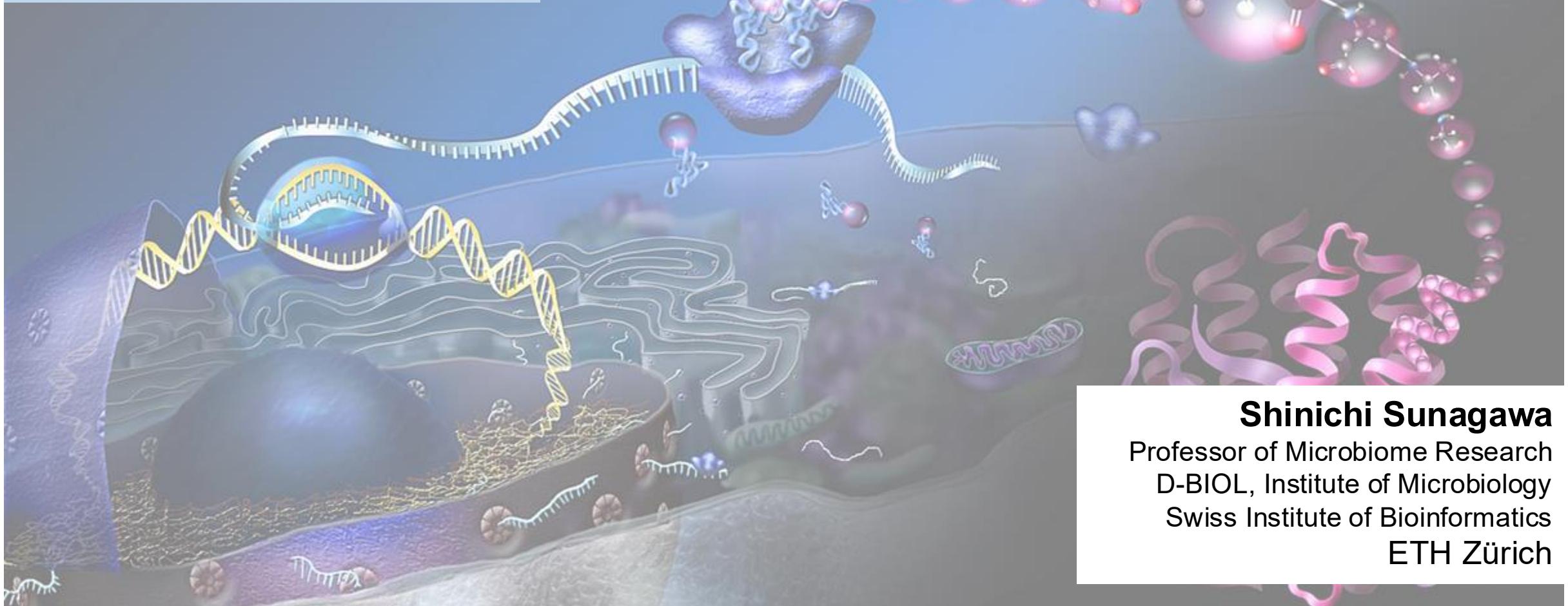


# Metagenomics

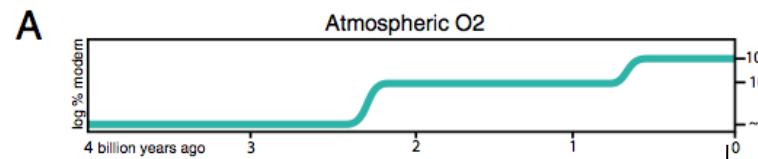


**Shinichi Sunagawa**

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

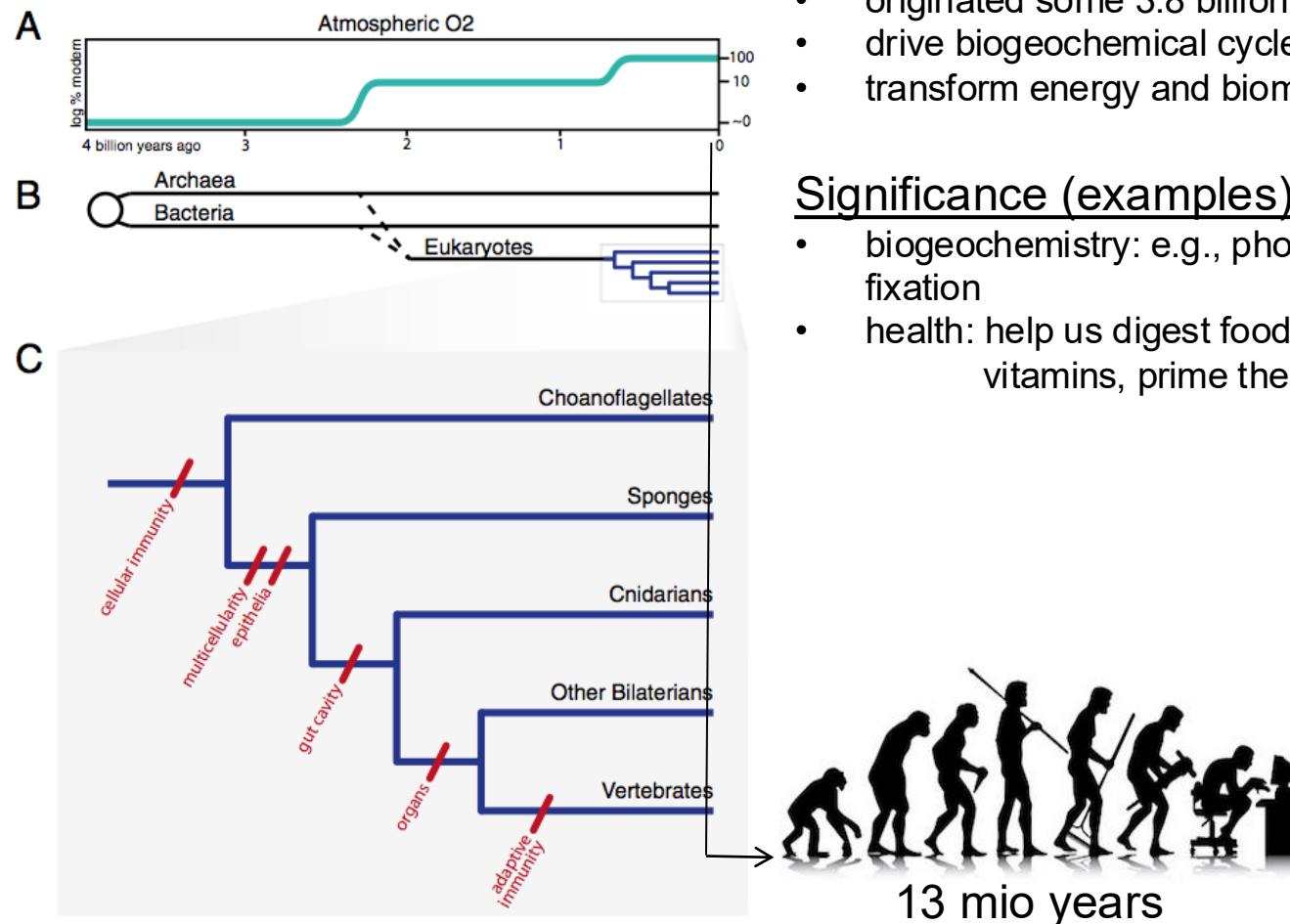
- originated some 3.8 billion years ago
- drive biogeochemical cycles of elements (C, N, P, S, etc.)
- transform energy and biomass

### 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



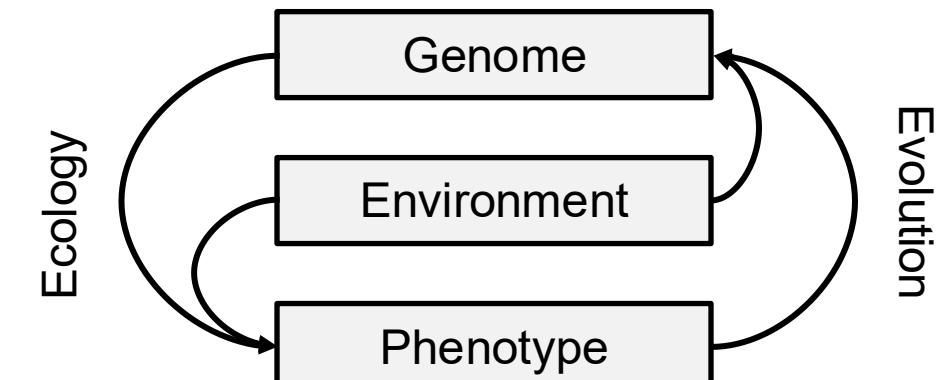
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- originated some 3.8 billion years ago
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### Significance (examples):

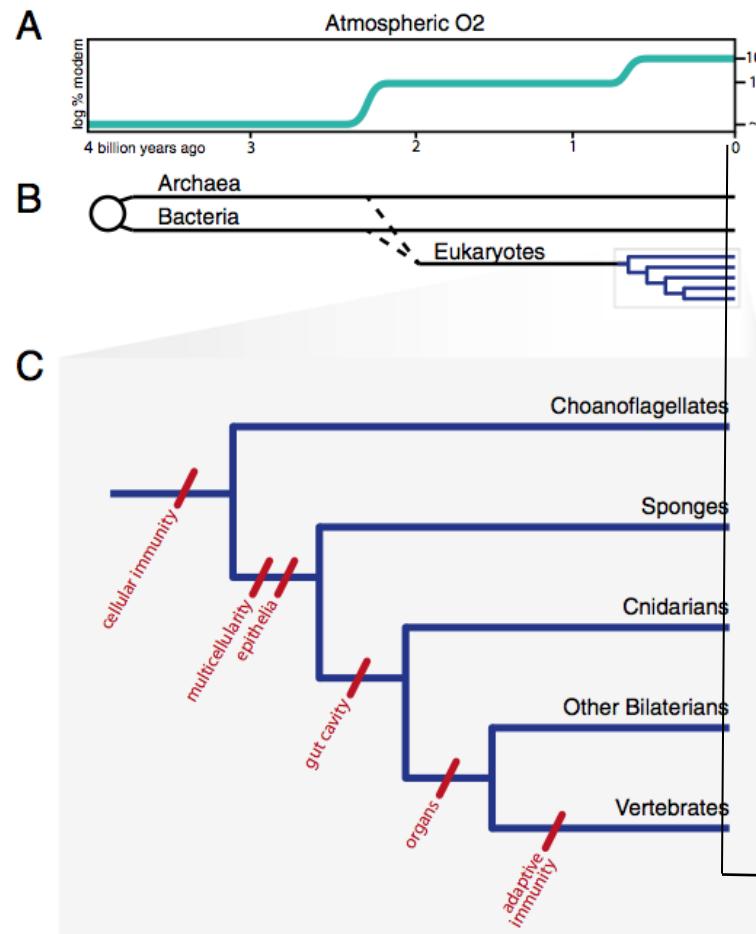
- biogeochemistry: e.g., photosynthesis by microbes, carbon fixation/export, nitrogen fixation
- health: help us digest food, provide essential vitamins, prime the immune system

### Single organism-centric view



# Evolution and significance of microbiomes

## From the origin of life to today



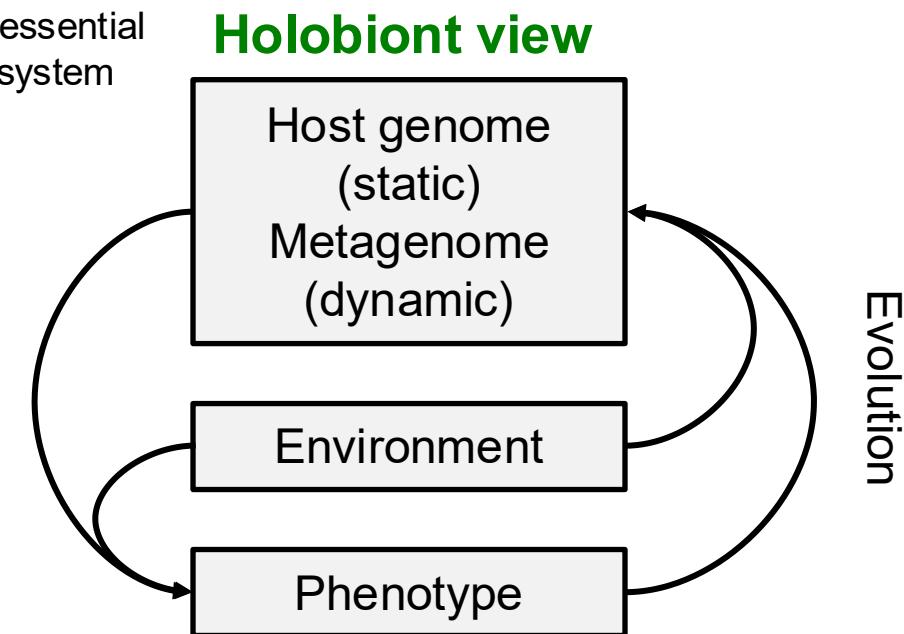
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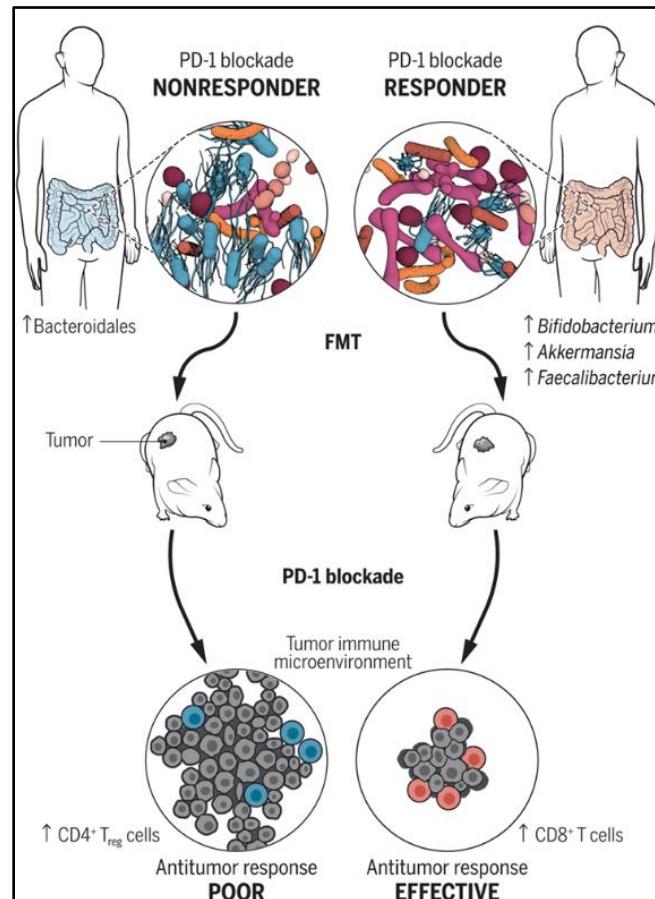
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Ecology



# Describing microbial communities – Example 1

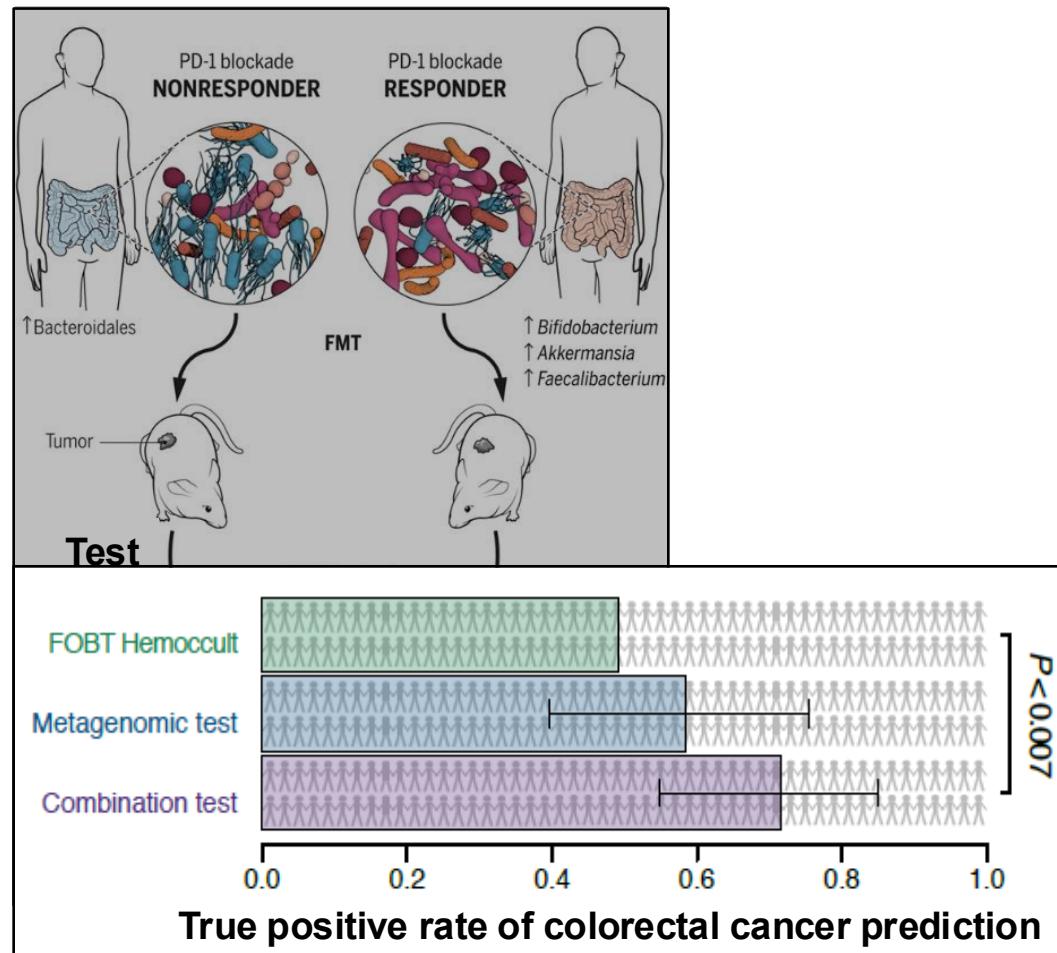


## Gut microbial community compositions

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

GRAPHIC: V. ALTOUNIAN/SCIENCE

# Describing microbial communities – Example 1



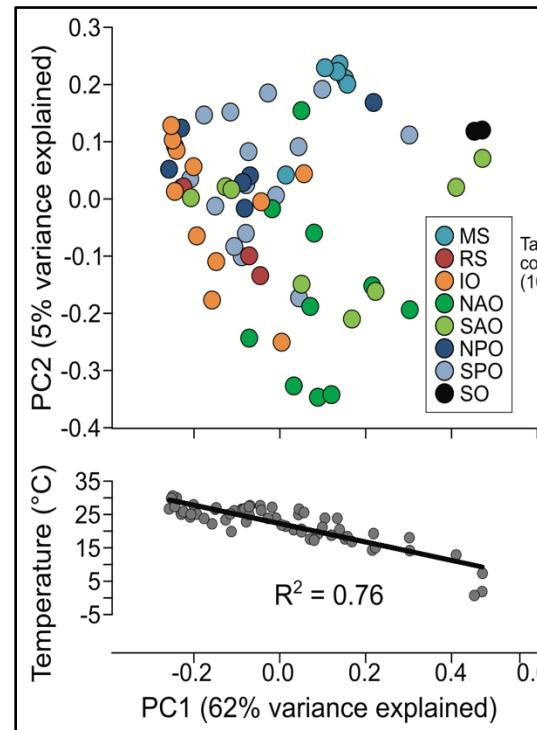
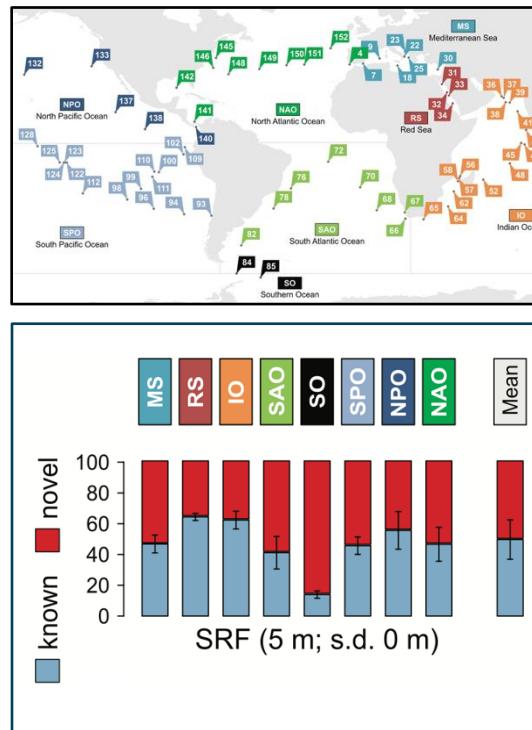
## Gut microbial community compositions

- 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/Kingdom, Phylum, Class, Order, Family, Genus, Species**

**TABLE 3.1. Taxonomic ranks or levels in ascending order**

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

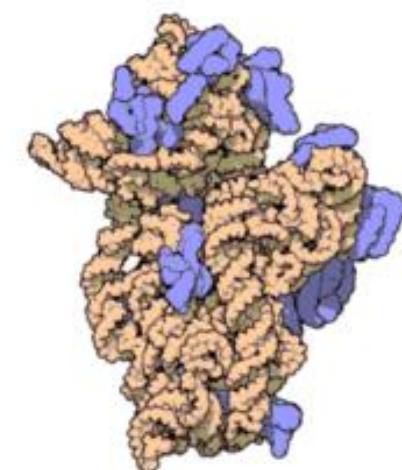
- Phenotypic characteristics
  - morphology, physiology/metabolism, ecology, exchange of genetic material
- Molecular characteristics
  - DNA-DNA hybridization
  - **DNA sequences of individual genes (e.g., 16S rRNA gene) or complete genomes**

→ 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

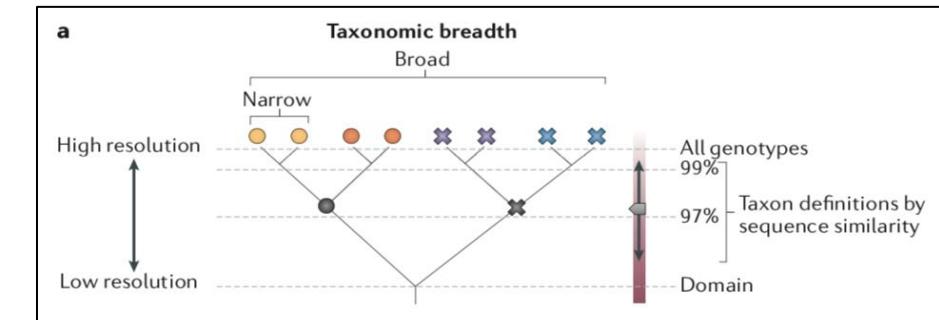
- 16S rRNA
  - encoded in genomes of all bacteria and archaea  
conserved function as integral part of the protein synthesis machinery
  - similar mutation rate: → molecular clock

**30S small subunit of ribosomes in prokaryotes**



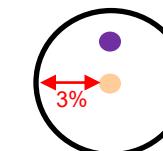
# 16S rRNA-based Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs)

- 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)**



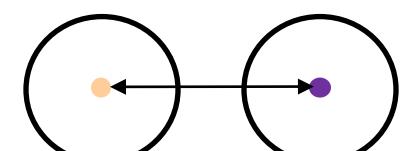
## Identity of 16S rRNA gene sequences

$\geq 97\%$



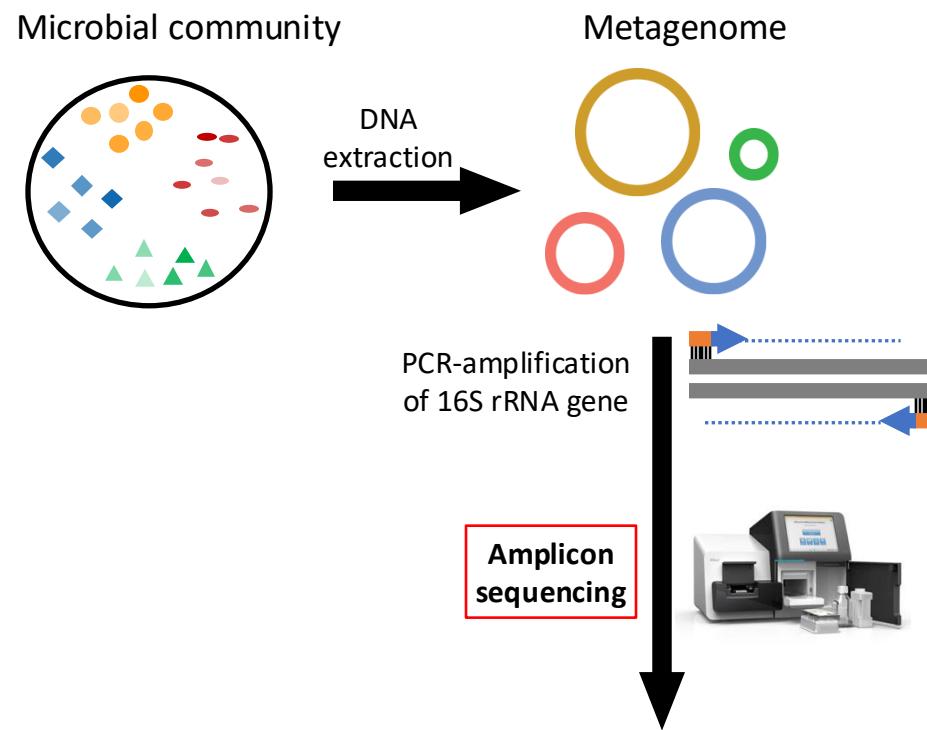
→ 1 OTU

$<97\%$



→ 2 OTUs

# Amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments by PCR



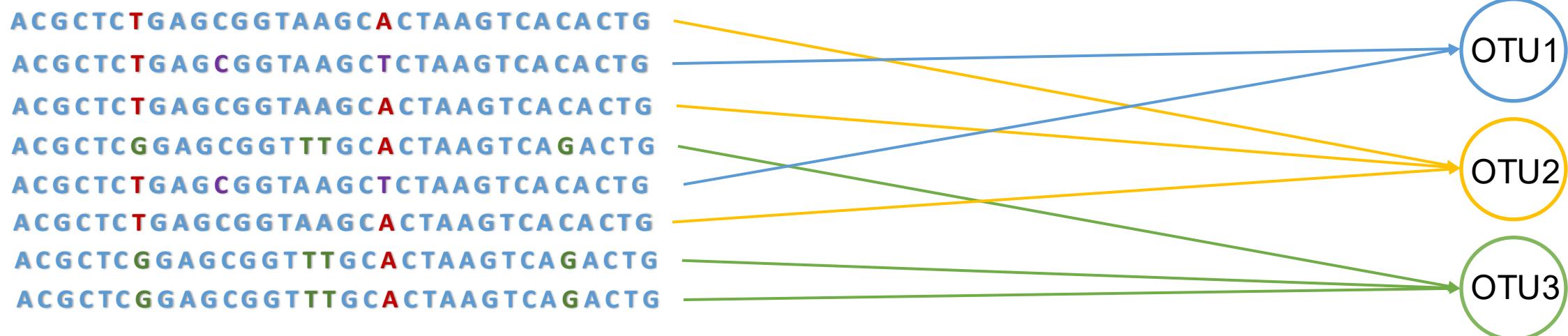
## 16S rRNA amplicons

ACGCTCTGAGCGGTAAAGCACTAAGTCACACTG  
ACGCTCTGAGCGGTAAAGCCTAAGTCACACTG  
ACGCTCTGAGCGGTAAAGCACTAAGTCACACTG  
ACGCTCGGAGCGGTTTGCACTAAGTCAGACTG  
ACGCTCTGAGCGGTAAAGCCTAAGTCACACTG  
ACGCTCTGAGCGGTAAAGCACTAAGTCACACTG  
ACGCTCGGAGCGGTTTGCACTAAGTCAGACTG  
ACGCTCGGAGCGGTTTGCACTAAGTCAGACTG

Who is  
there?

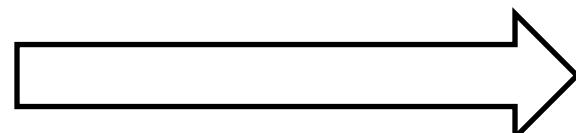
# Quantification of OTU abundances

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

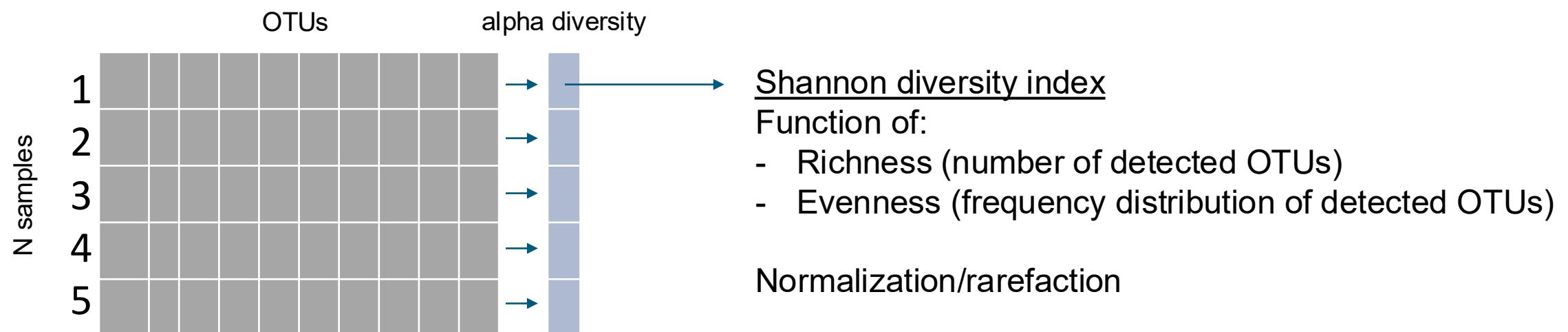
$$H'_{\max} = - \sum_{i=1}^R \frac{1}{R} \ln \frac{1}{R} = \ln R$$

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**



# 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

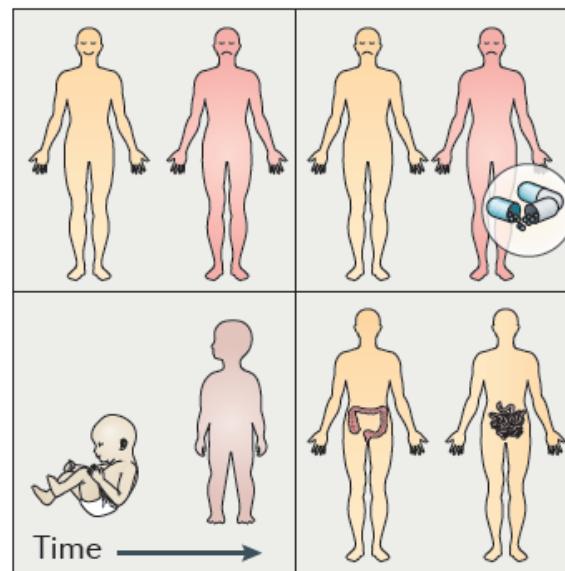
- taxonomic differences between microbial communities
- differentially abundant features (e.g., taxa, genes, functions)

## 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:

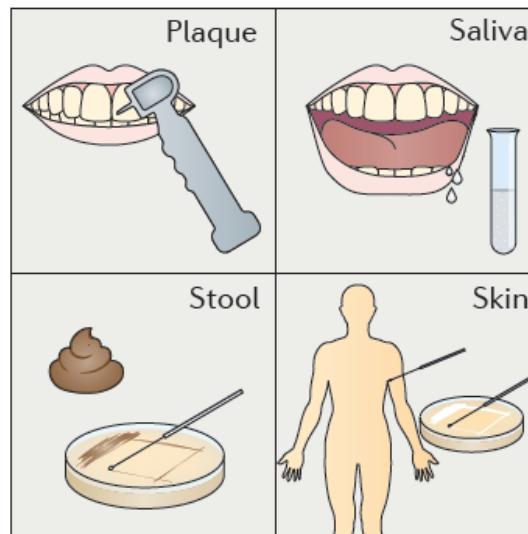
- groups of individuals and/or health states
- differential response to drugs (or nutrition)
- organismal development (or disease progression)
- differences between body sites

Examples:

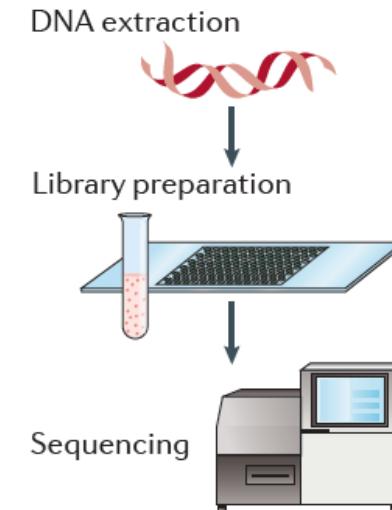
- asymptomatic individuals vs colorectal cancer patients
- cardiac drug digoxin inactivation by *Eggerthella lenta*
- *Bifidobacterium* spp. decrease with age
- body-site specific taxa

# Microbiome-wide association studies are analogous to GWAS

## b Sampling

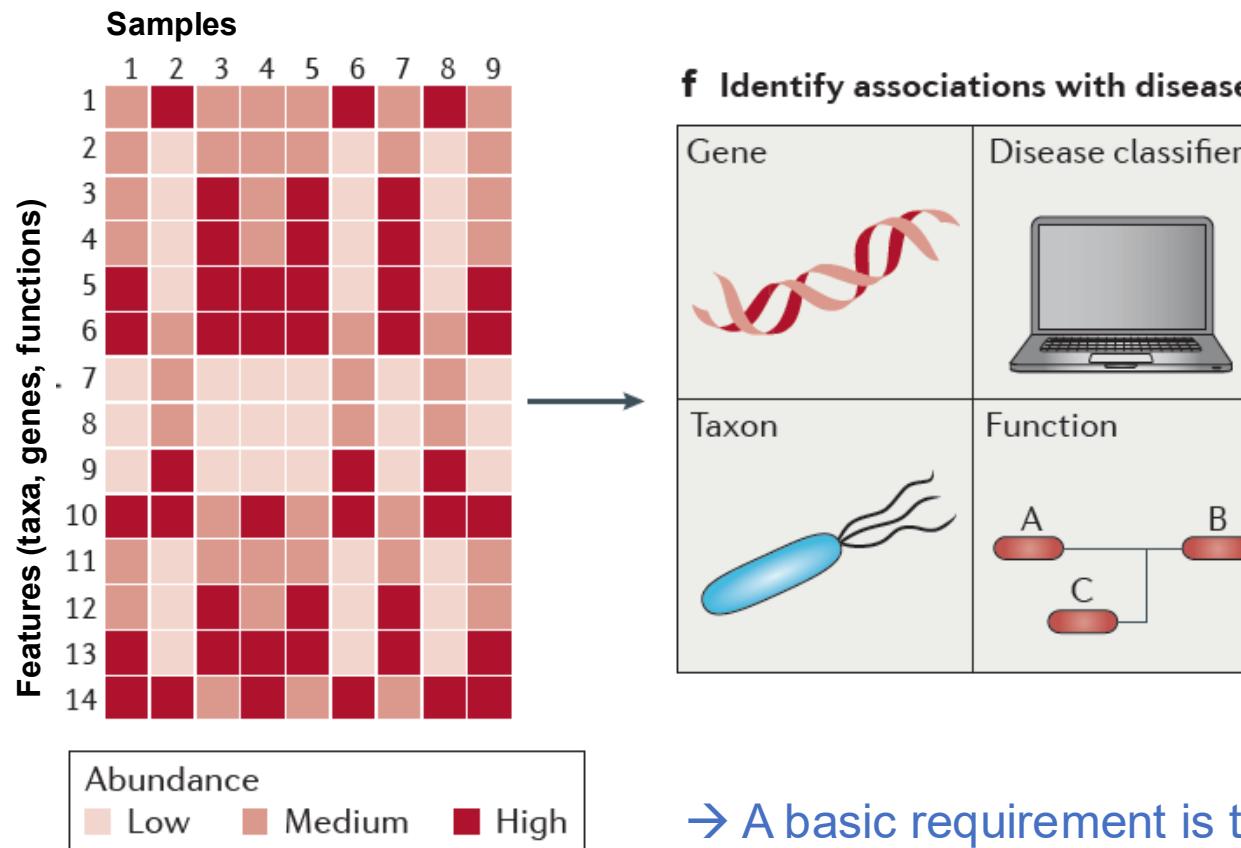


## c Metagenomic shotgun sequencing



- 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

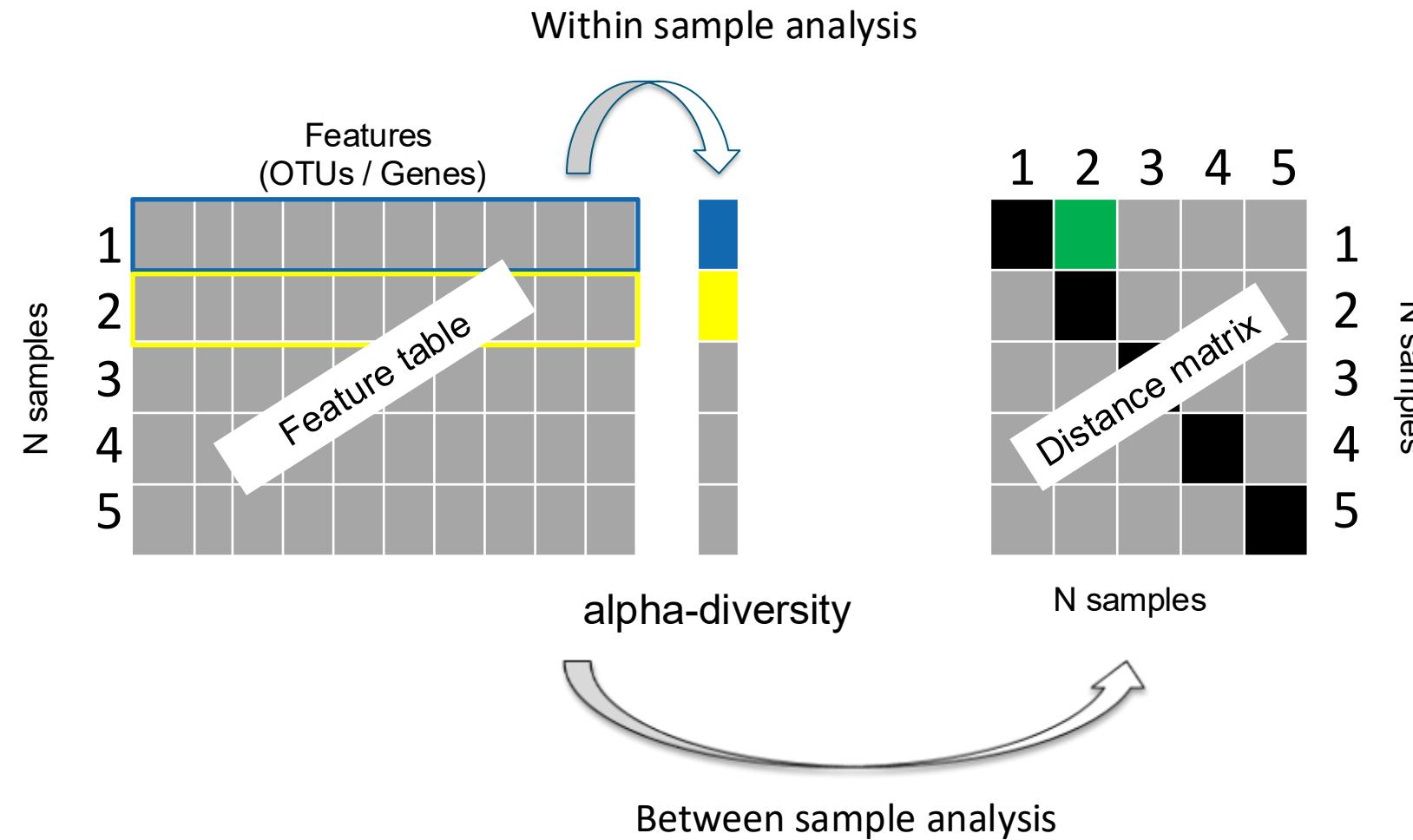
# Microbiome-wide association studies are analogous to GWAS



- 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:

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

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

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

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

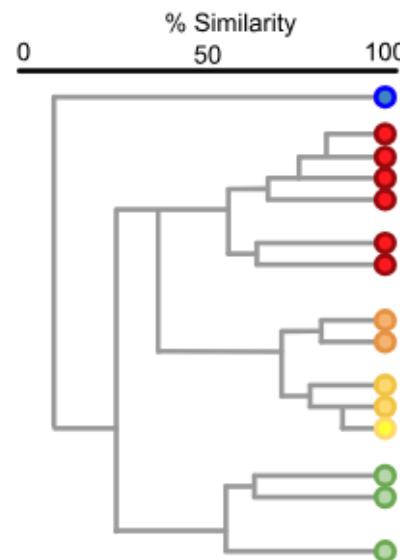
$$\text{Chi-square: } D = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^S \frac{(a_+ + c_+)}{(a_i + c_i)} \left( \frac{a_i}{a_+} - \frac{c_i}{c_+} \right)^2} \text{ with } a_+ = \sum_{i=1}^S a_i$$

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

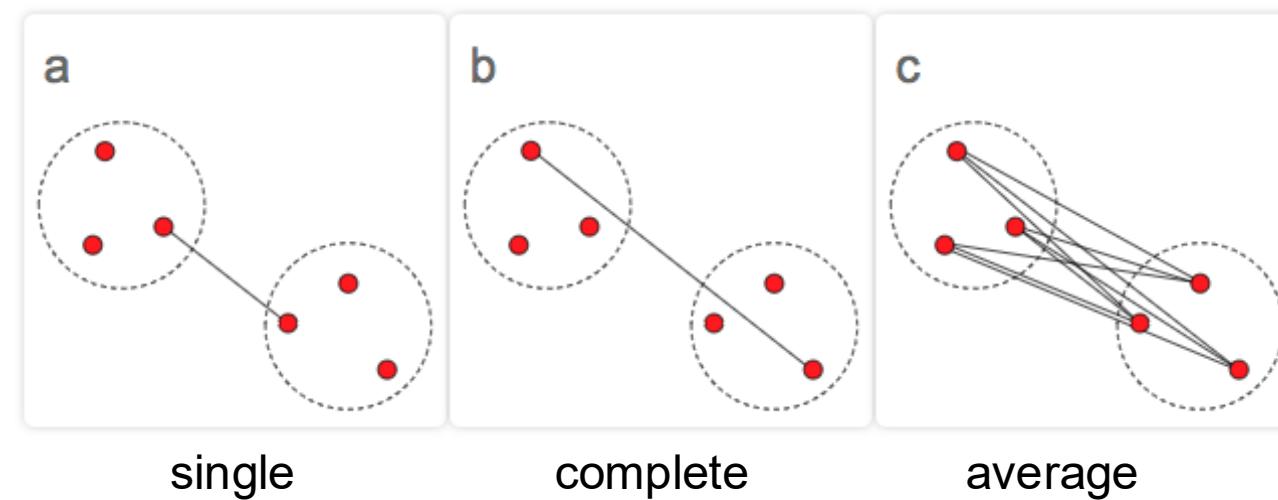
# Visualize dissimilarities between microbial communities

- 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



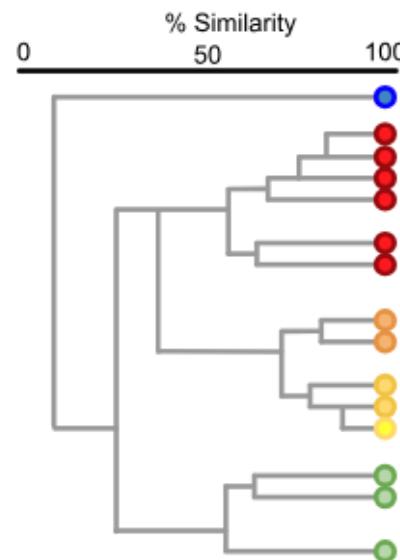
Linkage algorithms



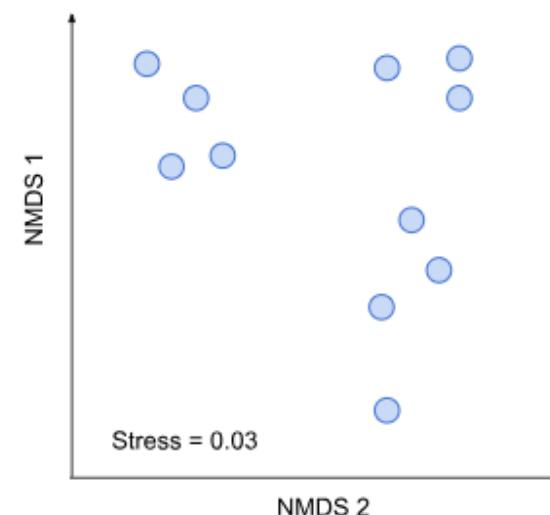
# Visualize dissimilarities between microbial communities

- 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

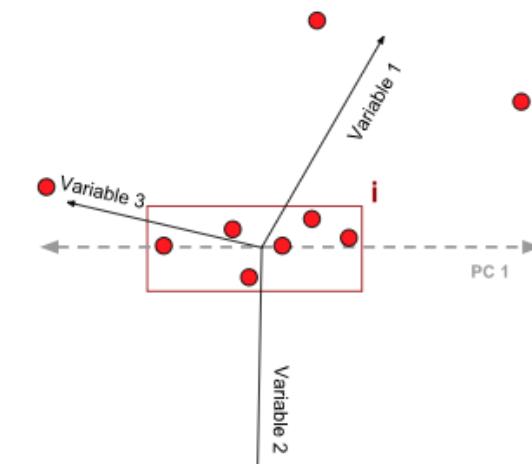
Hierarchical clustering



Non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS)

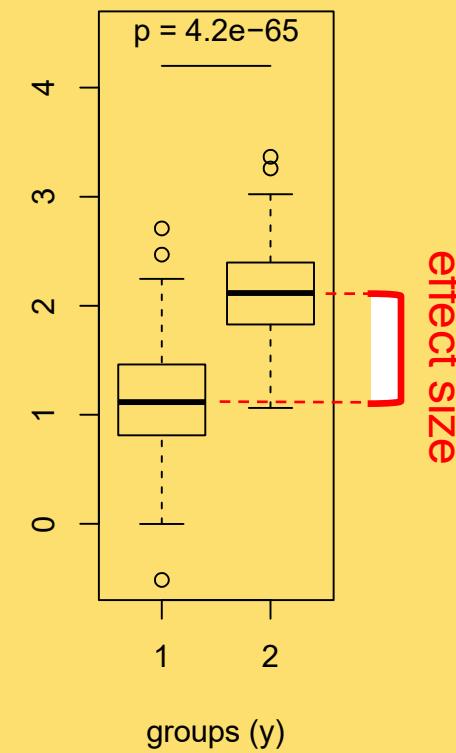
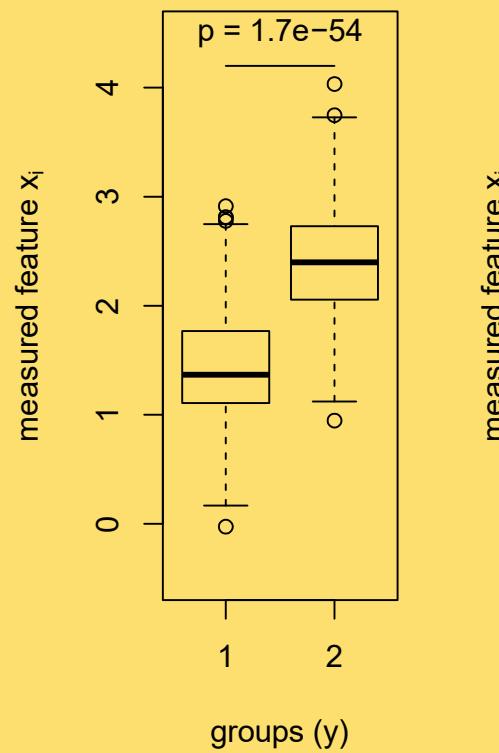


Principal component or coordinate analysis (PCA or PCoA)



# Determine differentially abundant features

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

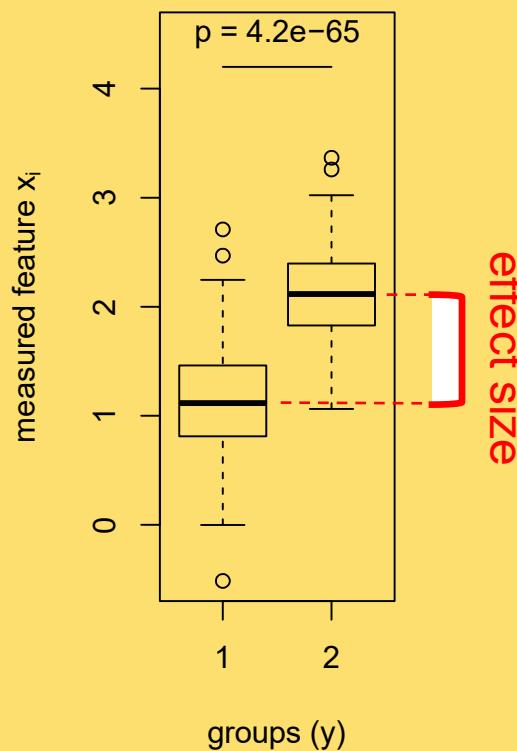
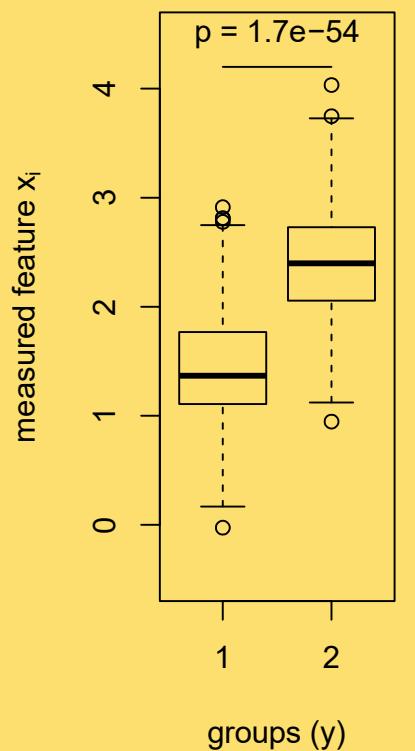


**Question 1:** in a clinical trial, you observe differences in the taxonomic composition of stool samples from healthy vs. diseased individuals. Assuming it to be a true effect, what do you expect from sampling additional individuals?

- 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?

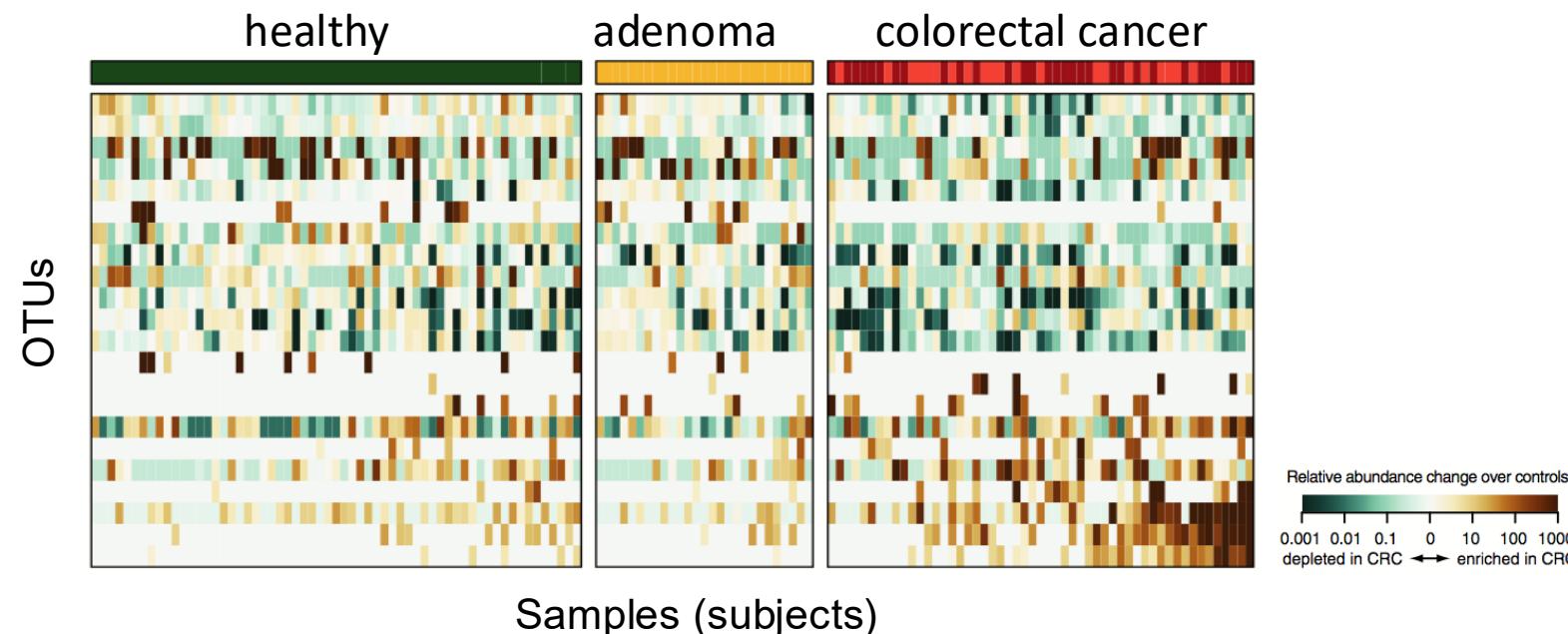
- a) Correct the p-value according to the number of tests performed
- b) Repeat the test multiple times to reduce the error
- c) Reduce the number of features that are tested

→ label-agnostic modifications to matrix

# Quantitative differences between microbial communities

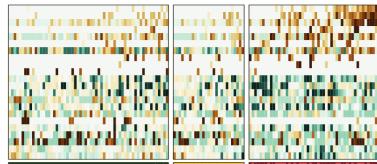
- Describing quantitative differences between microbial community compositions:
  - can identify taxa (or other features) as disease markers

## Taxonomic profiles of stool samples

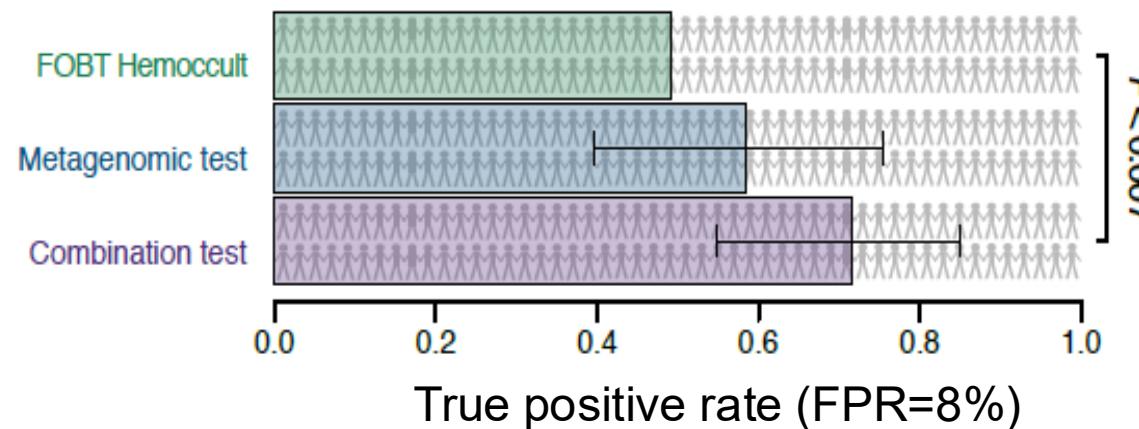


# Quantitative differences between microbial communities

- 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

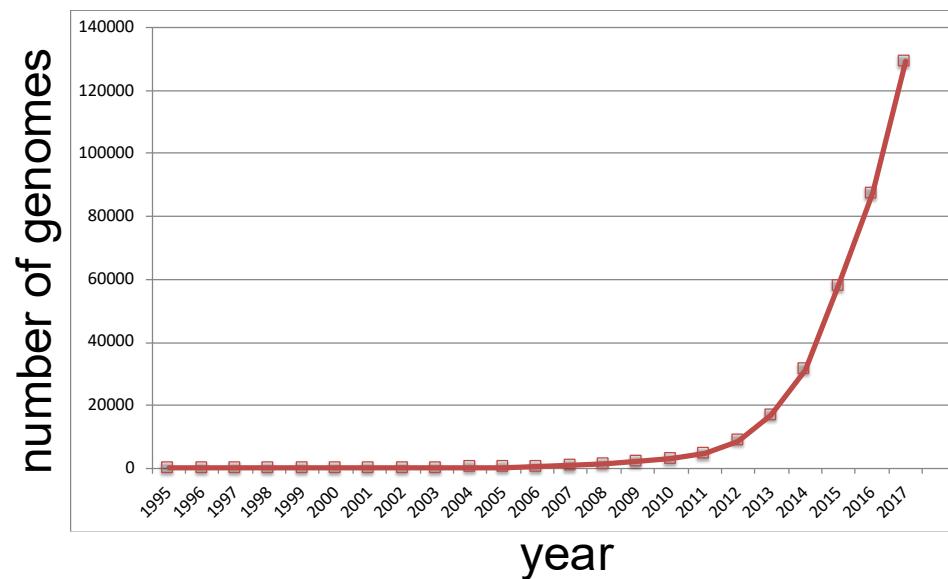
- Most organisms in microbial communities have not been isolated and cultured
  - However, we can sequence microbial community DNA, reconstruct genomes and predict protein sequences / structures
- Genomes reconstructed from natural environments capture microbial diversity on Earth
  - New data challenge 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

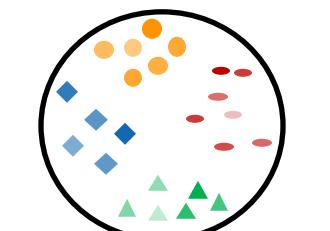
- First bacterial genome (1995): *Haemophilus influenzae* *Fleischmann et al. 1995*
- Followed by many isolated pathogens of diseases (e.g., plague, anthrax, tuberculosis, Lyme disease)
- Many isolates of important non-pathogenic species: e.g., *Prochlorococcus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Bradyrhizobium*
- Bacteria 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

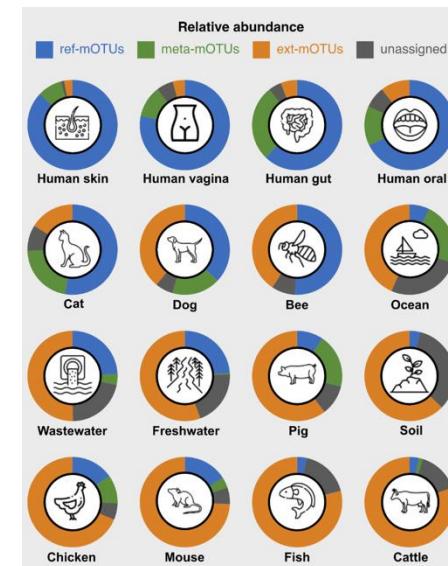
## Microbial isolate genome sequences



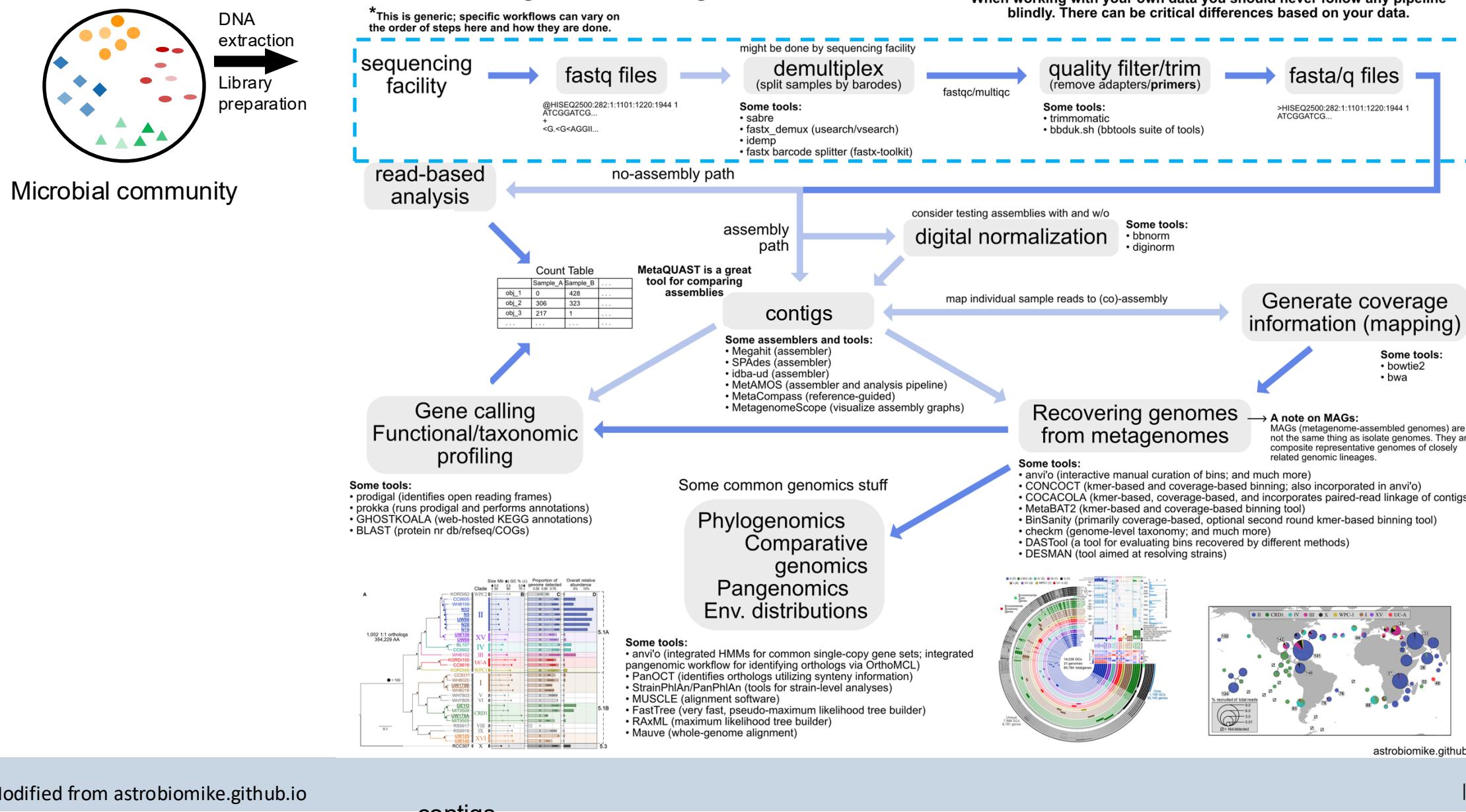
9/2023      10/2025  
312,000      3,150,000

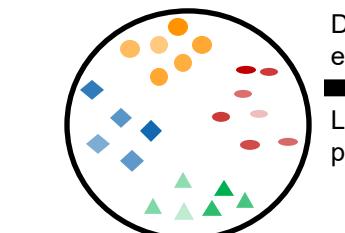


Microbial community



→ 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?"

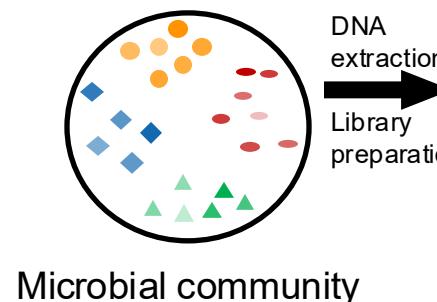




Microbial community

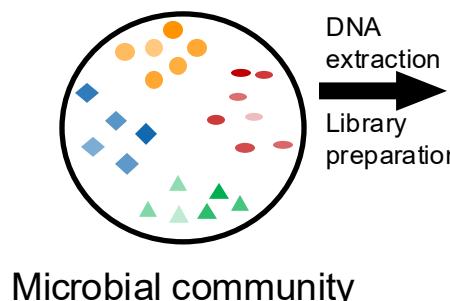
## DNA extraction

- 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.



## Storage of DNA sequence information

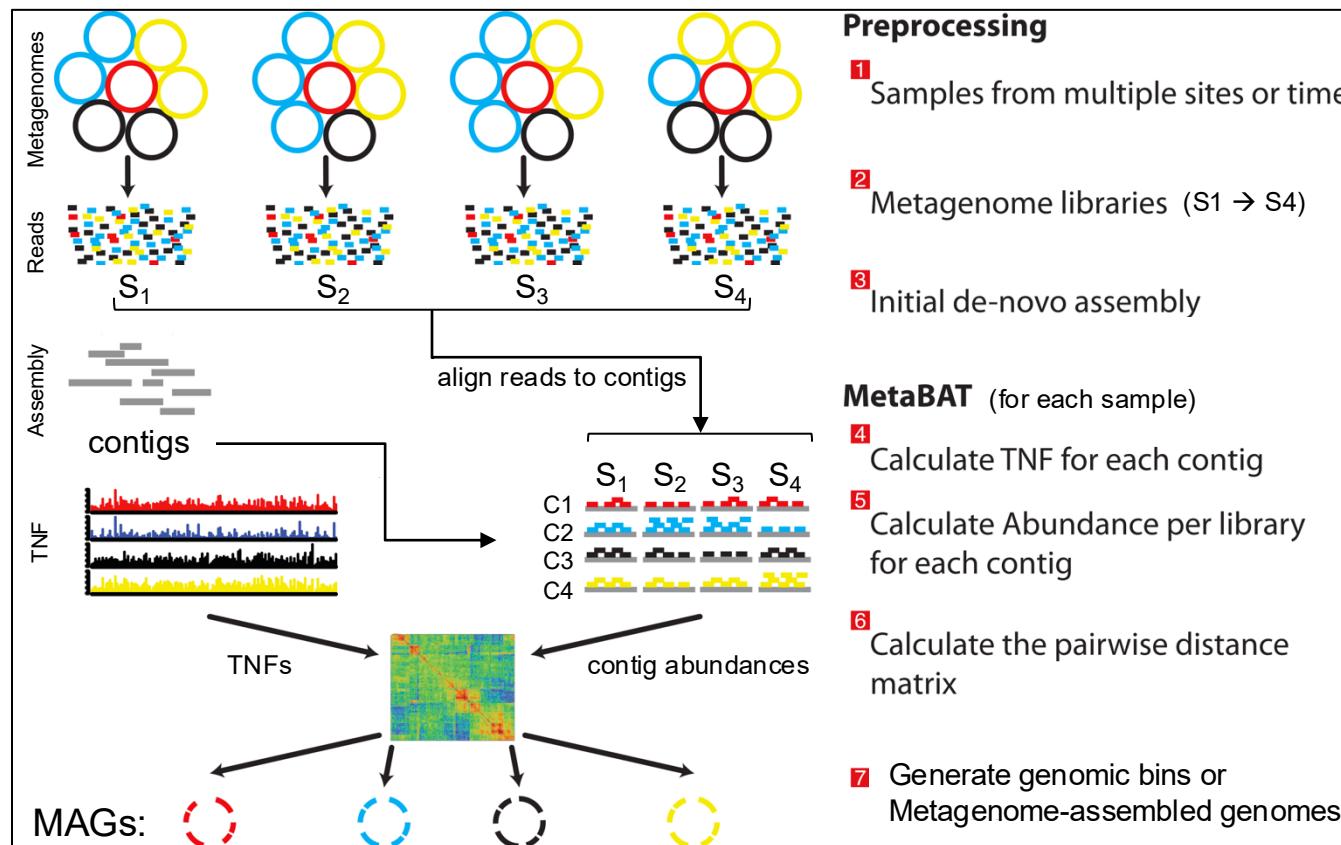
- National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI)
- European Nucleotide Archive (ENA)
- DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ)

## 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



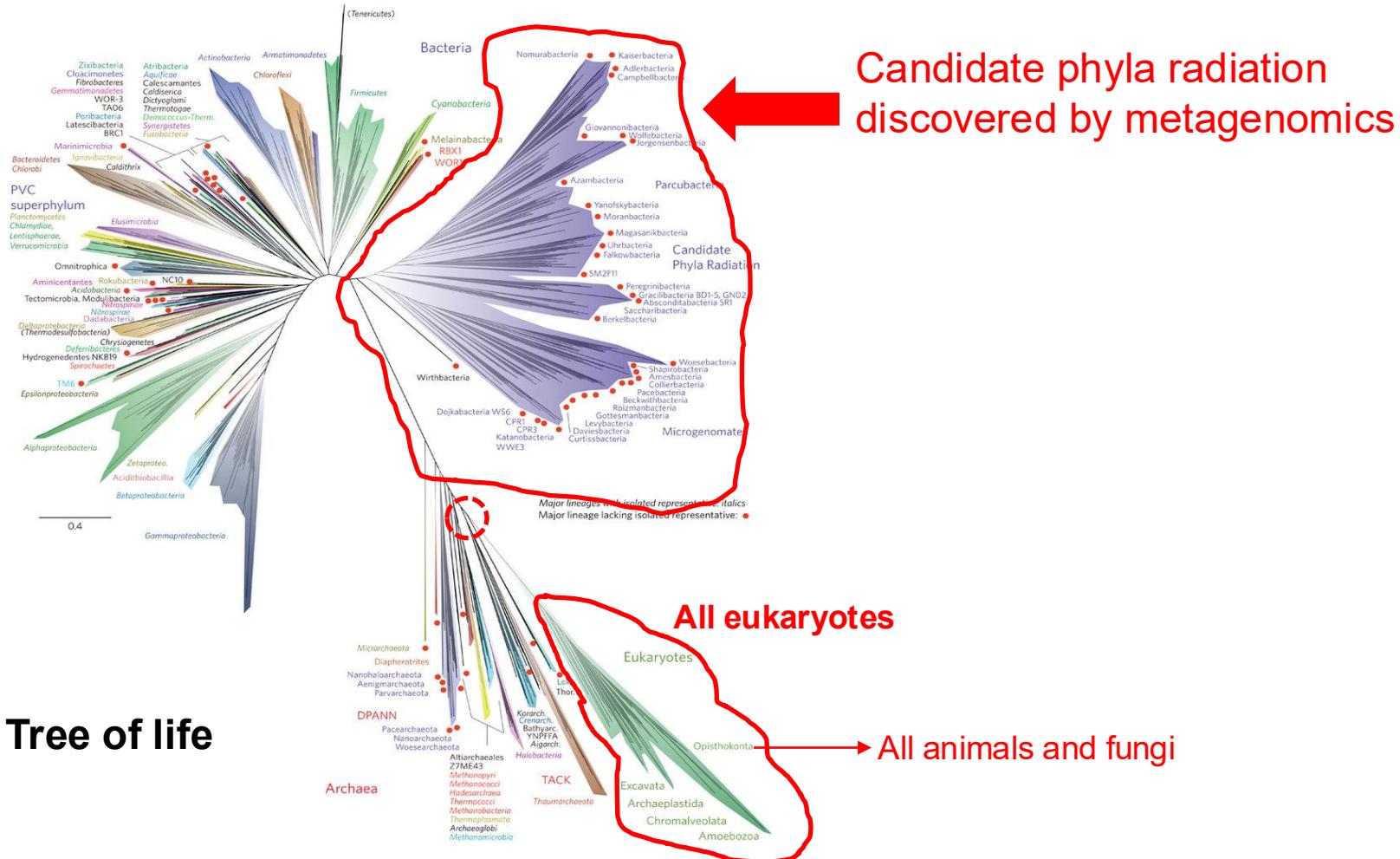
## From contigs to metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs)

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

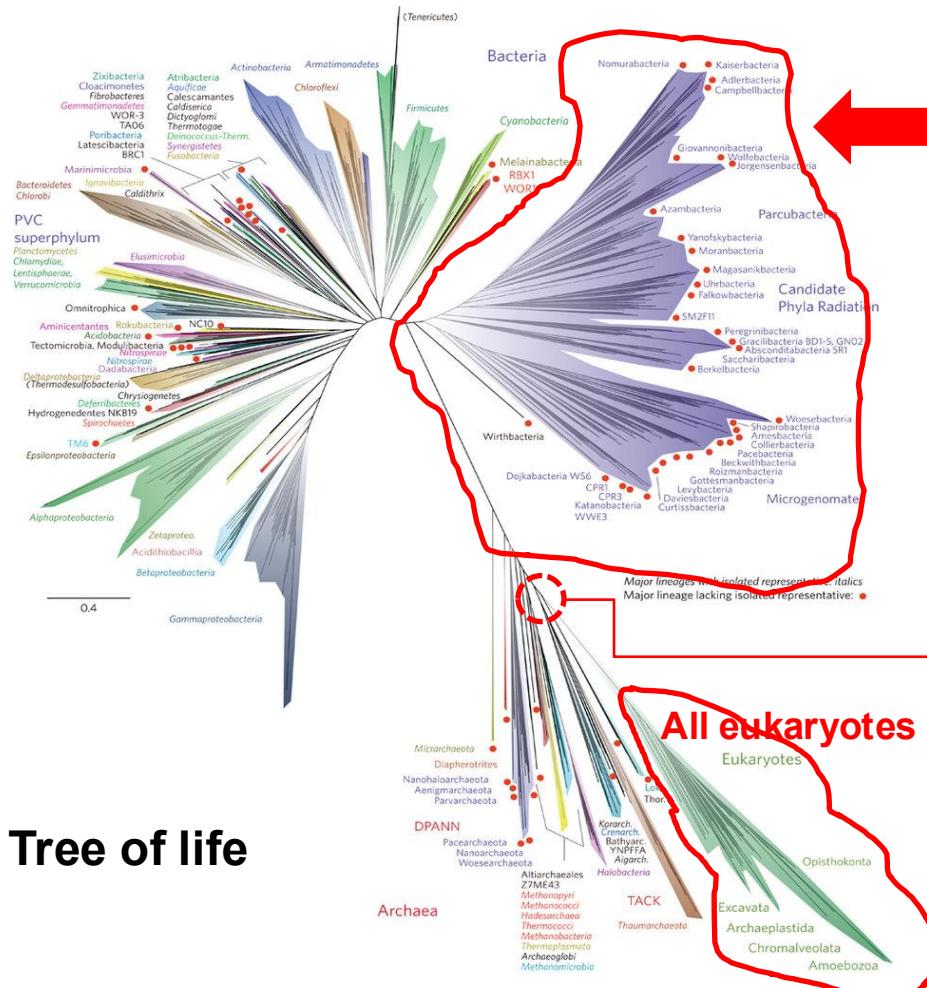
- Tetranucleotide frequencies (TNFs)
- Abundances of contigs within and across samples

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

# Insights by reconstructing microbial community genomes

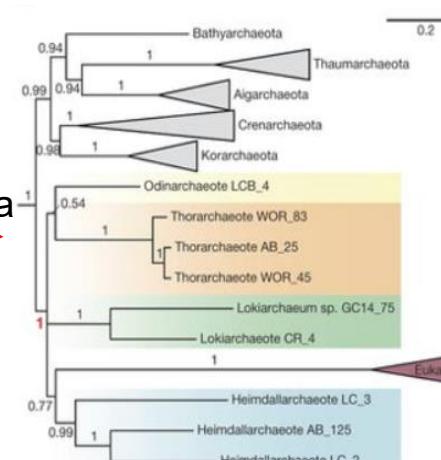


# Insights by reconstructing microbial community genomes

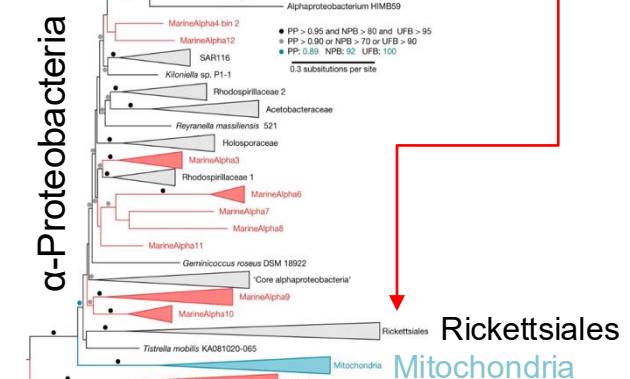


Candidate phyla radiation discovered by metagenomics

Two domains of life



Mitochondrial origin not within Rickettsiales

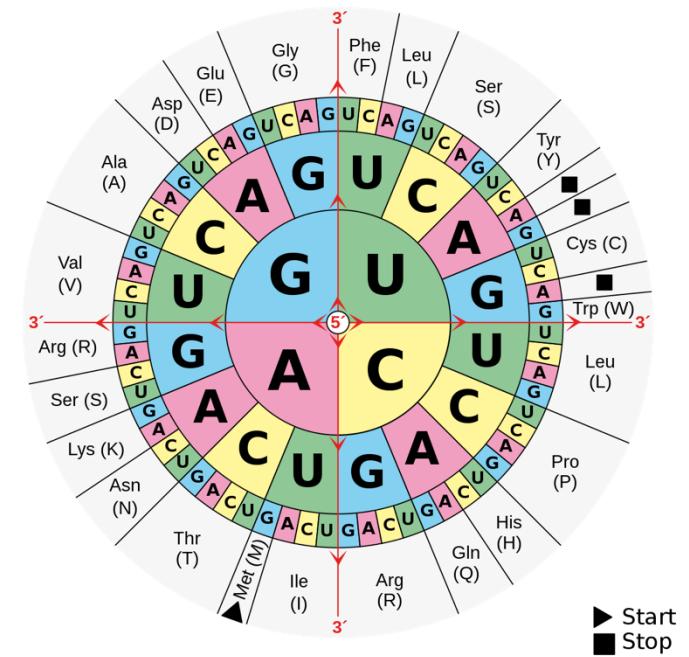


Eukaryotes

# 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 AAA AAA 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...

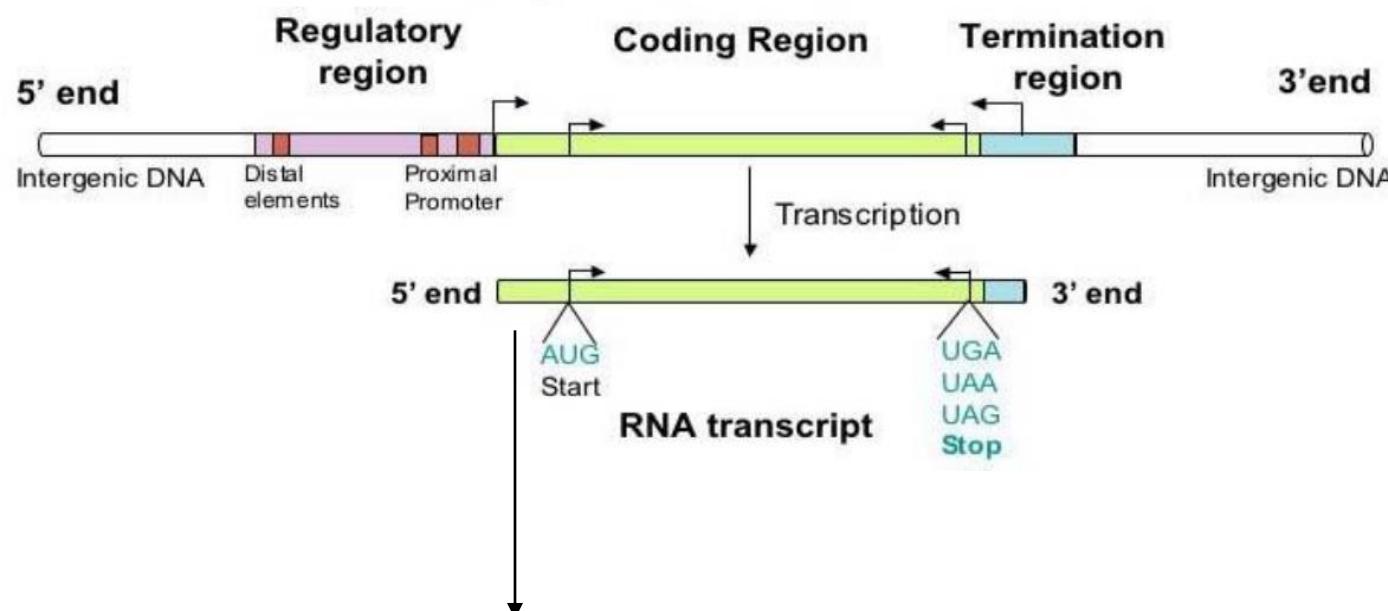
...GCT GCT ATC AGA CAC TCT TTT TTT AAT CCA CAC AGA GAC ATA TTG CCC GTT GCA GTC AGA **ATG** AAA AGC T...

...GC TGC TAT CAG ACA CTC TTT **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

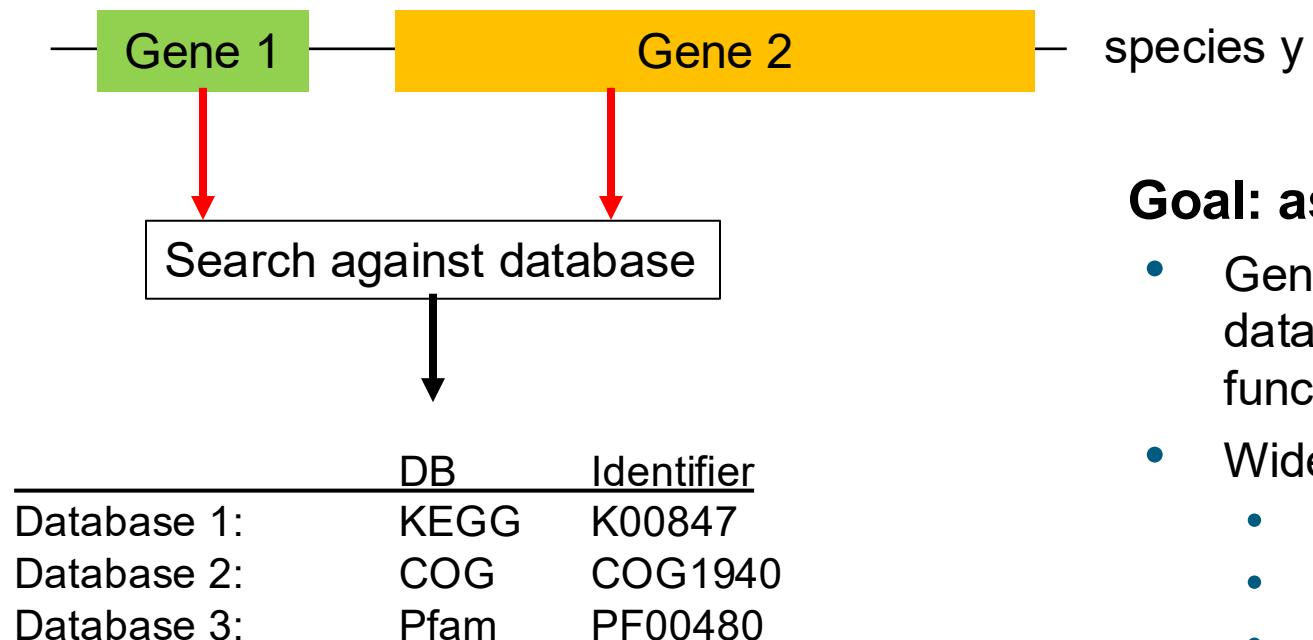
## Prokaryotic gene structure



The 5'-UTR (untranslated region):

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

# Functional annotation of genes

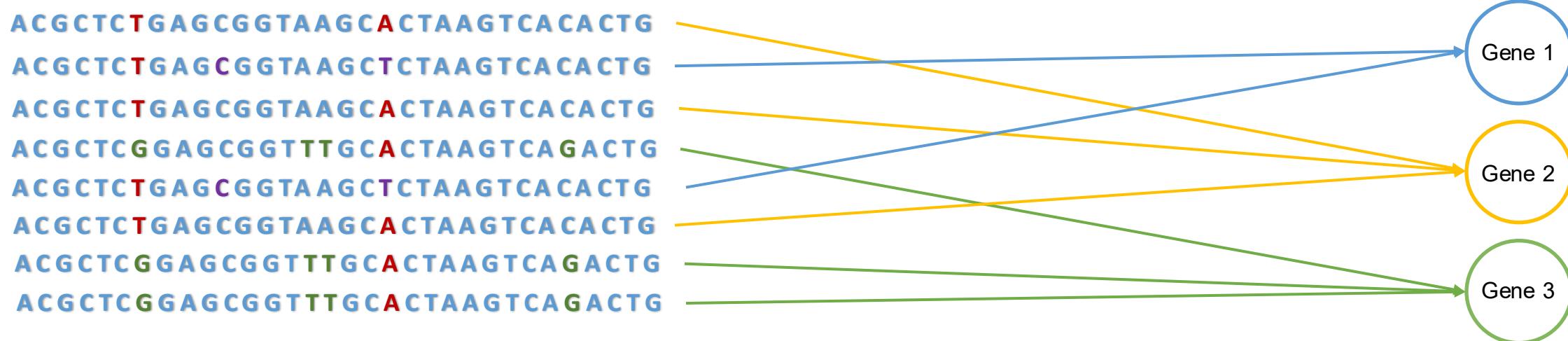


## Goal: assign to each gene its function

- 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



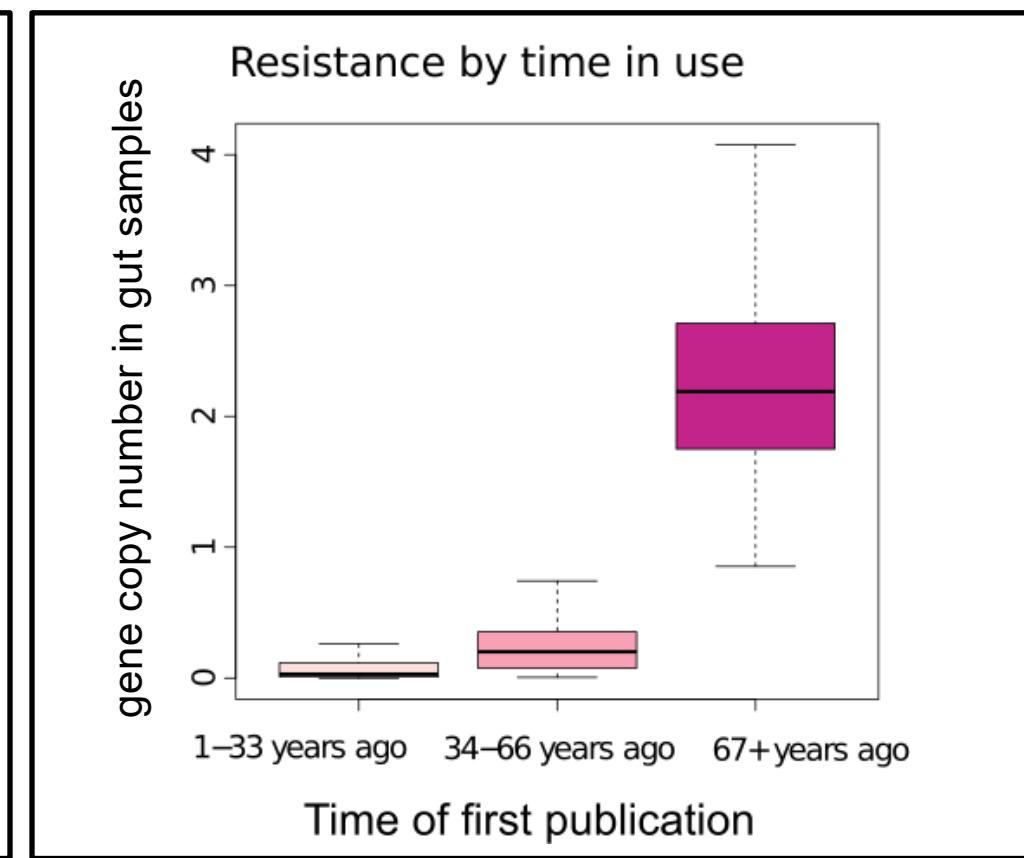
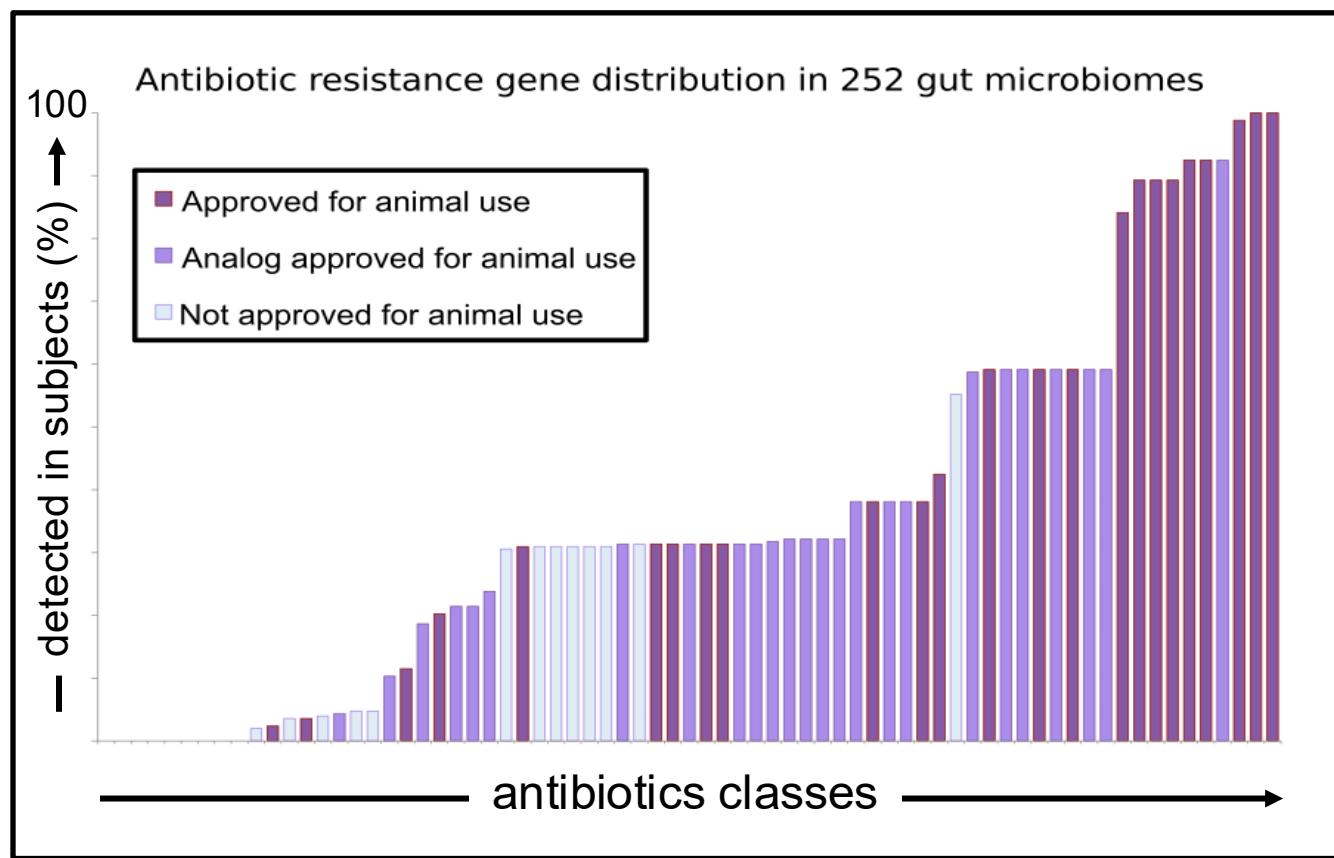
The result is a gene count table, summarizing read counts for each gene for each sample

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