different
351 quantification approaches or aims: (a) absolute quantification of target genes; (b)
352 relative quantification of target genes to a reference gene; and (c) proportional
353 quantification of different target genes associated with different microbes (Figure 5).

354 For instance, we found that the abundances of our reference gene, (EUB - based on
355 the quantification of the 16S rRNA gene) reported by the labs were less than the sum
356 of the abundances of the target genes for the microbial groups of interest (i.e., AnAOB,
357 AOB, *Nitrobacter* and *Nitrospira*; Figure 2 B). However, the abundance of the
358 reference gene (which represent the total microbial population) must always be higher,
359 after accounting for the target gene copies per genome, than that of any target gene
360 (associated with a specific microbial group) or their total sum. Thus, in such a scenario,

361 it is clear that either unintentional selective DNA extraction has occurred or the primer
362 choice has introduced bias in quantification. Absolute as well as relative quantification
363 depends upon the measured abundance of the reference gene because it is
364 associated with total microbial abundance in PN/A and also other engineered
365 ecosystems. Therefore, we suggest to only use absolute or relative quantifications
366 when the abundance of the reference gene is higher than that of the microbial group
367 specific target genes (Figure 5). Alternatives to the 16S rRNA gene as reference gene
368 for quantification of total bacterial populations, other reference genes such as the *rpoB*
369 gene could be considered, to overcome the limitations of the 16S rRNA gene (Orschler
370 *et al.*, 2019). For example, Case *et al.*, (2007) showed that the *rpoB* gene can
371 complement results obtained by the 16S rRNA gene.

372 When using the ratios of microbial group specific target genes, we suggest, as shown
373 in Figure 5, that with the present state of standardization, the ratios of the target genes
374 might still be used even if the abundance of the reference gene was not as expected.
375 However, such proportionalities may not necessarily help to overcome uncertainties
376 due to presence of large variations between the data, like we show in Figure 4.

377

378 **4. Conclusions**

379 Using the PN/A microbial community as an example, we emphasize the need for
380 standardization of qPCR analysis, so that qPCR-based assessment of microbial
381 community compositions can become comparable and a reliable decision-making tool
382 for monitoring and operation of wastewater treatment plants. In our view, DNA
383 extraction methods, and primer selection have large effects on the variations in the
384 qPCR analyses, resulting in lack of reproducibility. Furthermore, we found that a DNA

385 extraction method may perform better for one type of sample and microorganism but
386 not for another sample or microorganism. Therefore, as the next phase, we expect to
387 carry out systematic surveys (1) of the DNA extraction protocols for different types of
388 PN/A biomasses such as suspended biomasses, (small) granules and substratum-
389 based biofilms, to understand how different extraction methods perform in different
390 biomass or community types; (2) of available primers for their performance for different
391 set of samples. These surveys will be used to determine the extent of uncertainties of
392 qPCR quantification approaches, which are carried out in different laboratories,
393 including our own, to develop and further improve a community-based standardization.

394

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