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1 In-field metagenome and 16S rRNA gene amplicon nanopore sequencing
2 robustly characterize glacier microbiota

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 In the field of observation, chance favours only the prepared mind (Pasteur). Impressive
23 developments in genomics have led microbiology to its third “Golden Age”. However,
24 conventional metagenomics strategies necessitate retrograde transfer of samples from
25 extreme or remote environments for later analysis, rendering the powerful insights gained
26 retrospective in nature, striking a contrast with Pasteur’s dictum. Here we implement highly
27 portable USB-based nanopore DNA sequencing platforms coupled with field-adapted
28 environmental DNA extraction, rapid sequence library generation and off-line analyses of
29 shotgun metagenome and 16S ribosomal RNA gene amplicon profiles to characterize
30 microbiota dwelling within cryoconite holes upon Svalbard glaciers, the Greenland Ice Sheet
31 and the Austrian Alps. We show in-field nanopore sequencing of metagenomes captures
32 taxonomic composition of supraglacial microbiota, while 16S rRNA gene amplicon
33 sequencing resolves bacterial community responses to habitat changes. We benchmark the
34 capability of in-field microbiome sequencing to characterize microbial communities by
35 comparison of nanopore data with prior Illumina metagenomic data and 16S rRNA gene V1-
36 V3 pyrosequencing from the same samples, demonstrating a high level of coherence between
37 profiles obtained from nanopore sequencing and laboratory based sequencing approaches.
38 Ultimately, in-field sequencing potentiated by nanopore devices raises the prospect of
39 enhanced agility in exploring Earth’s most remote microbiomes.

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40 **INTRODUCTION**

41 Microbes drive biogeochemical processes at all scales within the biosphere(Falkowski et al.,
42 2008). The ubiquity of microbes within every manner of niche on Earth is underpinned by the
43 expansive range of microbial genomic diversity, spanning all three domains(Hug et al.,
44 2016). Our view of microbial diversity on Earth is constantly changing as technological
45 advances reveal novel groups and associations of microbes(Rinke et al., 2013; Hug et al.,
46 2016)). Within recent decades, sequencing of DNA extracted from environmental
47 matrices, either amplified(Schmidt et al., 1991) or sequenced directly via shotgun
48 metagenomics(Tyson et al., 2004) makes the prospect of a predictive, multi-scaled
49 understanding of microbial interactions with the Earth system increasingly tangible(Widder
50 et al., 2016).

51 Typically, such investigations require the transfer of collected microbiota for nucleic acid
52 extraction, sequencing and bioinformatic analysis at facilities with a high level of
53 infrastructure. These strategies are well established. However, the necessity to transfer
54 samples from remote locations to the laboratory incurs several disadvantages, including the
55 potential loss or corruption of unique samples in transit as well as biases incurred by
56 taphonomic degradation during storage and subsequent extraction(Klein, 2015). In
57 particular, the delays incurred via this strategy means that the process of gaining
58 genomic insights to microbial processes within the natural environment is divorced
59 from the environment in which they occur, rendering the exploration of microbial
60 diversity a reactive, rather than proactive activity.

61 Pocket sized, USB-driven, nanopore DNA sequencers (e.g. the Oxford Nanopore
62 Technologies Ltd MinION) potentially offer a novel direction for the versatile
63 characterization of microbiomes. Highly portable DNA sequencing strategies promise the

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64 generation and analysis of DNA sequences within field settings, thus removing the risk of
65 sample degradation or loss in cold chain to a home laboratory and significantly accelerating
66 the process of generating insights.

67 While MinION sequencing has been applied for in-field genomic epidemiology studies of the
68 West Africa Ebola virus outbreak(Quick et al., 2016) and genome sequencing on the
69 International Space Station(Castro-Wallace et al., 2017) its application to in-field microbial
70 ecology applications has been limited. However, the potential for characterizing microbial
71 communities via nanopore-based shotgun metagenomics or amplicon sequencing on the
72 MinION platform has been established within laboratory-based sequencing experiments
73 using contrived or well-known communities(Brown et al., 2017; Kerkhof et al., 2017).
74 Astrobiologists have long used polar field sites as low-biomass environment analogues as a
75 testbed for life detection strategies, and the incorporation of MinION in trials for life
76 detection strategies offers some insight to the performance of MinION in remote and
77 challenging environments. This includes a trial of the MinION platform's technical
78 performance and endurance in Antarctica (Johnson et al., 2017) and the incorporation of
79 MinION-based metagenomics along with culturing as a proof-of-principle life detection
80 system in the Canadian High Arctic(Goordial et al., 2017). This latter study demonstrated the
81 potential utility of MinION sequencing in field settings but due to poor weather and limited
82 internet connectivity was limited to only one successful experiment where data could be
83 processed using a cloud-based bioinformatics platform.

84 Therefore, applications of nanopore sequencing in the field to date have typically required
85 labour-intensive sequencing library preparation following protocols developed for laboratory
86 use, and data analysis required base-calling and/or annotation using remote servers. Reliance
87 on cold chain transfer of reagents and sequencing flow cells also presents an important
88 limitation. However, the implementation of shotgun metagenomics and 16S rRNA gene

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89 amplicon analysis for in-field sequencing of complex microbiomes in conditions typical for
90 microbial ecologists in remote environments requires these obstacles to be overcome.

91 In this study we show the applicability of nanopore sequencing for rapid taxonomic
92 characterization and comparison of microbial communities in remote environments,
93 benchmarking the performance of the sequencing and bioinformatics approaches used by re-
94 analysis of samples previously investigated by second-generation sequencing. We selected
95 cryoconite, a photo- and heterotrophic microbe-mineral aggregate darkening the ice surfaces
96 of glaciers and ice sheets (Cook et al., 2015) as target microbiota. Cryoconite aggregates are
97 home to a diverse range of microbial life, with estimated diversity and activity rates
98 comparable to certain soils (Anesio et al., 2009; Cameron et al., 2012) in spite of its icy
99 environs. We show shotgun metagenomic and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing using
100 rapid library preparation protocols and fast, laptop-based taxonomic classification tools are
101 capable of robustly characterizing and comparing microbial communities while in the field.
102 Our results raise the prospect of investigating Earth's microbiomes at source.

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105 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

106 Sampling

107 Sampling and sequencing was performed in three Arctic locations, while archived materials
108 from three Svalbard glaciers and two alpine glaciers were used in the benchmarking
109 experiments. In all cases, cryoconite samples were collected using a disinfected turkey baster
110 which was used for the aspiration of debris to 15 mL sterile centrifuge tubes and transferred
111 within hours on ice in ambient temperatures of +2-4°C to the field lab or camp where they
112 were either extracted directly or stored in a -20°C freezer. While a common DNA extraction
113 protocol is employed, over the course of this study, protocols and tools for nanopore
114 sequencing have advanced rapidly and we describe the implementation of nanopore
115 sequencing in remote locations with differing levels of infrastructure. Each experiment is
116 therefore described in turn.

117 In-field DNA extraction

118 For the present study, community genomic DNA was extracted directly from cryoconite
119 debris. PowerSoil® DNA Isolation kits (MoBio, Inc.) are commonly used to extract high
120 quality DNA from environmental matrices rich in nucleic acid processing enzyme inhibitors,
121 including glacial samples (Edwards et al., 2011; Cameron et al., 2012; Musilova et al., 2015;
122 Stibal et al., 2015; Lutz et al., 2016). We therefore opted to amend the PowerSoil® DNA
123 isolation protocol for use within a minimalistic field laboratory to generate DNA extracts
124 compatible with nanopore sequencing protocols.

125 Generally, the protocol was implemented as per the manufacturer's instructions with the
126 following variations: The starting material was increased from 0.25 g to 0.27-0.29 g wet
127 weight to account for moisture content prior to bead-beating within PowerBead tubes. Bead-

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128 beating was conducted using a Vortex Genie 2 (Scientific Industries, Inc) fitted with a MoBio
129 (MoBio, Inc.) tube adapter or a IKA Works, Inc MS2 S8 Minishaker. Since the PowerSoil®
130 protocol typically uses benchtop centrifuges capable of 15-17,000 ×g, the use of a Gilson, Ltd
131 GmCLab Microcentrifuge capable of generating <2900 ×g required elongated spin times of
132 four minutes for protein precipitation following the addition of solution C2 and inhibitor
133 removal following the addition of solution C3. For all other centrifugation steps, spin times of
134 one minute were sufficient. To increase DNA concentration, DNA was eluted in 70 µL
135 solution C6, after a five minute incubation at room temperature. Two microlitre aliquots of
136 each extract were than immediately quantified using Qubit 2.0 Fluorimeter dsDNA High
137 Sensitivity assays (Invitrogen, Ltd). In the case of Greenland metagenomics, fluorimetry was
138 performed with the Qubit device powered using a portable power-pack (PowerAdd, Inc.)

139 Svalbard: shotgun metagenomics experiment, Foxfonna ice cap.

140 On 18 August 2016, cryoconite debris from four cryoconite holes was collected as described
141 above on the un-named outlet glacier of Foxfonna ice cap (78° 08'N, 16° 07' E; (Rutter et al.,
142 2011; Gokul et al., 2016).) Cryoconite was thawed the following day and DNA extracted as
143 described. Equimolar pools of cryoconite DNA provided 185 ng DNA used for a transposase-
144 based 1D rapid sequencing library preparation exactly as specified by Oxford Nanopore
145 Technologies, Ltd (Rapid Sequencing of genomic DNA for the minION device using SQK-
146 RAD001) using a PCR cycler for the 30°C and 75°C incubation steps in a Hybaid Omni-E
147 PCR cycler.

148 1D sequencing was directly performed using a R9 flow cell (Oxford Nanopore Technologies,
149 Ltd) loaded conventionally in 150 µL sequencing mix to a MinION Mk 1 device run using
150 MinKNOW 1.0.5 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd). Sequencing and read processing
151 were performed on a Lenovo® ThinkPad® X1 Carbon running Windows 10 with Intel®

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152 Core™ i7-5600U Processor, 8GB RAM and a 512GB solid state drive. 1D basecalling was
153 performed remotely via the Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd. Metrichor platform.
154 Template strand nanopore reads in .fast5 format were converted to fasta using the
155 pore_parallel GUI of poRe 0.17 (Watson et al., 2015) running in R 3.3.1.

156 Greenland Ice Sheet margin: shotgun metagenomics experiment, Russell glacier.

157 On 16 June 2017, cryoconite debris from four cryoconite holes was collected as described
158 from four cryoconite holes on Russell glacier at the south western margin of the Greenland
159 Ice Sheet (N67° 8'08.871' 05 ° 08'05.016' W(Edwards et al., 2014b)) DNA extraction and
160 sequencing was performed in a field camp tent with AC generator power for DNA extraction
161 only. Equimolar pools of cryoconite DNA provided 185 ng DNA used for transposase based
162 1D rapid sequencing library preparation as specified by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd
163 (Rapid Sequencing of genomic DNA for the minION device using SQK-RAD002) but
164 holding the library tube in gloved hands for the 30°C incubation step and immersion in hot
165 water stored in an insulated mug for 75°C inactivation.

166 The library (75 µL) was loaded in the SpotON port of a R9.4 flow cell (Oxford Nanopore
167 Technologies, Ltd) run using a MinION MK1 device. Due to the cold (<0°C) ambient
168 temperatures, to maintain optimal sequencing temperature, the MinION device was enclosed
169 in an insulated cool bag during sequencing (Tesco, Ltd). Sequencing and read processing
170 were performed on a Dell XPS15 laptop running Windows 10 Intel® Core™ i7-6700HQ
171 Processor, 32GB RAM and a 1GB solid state drive, running on internal battery. Sequencing
172 was controlled using MinKNOW 1.6.11 (modified for offline use, courtesy Oxford Nanopore
173 Technologies, Ltd) and 1D basecalling performed locally with Albacore v1.1.0 (Oxford
174 Nanopore Technologies, Ltd).

175 Benchmarking: shotgun metagenomics experiment, Rotmoosferner, Austrian Alps.

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176 To compare the performance of in-field nanopore metagenome sequencing with established
177 strategies for metagenome sequencing, we conducted nanopore sequencing of samples with
178 corresponding, publicly available metagenome data. Samples RF1 and RF6, from alpine
179 cryoconite collected from the surface of Rotmoosferner glacier in the Austrian Alps in
180 September 2010. A shotgun metagenomic sequencing library of the same two samples in an
181 equimolar pool with 12 other cryoconite community genomic DNA samples from
182 Rotmoosferner was analysed by Illumina sequencing previously (Edwards et al., 2013b) and
183 is available at MG-RAST (4 491 734.3).

184 Community genomic DNA was extracted in 2017 from 250 mg cryoconite sediment from
185 samples RF1 and RF6 stored at -80°C using the modified PowerSoil method. To generate
186 rapid 1D libraries, 400 ng DNA from the samples were used in transposase-based protocol as
187 specified by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd (Rapid Sequencing of genomic DNA for
188 the minION device using SQK-RAD003) with incubation steps in a PCR Cycler (G-Storm
189 Direct, Ltd). Library was loaded and sequenced on a R9.4 flow cell as described above for
190 the *Greenland* experiment, using MinKNOW 1.7 and Albacore v2.02 for sequencing and
191 basecalling respectively.

192 Storage and transportation of molecular biology reagents and sequencing flow cells at cold
193 temperatures represents a critical limitation to the utility of nanopore sequencing for
194 characterizing microbial communities in remote locations. We therefore tested lyophilized
195 versions of the rapid library kit and ambient-shipped R9.4 flow cells provided by Oxford
196 Nanopore Technologies Ltd. in a repetition of the above experiment. The experiment was
197 performed without laboratory resources. Briefly, 400 ng of community DNA in a 10 µL
198 volume was used to suspend lyophilized fragmentation mix, with incubation at room
199 temperature with inactivation and immersion in hot water stored in an insulated mug for 80°C
200 inactivation for one minute each. The resulting solution was incubated with rapid adapter for

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201 five minutes before gentle mixing with 65 μ L priming buffer and flow cell loading before
202 sequencing as described above.

203 Bioinformatics for shotgun metagenomics

204 For all experiments, sequencing reads were analysed using Kaiju(Menzel et al., 2016), a
205 taxonomic classifier which is offered as a webserver (<http://kaiju.binf.ku.dk>.) or as a
206 standalone version. Kaiju seeks protein-level matches in all possible reading frames using the
207 Burrows-Wheeler transform and has been demonstrated to be rapid yet sensitive (Menzel et
208 al., 2016). We report Kaiju analyses conducted using the NCBI *nr+euk* database (version: 05
209 May 2017) containing 103 million protein sequences from microbes, viruses and selected
210 microbial eukaryotes with low complexity filtering and in *greedy* mode (Minimum match:
211 11; minimum match score: 75; allowed mismatches: 5). Outputs from Kaiju were visualized
212 as Krona plots. Taxon path and Kaiju output files are available as additional files 1-10.
213 Nanopore sequencing data from in-field metagenomes are available at the European
214 Nucleotide Archive (ENA) accessions ERR2264275 - ERR2264278.

215 Svalbard: 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing, Vestre Brøggerbreen

216 On 10 July 2017, cryoconite debris was collected from six cryoconite holes on Vestre
217 Brøggerbreen (78° 54'7 N, 011°43'8 E) on Svalbard. Three cryoconite holes (VB1-3) were
218 covered by snow and superimposed ice while three cryoconite holes (VB4-6) were exposed.
219 To test the hypothesis that the presence or absence of snow/ice cover incurs changes in the
220 bacterial community structure, 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing was conducted. Samples
221 were transferred to the NERC Arctic Research Station Ny Ålesund within three hours and
222 DNA extracted and quantified as described above within the field lab.

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223 Bacterial 16S rRNA genes were amplified from 50 ng DNA per sample diluted to 10 μ L
224 nuclease free water in 50 μ L with 1 \times LongAmp Taq master mix (New England Biolabs,
225 Inc), 1 μ L 16S rRNA gene barcoded primer (ONT-RAB 201, Oxford Nanopore
226 Technologies, Ltd) and 14 μ L nuclease free water. Each sample was allocated to a barcoded
227 primer. A no template control (nuclease free water) and extract control (blank extract) were
228 amplified and sequenced in parallel. PCR was conducted as specified in the Oxford Nanopore
229 Technologies protocol for rapid, barcoded sequencing of 16S rRNA genes (ONT-RAB201,
230 Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd) with the modification that 30 cycles of PCR were
231 performed. PCR was performed using a 8 well MiniPCR device (Ampliyus, Inc.) controlled
232 by a Windows laptop. The resulting PCR products were purified using magnetic beads
233 (Ampure XP, Beckman Coulter, Ltd) and eluted in 10 μ L buffer (10 mM Tris, 50 mM NaCl,
234 pH 8.0) prior to Qubit quantification. Equimolar quantities of each barcode were pooled and
235 sequenced using a R9.4 flow cell as described above for the *Greenland* experiment prior to
236 1D basecalling and barcode demultiplexing in Albacore v1.10.

237 Benchmarking: nanopore 16S rRNA gene discrimination of Arctic and alpine cryoconite

238 To compare the performance of in-field nanopore 16S rRNA gene sequencing with
239 established strategies for 16S rRNA gene profiling, we conducted nanopore sequencing of
240 cryoconite samples with corresponding, publicly available 16S rRNA gene data spanning
241 Svalbard and Austrian glaciers. V1-V3 16S rRNA amplicon pyrosequencing data for these
242 samples are available at available at EBI-SRA (PRJEB5067-ERP004426). Details of sample
243 collection, pyrosequencing and data processing are described elsewhere (Edwards et al.,
244 2014b).

245 Ten samples (Svalbard: three pairs of samples from Austre Brøggerbreen [AB], Midtre
246 Lovénbreen [ML] and Vestre Brøggerbreen [VB]. Austria; two pairs of samples from

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247 Gaisbergferner[GB] and Rotmoosferner[RM]) archived at -80°C since collection were used
248 to generate fresh DNA extracts as described above. Bacterial 16S rRNA genes were
249 amplified and sequenced exactly as described for the Svalbard 16S ribosomal RNA gene
250 sequencing experiment, with the exception that a 96 well PCR cycler (G-Storm Direct, Ltd)
251 was used for amplification and Albacore v2.02 used for basecalling and demultiplexing by
252 barcode. Samples were assigned an individual barcode primer, with co-amplification and
253 sequencing of no-template and extract controls.

254 16S rRNA gene data analysis

255 Reads were base-called and de-multiplexed using Albacore v1.10 and v2.02 for
256 implementation and benchmarking experiments, which were converted to fasta for taxonomy
257 assignment. In developing a strategy for nanopore 16S rRNA amplicon analysis, our primary
258 considerations were to leverage the short turnaround time and in-field flexibility of the
259 MinION platform while mitigating the impacts of relatively high error rate per base. We
260 therefore opted to directly assign higher-level taxonomy to Albacore demultiplexed reads via
261 the SINTAX taxonomic classifier in usearch v10.0.240(Edgar, 2016) against taxa in a
262 species-level identity curated database of Ribosomal Database Project version 16 taxa. A
263 confidence level of 0.75 was chosen for each taxonomic assignment. The taxonomy
264 assignment is available as supplementary data.

265 The number of reads assigned per taxon were counted in MS Excel and the relative
266 abundance of reads per phylum (or proteobacterial class) and family used for separate
267 downstream analysis. Multivariate analyses of bacterial community structure using Bray-
268 Curtis distances of fourth root transformed taxon relative abundance data were performed in
269 Primer-6.1.12 & Permanova+1.0.2 (Primer-E, Ltd, Ivybridge, UK). Principal Coordinates
270 Analysis (PCoA) and group-average Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) were used as

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271 unsupervised data exploration, while hypotheses were tested using PERMANOVA with
272 unrestricted permutation of raw data and 9,999 ordinations. Reads from the implementation
273 and benchmarking experiments are available from ENA at ERR2264279 - ERR2264283 and
274 ERR2264284 - ERR2264293 respectively, and the taxonomic assignments for each read are
275 presented as additional file 11.

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278 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

279 We report the successful implementation of nanopore sequencing for generating taxonomic
280 profiles of microbiota in field environments, both from shallow-depth shotgun metagenome
281 and targeted, 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing approaches. Our analyses reveal
282 nanopore sequencing generates taxonomic profiles coherent with conventional workflows in
283 molecular microbial ecology. These results raise the prospect that highly portable DNA
284 sequencing can be applied to characterise microbiomes rapidly while researchers are
285 deployed in remote field sites and thus help inform experimental or survey planning and
286 analysis within the field.

287 In field metagenomics of Arctic cryoconite

288 Here, we report the generation of two metagenomes from Arctic cryoconite by in-field
289 nanopore sequencing, and the taxonomic classification of microbial diversity. A third
290 metagenome was generated from archived alpine cryoconite for comparison with laboratory-
291 sequenced metagenome data.

292 For the *Svalbard* metagenomics experiment, community DNA was extracted from Foxfonna
293 cryoconite and sequenced using rapid library preparation, with 3514 reads were successfully
294 basecalled. Of these, through analysis using the Kaiju classifier, 2305 reads could be assigned
295 to named taxa, of which 2265 reads were assigned as bacterial in origin. Consistent with
296 earlier V1-V3 region 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing of cryoconite from Foxfonna ice
297 cap(Gokul et al., 2016) the community was dominated by *Proteobacteria*
298 (*Alphaproteobacteria* and *Betaproteobacteria*) followed by *Actinobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria*
299 and *Bacteroidetes* (FIG 1). Importantly, the most abundant species-level match was to
300 *Phormidesmis priestleyi*. The cyanobacterium *Phormidesmis priestleyi* is frequently detected
301 in Arctic cryoconite and is thought to act as an ecosystem engineer of cryoconite granules,

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302 with its cyanobacterial filaments entangling inorganic debris to form darkened microbe-
303 mineral aggregates on the ice surface (Langford et al., 2010; Cook et al., 2016; Gokul et al.,
304 2016; Uetake et al., 2016).

305 The *Svalbard* metagenomics experiment represents an initial use of rapid library preparations
306 to generate taxonomic profiles in field environments, with base-calling and subsequent
307 analysis performed using online resources. Additionally, this experiment represents sample-
308 to-preprint communication of its initial analyses within 23 days of sample collection
309 (Edwards et al., 2016). Considering the doubling times of Svalbard cryoconite sedimentary
310 bacterial communities are in the same order (Anesio et al., 2010) this represents the
311 metagenomic characterization of a microbial community within its generation time.

312 The reliance of our *Svalbard* metagenomics experiment described above on internet access
313 and mains electricity represents an important limitation. We therefore sought to conduct a
314 second experiment based in a typical field camp setting. Our *Greenland* metagenome
315 sequencing experiment entailed collection of cryoconite from the margin of the Greenland Ice
316 Sheet and its sequencing. DNA extraction was performed with access to a portable generator,
317 but generator failure required all subsequent steps to be performed on battery power.
318 Quantification powered by a portable power-pack while library preparation was performed
319 without power, and DNA sequencing was performed on laptop batteries. Freezing air
320 temperatures presented challenges for maintaining liquid reagents and optimal MinION
321 temperatures, resolved by storing reagents warmed by body warmth in a down jacket, and
322 operating the MinION in an insulated shield. These limitations constrained the endurance of
323 the sequencing experiment, but of 2372 reads sequenced, 796 reads were assigned to
324 taxonomy and 692 reads matched bacterial taxa (FIG 2). The community revealed was
325 dominated by *Cyanobacteria*, *Proteobacteria* (*Alphaproteobacteria*, *Betaproteobacteria*,
326 *Gammaproteobacteria*) and *Actinobacteria*, again consistent with sequence data from

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327 Greenlandic cryoconite(Edwards et al., 2014b; Musilova et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2016). The
328 most abundant species within the profile, *Phormidesmis priestleyi*, represented 21% of the
329 assigned reads. Our *Greenland* metagenome experiment therefore represents the in-field
330 metagenomic sequencing of a microbial community in the resource-limited settings typical of
331 Arctic field camps.

332 Benchmarking in-field metagenomics

333 To compare the performance of in-field nanopore sequencing with laboratory based Illumina
334 sequencing of shotgun metagenomes, we re-sequenced cryoconite DNA samples from
335 Rotmoosferner, an alpine glacier, which had previously been characterized using Illumina
336 sequencing(Edwards et al., 2013a). Two experiments were performed. The first experiment
337 was performed in a laboratory setting while the second experiment used reagents and flow
338 cells adapted for ambient shipping and storage.

339 Comparison of nanopore and Illumina data analysed using Kaiju revealed coherent
340 taxonomic profiles, both internally and to prior analyses (Edwards et al., 2013a) (FIG 3). The
341 Kaiju-profiled communities were dominated by *Proteobacteria* (*Betaproteobacteria*,
342 *Alphaproteobacteria*, *Gammaproteobacteria*) with *Burkholderiales* prominent within the
343 community. *Cyanobacteria* were dominated by *Chamaesiphon minutus* matching reads at 7%
344 and 1% of the annotated nanopore and Illumina reads respectively.

345 Of 6844 nanopore reads, 2767 reads were annotated to taxa, with 2684 matching bacterial
346 taxa while 184283 out of 225144 Illumina contigs were classified by Kaiju, with 182049
347 matching bacterial taxa. In spite of the frank difference in sequencing effort in the datasets,
348 the percentage of reads classified to bacteria and their taxonomic affiliation is coherent
349 between nanopore and Illumina datasets. Moreover, the performance of Kaiju with nanopore
350 data in our experiments matches the expectations of performance for Illumina data as

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351 described by its authors(Menzel et al., 2016). As Kaiju uses protein-level matches to all
352 possible reading frames it likely represents an effective tool for the rapid characterization of
353 the taxonomic composition and implicit functional potential of microbial communities
354 analysed by rapid library in-field nanopore sequencing of metagenomic DNA.

355 An important limitation to all above experiments is the necessity of maintaining a cold-chain
356 for sequencing reagents and nanopore flow cells. This presents logistical challenges for
357 characterizing microbial communities in highly remote locations. We therefore tested an
358 early-release lyophilized field kit provided by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd. based on
359 the same sequencing chemistry, performing sequencing of the Rotmoosferner samples in a
360 non-laboratory environment using R9.4 flow cells shipped at ambient temperatures and stored
361 for five days. Kaiju classified 18694 out of 31538 reads generated in the experiment, of
362 which 18008 were assigned to the bacterial domain (FIG 4). The taxonomic profile of these
363 reads closely matched both “wet” (RAD003) nanopore and Illumina datasets detailed above,
364 with a coherent higher-level taxonomic profile and the cyanobacterium *Chamaesiphon*
365 *minutus* representing 8% of assigned reads. The performance of lyophilized field kit and
366 ambient flow cells in a non-laboratory environment described above raises the prospect of
367 metagenomic characterization of microbial communities in highly resource limited, remote
368 environments.

369 In field 16S rRNA gene sequencing

370 Amplicon sequencing of 16S rRNA genes represents a backbone technique in microbial
371 ecology for the culture-independent investigation of microbial diversity (eg(Thompson et al.,
372 2017)). In contrast with short read second-generation high throughput sequencing techniques,
373 full-length 16S rRNA gene sequencing is possible with using nanopore(Li et al., 2016;
374 Kerkhof et al., 2017) in laboratory settings. Therefore, we anticipated MinION based in-field

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375 sequencing of barcoded 16S rRNA genes could permit the semi-quantitative comparison of
376 bacterial communities while in the field.

377 We therefore implemented barcoded 16S rRNA gene MinION sequencing of bacterial
378 communities derived from Svalbard cryoconite holes which were either open (VB1-3; n=3)
379 to the atmosphere, or covered by a layer of snow and superimposed ice (VB4-6; n=3), testing
380 the hypothesis that the presence or absence of snow/ice cover incurs changes in the bacterial
381 community structure.

382 We amplified and co-sequenced a blank extraction control and a blank PCR control to detect
383 the potential impacts of contamination arising from conducting 16S rRNA gene PCR (Salter
384 et al., 2014), as preparing amplifications in a field laboratory setting may pose additional
385 risks of contamination. A limitation of our experiment was the number of samples which
386 could be processed in a single run, given the capacity of the eight-well PCR portable PCR
387 cyclers used. DNA was extracted and amplified from six samples, but PCR product from one
388 sample (VB4, open) was lost during bead clean-up, resulting in sequencing failure for that
389 sample.

390 Following basecalling and demultiplexing, 20,000 reads per sample were subjected to
391 taxonomic analysis. Only seven sequences were returned for each of the negative controls,
392 indicating the likely minimal impact of contamination in the field lab setting.

393 Although error-correcting approaches are in development for 16S rRNA gene nanopore
394 sequencing (Li et al., 2016; Calus et al., 2018), considering the goal of preliminary
395 characterization based upon rapid protocols compatible with field use, we opted to proceed
396 with uncorrected reads, directly assigning taxonomy to each read and treating the cumulative
397 abundance of reads matching discrete higher-level taxonomic affiliations as phylotypes.

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398 Using the SINTAX classifier algorithm (Edgar, 2016) trained on a highly curated version of
399 the RDP database, reads were classified within ca. 10 minutes on a laptop computer without
400 the need for internet access. At a confidence level of 0.75, 15643 reads per barcode were
401 assigned to bacterial taxa on average (range: 13017-17593, 1 SD = 1725 reads). All
402 community profiles were strongly dominated by *Cyanobacteria* at the phylum level with
403 prominent contributions from *Proteobacteria* (*Betaproteobacteria* and *Alphaproteobacteria*)
404 and *Bacteroidetes* broadly consistent with prior amplicon studies of Svalbard cryoconite (FIG
405 5). At both the phylum and family level, cryoconite communities ordinated and clustered
406 clearly according to the open or closed status of the cryoconite hole (principal coordinates
407 and hierarchical cluster analysis of fourth root transformed Bray-Curtis distances, FIG 5). At
408 the family level, significant differences were apparent in the fourth root transformed Bray
409 Curtis distances of taxon relative abundance (PERMANOVA: $F=6.5$, $p(\text{MC})=0.02$). Our
410 analyses are consistent with the potential effect of snow/ice cover on total bacterial
411 community structure within cryoconite aggregates and underscore the potential for in-field
412 16S rRNA gene sequencing to inform investigations while deployed in remote environments.

413 Benchmarking in-field 16S rRNA gene sequencing

414 To establish whether in-field 16S rRNA gene sequencing implemented as above offers results
415 coherent with established, second-generation sequencing approaches we implemented our
416 nanopore protocol on DNA samples which had previously been characterized by V1-V3 16S
417 rRNA gene pyrosequencing (Edwards et al., 2014b). Our sample set comprised ten cryoconite
418 samples from three Svalbard glaciers (n=2 each) and two alpine glaciers (n=2 each). Negative
419 extraction and PCR controls as above produced one and four reads respectively. From 24000
420 demultiplexed reads per sample, on average 20882 reads were assigned to bacterial taxonomy
421 (range: 9021-24000, 1 SD =6518). *Cyanobacteria* with prominent contributions from
422 *Proteobacteria* (*Betaproteobacteria* and *Alphaproteobacteria*) and *Bacteroidetes* dominated

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423 the phylum level taxonomic distributions of the community. At the phylum level, significant
424 differences were observed between Arctic and alpine cryoconite communities
425 (PERMANOVA; $F=2.8866$, $p=0.02$) with discrete ordination apparent (principal coordinates
426 analysis of Bray-Curtis distances, FIG 6). At the improved taxonomic resolution of family
427 level assignments, the effect of parent glacier is highly significant (PERMANOVA; $F=5.032$,
428 $p=0.001$). In this regard, the outcomes of nanopore-based 16S rRNA gene sequencing are
429 highly coherent with prior pyrosequencing analyses(Edwards et al., 2014b).

430 To further compare the assignment of taxa following nanopore-based 16S rRNA gene
431 sequencing with the pyrosequencing dataset of the same samples, we correlated the log
432 relative abundance of dominant taxonomic groups. Significant, strongly positive Pearson
433 correlations between the log relative abundances of key taxonomic groups were apparent
434 between nanopore and pyrosequencing data: *Acidobacteria* ($r=0.82$, $p=0.004$),
435 *Alphaproteobacteria* ($r=0.81$, $p=0.004$), *Betaproteobacteria* ($r=0.90$, $p<0.001$), *Bacteroidetes*
436 ($r=0.70$, $p=0.02$), and *Firmicutes* ($r=0.90$, $p<0.001$). The ratios of
437 *Alphaproteobacteria:Betaproteobacteria*, previously identified as a discriminator between
438 Arctic and alpine cryoconite (Cook et al., 2015) were highly correlated between nanopore
439 and pyrosequencing datasets ($r=0.90$, $p<0.001$).

440 Our in-field 16S rRNA gene analyses are limited by two key caveats. Firstly, they are
441 performed on uncorrected nanopore 1D reads and are therefore subject to a relatively high
442 error rate. In this study we anticipated the availability of full-length 16S rRNA gene reads
443 and hence stronger phylogenetic signal relative to the random error profile of nanopore-
444 induced error, coupled with the aggregation of reads at higher taxonomic levels would
445 amortize the effect of diminished taxonomic resolution. Future work in developing nanopore-
446 optimized bioinformatics pipelines for 16S rRNA gene analyses could improve reliable
447 assignment of reads to discrete operational taxonomic units. Secondly, we were constrained

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448 in the number of samples which may be compared in each run due to the limited number of
449 barcodes or PCRs which could be performed. The high throughput of 16S rRNA gene
450 amplicon sequencing we observed on the MinION platform – tens of thousands of
451 demultiplexed reads within a few hours of sequencing – demonstrates the potential for
452 increased parallelization. In summary our analyses highlight the viability of rapid, in-field
453 sequencing of 16S rRNA genes on highly portable MinION devices for comparison of
454 microbial communities.

455 Portable microbiome sequencing: implications for microbial ecology

456 Within this study we describe the application of portable nanopore sequencing for the in-field
457 characterization and comparison of microbial communities. Refinement of our approaches
458 illustrates the potential for generating and analysing sequence data within remote locations
459 without recourse to server-supported bioinformatics, and even in highly resource limited
460 settings.

461 Advances in high throughput sequencing capacity are underpinning continual revolution,
462 revealing revelations about the structure and potential function of microbial communities
463 inhabiting niches throughout every conceivable habitat in the biosphere. Just over a decade
464 ago, Curtis (Curtis) wrote of the urgent need for microbial ecologists to “go large” and
465 embark upon the high throughput characterization of microbial diversity. Such data-
466 collection initiatives represent essential pre-requisites to the development of mechanistic and
467 predictive insights. Arguably, the vision set out by Curtis (2006) is being accomplished by
468 initiatives such as the Earth Microbiome Project (Thompson et al., 2017), enhancing our
469 coverage of microbial diversity across the planet. However, cataloguing microbial diversity
470 has hitherto been contingent on laboratory-based, high-throughput sequencing platforms,
471 replete with high levels of laboratory infrastructure. This has been at the cost of agility in

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472 characterizing and comparing microbial diversity. In-field sequencing using portable MinION
473 sequencers and laptop-based bioinformatics approaches described herein offers the
474 opportunity to regain agility in the characterization of Earth's microbiomes by supporting
475 distributed, at-source DNA sequencing. Loman and Gardy (2017) advocate the merger of
476 human, animal and environmental genomic surveillance through scalable, portable DNA
477 sequencing for digital epidemiology with the goal of achieving a "sequencing singularity".
478 Such a sequencing singularity offers benefits for navigating Earth's microbial diversity in the
479 broader sense also. We contend it is now time to "go small".

480 "Going small" has three conspicuous advantages. Firstly, microbial processes sense and
481 amplify the impacts of environmental change(Vincent, 2010). Understanding the genomic
482 basis of such processes therefore represents a research priority. Parallels may be drawn with
483 the promise of portable sequencing enabled disease diagnosis and surveillance (Gardy and
484 Loman, 2017). For example, within the context of the global cryosphere, rapid warming is
485 creating hitherto unseen opportunities and challenges in the study of microbial diversity.
486 Presently, we lack DNA datasets for over 99.5%(Edwards, 2015; Edwards and Cook, 2015)
487 of Earth's glaciers, which represent Earth's largest freshwater ecosystem (Edwards et al.,
488 2014a) and yet are highly endangered by climatic warming(Hotaling et al., 2017; Milner et
489 al., 2017). Rapid, on-site investigation of microbial interactions with climate warming has the
490 potential to develop baseline data for fragile ecosystems such as glaciers, and to gather
491 observational data as a prelude to hypothesis testing.

492 Secondly, accessing microbial diversity in remote locations, rather than merely its collection
493 and transfer for analysis, also reduces logistical risks. This takes many forms. Sequencing on-
494 site precludes the risk of post-collection changes in community structure, sample degradation
495 or loss in transit *e.g.*(Choo et al., 2015; Hodson et al., 2017). Moreover, investigators gain the
496 flexibility to adjust their sampling campaigns, maximising the value of field campaigns.

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497 Furthermore, retrieval of microbial diversity from inaccessible environments requires
498 sophisticated engineering approaches to assure the integrity of recovered samples. Examples
499 include clean subglacial lake access (Siegert et al., 2012; Christner et al., 2014). In-field
500 sequencing offers the possibility of monitoring the recovery of high quality samples, the
501 detection and prevention of contamination, and the optimization of sample capture events
502 within a single field campaign.

503 Thirdly, in-field sequence based characterization and comparison of microbial communities
504 offers the opportunity for distributed characterization of Earth's microbiomes, thus expanding
505 both our geographical and genomic coverage of microbial diversity. Gilbert et al argue that if
506 Darwin had the technological capacity, he would have used metagenomics in the surveys of
507 biodiversity which underpinned the formulation of the Origin of Species (Darwin, 1859).
508 Indeed if Darwin had been a metagenomic scientist, then *HMS Beagle* would have been
509 equipped for in-field sequencing for the discovery of metagenomic diversity.

510 Such considerations are not whimsical. The disparity between the technological constraints
511 on enumerating plant and animal biodiversity and microbial biodiversity underlie a schism
512 between "animal and plant" ecology and "microbial" ecology. This is consequential in that
513 whether microbial equivalents of long-established laws in animal and plant biogeography
514 exist remains a contemporary research question e.g. (Carbonero et al., 2014; van der Gast,
515 2015). We highlight the potential for distributed discovery of Earth's microbiomes supported
516 by in-field DNA sequencing to underpin a new generation of scientific exploration – and
517 explorers.

518 Conclusions

519 Here we report the use of portable nanopore sequencing to characterize and compare
520 microbial communities while in the field. Our approaches robustly characterize the

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521 taxonomic composition of glacial microbial communities using shotgun metagenomics, and
522 permit their comparison by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. The experiments reported
523 show the versatility of nanopore sequencing approaches for microbiome analyses in a range
524 of field settings, and the coherence of data produced with established approaches for
525 investigating microbial diversity. Continued development in the field of nanopore
526 sequencing, for example the use of lyophilized reagents and ambient-temperature stable
527 nanopore flow cells for sequencing with on-laptop analytic approaches raises the prospect of
528 highly agile characterization of Earth's microbiomes at source.

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538 **Author contribution**

539 AE: Conceived study, conducted fieldwork, sequencing, analysis, wrote manuscript. ARD:
540 Developed DNA extraction method, conducted fieldwork. SMN, LAJM and SR:
541 bioinformatics analysis and support; BS, JMC, TD and AJH: conducted fieldwork. All
542 authors contributed to and commented upon the manuscript.

543 **Conflicting interest statement**

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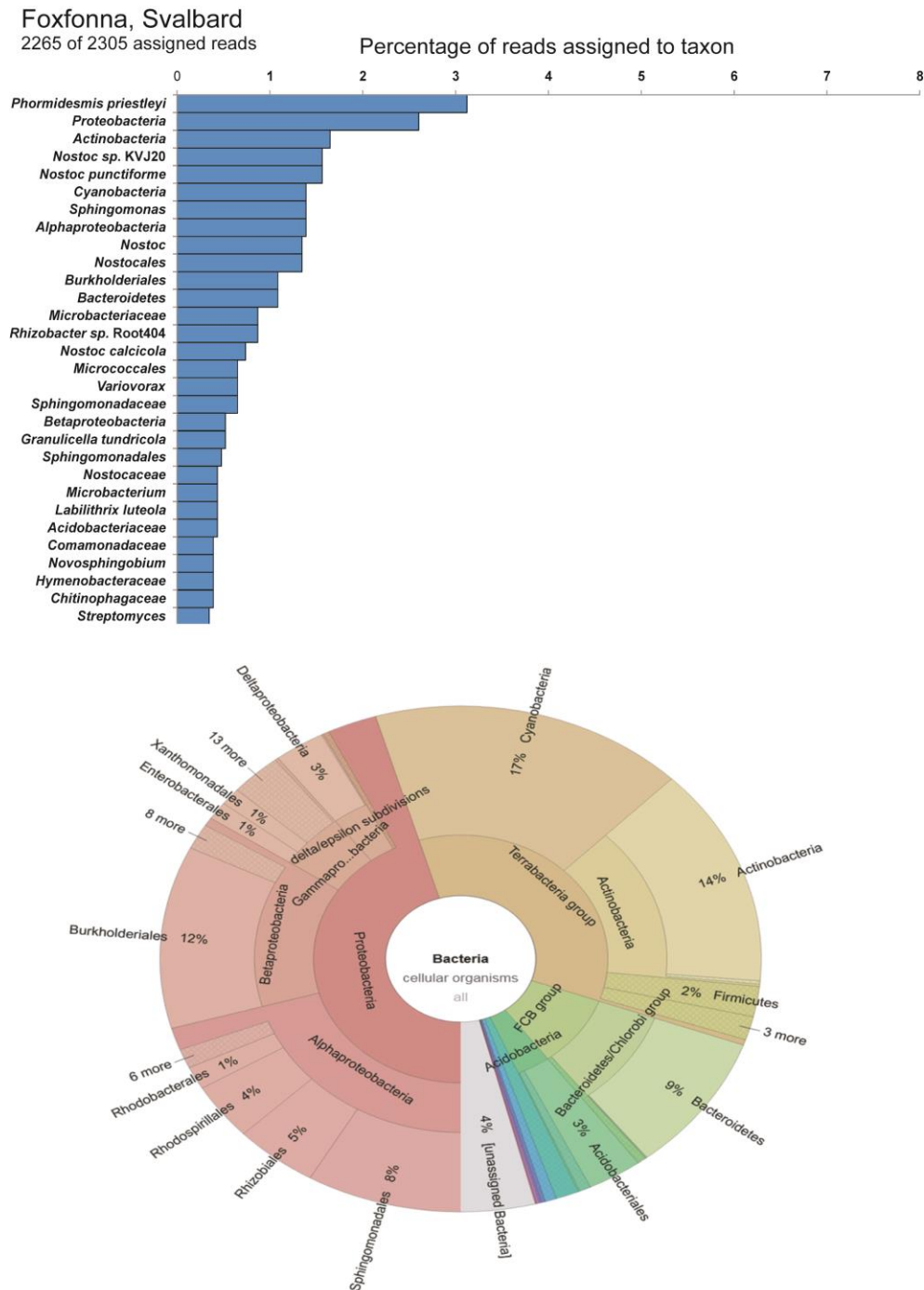
544 AE has received financial support to attend and present elements of this work at the
545 Nanopore Community Meetings 2016 and 2017 and free reagents for outreach work from
546 Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Ltd.

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549 **List of Figures**



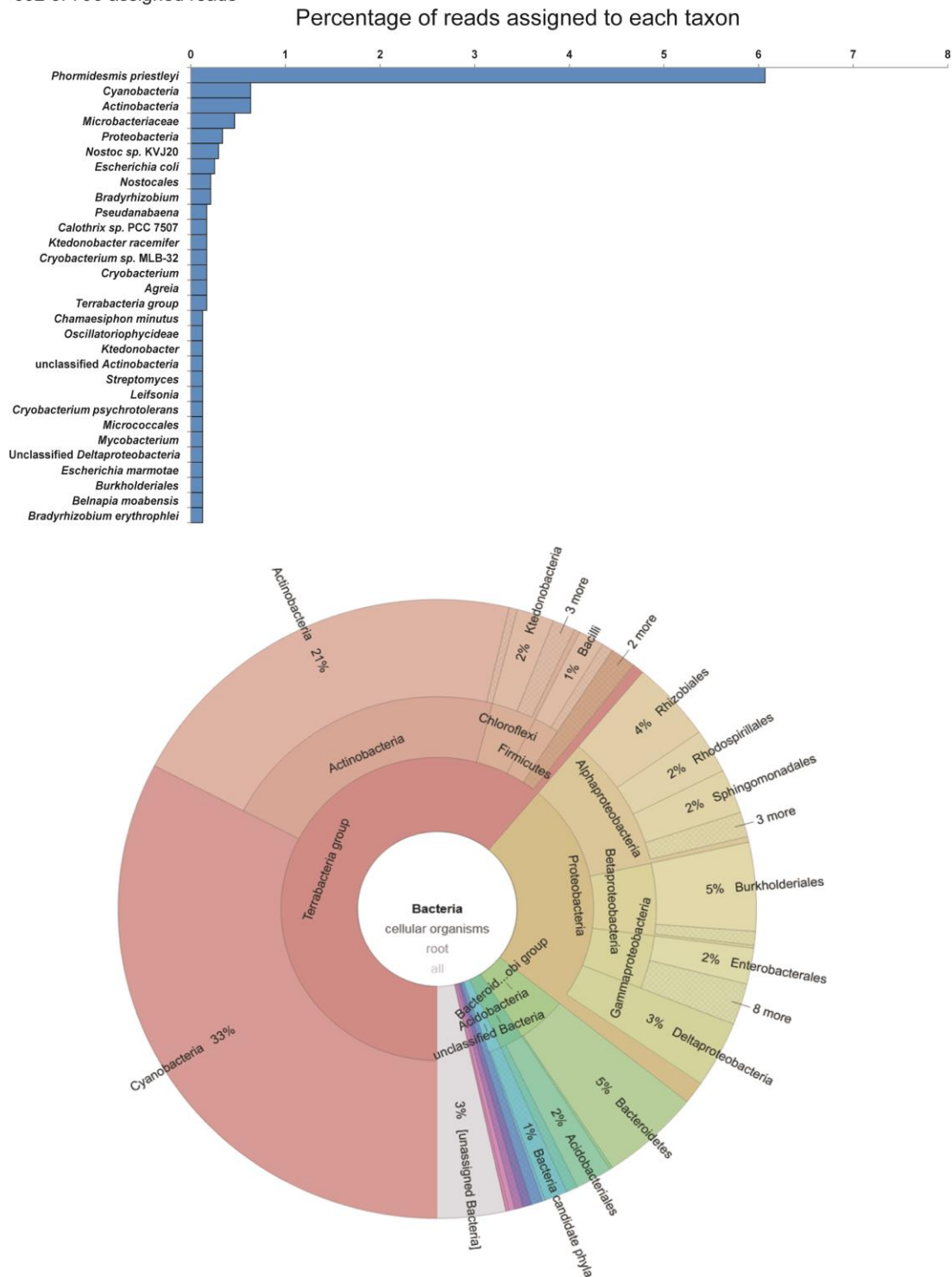
550

551 **Figure 1:** In field metagenome sequencing reveals taxonomic distribution of Svalbard
 552 cryoconite microbiota. The thirty top represented taxa and a krona plot of bacterial level
 553 diversity in nanopore-sequenced cryoconite metagenome are shown.

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Russell Glacier, Greenland

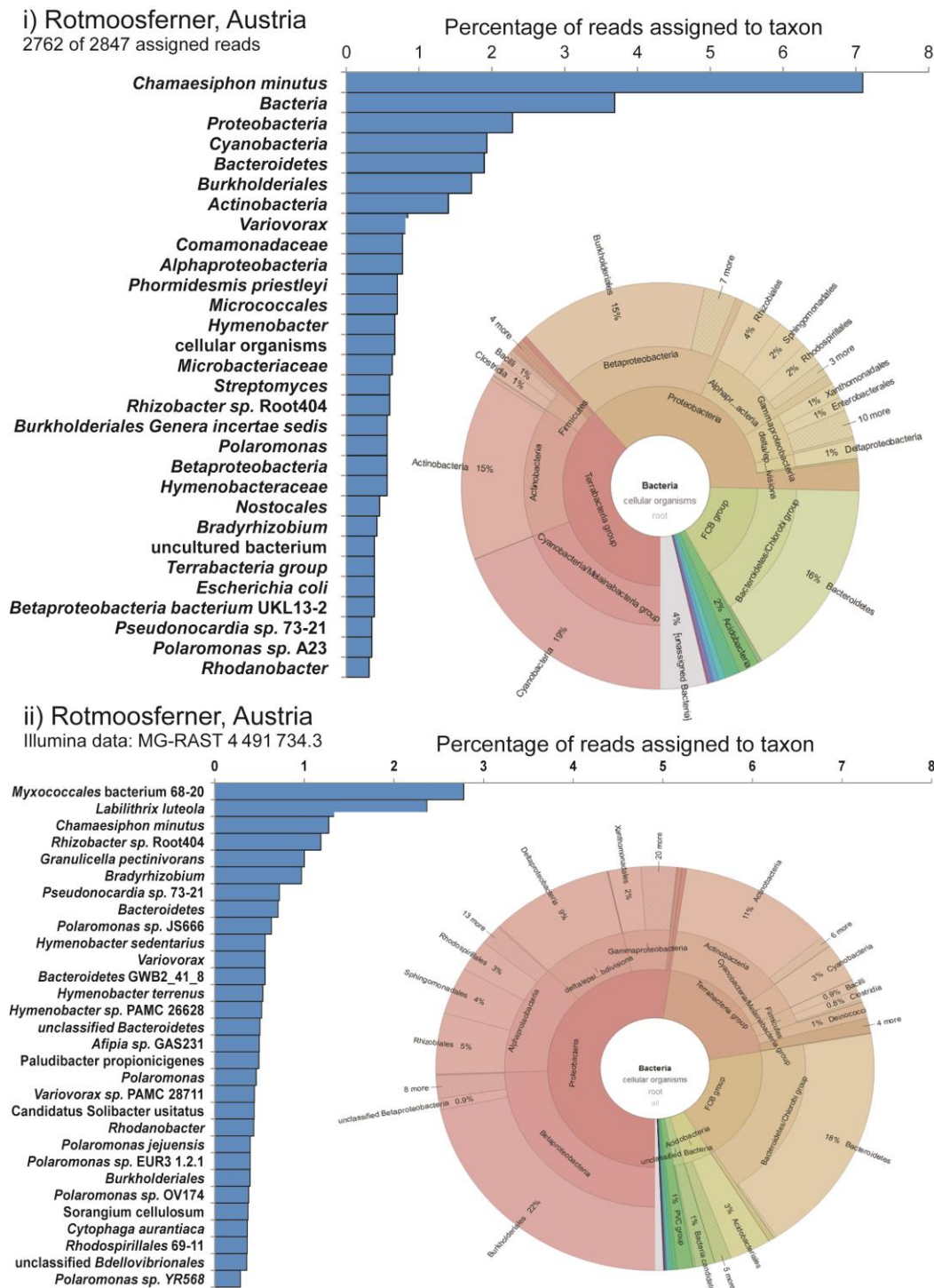
692 of 796 assigned reads



554

555 **Figure 2:** In field metagenome sequencing reveals taxonomic distribution of Greenland
556 cryoconite microbiota. The thirty top represented taxa and a krona plot of bacterial level
557 diversity in nanopore-sequenced cryoconite metagenome are shown.

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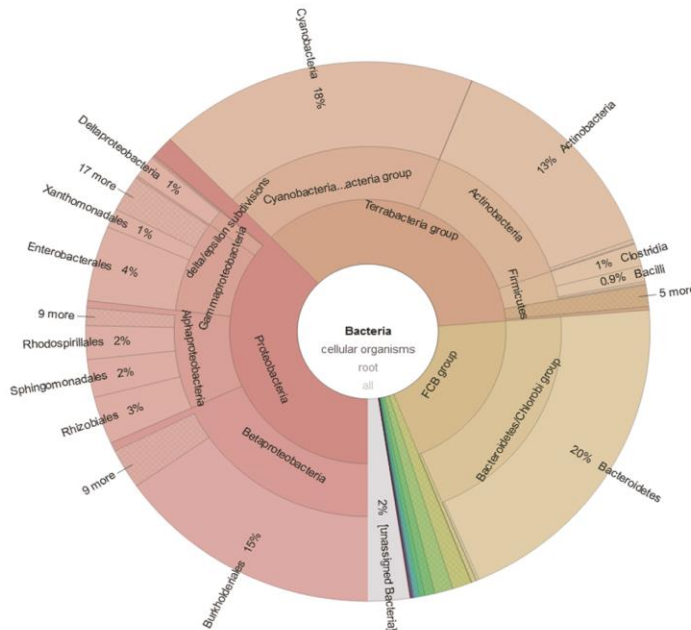
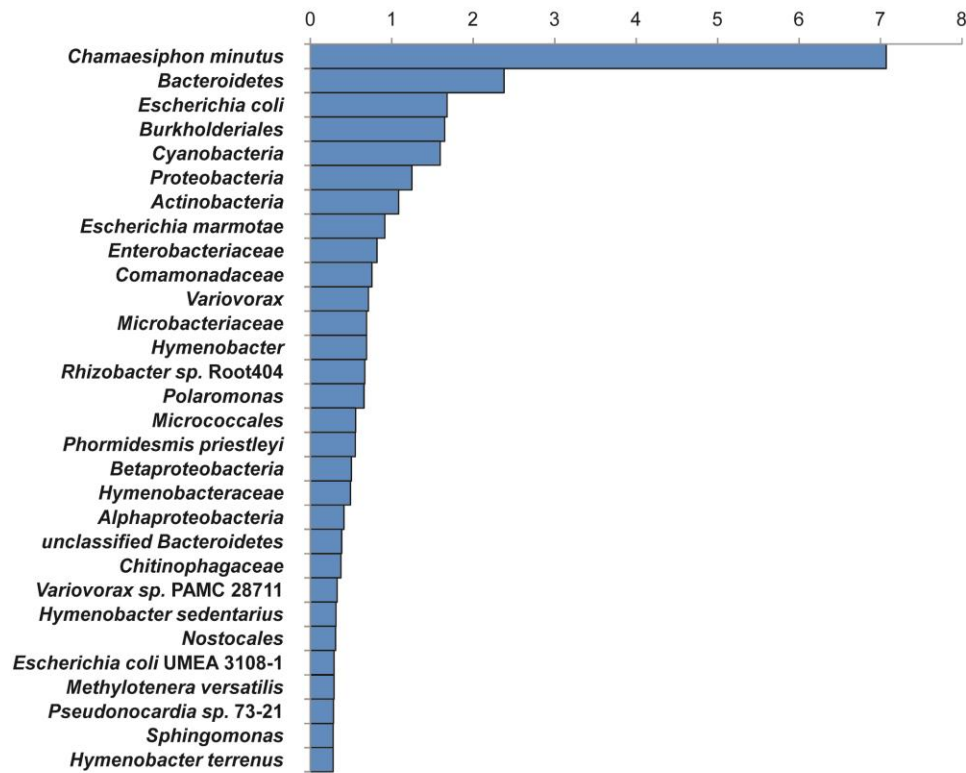
558

559 **Figure 3:** Benchmarking nanopore metagenomics sequencing by comparison with
 560 laboratory-generated data. Krona plot of bacterial level diversity in (i) a nanopore-sequenced
 561 cryoconite metagenome from an alpine glacier, Rotmoosferner compared with (ii) Illumina-
 562 sequenced metagenome from the same samples (Edwards et al. 2013).

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Rotmoosferner (lyophilized field kit)

18008 reads of 18694 assigned reads



563

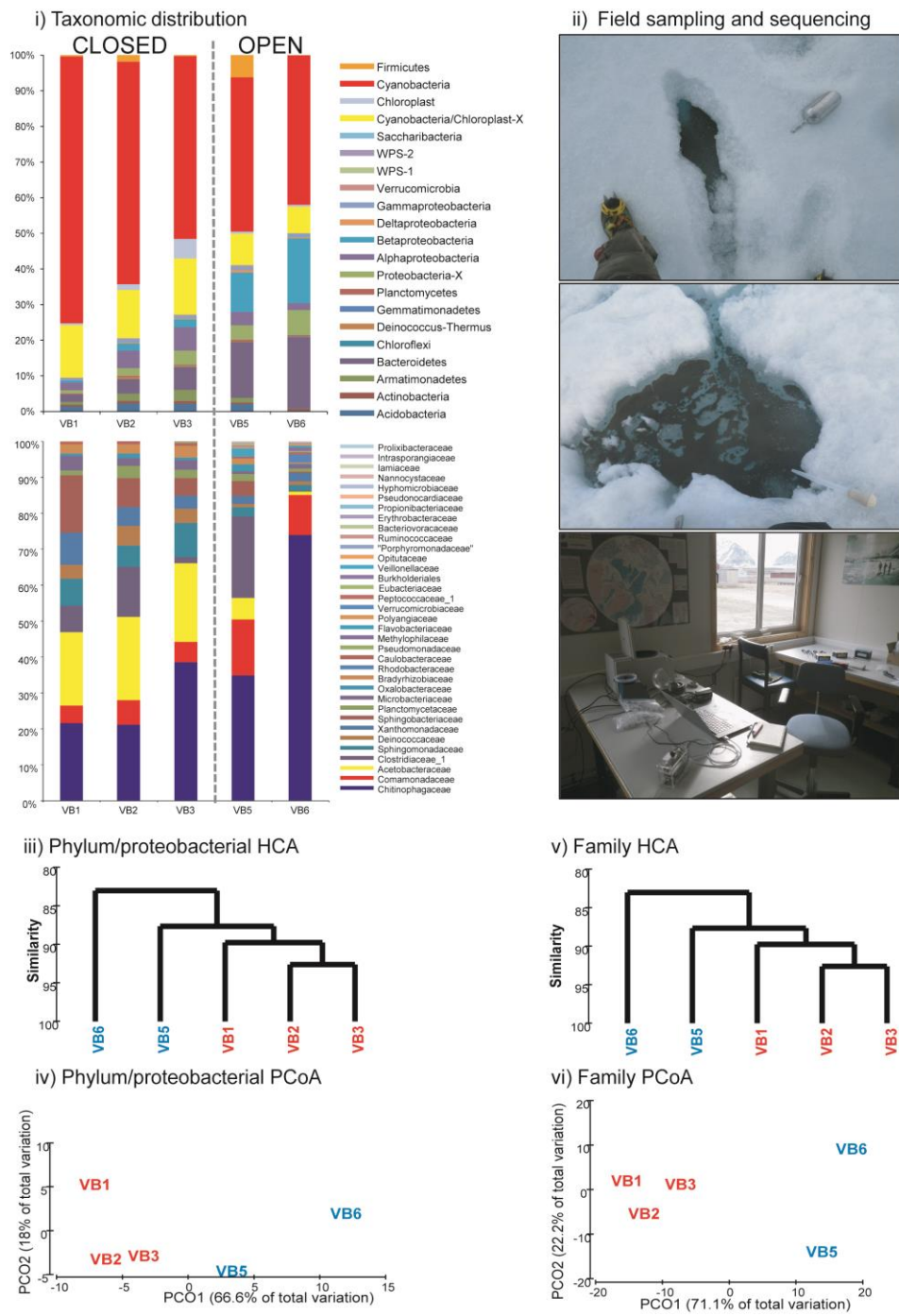
564 **Figure 4:** Krona plot of bacterial level diversity in a nanopore-sequenced cryoconite

565 metagenome from an alpine glacier, Rotmoosferner, sequenced using freeze-dried library

566 preparation reagents and ambient-temperature stored R9.4 nanopore flow cells.

567

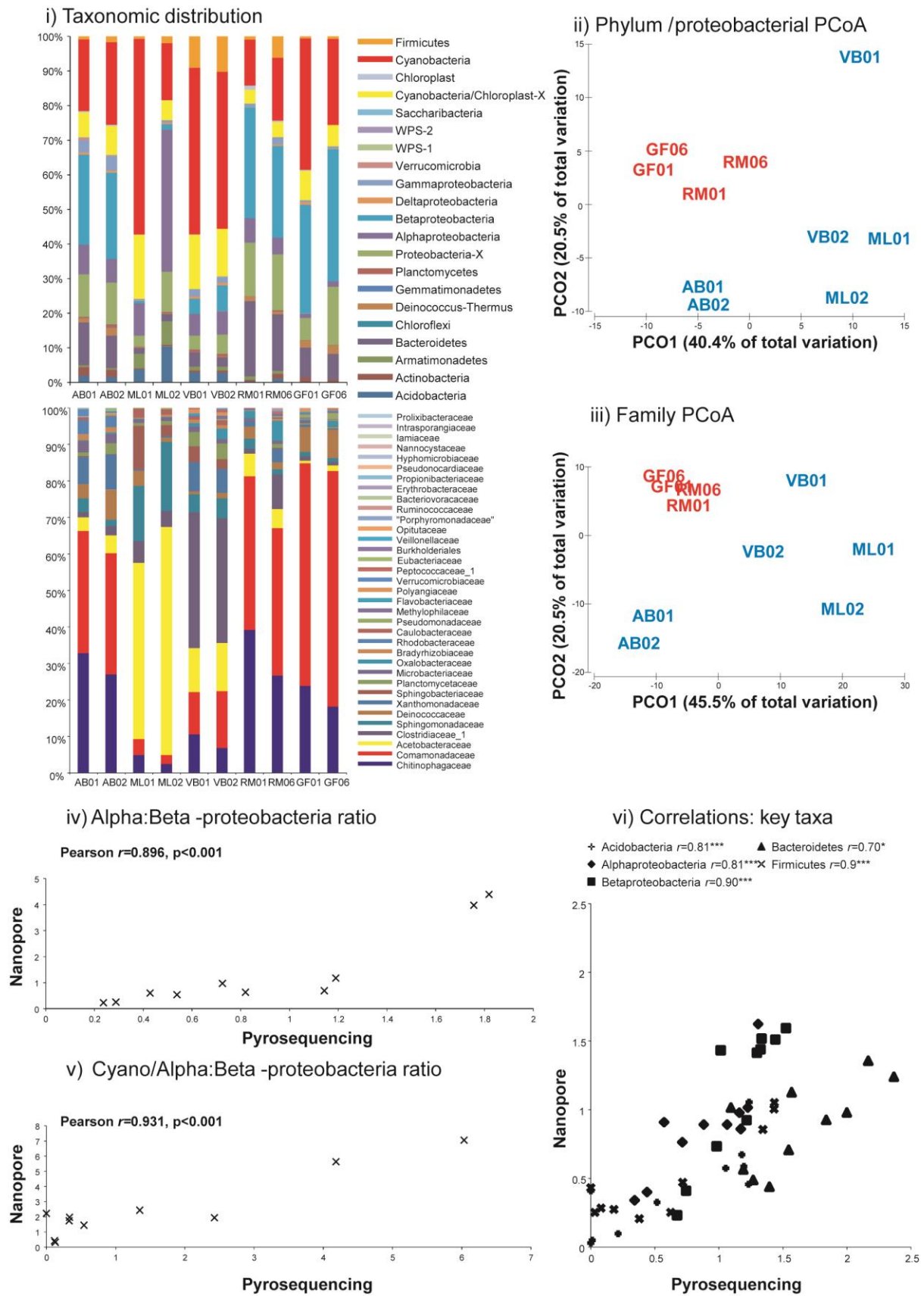
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568

569 **Figure 5:** In-field 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing of cryoconite bacterial communities
 570 showing (i) phylum and family level taxonomic distribution of (ii) open and closed
 571 cryoconite holes and multivariate discrimination according to (iii) phylum (iv) and family
 572 level taxon distributions following hierarchical cluster analysis and principal coordinates
 573 analysis of fourth-root transformed Bray-Curtis distances of phylotype relative abundances.

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576 **Figure 6:** Benchmarking nanopore 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing of cryoconite
577 bacterial communities by comparison with laboratory-generated data. (i) Phylum and family
578 level taxonomic distribution of cryoconite bacterial communities and (ii) phylum and (iii)
579 family level taxon distributions used for principal coordinates analysis of fourth-root
580 transformed Bray-Curtis distances of phylotype relative abundances discriminate between
581 Arctic and alpine cryoconite communities. Correlation of log relative abundances between
582 (iv) the ratio of *Alphaproteobacteria* and *Betaproteobacteria* (v) *Cyanobacteria* to
583 *Alphaproteobacteria:Betaproteobacteria* and (vi) key taxonomic groups revealed using
584 nanopore and pyro- sequencing of 16S rRNA genes.

585

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