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8

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22 **Abstract**

23 Relative microbiome profiling (RMP) using new sequencing approaches has limited capacity to detect
24 shifts in microbial abundances. The growing need for absolute abundances has led to advances in
25 absolute microbiome profiling (AMP). However, the performance and universal applicability of these
26 various AMP methods remain unclear. Here, the two most popular AMP methods, spike-in method
27 (spike-AMP) and quantitative PCR combined with high-throughput sequencing (qPCR-AMP), were
28 evaluated in soil microbiota research. Our results showed that the quantitative results based on spike-
29 AMP were inconsistent with expected trends. The spike-derived absolute abundance was indeterminate
30 and highly dependent on the amount of spike added. Furthermore, no good correlation was found
31 between the addition of spike copies and output of spike reads, especially at low spike levels,
32 contradicting the theoretical assumption of the spike-in method. Spike addition consumed substantial
33 sequencing resources, and more importantly, it altered the original microbial community structure,
34 explaining 16.1%–36.2% of structural variation. In contrast, the more common qPCR-AMP method
35 provided valuable insights into the understanding of soil microbial dynamics in response to straw
36 addition. Our results showed that the straw-induced variations in some dominant phyla such as
37 *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteriota* and *Ascomycota* could only be detected by absolute rather than
38 relative microbial profiling. We inferred microbial networks based on absolute and relative data
39 matrices, respectively, and observed that the choice of data type essentially impacted the patterns of co-
40 occurrence networks and the recognition of module hubs. The keystones and enriched phyla only
41 detected by absolute microbial profiling were confirmed to be involved in straw decomposition by a
42 stable isotope probing experiment. Overall, AMP can provide valuable insights into the understanding

43 of soil microbial dynamics in response to environmental fluctuations. Given its stability and technical

44 feasibility, qPCR-AMP may be broadly applicable to soil microbiota quantitative research.

45

46 **Keywords:** absolute microbiome profiling, spike-in, absolute abundance, qPCR, soil microbial

47 community

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Microorganisms are diverse forms of life and thrive in almost all environments. Their
50 composition and function have substantial impacts on human health (Fan and Pedersen, 2021), global
51 element cycling (Crowther et al., 2019), crop production (Charpentier and Oldroyd, 2010) and plant
52 disease resistance (Kwak et al., 2018). Advances in high-throughput sequencing technologies have
53 contributed to the surge of microbial sequencing data (White et al., 2016), but similar to previous
54 fingerprinting approaches, such as denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis or terminal restriction
55 fragment length polymorphism, relative microbiome profiling (RMP) obtained from sequencing data
56 overlooks absolute microbial abundance. However, without absolute quantification, it is challenging to
57 build a more comprehensive understanding of how dynamics of microbiome abundance vary across
58 space, time, and in response to environmental fluctuations (Vandeputte et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017;
59 Tkacz et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019; Boshier et al., 2020).

60 Currently, absolute microbiome profiling (AMP) has been developed to overcome the innate
61 limitation of high-throughput sequencing (Tourlousse et al., 2017; Vandeputte et al., 2017). There are
62 three main types of AMP: (i) spike-in method (spike-AMP) (Fig. 1a–d, f); (ii) quantitative PCR
63 combined with sequencing data (qPCR-AMP) (Fig. 1e, f); and (iii) flow cytometry (FCM) combined
64 with sequencing data (FCM-AMP). Spike-AMP, similar to strategies adopted for RNA-seq (Jiang et al.,
65 2011), has been used to extrapolate absolute abundances of microbial communities by adding a known
66 amount of spike to environmental samples. According to the form of the spike, spike-AMP can be
67 further divided into three different workflows (Fig. 1b–d). First, a known amount of single spike was
68 added into environmental samples (Smets et al., 2016) or into DNA extracts (Guo et al., 2019), and the
69 absolute abundance of a specific taxon can be obtained based on the input of spike copies and output of

70 sequencing reads (i.e., method #1 in Fig. 1b, f). However, the challenge of the single spike-in method
71 was the selection of a suitable spike concentration because low levels of spikes can easily be retained in
72 environmental samples (e.g., soils) and high levels of spikes might be oversaturated (Tkacz et al.,
73 2018). In general, preliminary tests that a single spike with different gradient concentrations was added
74 into environmental samples (Tkacz et al., 2018) or DNA extracts (Guo et al., 2019) were conducted to
75 determine the appropriate amount of spike addition (i.e., method #2 in Fig. 1c). In an exploratory study,
76 Tkacz et al. (2018) found that the optimum spike levels of 16S rRNA gene, 18S rRNA gene and ITS
77 region should account for 20%–80% of total sequencing reads. If the absolute microbial abundances
78 between samples vary greatly, the optimal spike concentration of each sample needs to be determined.
79 Because of the laboriousness and complexities of method #2, an alternative method was to use one
80 spike mixture to replace method #2 (Tourlousse et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2019; Gao and Sun, 2020;
81 Mou et al., 2020) (i.e., method #3 in Fig. 1d). The absolute abundance of specific taxa can be
82 determined based on the generated spike linear relationship (Fig. 1d, f). However, the spike mixture
83 might account for a larger proportion of sequencing data when compared with the addition of a single
84 spike. For example, the spike mixture with nine different spikes could consume 41.7% of total reads in
85 a given amplicon library (Jiang et al., 2019). In addition to spike-AMP, integrating qPCR-based gene
86 copies (Zhang et al., 2017; Lou et al., 2018; Boshier et al., 2020) (Fig. 1e, f) or FCM-based cell counts
87 (Vandeputte et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Vieira-Silva et al., 2019) into sequencing workflow have
88 been applied to calculate the absolute abundance of a specific taxon in human gut, soil and vagina
89 microbiomes. In addition to using spike-AMP or qPCR/FCM-AMP alone, Zemb et al. (2020) have
90 proposed a framework in which spike-ins and qPCR data were integrated to calculate the absolute
91 microbial abundances.

92 AMP represented a significant advance in microbial quantification, enriching the interpretation of
93 microbial sequencing data from human gut (Stammler et al., 2016; Vandeputte et al., 2017; Vieira-
94 Silva et al., 2019; Rao et al., 2021), vagina (Boshier et al., 2020), soil (Smets et al., 2016; Tourlousse et
95 al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Tkacz et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2019), plant (Guo et al.,
96 2019) and ocean water (Gao and Sun, 2020). However, the universal applicability of these methods has
97 not yet been demonstrated in complex and diverse soil samples. Here, we first designed a set of
98 bacterial and fungal spikes with different gradient concentrations and then added these spikes to
99 distinct soil DNA extracts to evaluate the universal feasibility of spike-AMP (i.e., method #2 in Fig.
100 1c). After finding that spike-AMP did not exhibit any advantages in accuracy and reliability, we further
101 applied qPCR-AMP to determine the absolute profiling of soil bacterial and fungal communities in
102 response to the addition of organic matter (i.e., maize straw). The superiority of AMP was further
103 confirmed by a stable isotope probing (SIP) experiment. The objectives of this investigation were to (i)
104 evaluate the universal feasibility of spike-AMP and the effect of spike application on the original
105 microbial community structure; (ii) verify whether AMP has significant advantages in determining key
106 species that respond to environmental fluctuations (i.e., the addition of maize straw).

107 **2. Materials and Methods**

108 *2.1. Soil samples collection*

109 Soil cores were collected from two locations distant from each other: Hailun, North China (47.86°
110 N, 127.01° E) (HL) and Sanya, South China (18.34° N, 109.65° E) (SY) (Fig. S1a). Three soil cores as
111 biological replicates were collected from both upland and paddy soils at each location, thus resulting in
112 12 soil samples that were used for the further incubation experiment. The physico-chemical properties,
113 microbial community structure and taxonomic distribution for these samples are shown in Fig. S2 and

114 Table S1. Next, SIP microcosms were prepared by adding 0.1 g ground ^{13}C -labeled maize straw (95.05
115 atom % ^{13}C) to the ~23 g fresh soil (equivalent to 20 g on a dry weight) (Fig. S1b). The soil
116 microcosms without straw addition were performed as pairwise comparison for each SIP microcosms
117 (i.e., control microcosms). Then, a 60-day incubation study was conducted on the 12 SIP microcosms
118 and 12 control microcosms. Detailed processing steps about the ^{13}C labeling and incubation experiment
119 are outlined in Methods 1 and 2, respectively (see Supplementary Information). During the incubation
120 period, approximately 5 g of incubated soil was successively collected from the same set of 24
121 microcosms at four time points (days 0, 7, 30 and 60). Finally, we collected a total of 96 incubated soil
122 samples.

123 Based on the collected incubated soil samples, we implemented the following two sections in this
124 study (Fig. S3). In section I, considering the representativeness of samples, we selected a set of straw-
125 amended soil samples at three time points (one of the three biological replicates at days 0, 7 and 30)
126 from two soil types (HL paddy soils (HLP) and SY upland soils (SYU)), thus resulting in 6 soil
127 samples to evaluate the feasibility of the spike-AMP method. In section II, qPCR-AMP were
128 performed to detect the absolute microbial profiling of 72 incubated samples (including control and
129 straw-amended soils at days 7, 30 and 60 from two field types (upland and paddy) from two sites (HL
130 and SY)). In contrast to RMP, the superiority of AMP was verified by the SIP experiment. Detailed
131 information of the qPCR-AMP and SIP experiment can be found in Methods 2 and 3 (see
132 Supplementary Information).

133 *2.2. Overview of spike-AMP*

134 *2.2.1. Determination of the total copy numbers of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region*

135 To estimate the background abundances of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region in the six soil samples
136 used in section I, we performed qPCR by using 338F/806R (338F: 5'-ACT CCT ACG GGA GGC
137 AGC A-3'; 806R: 5'-GGA CTA CHV GGG TWT CTA AT-3') and ITS1F/ITS2 (ITS1F: 5'-CTT GGT
138 CAT TTA GAG GAA GTA A-3'; ITS2: 5'-GCT GCG TTC TTC ATC GAT GC-3') primer sets,
139 respectively. In particular, to improve the confidence of quantitative results, the 16S rRNA gene and
140 ITS region abundances of each sample were reproduced in two independent qPCR experiments (i.e.,
141 Experiments 1 and 2; Fig. 2). The qPCR processing steps including DNA samples preparation, qPCR
142 amplification and data analysis, are described in Method 4 (see Supplementary Information). The
143 qPCR reaction efficiency for targeted 16S rRNA gene and ITS region ranged from 87.59% to 92.53%
144 and 90.24% to 104.03%, respectively. The presence of PCR inhibitors in the soil DNA extracts was
145 verified by mixing a known amount of plasmid DNA (pMDTM18-T vector) either with DNA extracts or
146 sterilized water; no inhibition was observed in the assays in this study.

147 *2.2.2. Design of synthetic spike*

148 The synthetic spike sequences included two regions: 1) conserved primer binding sites from
149 338F/806R and ITS1F/ITS2 for amplification of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region, respectively; 2)
150 artificial variable regions that lack identity to nucleotide sequences in public databases (Tourlousse et
151 al., 2017; Tkacz et al., 2018) (Fig. 1a). Design of the artificial variable sequence was conducted in
152 accordance with a previous publication (Tourlousse et al., 2017); the amplicon lengths were 469 and
153 421 bp for bacterial and fungal spikes, respectively (Table S2). Detailed steps on how the final spikes

154 were obtained are outlined in Method 5 (see Supplementary Information). Spike concentrations were
155 measured by Quant-iT™ PicoGreen™ dsDNA Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Eugene, OR, USA).
156 Finally, spike copies were calculated according to the equation described in a previous study (Lee et al.,
157 2006):

$$158 \quad \text{Spike copies number (copies } \mu\text{L}^{-1}) = \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23} (\text{copies mol}^{-1}) \times \text{Spike concentration (ng } \mu\text{L}^{-1}) \times 10^{-9}}{\text{Spike length (bp)} \times 660 (\text{dalton bp}^{-1})} \quad (1)$$

159 2.2.3. Spiking into DNA samples and high-throughput sequencing

160 On the basis of the background abundances of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region in the six soil
161 samples, we designed eight bacterial and nine fungal spike gradient concentrations ranging from
162 6.94×10^2 to 2.81×10^8 and 4.91×10^1 to 1.99×10^7 copies μL^{-1} , respectively (Table 1). To ensure that the
163 spike dilution level was correct, we tested the spike gradient concentration using qPCR. The standard
164 curves of spike dilutions showed that both bacterial and fungal spikes exhibited excellent linearity
165 between spike concentration and Ct values with $R^2 \geq 0.999$. Then, bacterial and fungal spikes were
166 added separately to DNA samples extracted from the six tested samples. For each DNA samples, 114
167 samples were prepared corresponding to the bacterial/fungal control, eight bacterial and nine fungal
168 spike levels performed in six technical replicates (Table 1). The DNA samples and synthetic spikes
169 were co-amplified in duplicate using the bacterial 338F/806R or fungal ITS1F/ITS2 primer pairs. An 8
170 bp barcode sequence located in front of the forward primer was used for multiplexing of samples
171 during sequencing. The description of amplicon library preparation for Illumina NovaSeq 6000-PE250
172 sequencing can be found in Method 6 (see Supplementary Information).

173 2.2.4. *Bioinformatics analysis of sequence data*

174 The sequence data were processed using QIIME2-2020.8 (Bolyen et al., 2019), QIIME v.1.9.1
175 (Caporaso et al., 2010), USEARCH v.11.0 (Edgar, 2010), VSEARCH v.2.12.0 (Rognes et al., 2016)
176 and mothur v.1.40.4 (Schloss et al., 2009). The quality of paired-end sequencing data was confirmed by
177 FastQC v.0.10.1 (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Subsequently,
178 sequencing data were processed using VSEARCH and QIIME commands as follows: join paired-end (-
179 fastq_mergepairs), extract barcodes (extract_barcodes.py) and demultiplex paired-end fastq (demux).
180 The representative sequences were obtained by USEARCH and VSEARCH pipelines based on the
181 merged sequences using the following commands: remove primers (-fastx_filter), find non-redundancy
182 reads (-derep_fulllength), cluster unique reads (-cluster_size) and remove chimeric sequences (-
183 uchime3_denovo). All sequences were clustered at 97% nucleotide similarity to obtain operational
184 taxonomic units (OTUs) (-usearch_global). OTUs were aligned against the databases of bacterial
185 SILVA 138 (Quast et al., 2012) or fungal UNITE (Abarenkov et al., 2010). The OTUs defined as
186 unknown, chloroplast, mitochondria, eukaryote, cyanophyta, cyanobacteria, cercozoa and protista were
187 removed. In the spike-AMP experiment, OTU1 was mapped into synthetic spike sequences with a
188 perfect match (-usearch_global, id=1). Abnormal samples with spike reads more than 2.5 times the
189 mean values of the other technical replicates were removed, and thus five fungal samples were
190 removed. The OTUs table were rarefied at 21,073 and 32,734 sequences per sample for subsequent
191 analysis of bacterial and fungal spike-AMP, respectively.

192 2.2.5. *Calculation in the spike-AMP method*

193 The absolute microbial abundance can be calculated using a single spike (Fig. 1b) or using a spike
194 linear relationship (i.e., the blue dashed box in Fig. 1c).

195 In theory, there is a correlation between copy number and sequencing reads number as follows:

$$196 \quad \frac{C_s}{C_m} = \frac{R_s}{R_m} \rightarrow C_m = C_s \times \frac{R_m}{R_s} \quad (2)$$

197 where C_s and C_m are the spike copies and microbial copies (i.e., the absolute abundance of 16S
198 rRNA gene or ITS region) of the sample, respectively. The corresponding spike sequencing reads and
199 microbial sequencing reads are denoted as R_s and R_m , respectively. Therefore, the absolute microbial
200 abundance (i.e., C_m) can be calculated by Eq. (2) according to the amount of spike added (i.e., C_s).

201 The alternative method is based on a linear relationship as follows:

$$202 \quad \frac{C_s}{C_m} = \frac{R_s}{R_m} \rightarrow \frac{R_s}{R_m} = \frac{1}{C_m} \times C_s \rightarrow y = a \times x \rightarrow C_m = \frac{1}{a} \quad (3)$$

203 where we can define $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ as the dependent variable, y , and C_s as the independent variable, x . In
204 theory, C_m is invariable in a given sample, thus we can define $\frac{1}{C_m}$ as a constant, a . This linear
205 relationship ($y = a \times x$) can be obtained by the gradient concentration of spike addition, where a is the
206 slope of the linear model. In this case, the absolute microbial abundance can be calculated via $C_m = \frac{1}{a}$.

207 If we present the above equation on a \log_{10} scale, the linear relationship still exists as follows:

$$208 \quad \text{Log}_{10} \frac{R_s}{R_m} = \text{Log}_{10} \left(\frac{1}{C_m} \times C_s \right) \rightarrow \text{Log}_{10} \left(\frac{R_s}{R_m} \right) = \text{Log}_{10} \left(\frac{1}{C_m} \right) + \text{Log}_{10} (C_s)$$

$$209 \quad \rightarrow Y = b + X \rightarrow C_m = \frac{1}{10^b} \quad (4)$$

210 where we can define $\text{Log}_{10} \left(\frac{R_s}{R_m} \right)$ as the dependent variable, Y , $\text{Log}_{10} (C_s)$ as the independent
211 variable, X , and $\text{Log}_{10} \left(\frac{1}{C_m} \right)$ as a constant, b , where b is the intercept of the linear model. The C_m can be
212 calculated via $C_m = \frac{1}{10^b}$.

213 The theoretical assumption of the spike-based method is $\frac{C_s}{C_m} = \frac{R_s}{R_m}$ (Eq. (2)). To evaluate the
214 consistency between $\frac{C_s}{C_m}$ and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ in actual sequencing data, we defined the bias degree as follows:

$$215 \quad \text{Bias degree} = \text{Log}_{10} \frac{R_s}{R_{\text{non-spike total}}} - \text{Log}_{10} \frac{C_s}{C_{\text{non-spike total}}} \quad (5)$$

216 where $C_{non-spike\ total}$ and $R_{non-spike\ total}$ represent the total non-spike microbial copies estimated by
217 qPCR and the total non-spike microbial sequencing reads, respectively. C_s and R_s represent the spike
218 copies added and the corresponding spike sequencing reads, respectively. If bias degree tends to zero
219 (i.e., the absolute abundance calculated by the single spike is equivalent to the qPCR data), it means
220 that the spike-based calculation of absolute abundance is theoretically feasible; on the contrary, it
221 means that the spike-based method has bias in quantifying absolute microbial abundance.

222 To show the difference in OTUs relative abundance (RA) between spike-added samples and
223 control, we calculated OTU abundance error (OA error) as follows:

$$224 \quad OA\ error = \log_{10} RA\ (spike-added\ samples) - \log_{10} RA\ (control) \quad (6)$$

225 where RA (spike-added samples) and RA (control) represent the OTUs relative abundance in
226 spike-added samples and no-spike samples, respectively. The OTUs relative abundance in spike-added
227 samples was calculated after removing spike sequences. Only OTUs with relative abundance above
228 0.01% were selected for this comparison. To keep all values finite when working with a \log_{10} scale, the
229 zero relative abundance was mapped to $1/(\text{sequencing depth})$.

230 2.3. Statistical analysis

231 SPSS Statistics 23 (<https://www.ibm.com/products/spss-statistics>) was employed to perform
232 statistical tests including one-way ANOVA, univariate analysis of variance and nonparametric test.
233 Significance was set for $P < 0.05$. All pairs of comparisons between samples were assessed by post hoc
234 Duncon's test. Corrections for multiple testing were performed using p.adjust function where
235 applicable (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

236 *Spike-AMP*. Differences in quantitative results between spike levels were assessed using
237 univariate analysis of variance. One-way ANOVA was employed to analyze the differences in absolute
238 gene abundance between the six samples. After deleting spike sequences from all samples, we
239 performed permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) based on Bray-Curtis
240 distance matrices with 999 permutations to assess the effect of adding spikes on microbial β -diversity
241 (Anderson, 2001). Canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) was calculated using the capscale
242 function in R (Anderson and Willis, 2003), by constraining for the variable of spike level. Bar plots
243 were generated using GraphPad Prism 8. Box plots and heatmaps were generated using the ggplot2 and
244 pheatmap packages in R, respectively. To evaluate the quantitative performance of a single spike at the
245 OTUs level, we conducted linear regression analysis in GraphPad Prism 8 to determine the consistency
246 of results provided by the single-spike-based and qPCR-based methods. To reduce rare OTUs in the
247 data set, we only chose OTUs with mean absolute abundance above 10^2 copies g^{-1} soil when
248 performing the linear regression analysis. To keep all values finite when working with a \log_{10} scale, the
249 zero absolute abundance was mapped to 1.

250 *qPCR-AMP*. The OTUs tables of both qPCR-AMP and SIP study were rarefied at 10000
251 sequences per sample for subsequent analysis according to the minimum reads number of samples. The
252 sequencing data at three sampling times were merged given that the incubation time had no significant
253 impact on both overall bacterial and fungal community structures according to ADONIS analysis (Fig.
254 S4). Differences in top 10 phyla between control and straw-added soils were assessed using univariate
255 analysis of variance. To assess the influence of AMP on the outcomes of differential OTU abundance
256 analysis, we investigated the differentially abundant OTUs between control and straw-added soils by

257 using the edgeR package in R (Robinson et al., 2010). Co-occurrence networks based on the relative
258 abundance (RMP networks) or absolute abundance (AMP networks) were reconstructed by performing
259 OTUs Pearson correlation in the Molecular Ecological Network Analyses (MENA) pipeline
260 (<http://ieg4.rccc.ou.edu/mena/>). The networks were graphed using Gephi (<https://gephi.org/>). To reduce
261 rare OTUs in the data set, only OTUs with relative abundance above 0.01% that were detected in 75%
262 of all soil samples were selected for network construction. To depict the topology of the AMP and
263 RMP networks, a set of indexes including total nodes, total edges, average degree (avgK), betweenness
264 centrality and modularity were characterized according to a previous study (Deng et al., 2012).
265 Nonparametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis tests) were performed to evaluate the differences in avgK and
266 betweenness centrality between control and straw-added soil networks. Module hubs were defined as
267 those nodes with the degree value >10 in a network, and module hubs detected as unclassified genera
268 were not displayed in heatmaps. All the sequence data in the present study have been deposited in the
269 NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under accession numbers SAMN19600335-
270 SAMN19601257. Rmarkdown code to reproduce the results described in this paper is available at
271 <https://github.com/PlantNutrition/ZhangSBB>.

272 **3. Results**

273 *3.1. Section I: spike-AMP vs. qPCR-AMP*

274 *3.1.1. Determination of the total copies of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region*

275 Considering the complexity of soil samples, two independent qPCR experiments were employed
276 to quantify total abundances of bacterial 16S rRNA gene and fungal ITS region in each soil samples
277 (i.e., Experiments 1 and 2). Overall, two independent qPCR experiments yielded the same trends in

278 quantitative results of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region. For example, the abundance of both genes
279 increased with time in SYU soils (Fig. 2a, b). Further, qPCR exhibited good reproducibility between
280 two independent experiments, with mean variation of 1.18- and 1.19-fold in 16S rRNA gene and ITS
281 region abundances, respectively (Table S3). After combining the two independent qPCR results, 16S
282 rRNA gene and ITS region abundances (per g of soil) among six samples broadly ranged from
283 1.98×10^9 to 1.61×10^{10} and 3.03×10^7 to 2.02×10^9 , respectively (Table S3). The 16S rRNA gene
284 abundances were 4.86–65.31 times higher than the ITS region abundances in six soils. On the basis of
285 these results, the total copies of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region determined by qPCR were defined as
286 the background values of six soils in further analysis.

287 3.1.2. Quantitative performance of spike-AMP

288 On the basis of the 16S rRNA gene and ITS region abundances estimated by qPCR, we designed
289 eight bacterial spike levels and nine fungal spike levels, with the mean proportion of spike copies to
290 total copies per PCR reaction ranging from approx. 0.01% to 97% (i.e., C_s/C_{total}) (Table 1). After
291 sequencing, we calculated the ratio of spike reads to total sequencing reads (i.e., R_s/R_{total}) (Fig. 3a, b).
292 There was approximately 10-fold gradient variation in C_s/C_{total} at spike levels 1–4 for both bacteria and
293 fungi; however, the R_s/R_{total} did not show a consistent increase (Tables S4 and 5). For example, the
294 C_s/C_{total} of HLP_Day7 at bacterial spike levels 2 and 3 was 0.04% and 0.44% respectively, but the
295 R_s/R_{total} at these two spike levels were both 0.27% (Table S4). At the higher spike levels such as
296 bacterial levels 6 and 7, the R_s/R_{total} (6.33% and 44.33%) was 5.85- and 1.84-fold lower than the
297 C_s/C_{total} (37.06% and 81.73%), respectively (Table S4). These results indicated that there was no good
298 correlation between the addition of spike copies and the output of spike reads.

299 A linear relationship between C_s and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ (Eq. (4)) is essential for spike-AMP, as shown by the
300 dashed line in Fig. 3c, d. However, our results revealed that the theoretical linear relationship only
301 partly occurred at bacterial spike levels 6–8 and fungal spike levels 4–6 (i.e., the blue rectangle in Fig.
302 3c, d), with the corresponding mean R_s/R_{total} of 6.33%–83.57% and 13.49%–54.13%, respectively
303 (Tables S4 and 5). Similar patterns also were confirmed in our preliminary survey (Fig. S5 and Table
304 S6). Furthermore, we found that the gene abundance estimated by the single spike method (Eq. (2))
305 was strongly correlated with spike level, even within the partial linear relationship between C_s and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$
306 (Fig. 3e, f). For example, the estimated 16S rRNA gene abundances showed a notable decrease from
307 spike levels 6 to 8 (univariate analysis, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 3e and Table S7). In contrast, there was no
308 significant difference in ITS region abundances estimated by fungal spike levels 4, 5 and 6 (univariate
309 analysis, $P \geq 0.19$; Fig. 3f). These results demonstrated that the single-spike-based quantification was
310 strongly dependent on the amount of spike added and the objective gene abundance.

311 The gene abundance inferred by single spike inside the partial linear relationship (Eq. (2)) was
312 theoretically equal to that detected by linear relationship (Eq. (3)). However, we found that the 16S
313 rRNA gene abundances calculated by spike levels 6 and 7 were significantly higher than those
314 computed by linear relationship (univariate analysis, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 3e and Table S7). In comparison,
315 there were no noteworthy discrepancies in ITS region abundances estimated by spike levels 4–6 and by
316 linear relationship (univariate analysis, $P \geq 0.37$; Fig. 3f). Additionally, the variation trends between
317 samples calculated by the two spike-based methods (i.e., single-spike-based or linear-relationship-
318 based methods) were obviously different from those calculated by qPCR (Fig. 3e, f). For instance, both
319 spike-based methods revealed that 16S rRNA gene abundances in HLP_Day0 was remarkably lower
320 than that in HLP_Day30, but the qPCR results showed no significant differences between them (Fig.

321 3e). Collectively, these results indicated that even though a linear relationship between C_s and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ was
322 found, the estimated gene abundance may not be reliable.

323 *3.1.3. Comparison of OTUs absolute abundances calculated by spike-AMP and qPCR-AMP*

324 By definition, when bias degree was closest to zero, the corresponding spike level was the best
325 matching spike level (Eq. (5)). However, the best matching spike level was variable and dependent on
326 the absolute abundances of original samples. In general, as the original abundance of 16S rRNA gene
327 or ITS region increased, the best matching spike level increased (Fig. 4a, b). Focusing on the best
328 matching spike level, we further compared the differences in OTUs absolute abundances estimated by
329 spike-AMP or by qPCR-AMP (Fig. 4c, e). For example, these two methods produced consistent results
330 when bacterial and fungal OTUs abundance were higher than 10^7 and 10^5 copies g^{-1} soil, respectively,
331 in HLP_Day30 sample (Fig. 4d, f). However, this consistency remarkably decreased with declining
332 OTUs abundance, especially when bacterial and fungal OTUs abundance were lower than 10^6 and 10^4
333 copies g^{-1} soil, respectively. Similar results were also found in the other five samples (Fig. S6–10).
334 Therefore, there was potential error in the estimation of low-abundant OTUs, even when using the best
335 matching spike level.

336 *3.1.4. Effects of spike addition on the OTUs relative abundances and microbial β -diversity*

337 To assess the effects of spike addition on the OTUs relative abundances, we compared the
338 variation in OTUs relative abundances between control (i.e., no spike) and spike-added samples (i.e.,
339 the OA error defined by Eq. (6)). In both bacterial and fungal communities, 91.30%–99.66% of >0.5
340 OA error occurred in OTUs group with relative abundances below 0.1% (Fig. 5a, b), indicating that
341 low-abundant OTUs were more susceptible to interference from spike addition. Specially, the larger
342 error (e.g., OA error >2) was mainly detected in higher spike level samples, as indicated by the blue

343 “tail” in the scatter plots (Fig. 5a, b). Furthermore, CAP revealed a substantial effect of spike addition
344 on bacterial and fungal microbial community structure, explaining 16.1%–18.9% and 20.2%–36.2% of
345 overall structural variation, respectively ($P = 0.001$; Fig. 5c, e and Fig. S11). Saliiently, the best
346 matching spike level in Fig. 4a and b also significantly changed the structures of bacterial and fungal
347 communities (i.e., the red border) (Fig. 5d, f).

348 *3.2. Section II: The utilization of qPCR-AMP in assessing soil microbial dynamics*

349 With the finding that spike-AMP method did not exhibit any advantages in accuracy, stability or
350 labor intensity, we then used the more common qPCR-AMP method to detect the absolute profiling of
351 soil bacterial and fungal communities in response to the addition of organic matter (i.e., maize straw).

352 *3.2.1. Differences between RMP and AMP in revealing key microbiota involved in straw decomposition*

353 We applied qPCR to a sequencing dataset from a 60-day incubation study. On average, the total
354 copies of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region in HL soils were 1.40 and 1.36 times higher than those in SY
355 soils, respectively (univariate analysis, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 6a, b). The 16S rRNA gene and ITS region
356 copies in SYU soils increased 1.03- and 4.38-fold, respectively, with straw addition (univariate analysis,
357 $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 6a, b). Furthermore, we compared the differences in the top 10 phyla between straw-
358 added and control soils using RMP and AMP analysis. These two quantification methods produced
359 substantially different results, especially in SYU soils (Fig. 6c–f). Among these discrepancies, we
360 highlighted that *Actinobacteriota* was notably increased by straw addition in SYU soils when using
361 AMP, whereas this straw-induced increase was not observed when using RMP (univariate analysis, P
362 < 0.0001 ; Fig. 6c, d). In addition, RMP seriously underestimated the changes in bacterial
363 *Proteobacteria* and fungal *Ascomycota* abundances. For example, the abundances of *Ascomycota*, a

364 dominant phylum in the fungal community, were significantly increased by straw addition in SYU soils,
365 with average increases of 4.42-fold based on AMP compared with 0.11-fold based on RMP (Fig. 6e, f).
366 Similar results were also found in paddy soil (Fig. S12). To validate whether the enriched phyla
367 detected by AMP play crucial roles in straw decomposition, we performed a SIP experiment on the
368 same samples to explore the ¹³C-labeled communities. The results showed that *Proteobacteria*,
369 *Actinobacteriota* and *Ascomycota* were dominant in ¹³C-enriched phyla, accounting for 40.54%, 31.58%
370 and 82.30% of total relative abundance in ¹³C-labeled communities, respectively (Fig. 6d, f). These
371 results suggested that the enriched phyla detected by qPCR-AMP were strongly associated with straw
372 decomposition.

373 The compositions of straw-associated communities based on RMP and AMP analyses was
374 obviously different over time. A far larger number of significantly enriched OTUs were detected by
375 AMP (Fig. 6g and Fig. S12). When arranging these enriched OTUs according to their taxonomic
376 information, we observed that the compositions of the enriched OTUs detected by AMP and RMP
377 could not be overlapped (Fig. 6h, i). For example, the enriched bacterial OTUs belonging to
378 *Planctomycetota*, *Myxococcota*, *Gemmatimonadota*, *Elusimicrobiota*, *Desulfobacterota*, *Chloroflexi*,
379 *Armatimonadota* and *Acidobacteriota* were only detected by AMP, implying that key microbiota
380 dynamics related to straw decomposition may be masked by RMP results.

381 3.2.2. Different patterns of co-occurrence network based on RMP and AMP

382 To assess the impact of quantitative information on the OTUs co-occurrence pattern, we
383 reconstructed networks using both RMP and AMP data matrices. Multiple network topological indexes
384 consistently showed that the OTU–OTU interactions were remarkably different between AMP-based
385 and RMP-based networks (Table S8). In paddy soils (i.e., HLP and SYP), straw application resulted in

386 a simpler network in comparison with the control when using RMP data, whereas an inverse pattern
387 occurred when applying AMP data (Fig. 7a, b and Fig. S13). Taking the HLP networks as an example,
388 the degree and betweenness were averagely 1.24- and 9.01-fold lower in straw-added soils than in the
389 control, respectively, when using RMP data (nonparametric tests, $P < 0.0001$), while this prominent
390 difference could not be observed when applying AMP data (Fig. 7c). Focusing on the straw-networks,
391 we observed that more connections were detected in AMP-based networks than in the RMP-based
392 networks (954 vs. 573) and there were only 237 common connections between these two networks,
393 indicating that the correlations detected by the two methods were quite different (Fig. 7d). Notably,
394 most of the unique links in AMP-based networks belonged to *Ascomycota*, *Proteobacteria* and
395 *Actinobacteriota*, all of which were associated with straw decomposition (Fig. 6d, f). Moreover, a set
396 of module hubs only detected by AMP in the straw-added network were the dominant ^{13}C -enriched
397 groups (i.e., the black box in Fig. 7e), accounting for 19.29% of ^{13}C -labeled communities. These results
398 indicated that these module hubs were involved in straw decomposition (Fig. 7e). Similar results were
399 obtained for the other soils tested (Fig. S13–15). Taken together, the data type determined by RMP or
400 AMP had a considerable impact on the co-occurrence network patterns.

401 **4. Discussion**

402 AMP is crucial in deciphering the variation in absolute microbial abundance between samples or
403 over time. For example, the absolute abundance of *Proteobacteria* increased remarkably in fertilized
404 soil when compared with the unfertilized soil, while this growth could not be identified by RMP (Jiang
405 et al., 2019). The growing interest in absolute abundance has led to methodological and technological
406 advances, such as spike-AMP (Tourlousse et al., 2017; Tkacz et al., 2018), qPCR-AMP (Lou et al.,
407 2018; Boshier et al., 2020) and FCM-AMP (Vandeputte et al., 2017; Vieira-Silva et al., 2019). The

408 spike-AMP, as an emerging quantification method, potentially offered some advantages over the
409 traditional qPCR/FCM-AMP in some special studies. For example, spike-AMP may be an
410 indispensable strategy for host-associated microbiome quantification, such as plant root microbiome
411 (Guo et al., 2019). The host genome (chloroplasts and mitochondria) typically accounted for >80% of
412 the 16S rRNA gene sequences in root microbiome samples (Bulgarelli et al., 2012; Lundberg et al.,
413 2013). Universal primers, such as 799F/1193R for the 16S rRNA gene, cannot distinguish the
414 sequences from root endophytes or plant genome, restricting accurate estimation of the absolute gene
415 abundance by commonly used qPCR (Guo et al., 2019). Such issues can be solved by use of the spike-
416 AMP approach. In addition, the operational procedures of spike-AMP are simple for a sample where
417 optimal spike level was predetermined. Currently, the wide-ranging applicability of spike-AMP and
418 qPCR-AMP having not yet been fully demonstrated for complex and diverse soil samples. In this study,
419 we used a set of soil samples with dramatic differences in total gene abundances to evaluate the
420 universal applicability of both spike-AMP and qPCR-AMP.

421 *4.1. The evaluation of spike-AMP in soil microbiota quantitative research*

422 In section I, we first evaluated the universal applicability of spike-AMP by applying a set of
423 synthetic spikes with a gradient of concentrations to a set of soil samples with dramatic differences in
424 16S rRNA gene and ITS region (Table 1 and Fig. 2). We found that there was no good correlation
425 between the input of spike copies and the output of spike sequencing reads (Tables S4 and 5), violating
426 the theoretical assumption of the spike-in method (Jiang et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2019). This
427 phenomenon was especially obvious at low spike levels, such as levels 1–4, which might be explained
428 by the fact that low spike levels might remain undetected because of poor amplification (Reid and

429 Heathfield, 2020) or low sequencing depth. Because of this inconsistent input-output ratio, the 16S
430 rRNA gene and ITS region abundance calculated by single spike seemed to be indeterminate and
431 strongly correlated with spike addition (Fig. 3e, f). For example, the maximum differences in 16S
432 rRNA gene and ITS region abundance estimated by single spike were up to 840- and 269-fold,
433 respectively. Furthermore, the perfect input-output ratio of spike was extremely dependent on the
434 targeted gene abundance in the original sample (Fig. 4a, b). However, large spatio-temporal variations
435 in microbial population abundance have been reported (Hallam and McCutcheon, 2015; Leach et al.,
436 2017), which means that the optimal spike level for different samples may be variable. Therefore, the
437 single-spike-based method needs a preliminary test to determine the optimal spike level for each given
438 environmental sample, which substantially increases the time and workload when using this method.

439 A spike mixture (e.g., spike-in method #3 in Fig. 1d) (Tourlousse et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2019;
440 Mou et al., 2020) was used to circumvent the flaws of the single-spike-based method by constructing a
441 linear regression between input of spike amount and output of sequencing reads. We found that the
442 linear relationship was partially obtained, with corresponding bacterial and fungal spike reads
443 accounting for 6.33%–83.57% and 13.49%–54.13% of total sequencing reads, respectively (Fig. 3c, d).
444 In a soil microbiota research, Tkacz et al. (2018) showed that the optimum spike amount for 16S rRNA
445 gene, 18S rRNA gene and ITS region should account for 20%–80% of total sequencing reads. In a
446 plant study, Guo et al. (2019) provided evidence that the coverage of spike concentration should be
447 10%–60% in the amplicon library. These discrepancies could be because the linear interval may be
448 related to the nature of complex environmental samples, such as microbial population size.
449 Furthermore, the quantitative results calculated even by linear-relationship-based method were also

450 questionable. As shown in HLP_Day30, the 16S rRNA gene abundance calculated by linear interval
451 (levels 6–8) was 336.05% higher than the qPCR abundance (Fig. 3e). This deviation from the expected
452 result may be partly attributed to the skew proportions of spike reads in sequencing data, which may
453 occur during multiple steps of the spike-AMP process, such as mixing inaccuracies, PCR bias or
454 sequencing error (Tourlousse et al., 2017). Meanwhile, spike addition consumed substantial sequencing
455 resources. For example, the bacterial spike at level 8 accounted for 77.02%–98.02% of total sequencing
456 reads in each soil (Fig. 3a), which makes the process infeasible in an actual study. More importantly,
457 spike addition significantly changed the original community structure (Fig. 5d, f). The relative
458 abundance of OTUs changed from the original values, especially for low-abundant OTUs (Fig. 5a, b).
459 For instance, deviations of more than 3.16-fold (i.e., OA error=0.5) mostly occurred in groups with
460 OTUs relative abundances below 0.1%. Thus, our results suggested that spike-AMP may not be
461 suitable for quantifying absolute abundance of soil microbiota, at least for those samples with distinct
462 microbial characteristics.

463 *4.2. The verification of AMP in soil microbiota quantitative research*

464 We also applied qPCR-AMP to soil samples from a 60-day incubation study to analyze dynamic
465 changes in microbial profiles. We found that microbial abundance in SYU soils showed a drastic
466 response to straw addition (mean 1.03-fold and 4.38-fold in 16S rRNA gene and ITS region,
467 respectively), implying that the variation in total absolute abundance possibly represents a key feature
468 of microbiota in response to environmental disturbance (Vandeputte et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2019;
469 Jiang et al., 2019). For instance, the genuine increases in abundance of bacterial phyla *Proteobacteria*
470 and *Actinobacteriota*, and fungal phyla *Ascomycota* were only detected by qPCR-AMP in straw-added
471 soil, and these three phyla were further shown to be highly correlated with straw decomposition in the

472 SIP experiment (Fig. 6c–f and Fig. S6c–f). These findings were in line with previous studies that many
473 sub-groups belonging to these three phyla were involved in assimilation of carbon from plant residues
474 (Lee et al., 2011; Fan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2019). Therefore, AMP allowed us to identify the
475 dominant species involved in straw decomposition. Without the information on absolute abundance,
476 the underlying physiology and ecological responses of specific phyla to organic matter addition may be
477 masked by relative abundance.

478 Inappropriate data types and statistical methods can lead to spurious results or hide useful
479 information when applied to compositional analysis of sequencing data (Vandeputte et al., 2017; Carr
480 et al., 2019). We found that the overlap of OTU–OTU links between RMP-based and AMP-based
481 networks was only 13.7% in this study. More unique connections detected by AMP belonged to the
482 ¹³C-dominant phyla (Fig. 7c), indicating that AMP can better reflect the impacts of straw addition on
483 microbial communities. Previous studies suggested that the module hubs may play a critical role in
484 maintaining the structure and function of ecological communities (Jiao et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2016).
485 Indeed, most of the network module hubs in AMP-based straw-networks were related to straw
486 decomposition (Fig. 7e). For example, the ¹³C-enriched module hubs (genus level), such as
487 *Intrasporangium*, *Arenimonas*, *Cellvibrio* and *Gibberella*, were only detected by AMP-based networks
488 and their organic matter degradation ability has been observed for lignocellulose and plant residues
489 (DeBoy et al., 2008; Cai et al., 2018; Song et al., 2018; Zhan et al., 2021). Additionally, some of the
490 module hubs, such as *Pseudarthrobacter* and *Micromonospora*, were shown to be important
491 participants during straw decomposition in this study, although they have not previously been reported
492 to be responsible for straw degradation. However, these details of microbial dynamic changes and
493 microbiota interactions may be ignored or misinterpreted when using RMP-based network analysis.

494 **5. Conclusion**

495 In this study, we highlight several prominent issues of spike-AMP including reliability, stability
496 and labor intensity, all of which stymie the universal feasibility of spike-AMP in soil microbiota
497 quantitative research. This is because neither the potentially optimal spike level is determined, nor can
498 the straight line between C_s and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ be fixed. In contrast to spike-AMP, the commonly used qPCR-AMP
499 provides a straightforward and high-throughput tool for quantifying absolute profiling of soil
500 microbiota. Therefore, in the absence of a gold-standard quantitative approach, qPCR-AMP may be the
501 preferred method in soil microbial research. However, in special ecological niches, such as root
502 endophytes, the existence of plant plastids (mitochondria and chloroplasts) prevents the accurate
503 detection of total microbial load (Guo et al., 2019). Further research is required to explore the
504 implementation of AMP in these environments.

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648

649 **Figure legends**

650 **Fig. 1 A review of absolute microbiome profiling (AMP). a–f** Two main types of AMP: the spike-in
651 method (spike-AMP; **a–d, f**) and quantitative PCR (qPCR) combined with high-throughput sequencing
652 (qPCR-AMP; **e–f**). Spike-AMP includes several key steps: (1) The design of a synthetic spike
653 containing synthetic sequences with negligible identity to known nucleotide sequences in public
654 databases and primer binding sites (e.g., 515F/806R targeting V4 variable region of the bacterial 16S
655 rRNA gene, ITS1F/ITS2 targeting variable region of the fungal ITS region or a combination of primer
656 regions) (**a**). (2) A known amount of synthetic spike is added to environmental samples or DNA
657 extracts in the form of a single spike with certain concentration (spike-in method #1, **b**), a single spike
658 with different gradient concentrations (spike-in method #2, **c**), or a spike mixture with different spikes
659 and concentrations (spike-in method #3, **d**). (3) Environmental samples and synthetic spike are co-
660 amplified and co-sequenced. (4–5) The absolute abundance of each taxon can be calculated based on
661 the relationship between input of spike copies and output of sequence reads (equations in red box) (**a–d**,
662 **f**). In general, the optimal spike concentration is determined by preliminary tests using spike-in method

663 #2 (c), and then spike-in method #1 (b) is used to calculate the absolute abundance of each taxon. The
664 equations in the “blue dashed box” were constructed in this study (c). For detailed description, please
665 see the main text.

666

667 **Fig. 2 The total copies of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region detected by quantitative PCR (qPCR) in**
668 **six soil samples.** The test soil samples included three time points (days 0, 7 and 30) in two soil types
669 (Hailun paddy (HLP) and Sanya upland (SYU)). **a–b** The copy numbers of bacterial 16S rRNA gene (**a**)
670 and fungal ITS region (**b**) were quantified by qPCR. The gene abundance of each sample was
671 reproduced in two independent qPCR experiments (i.e., Experiments 1 and 2). Each dot represents a
672 technical PCR replicate and error bar represents the standard deviation. Different uppercase and
673 lowercase letters indicate significant difference between the six soil samples in Experiments 1 and 2,
674 respectively.

675

676 **Fig. 3 Application of spike-in method #2 based on a gradient of bacterial and fungal single spike.**
677 **a–b** The proportion of spike reads in total sequencing reads at each spike level (i.e., R_s/R_{total}). **c–d** The
678 relationship between the spike copies (C_s) and the ratio of spike reads to DNA sample reads ($\frac{R_s}{R_m}$), as
679 described in Eqs. (3–4). In theory, there is a straight line between C_s and $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$, which is shown by a
680 dashed line. For measured data, the range of spike levels marked by the blue rectangle represents a
681 partial linear response of $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ to C_s . Data in **c** and **d** are pooled from two independent experiments (i.e.,
682 Preliminary test and spike-AMP). **e–f** Bar plots showing estimated absolute abundance of bacterial 16S
683 rRNA gene (**e**) and fungal ITS region (**f**) by using single spike (Eq. (2), $C_m = C_s \frac{R_m}{R_s}$), spike linear
684 relationship (Eq. (3), $C_m = \frac{l}{a}$) and qPCR results (as shown in Fig. 2), respectively. The range of spike

685 levels marked by the blue background represents a partial linear response of $\frac{R_s}{R_m}$ to C_s as shown in **c–d**.
686 Differences in absolute abundances between the six tested soil were analyzed using one-way ANOVA
687 followed by post hoc Duncon’s multiple comparisons test. Different letters indicate significant
688 difference among six soil samples. Each dot represents a technical replicate and error bars represent
689 standard deviation (In spike-AMP, n=6 technical replicates for each bar). Note that the results from
690 preliminary tests are shown in Fig. S5 and Table S6.

691

692 **Fig. 4 Comparison of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) absolute abundances (AAs) calculated**

693 **by qPCR and single spike. a–b** Heatmaps displaying the bias degree (Eq. (5)) and bar plots showing
694 the copy numbers of 16S rRNA gene and ITS region estimated by qPCR in the tested samples (as
695 shown in Fig. 2). The bias degree with absolute values >0.5 is marked in white. Black borders around
696 cells indicate that the bias degree is lowest in each sample (i.e., the best matching spike level). **c, e**
697 Taking HLP_Day30 as an example, scatter plots showing bacterial (**c**) and fungal (**e**) OTUs AAs
698 calculated by qPCR data (x-axis) and each single spike data (y-axis). Color scale indicates spike level
699 and each point represents an OTU. Bacterial OTUs and fungal OTUs with AAs $< 1 \times 10^2$ copies g^{-1} soil
700 are not displayed. The solid black lines (i.e., the $y=x$ line) suggest that the AAs calculated by single
701 spike data are equivalent to those by qPCR data. **d, f** In accordance with qPCR data, the OTU AAs are
702 divided into three different abundance levels (i.e., $AA > 10^7$, $10^6 \leq AA \leq 10^7$ and $AA < 10^6$ for bacteria;
703 $AA > 10^5$, $10^4 \leq AA \leq 10^5$ and $AA < 10^4$ for fungi). For the best matching spike level (i.e., Level 3 for
704 bacteria (**d**) and Level 6 for fungi (**f**)), the difference between OTU AAs calculated by qPCR and single
705 spike is further shown at the three different abundance levels. Gray dotted lines represent the fitted
706 linear regressions. Note that all results from remaining soil samples are shown in Fig. S6–10.

707

708 **Fig. 5 Effects of spike addition on the operational taxonomic units (OTUs) relative abundances**

709 **and microbial β -diversity. a–b** The OTUs relative abundances (RAs) of bacteria (**a**) and fungi (**b**) in

710 control soils (i.e., no spike) are plotted against the OTU abundance error (OA error), as described in Eq.

711 (6). Color scale represents spike levels and each point corresponds to an OTU. OTUs with OA

712 error >0.5 are indicated with solid red lines (i.e., the variations in OTU RAs between spike-added

713 samples and control are 3.16-fold). All spike sequences have been deleted in the calculation of relative

714 abundance in spike-added samples. The dotted black line divides OTU RAs into three groups (i.e.,

715 $RA >1\%$, $0.1\% \leq RA \leq 1\%$ and $RA <0.1\%$), and the occurrence of >0.5 OA error in each RA group is

716 marked with percentages. **c, e** Canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) was performed based

717 on bacterial (**c**) and fungal (**e**) Bray-Curtis distance matrices by constraining for the variable of spike

718 level. Each point corresponds to a different sample colored by spike level. **d, f** The effects of adding

719 spikes on β -diversity were assessed by permutational multivariate analysis of variance

720 (PERMANOVA). Note that all spike sequences have been deleted when performing CAP and

721 PERMANOVA. White cells indicate that there are no significant changes in community structure

722 between spike-added samples and control, whereas light (ADONIS, $P <0.05$) and dark (ADONIS, P

723 <0.01) blue cells represent that adding spike caused a significant change in bacterial (**d**) or fungal (**f**)

724 community structure. Red borders around cells indicate that the absolute abundance calculated by

725 single spike was closest to those calculated by qPCR (i.e., the best matching spike level), as shown in

726 Fig. 4a, b. The CAP plots of SYU soils are shown in Fig. S11.

727

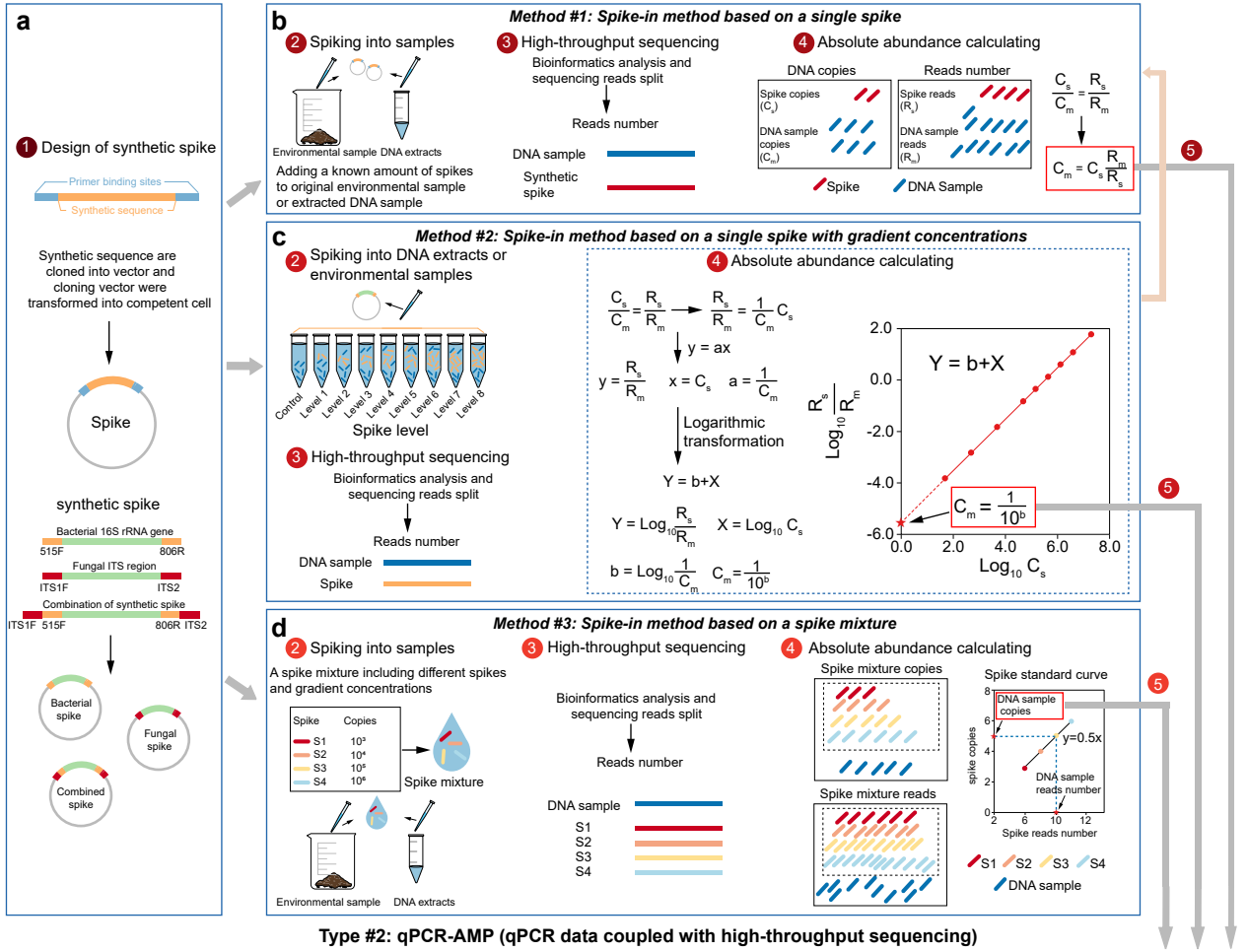
728 **Fig. 6 Influence of straw addition on soil microbial community structure.** Taking upland soils
729 (Hailun upland (HLU) and Sanya upland (SYU)) as an example, the impacts of straw addition on
730 bacterial and fungal community structure were assessed by using both relative microbiome profiling
731 (RMP) and qPCR-based absolute microbiome profiling (qPCR-AMP). We merged sequencing data
732 across all three time points and mainly focused on the comparison between control and straw-added
733 soils in **a–f**. **a–b** Box plots showing the copies of 16S rRNA gene (**a**) and ITS region (**b**) in Hailun (HL)
734 and Sanya (SY) soils. The color scales of green represent time points. The horizontal bold lines within
735 boxes represent medians. The top and bottoms of boxes indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles,
736 respectively. Univariate analysis of variance was performed to evaluate the differences in gene
737 abundance, ns, no significant difference, **** indicates $P < 0.0001$. **c, e** Bacterial (**c**) and fungal (**e**)
738 phylum-level community composition determined by RMP and qPCR-AMP. **d, f** The significant
739 differences in phyla abundance between control (i.e., no straw addition) and straw-added soils were
740 assessed using univariate analysis of variance followed by post hoc Duncon's multiple comparisons
741 test (left panel). The bar plots (right panel) show the relative abundance of bacterial (**d**) and fungal (**f**)
742 phyla in ^{13}C -labeled communities (stable isotope probing (SIP) experiment). **g** A comparison of
743 numbers of enriched OTUs in straw-added soils between RMP and qPCR-AMP at each time point. **h–i**
744 Taxonomic distribution of straw-enriched OTUs at bacterial phylum level (**h**) and fungal class level (**i**).
745 The red and blue circle sizes represent the relative abundance and absolute abundance (on a \log_{10} scale),
746 respectively. All results from paddy soils are shown in Fig. S12.

747

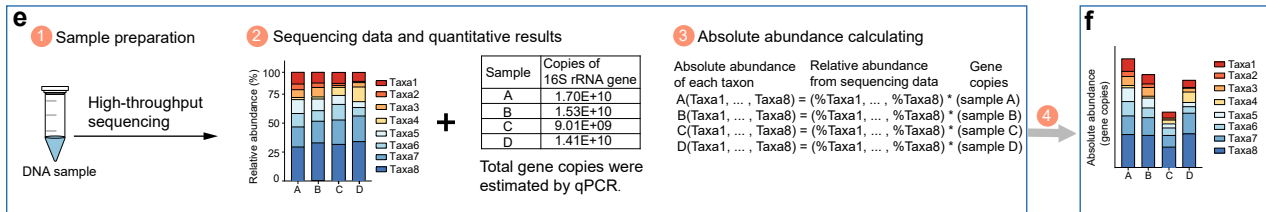
748 **Fig. 7 Co-occurrence networks of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) in control and straw-**
749 **added soils. a–b** Taking Hailun paddy soil (HLP) as an example, visualization of bacterial and fungal

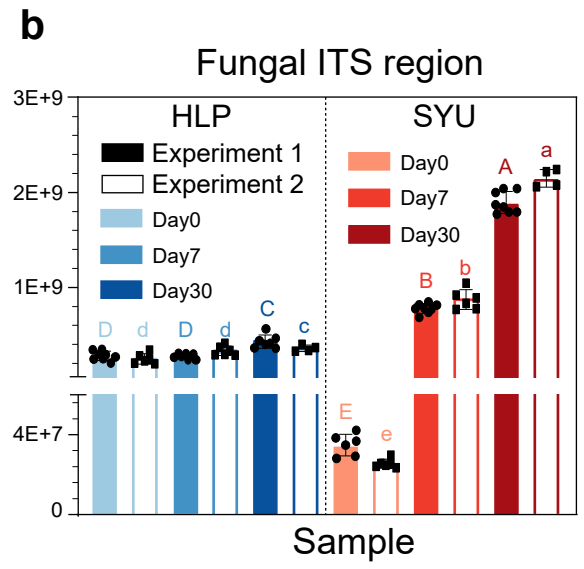
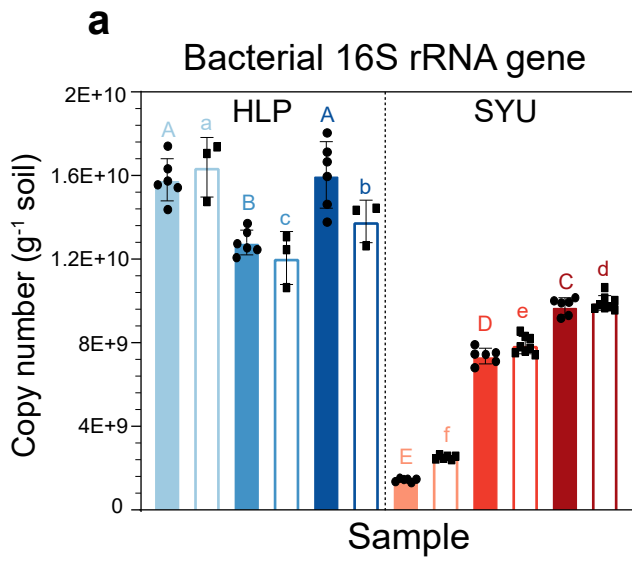
750 OTUs interactions by using relative microbiome profiling (RMP) (**a**) and qPCR-based absolute
751 microbiome profiling (qPCR-AMP) (**b**). Larger modules with nodes >10 are labeled with different
752 colors, and smaller modules are shown in gray. The nodes represent individual OTUs and node size
753 corresponds to their abundance. Topological features of each network are listed in Table S8. **c** Degree
754 and betweenness centrality (on a \log_{10} scale) of nodes in control and straw-added soil networks
755 detected by RMP and AMP. Nonparametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis tests) were performed to evaluate the
756 differences in the two topological indexes between control and straw-added soil networks. ***
757 indicates $P < 0.001$, ns, no significant difference. **d** Venn plot showing the difference between links in
758 the straw-added soil network between RMP and AMP. Bar plot showing the taxonomic distribution of
759 nodes that belong to the unique links detected by RMP and AMP, respectively. **e** Heatmap showing the
760 taxonomic distribution of module hubs detected in **a** and **b** networks. The barplot (right panel) showing
761 the relative abundances of module hubs in ^{13}C -labeled communities (stable isotope probing (SIP)
762 experiment). The genera in the black boxes represent module hubs that were only found in the straw-
763 added network based on AMP. Network plots of the other three soil types are shown in Fig. S13–15.

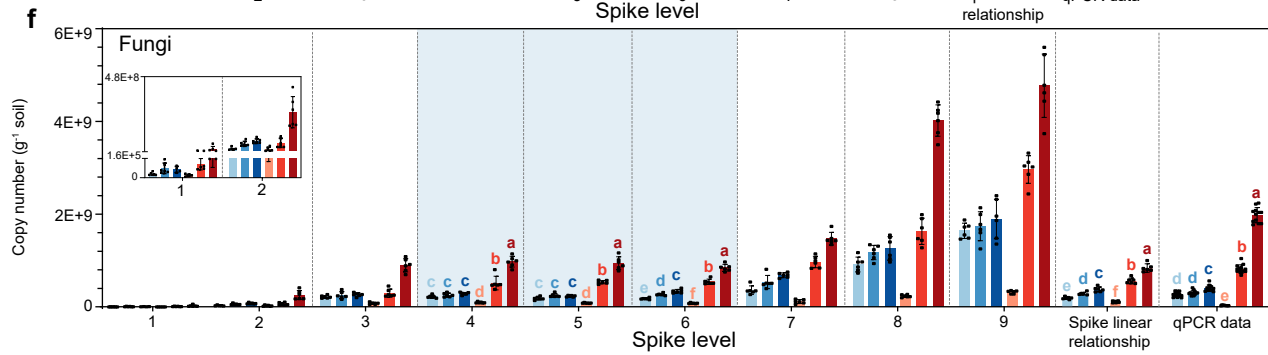
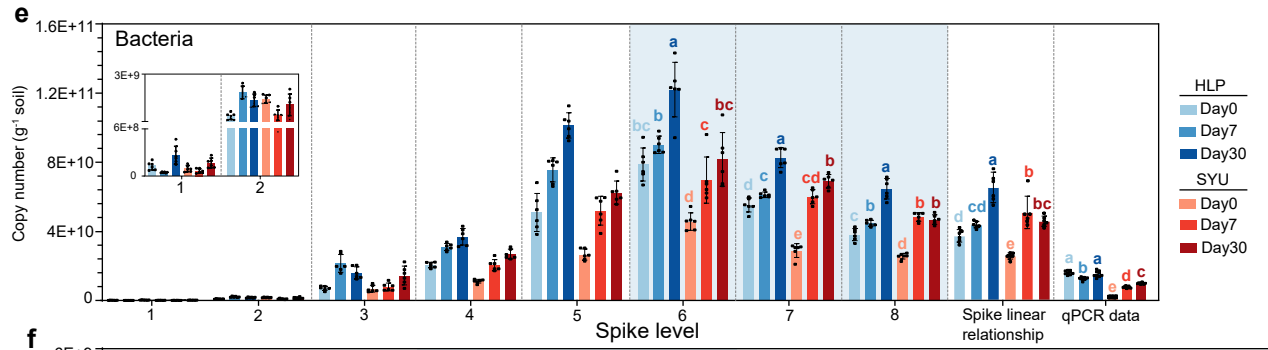
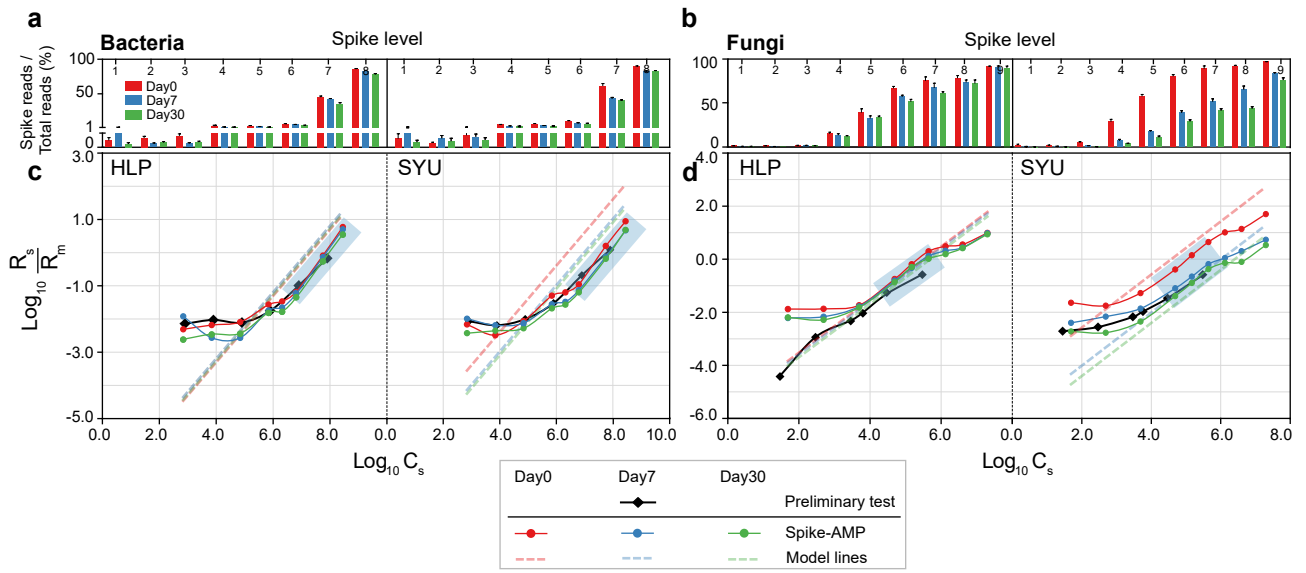
Type #1: spike-AMP

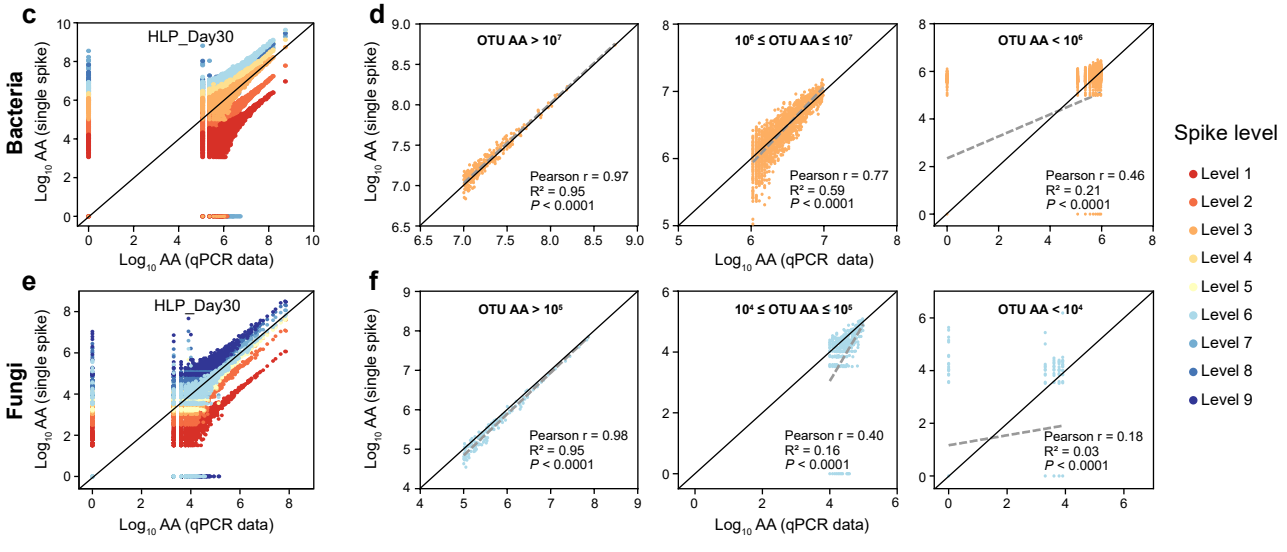
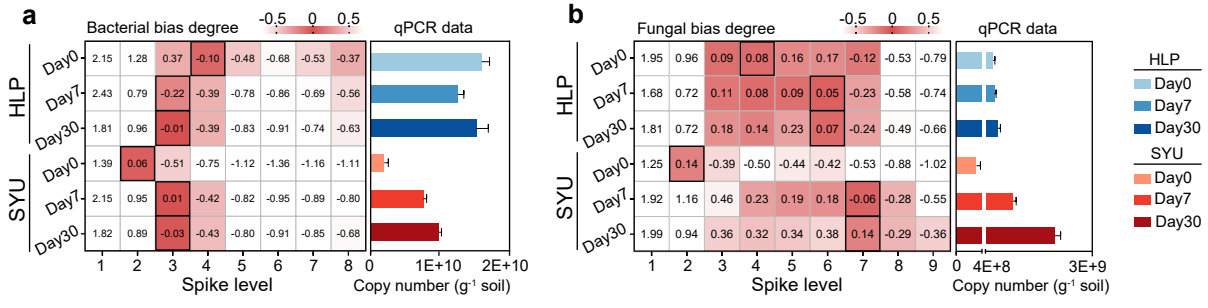


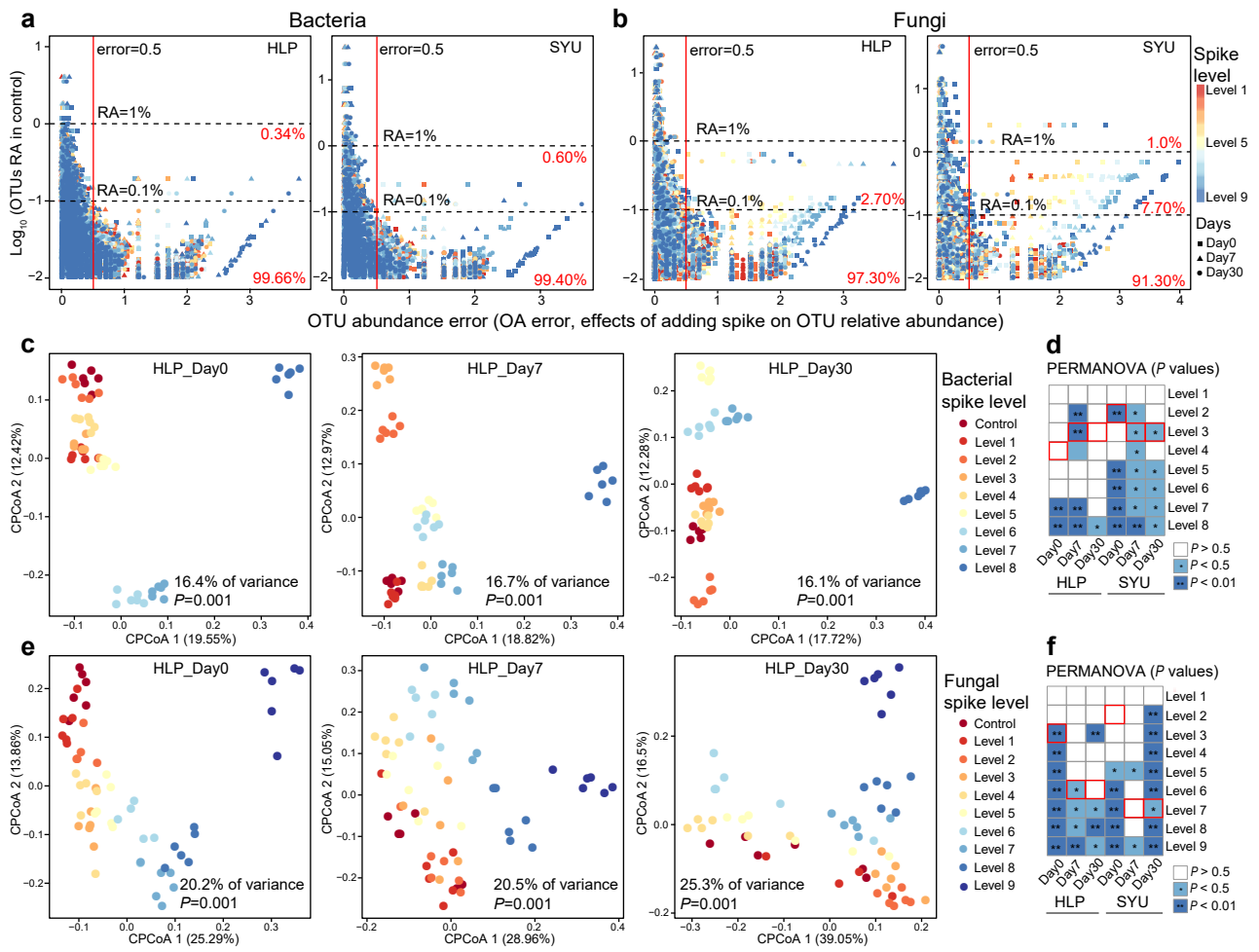
Type #2: qPCR-AMP (qPCR data coupled with high-throughput sequencing)

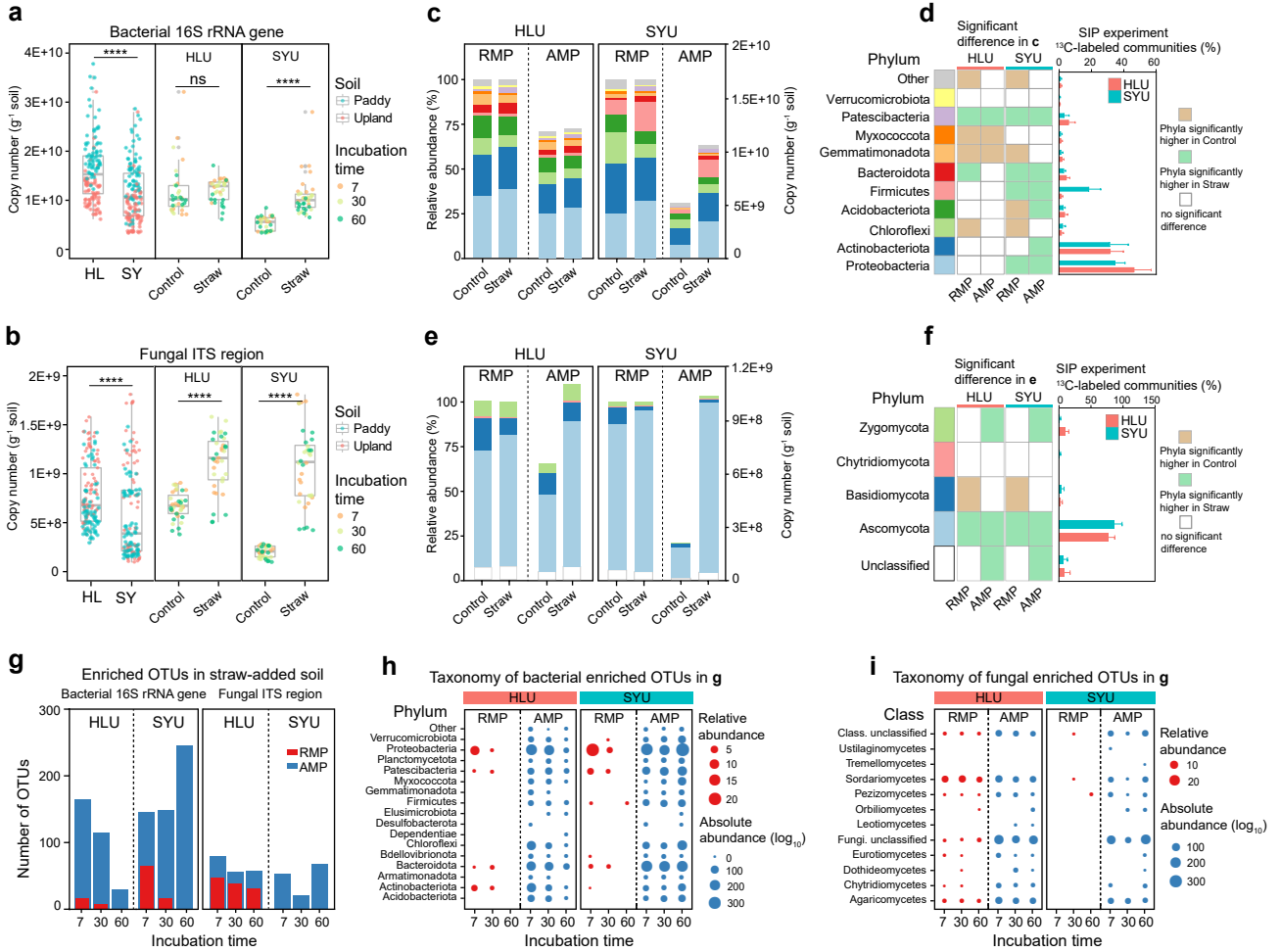


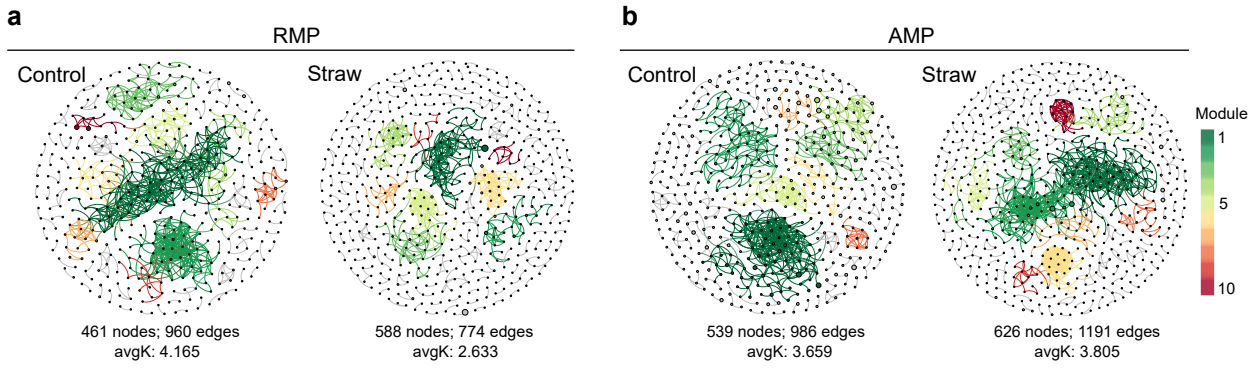




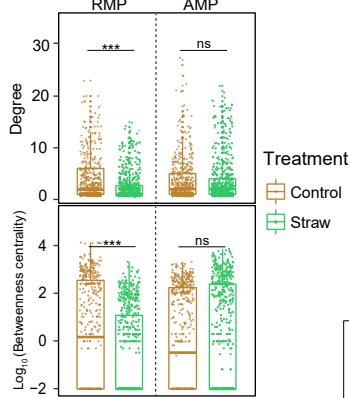




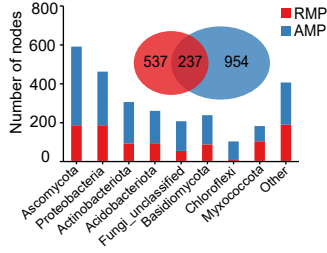




c Topological features of nodes in a and b



d Differential links in Straw network



e module hub in a and b

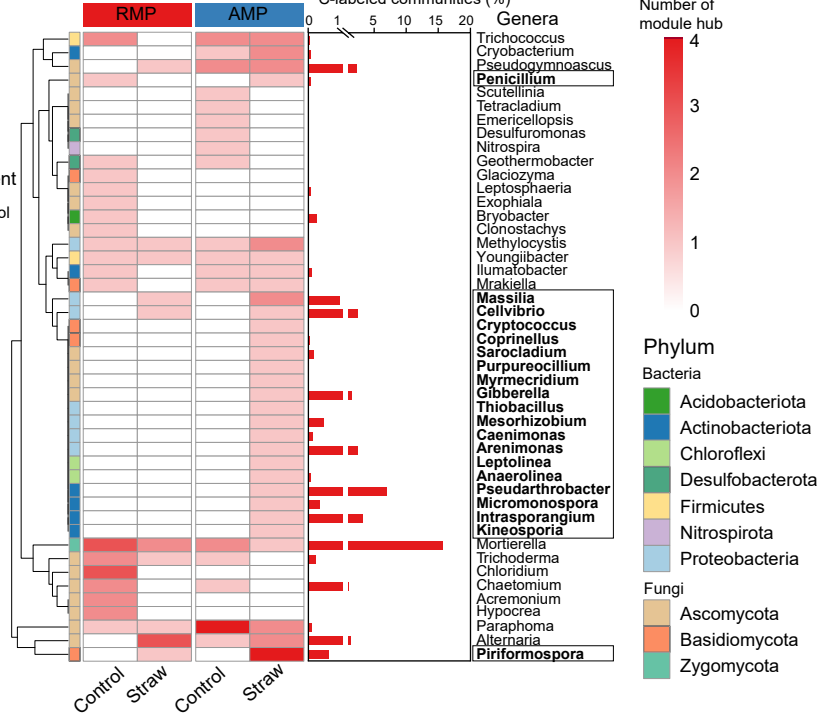


Table 1 Amount of synthetic spike added into DNA sample.

Synthetic spike level	Bacterial synthetic spike		Fungal synthetic spike	
	Spike copies added per PCR reaction	Spike copies / total gene copies (%) ^a	Spike copies added per PCR reaction	Spike copies / total gene copies (%)
Control	0	0	0	0
Level 1	6.94E+02	0.01	4.91E+01	0.03
Level 2	6.94E+03	0.09	4.91E+02	0.29
Level 3	6.94E+04	0.86	4.91E+03	2.65
Level 4	6.94E+05	7.54	4.91E+04	16.05
Level 5	2.08E+06	18.22	1.47E+05	29.86
Level 6	6.24E+06	37.06	4.42E+05	49.17
Level 7	5.62E+07	81.73	1.33E+06	69.73
Level 8	2.81E+08	95.59	3.98E+06	85.35
Level 9	-	-	1.99E+07	96.28

^aThe total gene copies is the sum of synthetic spike copies and DNA copies per PCR reaction.