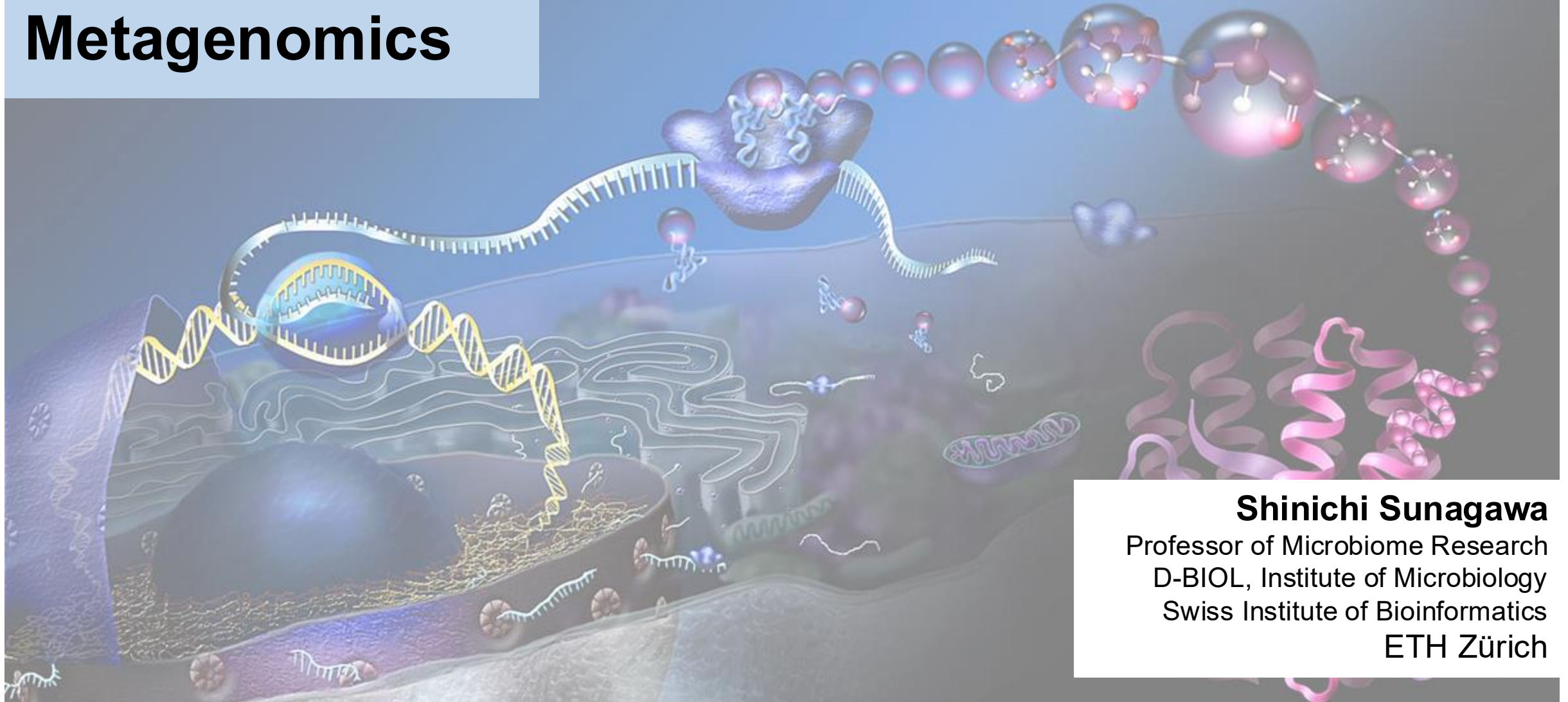


Metagenomics

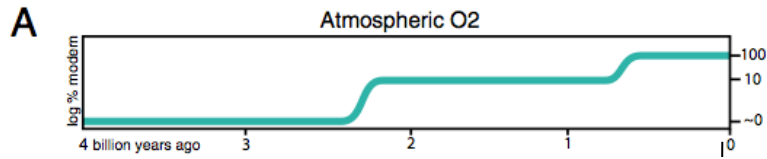


Shinichi Sunagawa

Professor of Microbiome Research
D-BIOL, Institute of Microbiology
Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics
ETH Zürich

Evolution and significance of microbiomes

From the origin of life to today



Microorganisms

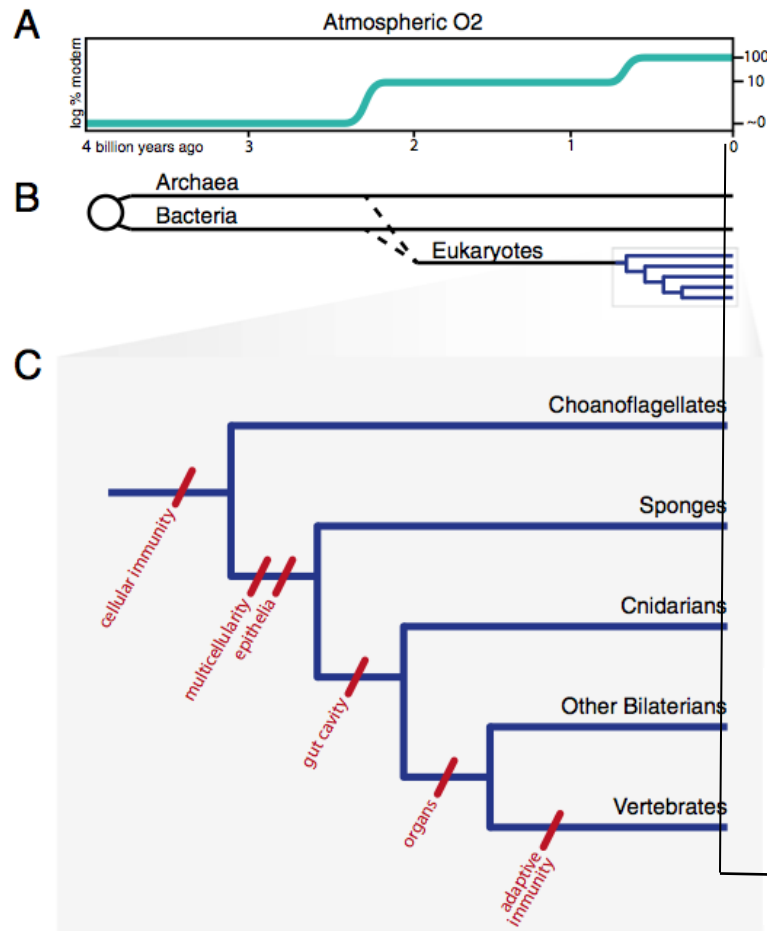
- originated some 3.8 billion years ago
- drive biogeochemical cycles of elements (C, N, P, S, etc.)
- transform energy and biomass

Significance (examples):

- biogeochemistry: e.g., photosynthesis by microbes, carbon fixation/export, nitrogen fixation
- health: help us digest food, provide essential vitamins, prime the immune system

Evolution and significance of microbiomes

From the origin of life to today



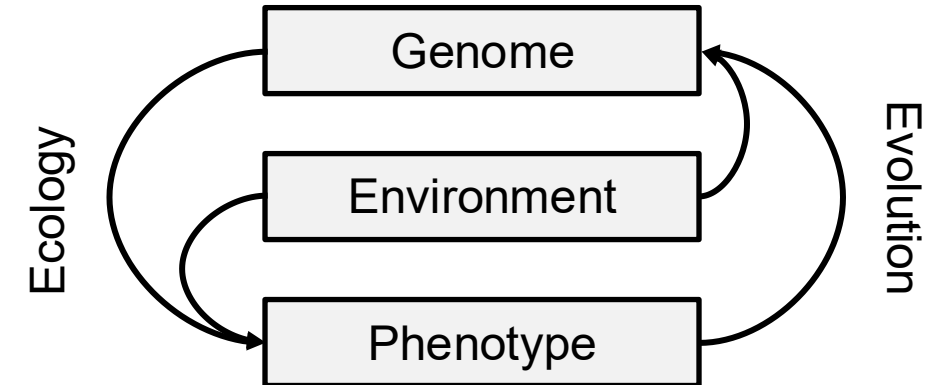
Microorganisms

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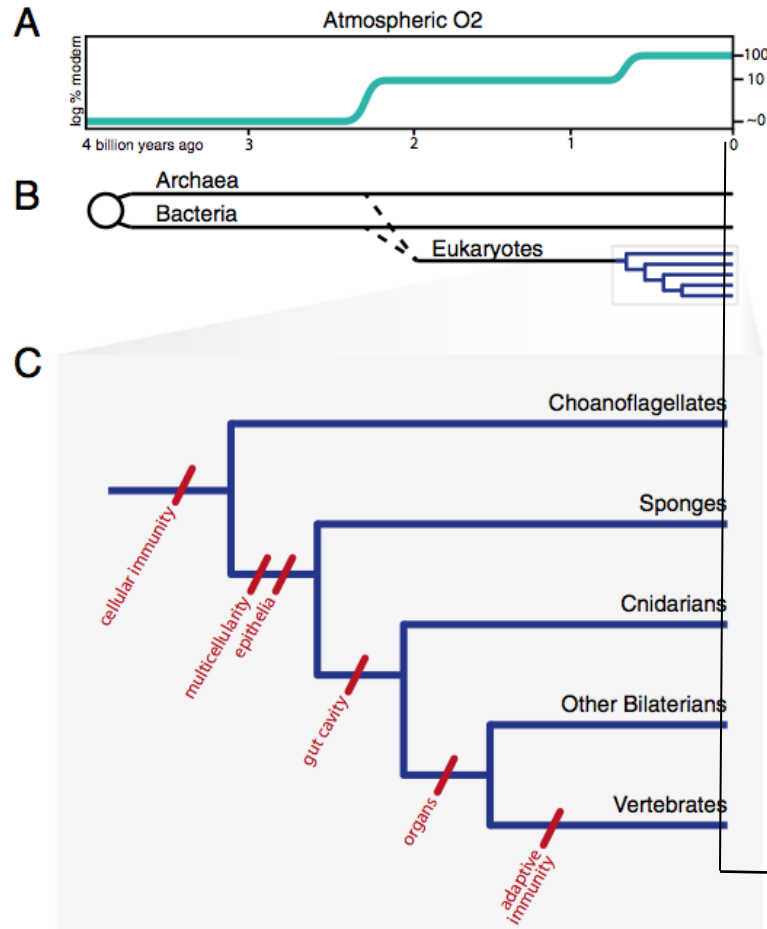
Single organism-centric view



13 mio years

Evolution and significance of microbiomes

From the origin of life to today



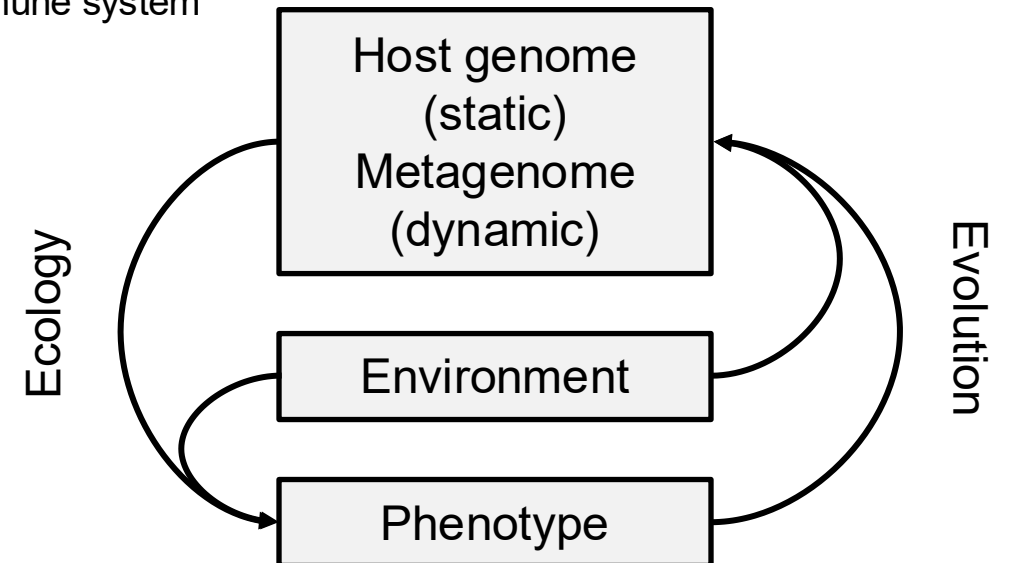
Microorganisms

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Significance (examples):

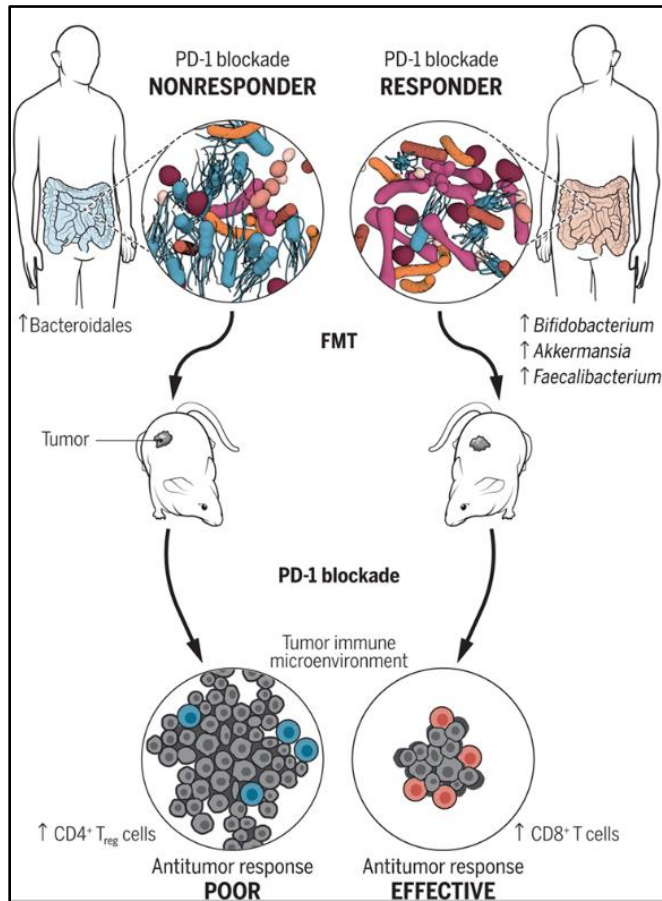
- biogeochemistry: e.g., photosynthesis by microbes, carbon fixation/export, nitrogen fixation
- health: help us digest food, provide essential vitamins, prime the immune system

Holobiont view



13 mio years

Describing microbial communities – Example 1

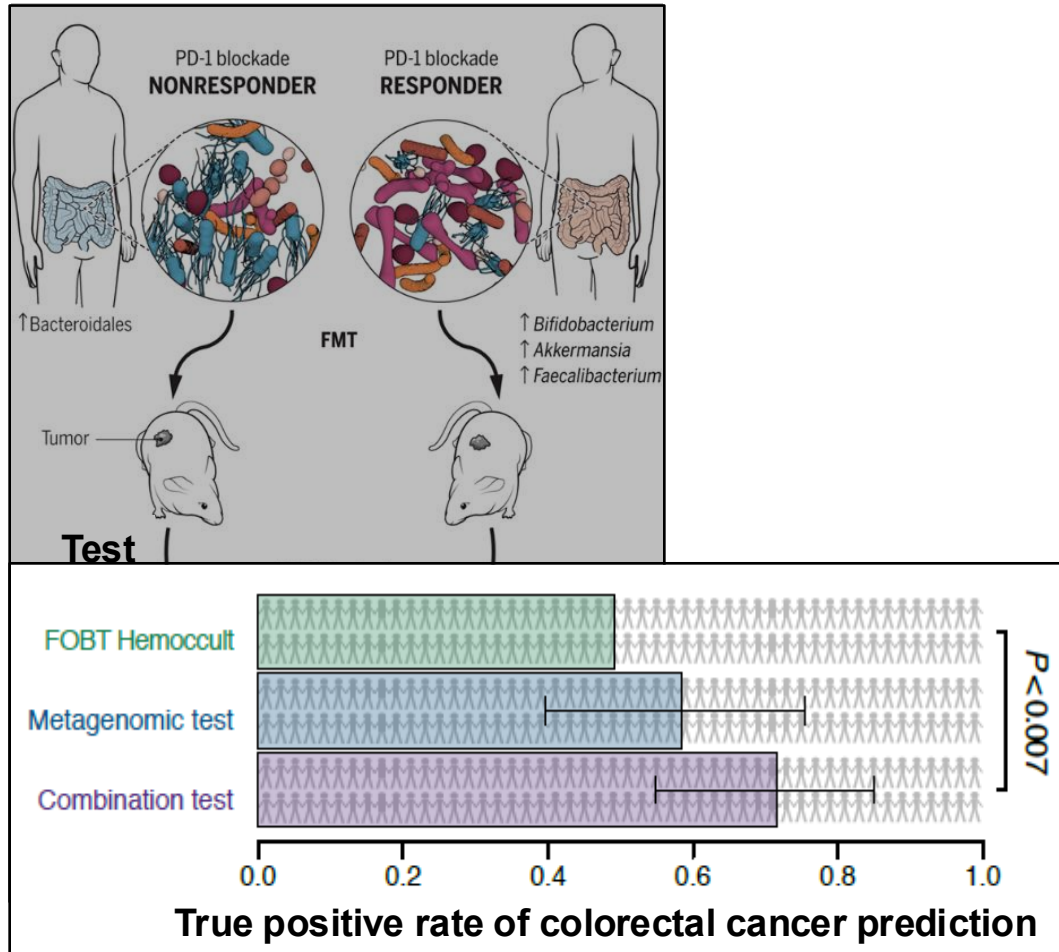


GRAPHIC: V. ALTOUNIAN/SCIENCE

Gut microbial community compositions

- can alter efficacy of treatments
- Enrichment of specific microbial taxa influence the response to cancer immunotherapy

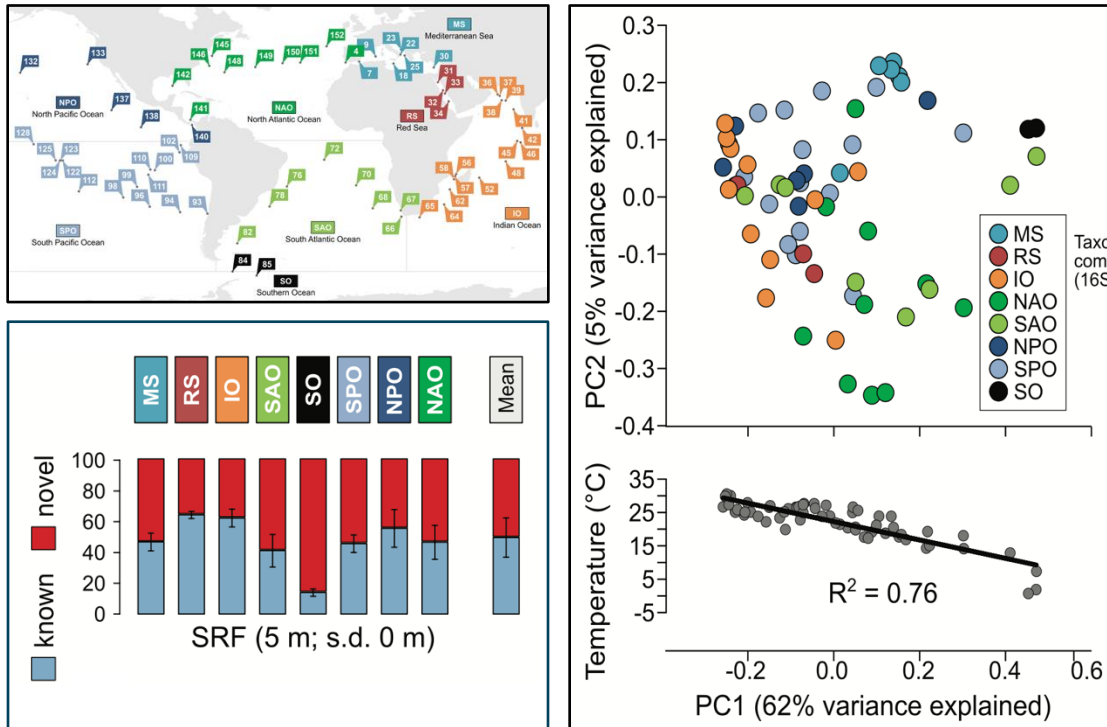
Describing microbial communities – Example 1



Gut microbial community compositions

- can alter efficacy of treatments
 - Enrichment of specific microbial taxa influence the response to cancer immunotherapy
Routy et al., Gopalakrishnan et al., and Matson et al., Science 2018
- can be indicative for diseases
 - Statistical models of fecal microbiota composition can predict colorectal cancer

Describing microbial communities – Example 2



Ocean microbial community compositions

- reveal previously unknown organisms and genes (left bottom)
→ implying novel taxa, enzymes and functions
- similarities between communities not determined by geography (right top)
→ but strongly driven by temperature (bottom right)

Overview

Microbial community structure

- microbial taxonomy and operational taxonomic units
- quantification of microbial community members
- diversity within a microbial community

Differences between microbial communities

- taxonomic differences between microbial communities
- differentially abundant features (e.g., taxa, genes, functions)

Working with microbial community genes and genomes

- reconstruction of microbial community genomes
- gene functional differences between microbial communities

Review: microbial taxonomy

- Microbiologists have adopted the concept of taxonomic ranks:
Domain/**K**ingdom, **P**hylum, **C**lass, **O**rders, **F**amily, **G**enus, **S**pecies

TABLE 3.1. Taxonomic ranks or levels in ascending order

<i>Rank or level</i>	<i>Example</i>
Species	<i>E. coli</i>
Genus	<i>Escherichia</i>
Family	Enterobacteriaceae
Order	Enterobacteriales
Class	γ -Proteobacteria
Phylum	Proteobacteria
Domain	Bacteria

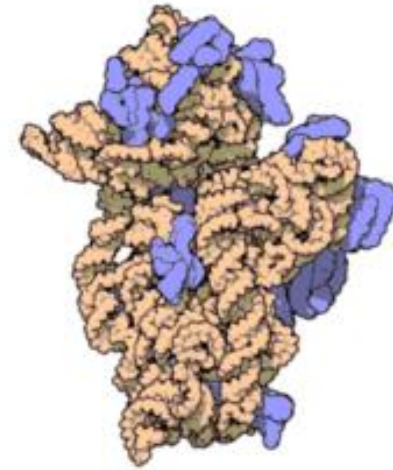
- Phenotypic characteristics
 - morphology, physiology/metabolism, ecology, exchange of genetic material
- Molecular characteristics
 - DNA-DNA hybridization
 - DNA sequences of individual genes** (e.g., 16S rRNA gene) or complete genomes

→ Today, DNA sequencing and computational comparison is the method of choice to classify microbial organisms and to study their evolutionary relatedness

The 16S rRNA gene

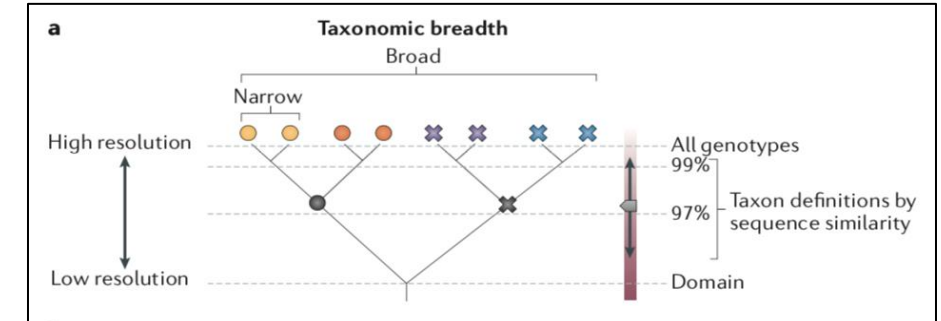
- 16S rRNA
 - encoded in genomes of all bacteria and archaea
conserved function as integral part of the protein synthesis machinery
 - similar mutation rate: → molecular clock

30S small subunit of ribosomes in prokaryotes



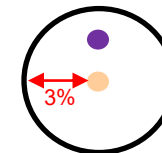
16S rRNA-based Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs)

- 16S rRNA
 - encoded in genomes of all bacteria and archaea
 - conserved function as integral part of the protein synthesis machinery
 - similar mutation rate: → molecular clock
- Used as proxy for phylogenetic relatedness
- Owing to lack of prokaryotic species definition, 97% sequence similarity is often used to define ‘species’-like:
“Operational Taxonomic Units” (OTUs)



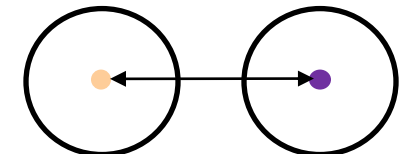
Identity of 16S rRNA gene sequences

$\geq 97\%$



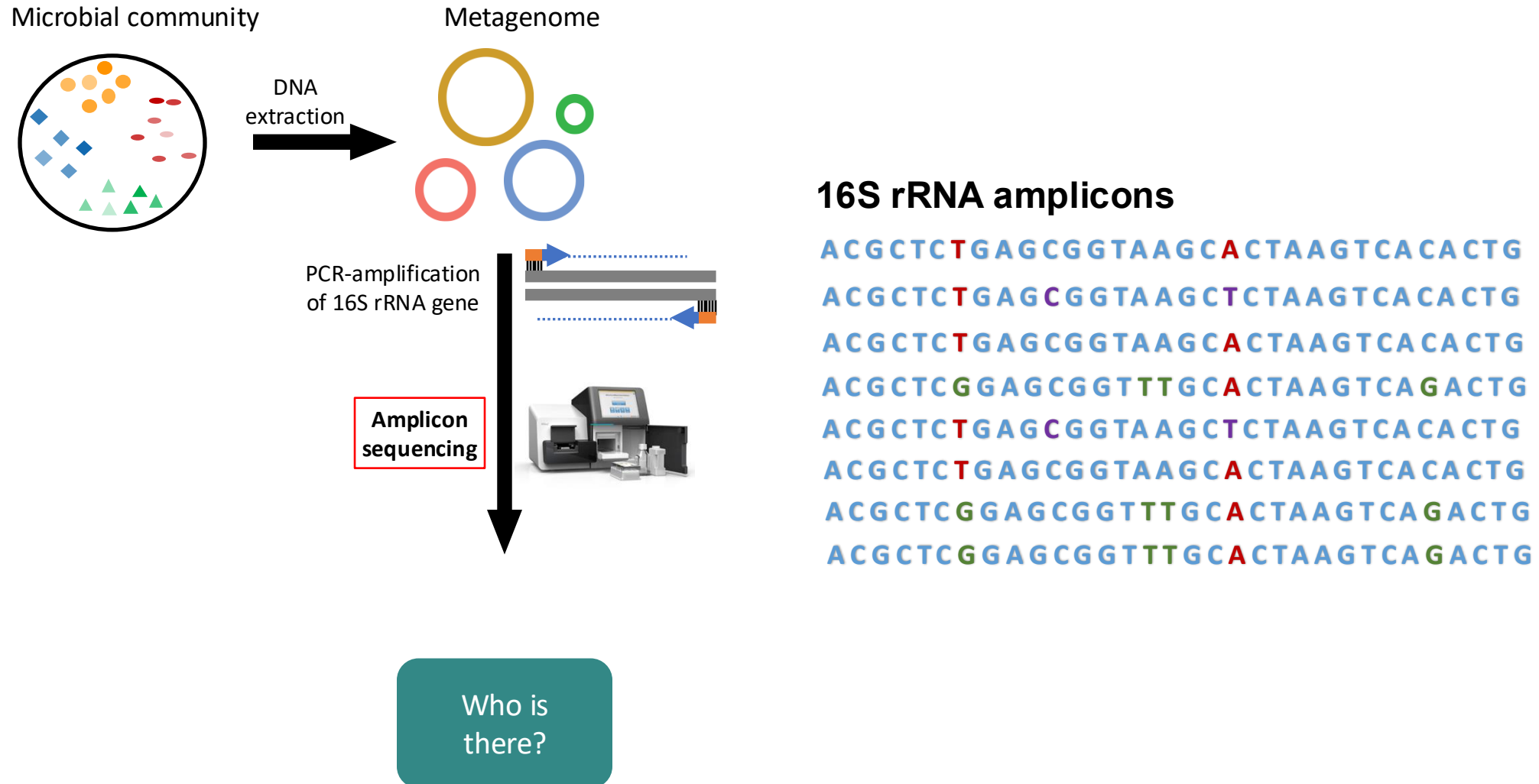
→ 1 OTU

$< 97\%$



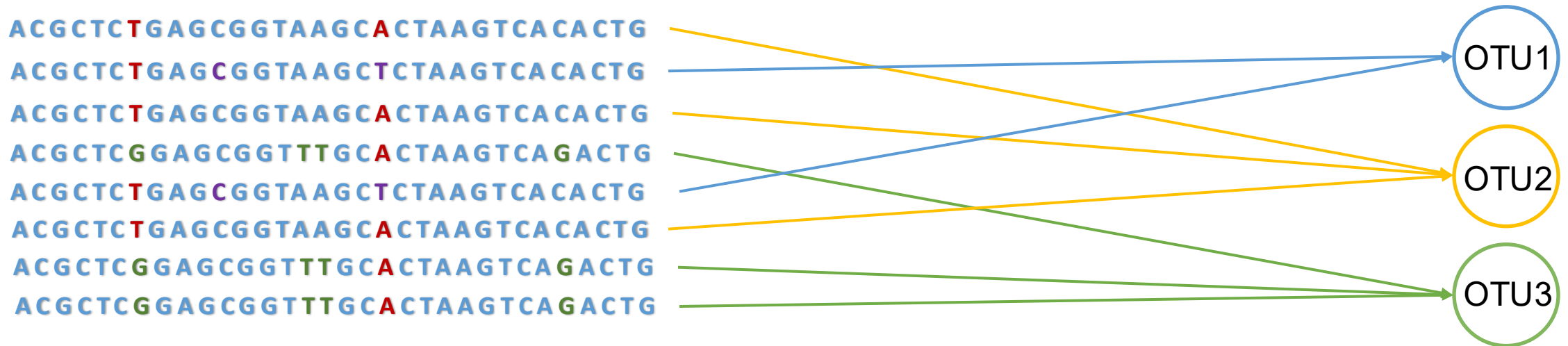
→ 2 OTUs

Amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments by PCR



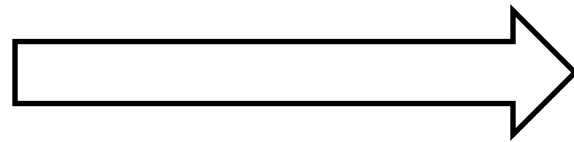
Quantification of OTU abundances

All amplicons are aligned to best matching OTU and counted



The result is an OTU count table, summarizing read counts for each OTU for each sample:

OTU	S1	S2	S3
OTU1	234	87	166
OTU2	23	0	93
OTU3	2	137	191
OTU4	455	0	112
OTU5	23	229	66



Data analysis / interpretation: diversity, community dissimilarity, sample classification

In-class task 1: alpha diversity

Assume 4 different samples (A-D), each with 100 reads sequenced

OTUs	Sample A	Sample B	Sample C	Sample D
1	20	1	25	0
2	20	10	25	0
3	20	20	0	0
4	20	30	25	0
5	20	39	25	100
Sum	100	100	100	100

In pairs, please discuss:

- Q1: What are the factors that influence the differences between samples?
How could the differences be formally described (i.e., measured in quantitative terms)?**
- Q2: How may the number of reads per sample impact the results?
What measures can be taken to account for this effect?**

In-class task 1: alpha diversity

Shannon's diversity index (H')

$$H' = - \sum_{i=1}^R p_i \ln p_i$$

R = richness

p_i = the proportion of the i -th OTU,

where n_i = the number individuals of the i -th OTU
and n = total number of individuals, that is:

$p_i = n_i / n$

Pielou's evenness (J')

$$J' = \frac{H'}{H'_{\max}}$$

where

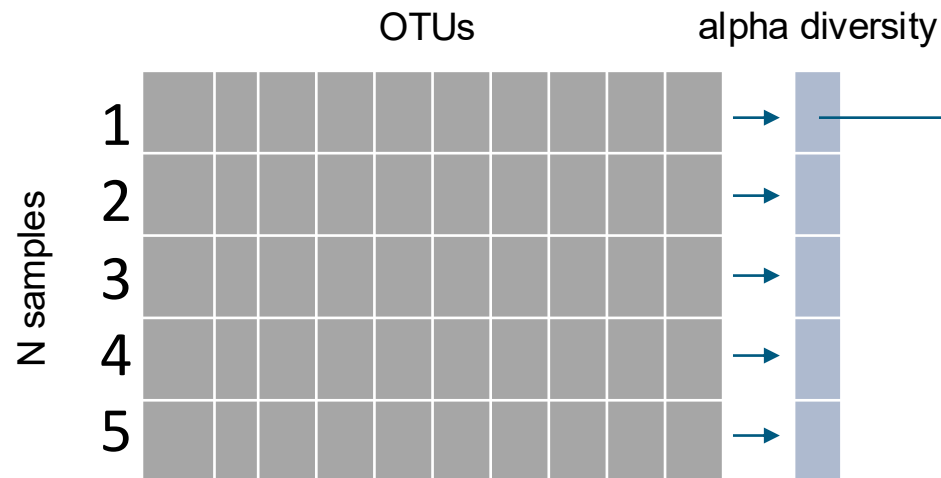
$$H'_{\max} = - \sum_{i=1}^R \frac{1}{R} \ln \frac{1}{R} = \ln R$$

that is, every species is equally likely

Summary

Microbial community composition

- Microbial taxonomy, ASVs and operational taxonomic units (OTUs): **definitions and clustering**
- Counting OTUs: **taxonomic profiling**
- Diversity within a microbial community: **alpha diversity**



Shannon diversity index

Function of:

- Richness (number of detected OTUs)
- Evenness (frequency distribution of detected OTUs)

Normalization/rarefaction

Overview of the Metagenomics part

Microbial community structure

- microbial taxonomy and operational taxonomic units
- quantification of microbial community members
- diversity within a microbial community

Differences between microbial communities

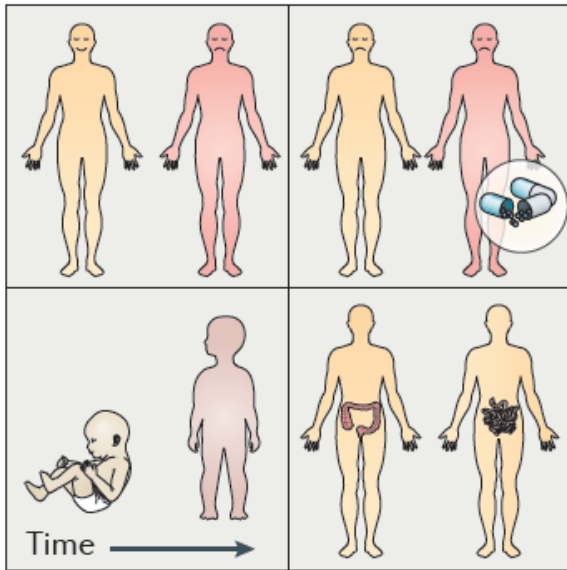
- taxonomic differences between microbial communities
- differentially abundant features (e.g., taxa, genes, functions)

Working with microbial community genes and genomes

- reconstruction of microbial community genomes
- gene functional differences between microbial communities

Microbiome-wide association studies are analogous to GWAS

a Choice of cohort



Analogous to GWAS, the microbiome can be linked to:

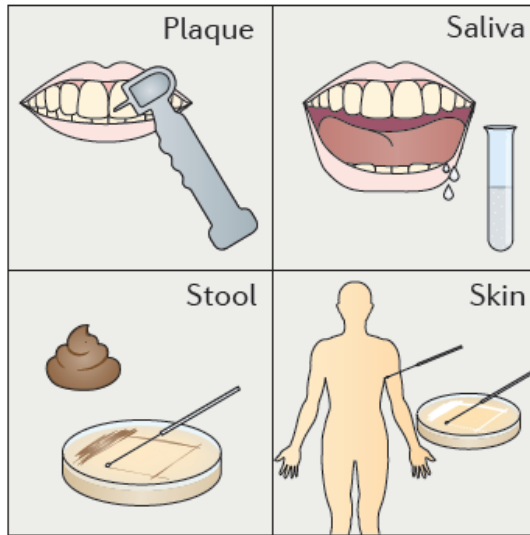
- groups of individuals and/or health states
- differential response to drugs (or nutrition)
- organismal development (or disease progression)
- differences between body sites

Examples:

- asymptomatic individuals vs colorectal cancer patients
- cardiac drug digoxin inactivation by *Eggerthella lenta*
- *Bifidobacterium* spp. decrease with age
- body-site specific taxa

Microbiome-wide association studies are analogous to GWAS

b Sampling

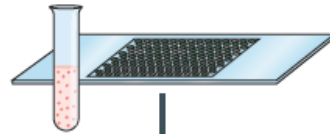


c Metagenomic shotgun sequencing

DNA extraction



Library preparation

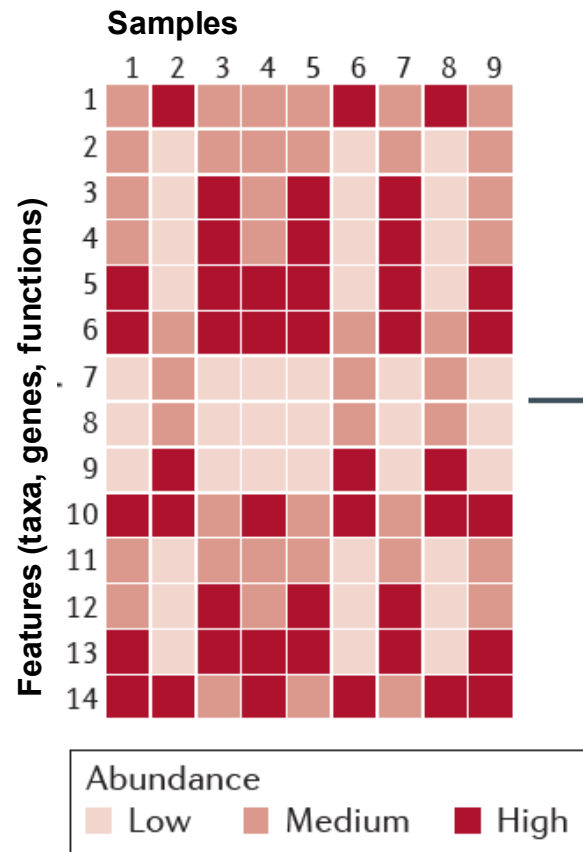


Sequencing

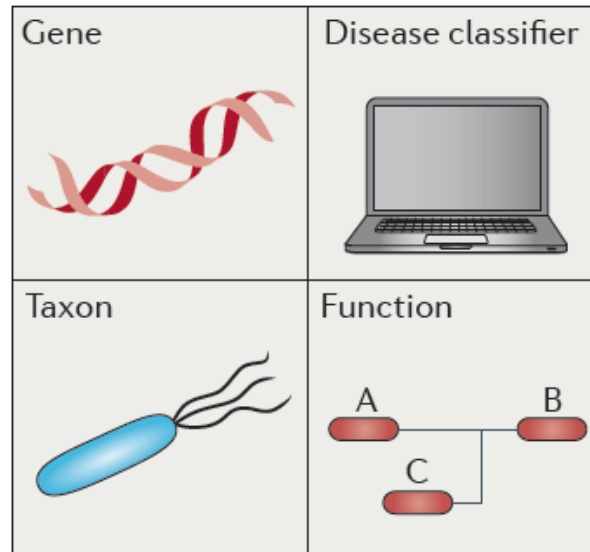


- Microbial community DNA is extracted from samples and randomly sheared into fragments
- DNA fragments are “repaired” and used to prepare sequencing libraries
- Libraries are subjected to high throughput sequencing

Microbiome-wide association studies are analogous to GWAS



f Identify associations with disease

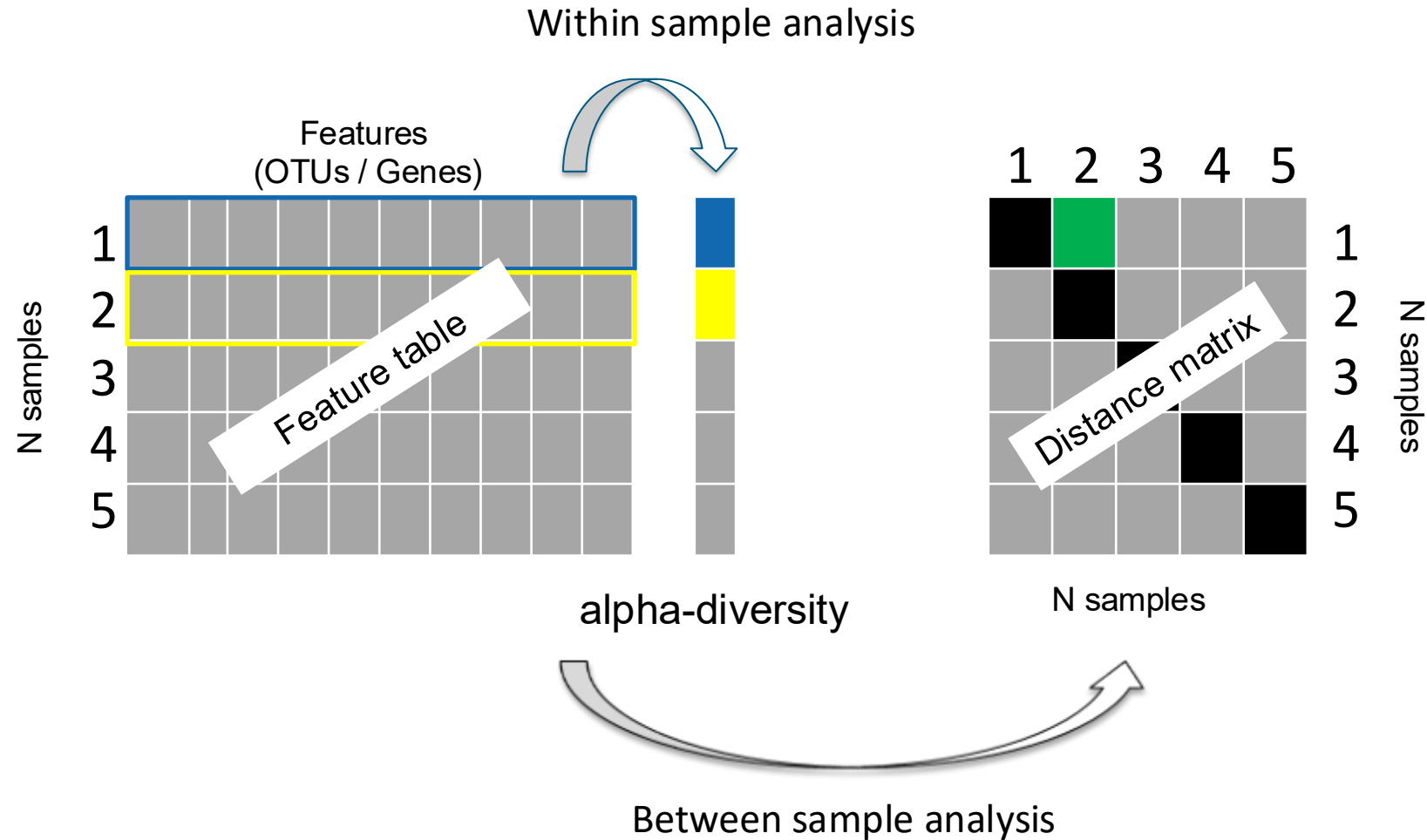


- DNA sequencing reads are analyzed to quantify the abundance of taxa, genes or functions (or to generalize: “features”)
- Abundance tables are analyzed to determine differentially abundant features, e.g., between groups of samples, to identify biomarkers
- Machine learning is used to classify samples and/or to identify relationships between the microbiome and clinical/environmental phenotypes

→ A basic requirement is to quantify the differences between samples

How many of which OTUs/genes are found in a sample?

How similar are the OTUs/gene compositions between samples?



In-class task 2: beta diversity

OTUs	Sample A
1	1
2	1
3	1
4	0
5	0

OTUs	Sample B
1	1
2	1
3	1
4	1
5	1

OTUs	Sample C
1	0
2	1
3	1
4	0
5	4

OTUs	Sample D
1	2
2	2
3	0
4	2
5	0

→ In pairs, please discuss how pairwise similarities of samples A, B, C, and D could be quantified?

→ Both qualitative differences vs quantitative differences can be taken into account.

In-class task 2: beta diversity

OTUs	Sample A
1	1
2	1
3	1
4	0
5	0

OTUs	Sample B
1	1
2	1
3	1
4	1
5	1

OTUs	Sample C
1	0
2	1
3	1
4	0
5	4

OTUs	Sample D
1	2
2	2
3	0
4	2
5	0

Example: Jaccard index/dissimilarity

Jaccard index: $J = a / (a + b + c)$

where

a = # of species shared

b = # of species unique to sample 1

c = # of species unique to sample 2

Jaccard distance / dissimilarity: $D = 1 - J$

Mini-quiz

What is / are limitation(s) of the Jaccard index?

- a) Differences in the evenness between two samples are not accounted for
- b) Differences in the abundance of OTUs shared between samples are not accounted for
- c) Differences in the abundance of OTUs not shared between two samples are not accounted for
- d) All of the above

→ Note: For Jaccard distance, only presence/absence of species are considered

Other distance (dissimilarity) measures

The formulae for calculating the ecological distances are:

Bray-Curtis:
$$D = 1 - 2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^S \min(a_i, c_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^S (a_i + c_i)}$$

Kulczynski:
$$D = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^S \min(a_i, c_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^S a_i} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^S \min(a_i, c_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^S c_i} \right)$$

Euclidean:
$$D = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^S (a_i - c_i)^2}$$

Chi-square:
$$D = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^S \frac{(a_i + c_i)}{(a_i + c_i)} \left(\frac{a_i}{a_+} - \frac{c_i}{c_+} \right)^2}$$
 with $a_+ = \sum_{i=1}^S a_i$

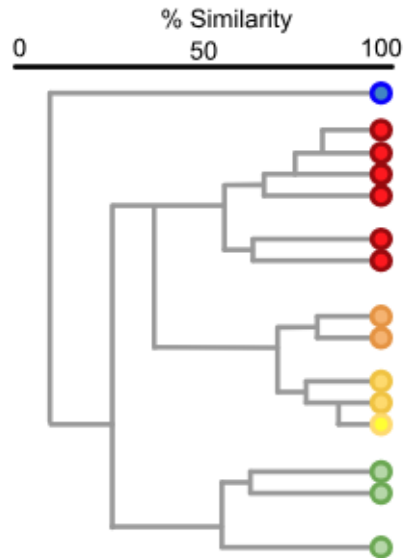
Hellinger:
$$D = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^S \left(\sqrt{\frac{a_i}{a_+}} - \sqrt{\frac{c_i}{c_+}} \right)^2}$$
 with $a_+ = \sum_{i=1}^S a_i$

a_i = abundance of taxon i in sample a , and
 c_i = abundance of taxon i in sample c

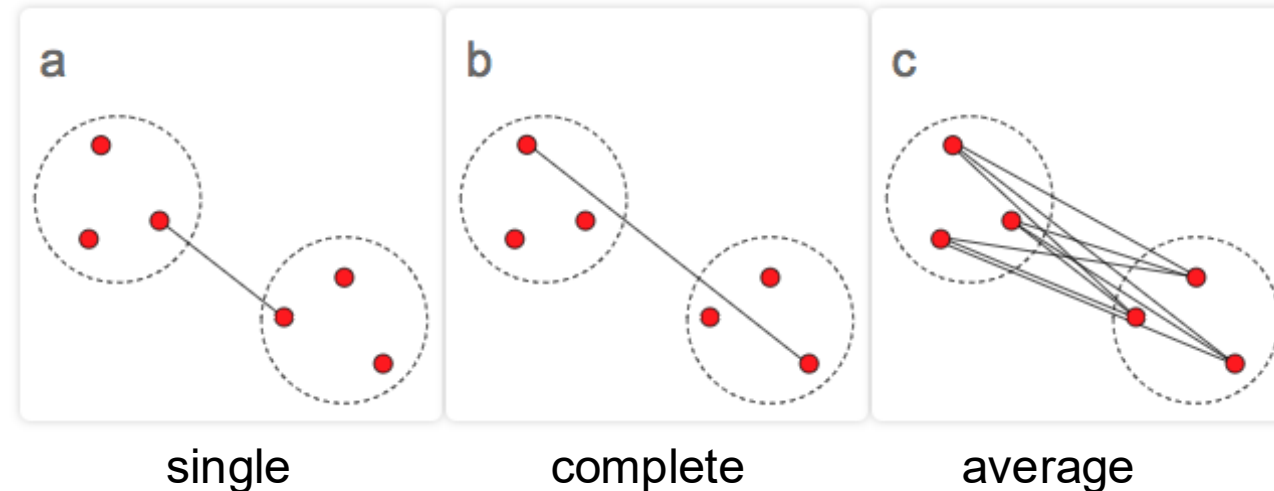
Visualize dissimilarities between microbial communities

- For 2 (xy) or 3 (xyz) variables, data can be easily visualized in two or three dimensional space
- For multi ($n > 3$) dimensional data, distances can be 'projected' into lower dimensional space

Hierarchical clustering



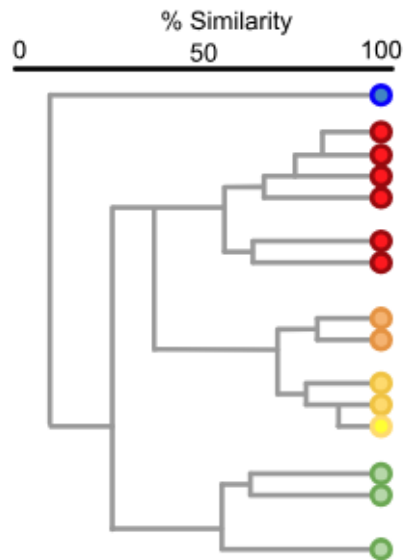
Linkage algorithms



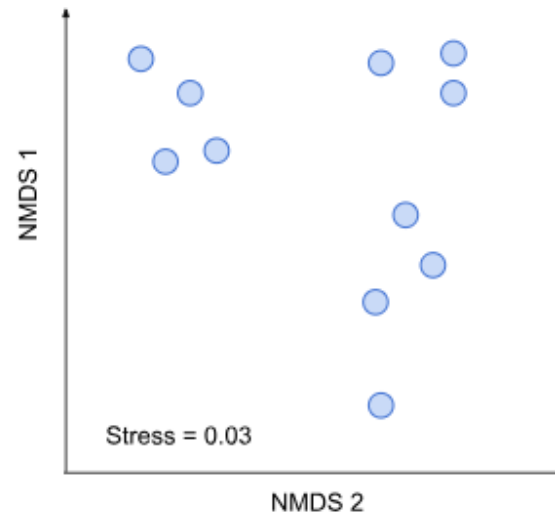
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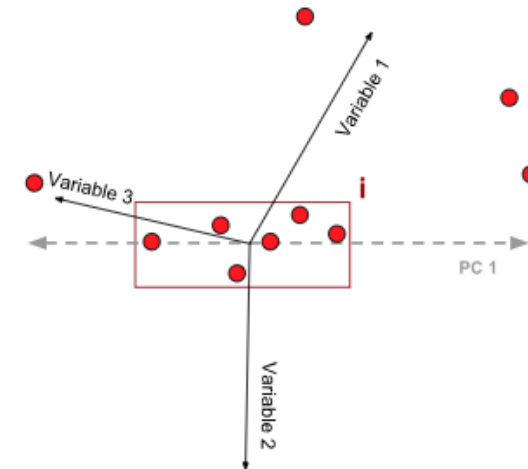
Hierarchical clustering



Non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS)

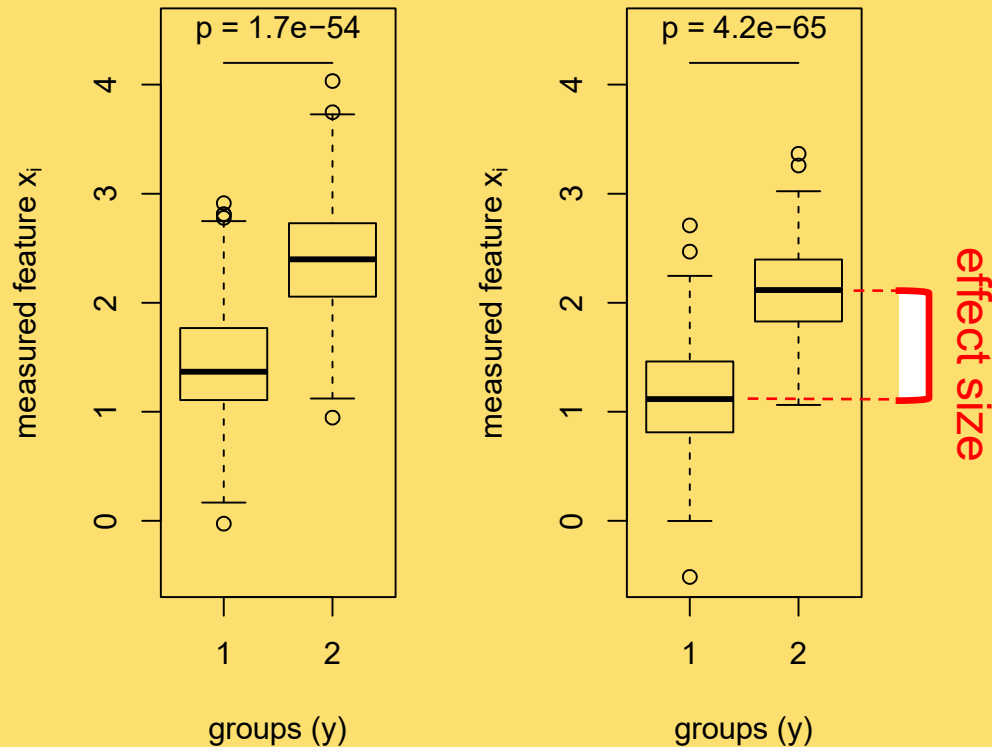


Principal component or coordinate analysis (PCA or PCoA)



Determine differentially abundant features

Hypothesis testing: could an observed difference also be observed by chance?

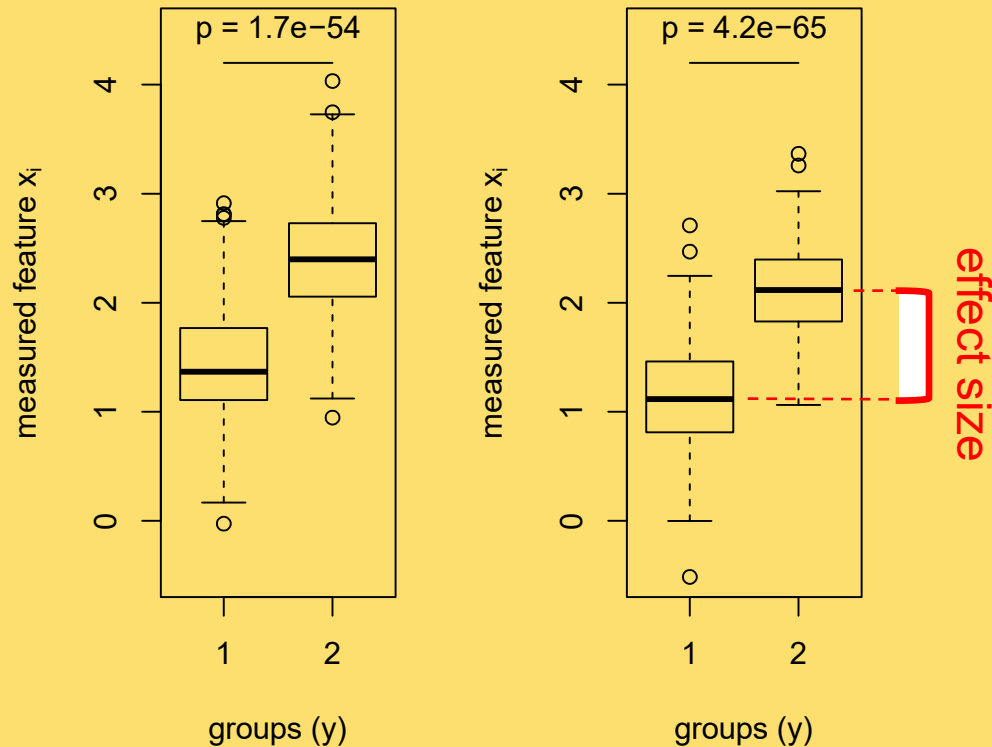


Question 1: in a clinical trial, you observe differences in the taxonomic composition of stool samples from healthy vs. diseased individuals. Assuming it to be a true effect, what do you expect from sampling additional individuals?

- a) The fold change (effect size) of differentially abundant taxa to become larger
- b) The p-value associated with these changes to decrease
- c) The confidence interval around the fold change to increase

Determine differentially abundant features

Hypothesis testing: could an observed difference also be observed by chance?



Question 2: the likelihood of observing significantly different features between samples by chance increases with the number of features for which a test is performed. What measures can be taken to correct for errors introduced by such multiple comparisons?

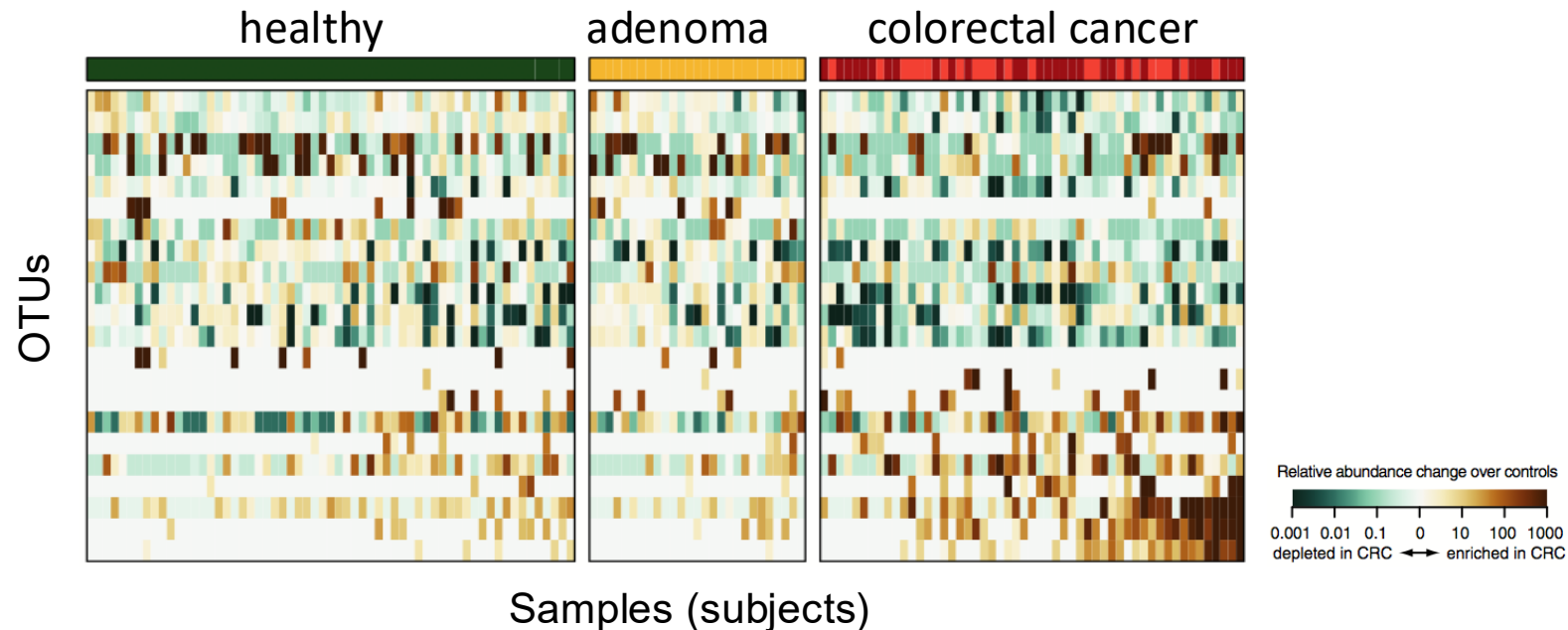
- a) Correct the p-value according to the number of tests performed
- b) Repeat the test multiple times to reduce the error
- c) Reduce the number of features that are tested

→ label-agnostic modifications to matrix

Quantitative differences between microbial communities

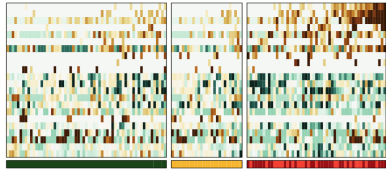
- Describing quantitative differences between microbial community compositions:
 - can identify taxa (or other features) as disease markers

Taxonomic profiles of stool samples

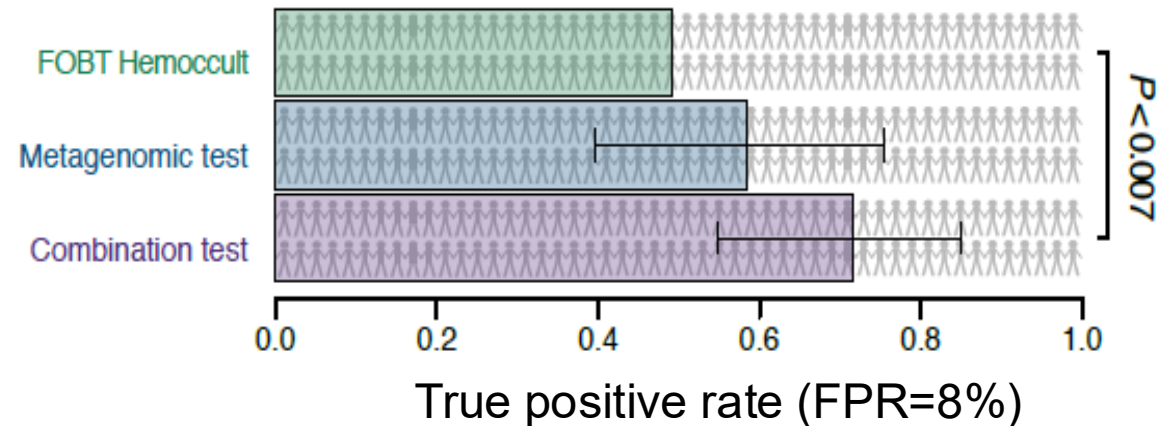


Quantitative differences between microbial communities

- Describing quantitative differences between microbial community compositions:
 - and be used to make predictions (classify) new samples, e.g. by machine learning



Colorectal cancer prediction by microbiota analysis of stool samples



Summary – Part II

- Dissimilarities of microbial community compositions (beta diversity) can be quantified by different diversity indices
- Microbiome wide association studies aim at identifying relationships between microbiome features (taxa, genes, functions) and phenotypes
- Statistical testing can reveal differentially abundant features (potential biomarkers) between groups of samples

Overview of the Metagenomics part

Microbial community structure

- microbial taxonomy and operational taxonomic units
- quantification of microbial community members
- diversity within a microbial community

Differences between microbial communities

- taxonomic differences between microbial communities
- differentially abundant features (e.g., taxa, genes, functions)

Working with microbial community genes and genomes

- reconstruction of microbial community genomes
- gene functional differences between microbial communities

Reconstruction and annotation of microbial community genomes

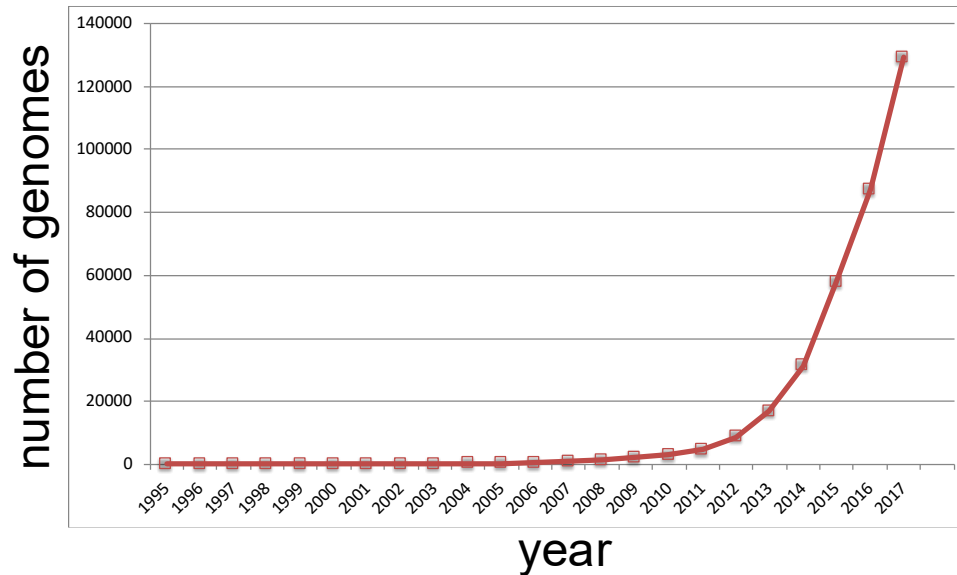
- Most organisms in microbial communities have not been isolated and cultured
 - However, we can sequence microbial community DNA, reconstruct genomes and predict protein sequences / structures
- Genomes reconstructed from natural environments capture microbial diversity on Earth
 - New data challenge long-standing concepts
- Predicted genes inform about functional capabilities and traits of organisms
 - “Who is there?” → “What can they do?” → “Who can do what?”
- Genomic information enables discovery of new enzymes and microbially produced compounds
 - Potential to identify new drug leads or proteins with desired or new functions
- Microbial gene functions may explain differential responses to same treatment
 - Analysis of microbiomes may inform personalized treatments

Sequencing of microbial isolate genomes

- First bacterial genome (1995): *Haemophilus influenzae* Fleischmann et al. 1995
- Followed by many isolated pathogens of diseases (e.g., plague, anthrax, tuberculosis, Lyme disease)
- Many isolates of important non-pathogenic species: e.g., *Prochlorococcus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Bradyrhizobium*
- Bacteria and archaea have ca. 500–10,000 genes, arrayed on usually circular DNA molecules (e.g., chromosomes and plasmids)
- Protein coding genes are on average ca. 1,000 base pairs long
- Their genomes are ca. 600,000–12 million bp in size (human 2 x 3 billion bp)

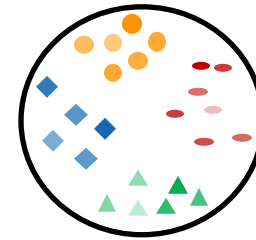
Background: added value of metagenomics

Microbial isolate genome sequences

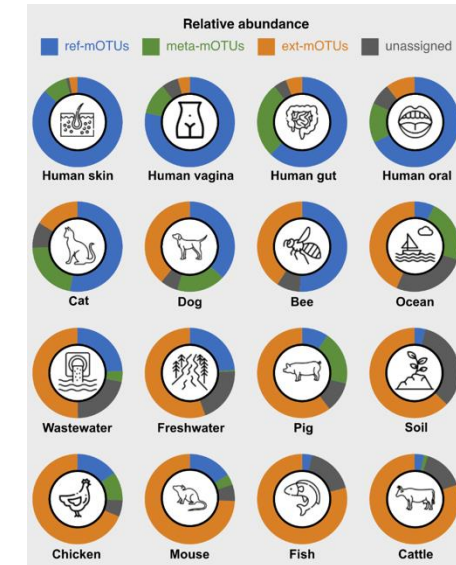


9/2023
312,000

10/2025
3,150,000

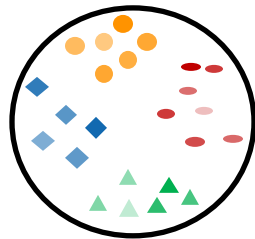


Microbial community



→ However, most bacteria and archaea have not been isolated and sequenced.

Metagenomics provides access to genomic information within a microbial community. This allows us to ask: “what can they do?”, “who can do what?”



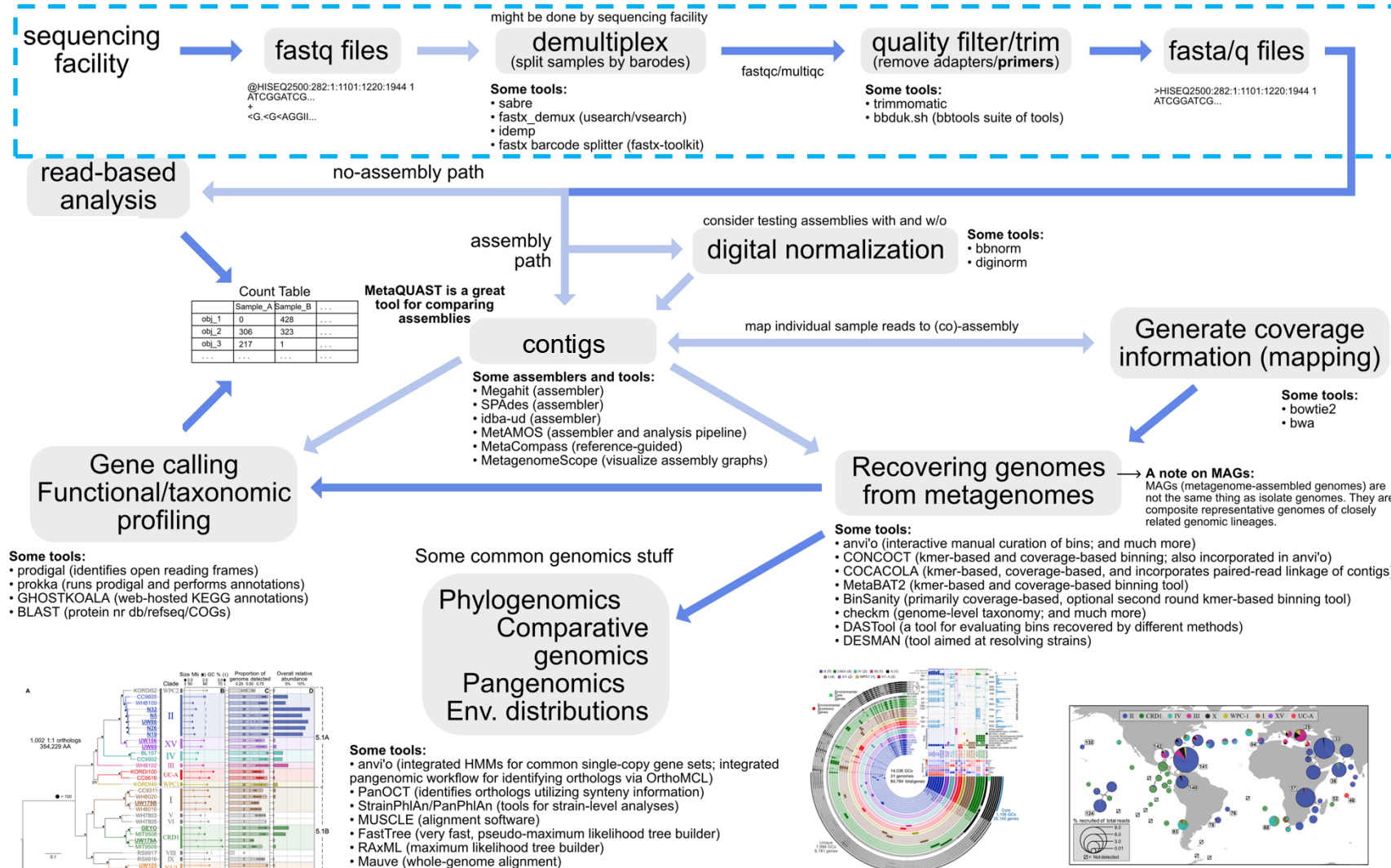
Microbial community

DNA
extraction
Library
preparation

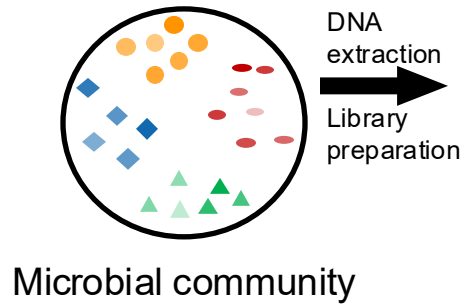
Overview of generic* metagenomics workflow

*This is generic; specific workflows can vary on the order of steps here and how they are done.

When working with your own data you should never follow any pipeline blindly. There can be critical differences based on your data.

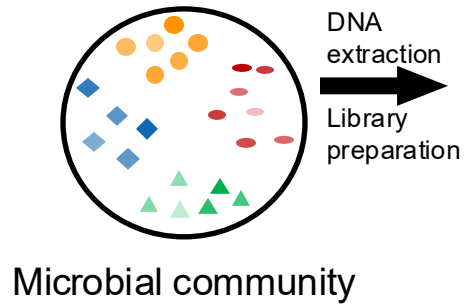


astrobiomike.github.io



DNA extraction

- Sufficiently high quality and quantity needed
 - >1ng (Illumina)
 - >50-400ng (Oxford Nanopore Technologies – ONT / PacBio)
 - Now: ca. 1ng

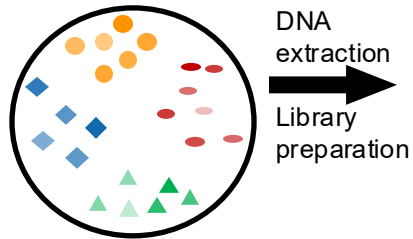


DNA extraction / library preparation

- Sufficiently high quality and quantity needed
- Extracted DNA is sheared into smaller fragments (inserts)
 - Illumina: ~300-600 bp; PacBio: ~20 kbp; ONT: Mbp fragments possible

Overview of generic* metagenomics workflow

*This is generic; specific workflows can vary on the order of steps here and how they are done.



sequencing facility

fastq files

```
@HISEQ2500:282:1:1101:1220:1944 1
ATCGGATCG...
+
<G.<G.<AGGIL...
```

might be done by sequencing facility

demultiplex
(split samples by barodes)

Some tools:

- sabre
- fastx_demux (usearch/vsearch)
- idemp
- fastx barcode splitter (fastx-toolkit)

fastqc/multiqc

quality filter/trim
(remove adapters/primers)

Some tools:

- trimmomatic
- bbduk.sh (bbtools suite of tools)

fasta/q files

```
>HISEQ2500:282:1:1101:1220:1944 1
ATCGGATCG...
```

Microbial community

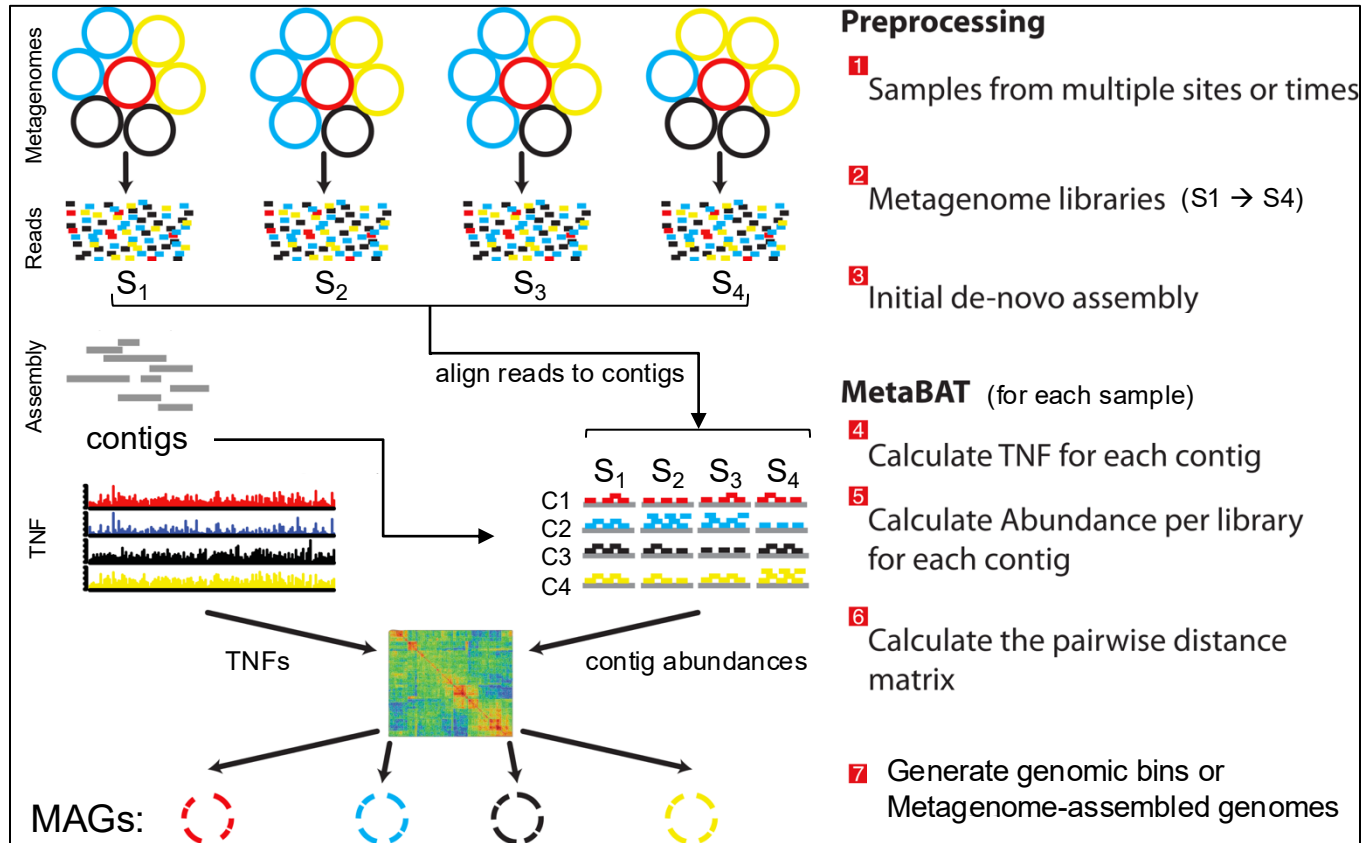
Storage of DNA sequence information

- National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI)
- European Nucleotide Archive (ENA)
- DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ)

Databases

Data type	DDBJ	EMBL-EBI	NCBI
Next Generation reads	Sequence Read Archive		Sequence Read Archive
Assembled Sequences	DDBJ	European Nucleotide Archive	GenBank
Samples	BioSample		BioSample
Studies	BioProject		BioProject

Binning contigs into metagenome-assembled genomes



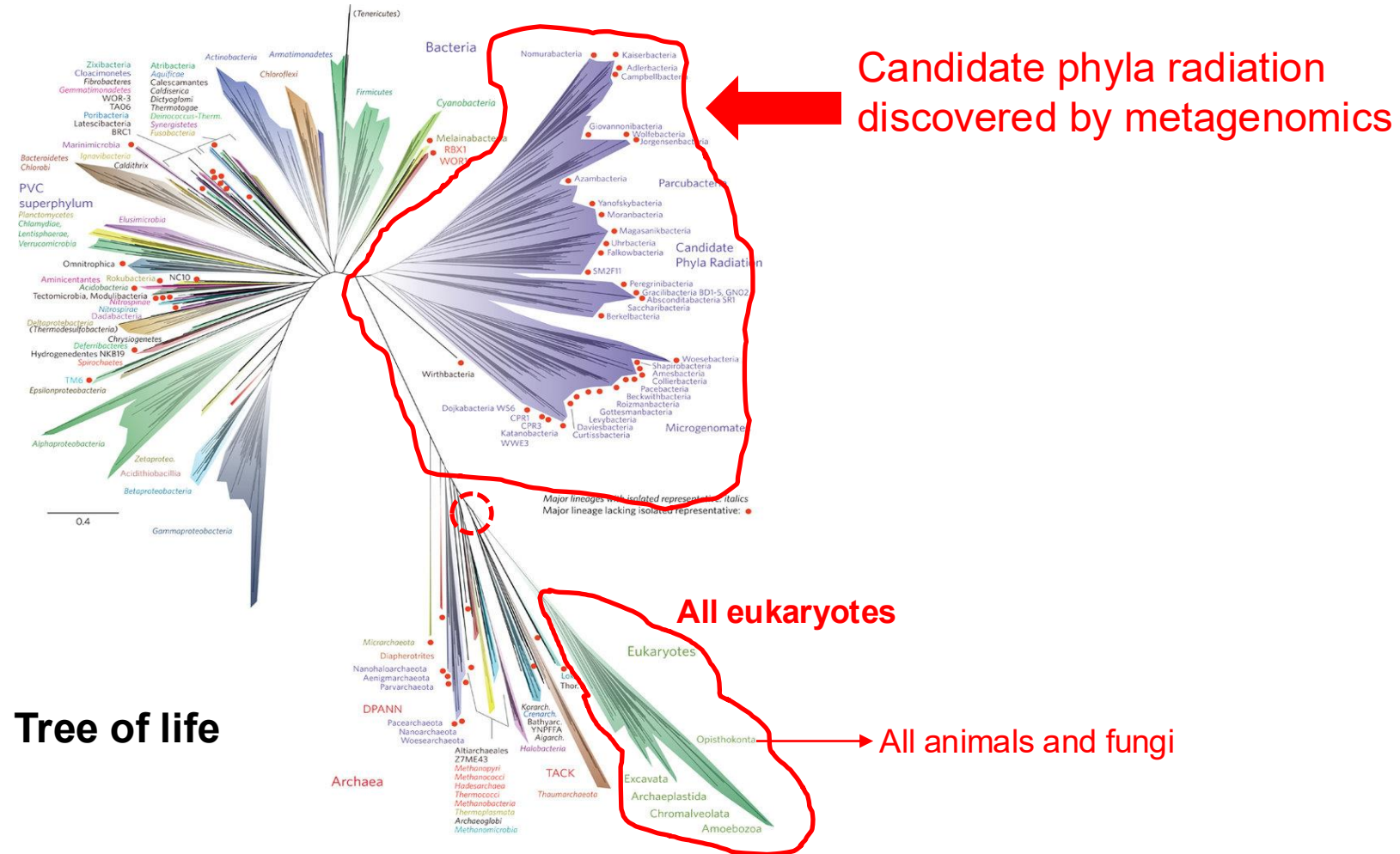
From contigs to metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs)

Distance matrices between contigs of the same sample based on (next slides):

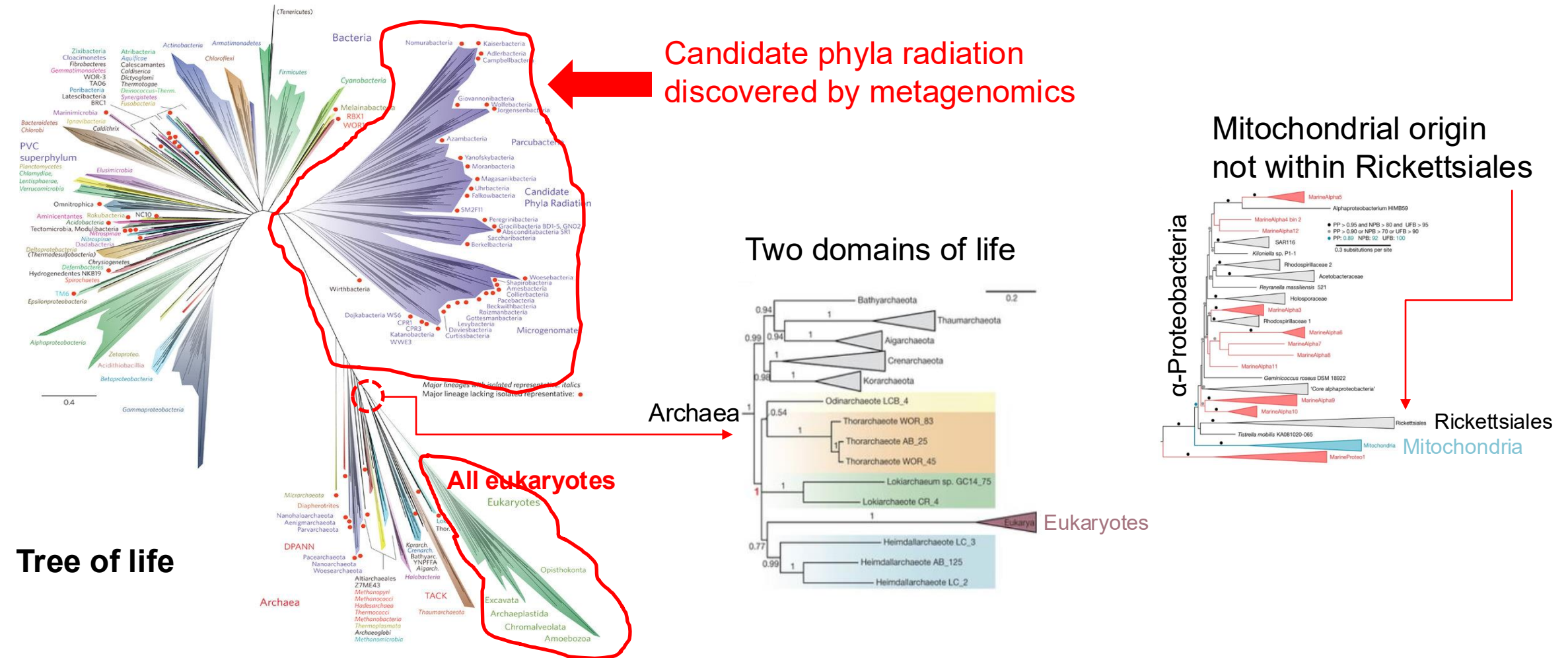
- a) Tetranucleotide frequencies (TNFs)
- b) Abundances of contigs within and across samples

Identify clusters of highly correlated contigs:
→ metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs)

Insights by reconstructing microbial community genomes



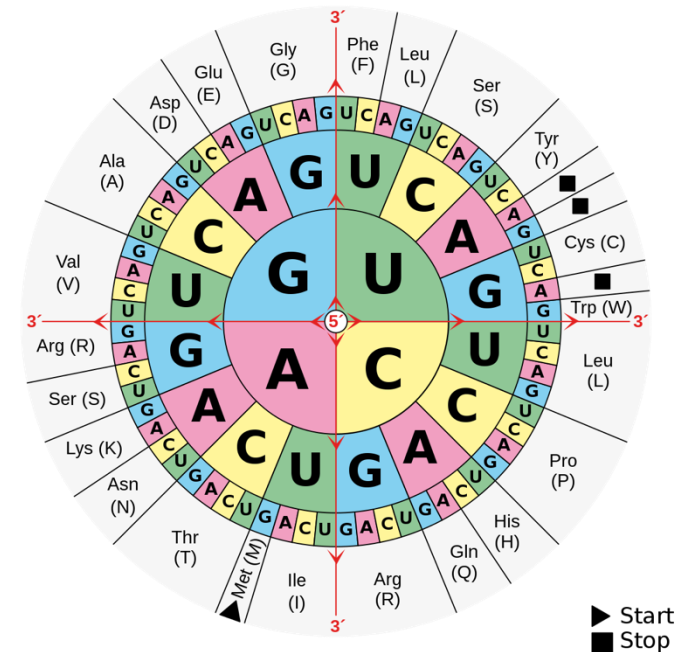
Insights by reconstructing microbial community genomes



Genome annotation – protein coding genes

Gene prediction

- Identify protein-coding (and non-coding) sequences in a (meta)genome
- *Ab initio* - using only the genomic DNA sequence
 - most simple approach: find (large) open reading frames (ORFs)
 - search for signals (specific sequences) of protein coding regions



Genome annotation – protein coding genes

Example – finding Open Reading Frames (ORFs)

- Sequence has 6 possible translations from nucleotide to amino acid sequence

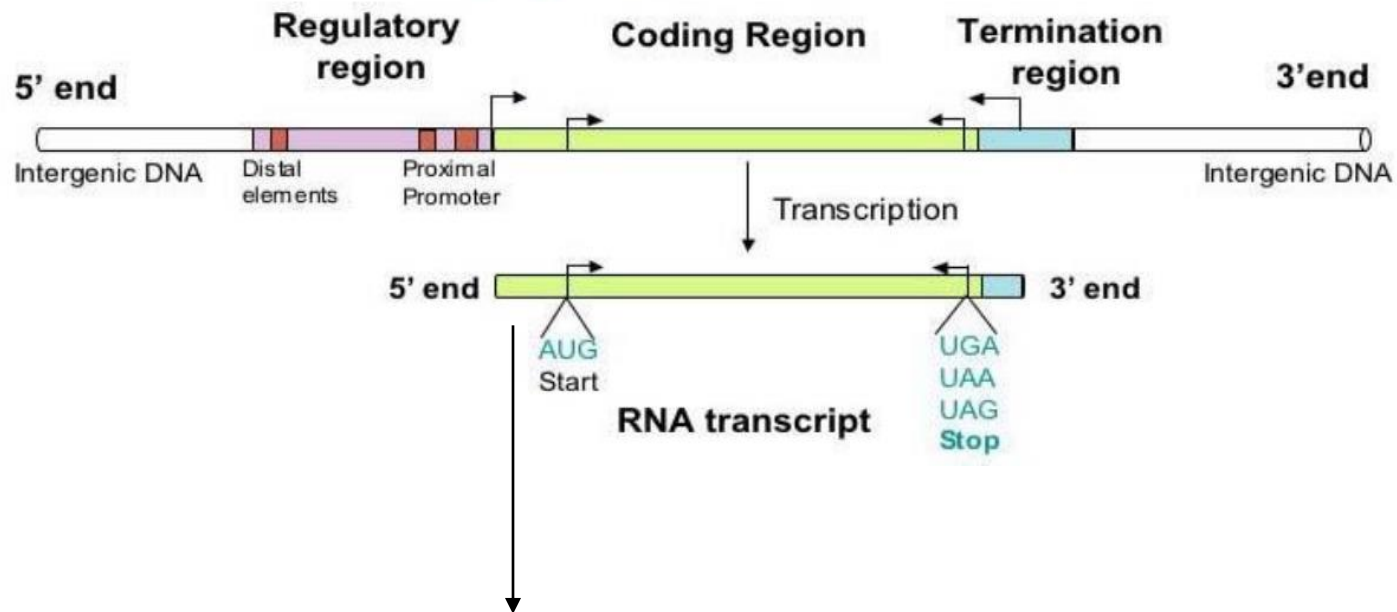
...AGC TTT TCA TTC **TGA** CTG CAA CGG GCA ATA TGT CTC TGT **GTG** GAT **TAA** AAA AAG AGT GTC **TGA TAG** CAG C...
...A GCT TTT CAT TCT GAC TGC AAC GGG CAA TAT GTC TCT **GTG** TGG ATT AAAAAA AGA **GTG** TCT GAT AGC AGC...
...AG CTT TTC ATT CTG ACT GCA ACG GGC AAT **ATG** TCT CTG TGT GGA TTA AAA AAA GAG TGT CTG ATA GCA GC...

...G CTG CTA TCA GAC ACT CTT TTT TTA ATC CAC ACA GAG ACA TAT TGC CCG **TTG** CAG TCA GAA **TGA** AAA GCT...
...GCT GCT ATC AGA CAC TCT TTT TTT AAT CCA CAC AGA GAC ATA TTG CCC GTT GCA GTC AGA **ATG** AAA AGC T...
...GC TGC TAT CAG ACA CTC TTT TTT **TAA** TCC ACA CAG AGA CAT ATT GCC CGT TGC AGT CAG AAT GAAAAG CT...

- An ORF is a sufficiently large region between a **start** and a **stop** codon

Genome annotation – protein coding genes

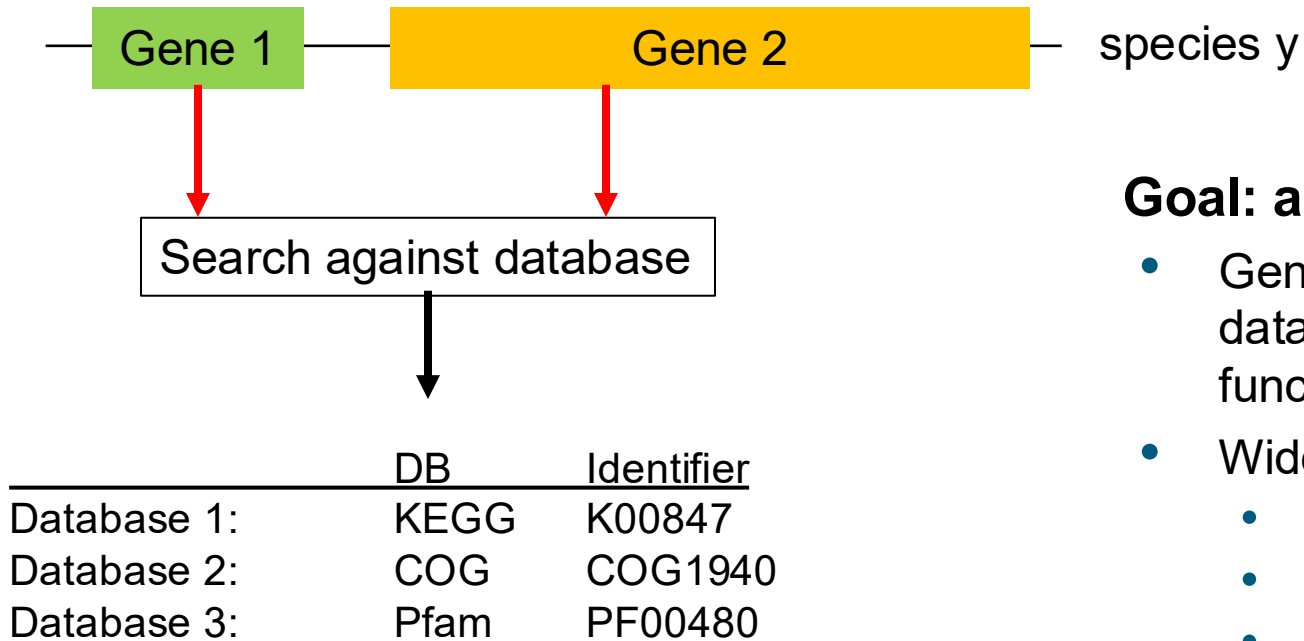
Prokaryotic gene structure



The 5'-UTR (untranslated region):

- from transcription start site to -1 bp of start codon
- contains **ribosome binding site** (RBS)

Functional annotation of genes

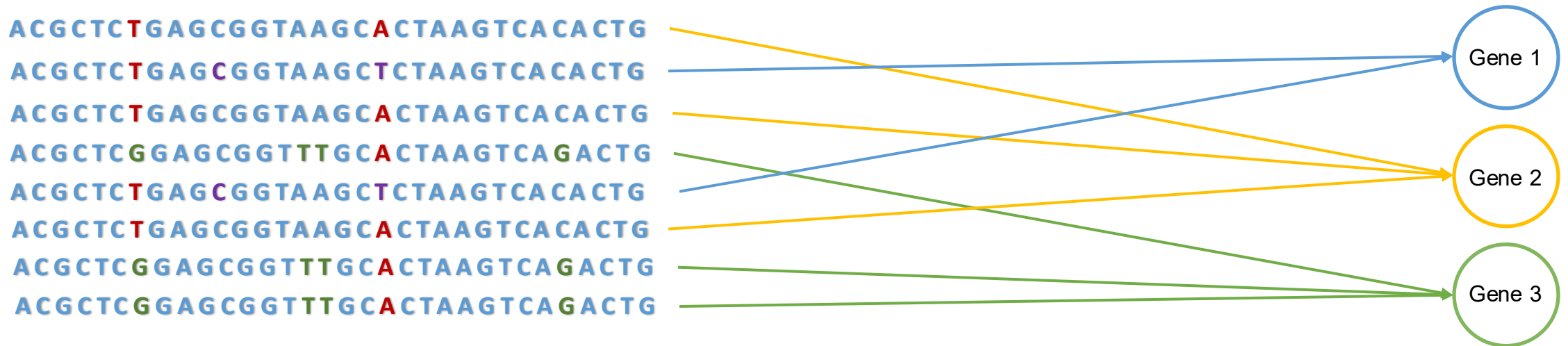


Goal: assign to each gene its function

- Gene sequences can be searched against different databases that store information on known gene functions
- Widely used databases:
 - Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)
 - Cluster of Orthologous Groups (COG)
 - Protein Family domains (Pfam)
 - Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD)
 - Many more...

Quantification of gene abundances

All **metagenomic reads** are aligned to best matching gene



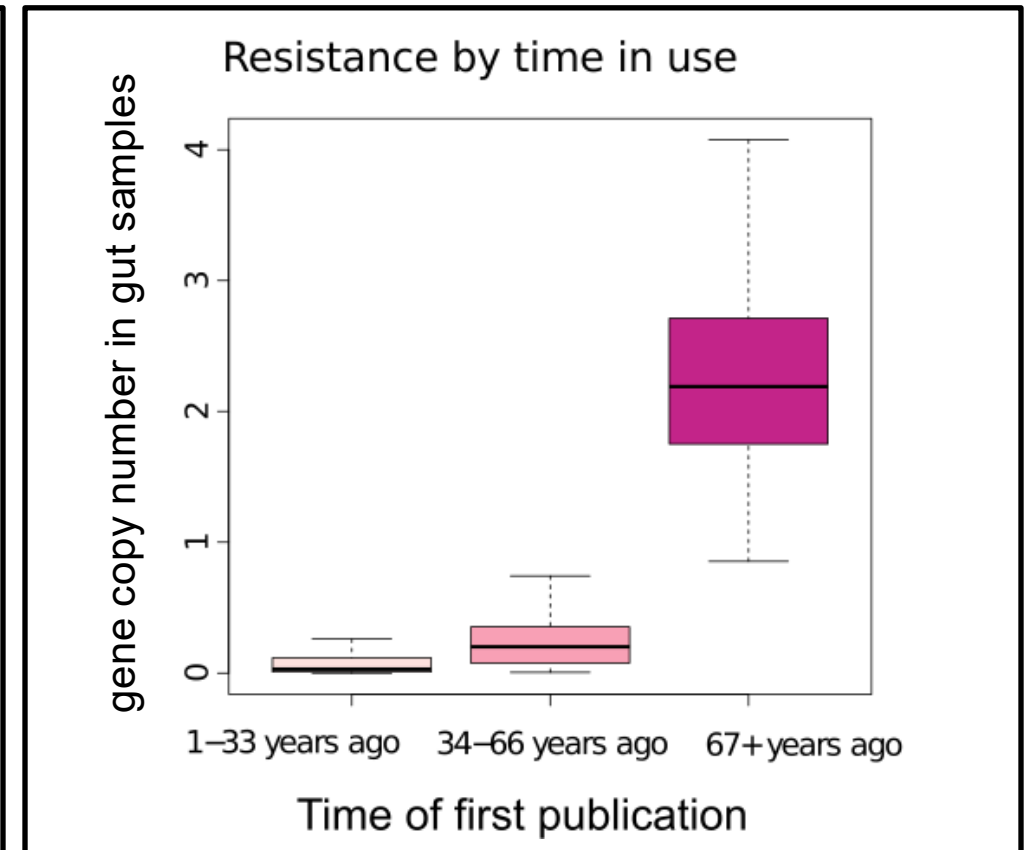
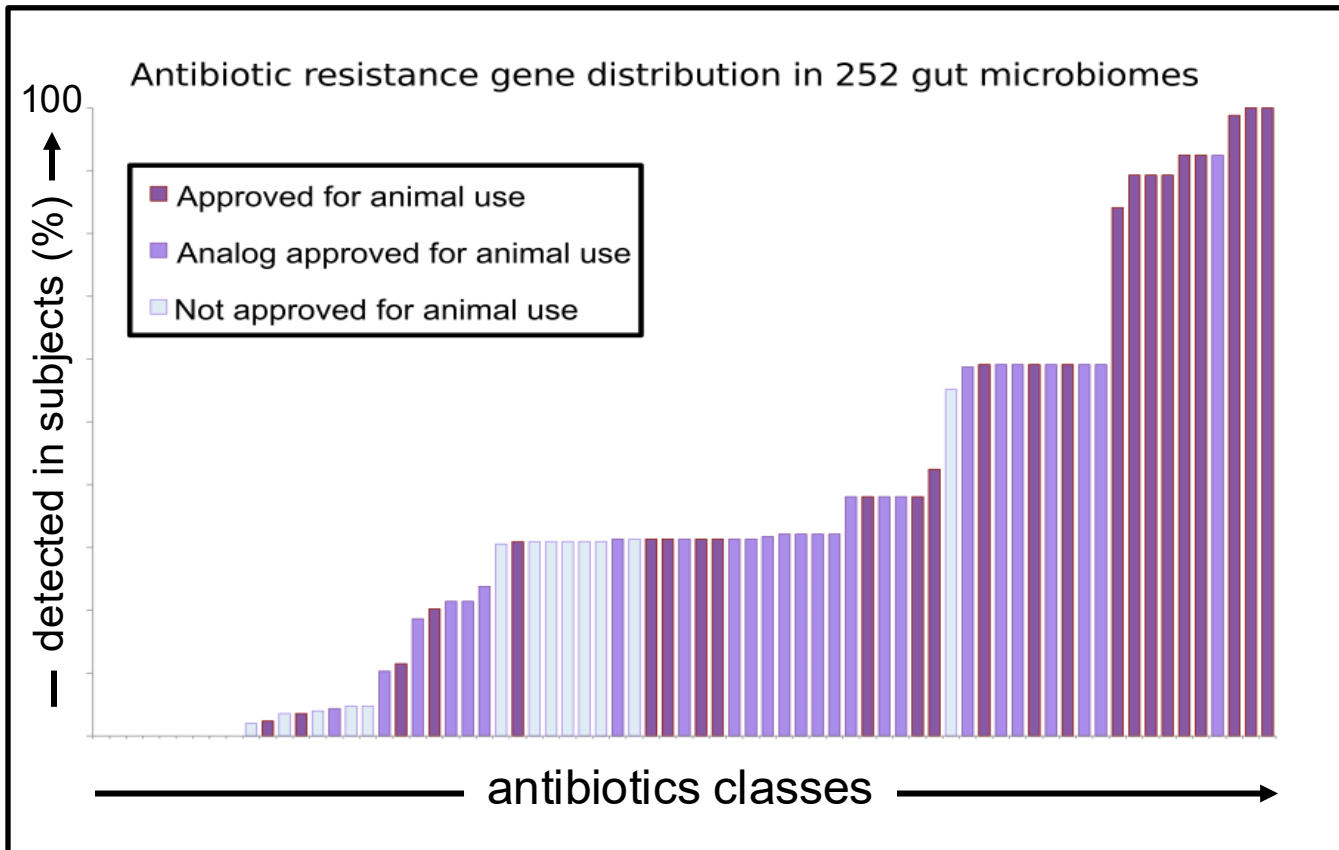
The result is a gene count table, summarizing read counts for each gene for each sample

Gene count tables can be summarized into KO abundance tables

KO abundance tables can be summarized into Module abundance tables

Module abundance tables can be summarized into Pathway abundance tables

Insights by quantifying microbial gene abundances



Summary – Part III

- Metagenomic sequencing and genome reconstruction provides access to studying microbes in their natural environment where they live in complex communities
- Taxonomic annotation of a reconstructed genome provides information about its 'novelty'
- Prediction of genes and their annotation using different databases provides information about the functional capabilities of microorganisms
- Genes can be grouped into higher functional levels and profiled to study gene functional differences between microbial communities