Lightweight compositional analysis of metagenomes with sourmash gather

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Abstract

The accurate assignment of genomes and taxonomy to metagenome data is an important method underlying many microbiome studies. Here we describe a new k-mer sketching technique, *Scaled MinHash*, an extension of MinHash. *Scaled MinHash* permits rapid and accurate compositional analysis of shotgun metagenome data sets. We implement this approach in the sourmash software, in order to support large-scale Jaccard containment searches across all 700,000 currently available microbial reference genomes. We then frame shotgun metagenome compositional analysis as a min-set-cover problem, i.e. as a problem of finding the minimal collection of reference genomes for a metagenome. We implement a greedy approximate solution using *Scaled MinHash*. Finally, we show that by linking genomes to their taxonomic lineages, we can provide a lightweight and precise method for taxonomic classification of metagenome content. sourmash is available as open source under the BSD 3-Clause license at github.com/dib-lab/sourmash/.

Introduction

Shotgun metagenomics measures the sequence content of microbial communities.

Compositional analysis of shotgun metagenome samples addresses the question of what reference genomes should be used for functional and taxononomic interpretation of metagenome content.

One significant practical problem is that we now have 100s of thousands of reference genomes, and this strains our practical processing capacity. In turn, this prevents us from making use of all available information in metagenome analyses.

Below, we describe a lightweight approach to compositional analysis of shotgun metagenome samples. Our approach tackles the selection of appropriate reference genomes and provides a lightweight method for taxonomic classification of metagenome data.

We first define *Scaled MinHash*, an extension of MinHash sketching that supports lightweight containment estimation for metagenome datasets using k-mers. We implement *Scaled MinHash* in Python and Rust, and show that it is competitive in accuracy with other containment estimation approaches.

We next frame reference-based metagenome content analysis as a min-set-cov problem, in which we seek the *minimum* number of genomes in the reference database necessary to cover the identifiable genomic content of a metagenome. We implement a best-polynomial-time greedy approximation to the min-set-cov problem using *Scaled MinHash*, and show that it recovers a minimum set of reference genomes for the mappable reads in a metagenome.

Finally, we implement a simple taxonomic classification approach on top of min-set-cov, in which we transfer the taxonomy of the genomes from the set cover to the metagenome. We show that this permits precise and lightweight classification of metagenome content across all taxonomic levels.

Results

Scaled MinHash sketches support accurate containment operations

We define the Scaled MinHash on an input domain of k-mers, W, as follows:

$$\mathbf{SCALED}_s(W) = \set{w \leq \dfrac{H}{s} \mid orall w \in W}$$

where H is the largest possible value in the domain of h(x) and $\frac{H}{s}$ is the value in the Scaled MinHash.

The Scaled MinHash is a mix of MinHash and ModHash [1]. It keeps the selection of the smallest elements from MinHash, while using the dynamic size from ModHash to allow containment estimation. However, instead of taking $0 \mod m$ elements like $\mathbf{MOD}_m(W)$, a Scaled MinHash uses the parameter s to select a subset of W.

Scaled MinHash supports containment estimation with high accuracy and low bias. (Analytic work from David HERE.)

- approximation formula (eqn 13 from overleaf)
- for queries into large sets (large |A|), bias factor is low.
- refer to appendix for derivation.

Given a uniform hash function h and s=m, the cardinalities of $\mathbf{SCALED}_s(W)$ and $\mathbf{MOD}_m(W)$ converge for large |W|. The main difference is the range of possible values in the hash space, since the Scaled MinHash range is contiguous and the ModHash range is not. This permits a variety of convenient operations on the sketches, including iterative downsampling of Scaled MinHash sketches as well as conversion to MinHash sketches.

Scaled MinHash accurately estimates containment between sets of different sizes

We compare the *Scaled MinHash* method to CMash (*Containment MinHash*) and Mash Screen (*Containment Score*) for containment queries in the Shakya dataset [2], a synthetic mock metagenomic bacterial and archaeal community where the reference genomes are largely known. This data set has been used in several methods evaluations [???]]. (CTB add SPADes etc refs.)

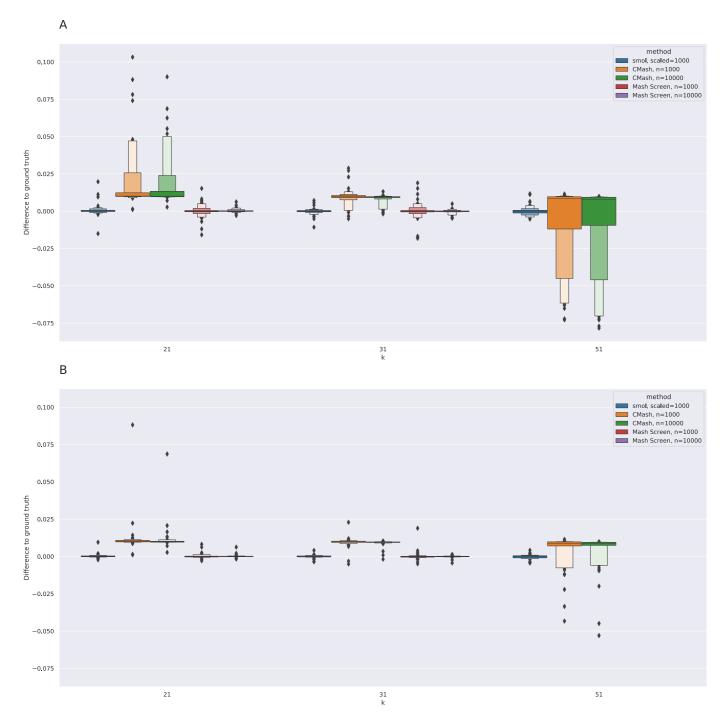


Figure 1: Letter-value plot [???] of the differences from containment estimate to ground truth (exact). Each method is evaluated for $k=\{21,31,51\}$, except for Mash with k=51, which is unsupported. **A**: Using all 68 reference genomes found in previous articles. **B**: Excluding low coverage genomes identified in previous articles.

All methods are within 1% of the exact containment on average (Figure 1 A), with CMash consistently underestimating the containment for large k and overestimating for small k. Mash Screen with n=10000 has the smallest difference to ground truth for $k=\{21,31\}$, followed by smol with scaled=1000 and Mash Screen with n=1000.

Figure 1 B shows results with low-coverage and contaminant genomes (as described in [???] and [???]) removed from the database. The number of outliers is greatly reduced, with most methods within 1% absolute difference to the ground truth. CMash still has some outliers with up to 8% difference to the ground truth.

CTB questions:

- should we *just* use (B) benchmark?
- should we add sketch sizes in here more explicitly? e.g. number of hashes kept?
- compares well with others
- How much is missed figure; Poisson calculations? => appendix?

Reference genomes can be selected for a metagenome using a simple greedy algorithm

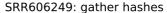
We next ask: what is the smallest collection of genomes in a database that should be used as a reference for k-mer based analysis of a metagenome? This question can be framed formally as follows: for a given metagenome M and a reference database D, what is the minimal collection of genomes in D which contain all of the k-mers in the intersection of D and M? That is, we wish to find the smallest set $\{G_n\}$ of genomes in D such that

$$k(M)\cap k(D)=\bigcup_n\{k(M)\cap k(G_n)\}$$

This is equivalent to the *minimal set covering* problem, for which there is a polynomial-time approximation (cite). (Provide algorithm here.)

For very large databases such as GenBank (which contains over 700,000 microbial genomes as of January 2021), this is computationally prohibitive to do exactly. (Estimate total number of k-mers in genbank!) We therefore implemented the algorithm using *Scaled MinHash* sketches to estimate containment.

The results on two metagenomes, podar (used above) and p88mo11, an IBD data set, are shown in figure XXX. (Should we add environmental, e.g. hu-s1?)



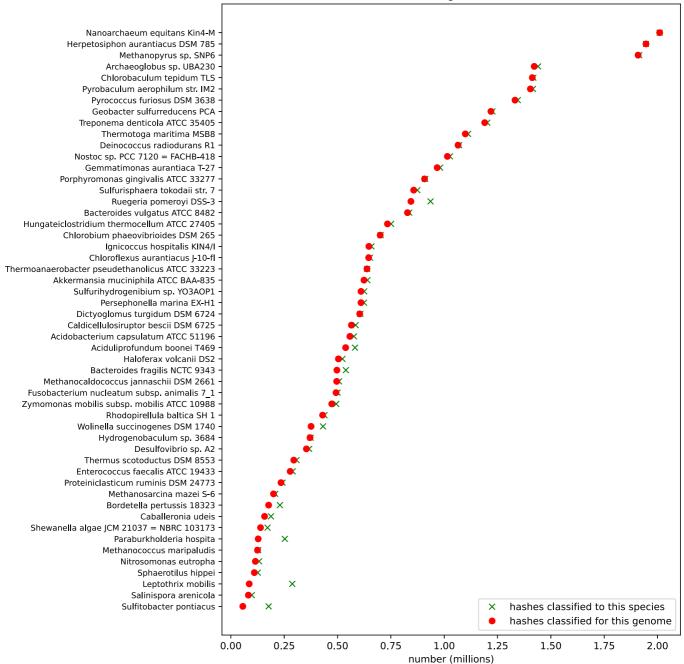


Figure 2: Hash-based decomposition of a metagenome into constituent genomes Each figure shows a rank ordering of the genomes chosen as likely reference genomes, based on the maximum containment approach used by our min-set-cov implementation. The Y is labeled with the name of the genome (per NCBI), and the red circles indicates the number of remaining k-mers (estimated with *Scaled MinHash*) shared between each genome and the metagenome. The green x indicate the total number of k-mers shared between each genome and the metagenome, including those already assigned at previous ranks. (A) Gathergram for mock metagenome from Shakya et al. (B) Gathergram for iHMP data set p880mo11. (C) Gathergram for oil well data set hu-s1.

Figure 2 shows the results of this algorithm applied to three metagenomes - one mock, one iHMP, and one environmental. The monotonically decreasing assignments are as expected from the algorithm, which is greedy.

Note that by using max containment, we are estimating which k-mers belong to the genome combinatorially. This is opposed to the way LCA approaches work.

ZZ total numbers of genomes are identified.

XX and YY percent of metagenomes are identified.

Overlapping portions of genomes are identified.

TODO:

- Provide summaries of % k-mers identified, etc.
- compare conceptually vs LCA approaches; combinatorial. do we want to do a benchmark of some kind wrt LCA saturation?

CTB: do we want to do this with all k-mers, not just scaled minhash?

K-mer foo approximates mappability

(this could be before, or after taxonomic validation?)

We evaluated gather's performance on the Shakya data as used above, against GenBank, and compared the genome containment estimation with read mapping.

K-mers have been widely used to approximate mapping. ...

We implement a mapping version of gather, in which we map all metagenome reads to all the genomes identified by gather, and then iteratively subtract the reads that mapped to the gather results in the order specified by gather and remap them. This lets us compare gather results to mapping results.

Figure 3 shows that mapping results do approximate gather results. However, they do so better for synthetic communities than for real communities, especially as gather rank increases. This is because in synthetic communities the reference genomes are closer to the actual content of the metagenome, while in real metagenomes we are mapping to imperfect references.

In particular, both the remnant k-mer and the remnant mappings decrease substantially with increased gather rank. This is because at the higher ranks we are not mapping to all elements in the genome; e.g. in figure XXX, we see that there is a substantial difference in the total number of bases mapped vs the leftover reads from iterative removal. Here only reads that did not map to higher ranked genomes are mapping.

Inspection of the genome taxonomy show that in these situations, we are mapping to subsets of genomes that are the same species or genus as earlier ranked genomes. Figure XYZ compares the best-ranked hash count to the aggregate hash count for the species pangenome; for many species, the aggregate hashes identified for each species in total far outweighs the hashes identified for any one genome.

(belongs in discussion) This suggests that metagenome reads are being mapped to different genomic elements from a species pangenome. While we do not have the resolution to determine this, the most parsimonious interpretation is that the "true" reference genome for the species present in the sample is not in the database, and instead is being cobbled together from core and accessory genome elements in the database.

(Maybe this is where we use R. gnavus genomes? Yes - take JUST reads that map to R. gnavus, do gather, show what happens x all gnavus genomes? Could also do withholding, to show that pangenome elements will usually map one way or another.)

(Show plots with leftover mapping vs all mapping.)

(maybe use sgc here? if so, this would be the last section!)

(CTB: revisit CMash/mash screen papers here to see how they evaluated. Also, maybe mention sgc gbio paper and recovery of new genome.)

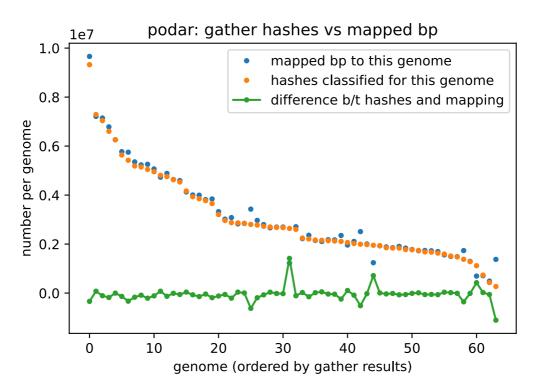


Figure 3: Hash-based decomposition of a metagenome into constituent genomes compares well to bases covered by read mapping. The reference genomes are rank ordered along the x axis based on the largest number of hashes from the metagenome specific to that genome, i.e. by order in gather output; hence the number of hashes classified for each genome (orange dots) is monotonically decreasing. The y axis shows absolute number of estimated kmers classified to this genome (orange) or total number of bases covered in the reference (blue); the numbers have not been rescaled. Decreases in mapping (green peaks) occur for genomes which are not exact matches to the genomes of the organisms used to build the mock community (cite sherine, mash screen).

Taxonomic profiling based on 'gather' is accurate

- CAMI results
- suggests gather/greedy decomposition is pretty good

We implement a lightweight taxonomic profiling method on top of gather by directly transferring the taxonomies for the discovered genomes into the profile. Lineages can then be summarized at each taxonomic rank.

To evaluate the performance of taxonomic profiling, we used the mouse gut metagenome dataset [???] from the Critical Assessment of Metagenome Intepretation (CAMI) [???], a community-driven initiative for reproducibly benchmarking metagenomic methods. The simulated mouse gut metagenome (*MGM*) was derived from 791 bacterial and archaeal genomes, representing 8 phyla, 18 classes, 26 orders, 50 families, 157 genera, and 549 species. 64 samples were generated with *CAMISIM*, with 91.8 genomes present on each sample on average. Each sample is 5 GB in size, and both short-read (Illumina) and long-read (PacBio) sequencing data is available.

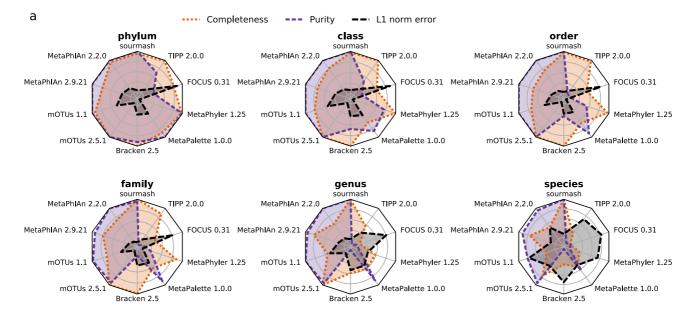


Figure 4: Comparison per taxonomic rank of methods in terms of completeness, purity (1% filtered), and L1 norm.

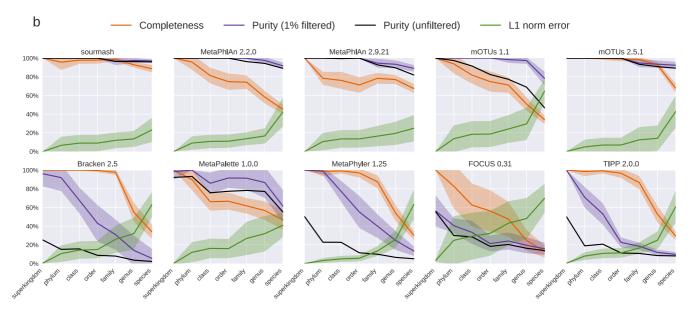


Figure 5: Performance per method at all major taxonomic ranks, with the shaded bands showing the standard deviation of a metric. In **a** and **b**, completeness, purity, and L1 norm error range between 0 and 1. The L1 norm error is normalized to this range and is also known as Bray-Curtis distance. The higher the completeness and purity, and the lower the L1 norm, the better the profiling performance.

C _	Completeness	Purity (1% filtered)	L1 norm error	Sum of scores
1st	sourmash (247)	sourmash (179)	mOTUs 2.5.1 (789)	sourmash (1262)
2nd	mOTUs 2.5.1 (416)	MetaPhlAn 2.2.0 (241)	sourmash (836)	mOTUs 2.5.1 (1887)
3rd	Bracken 2.5 (1008)	mOTUs 1.1 (631)	MetaPhIAn 2.9.21 (1401)	MetaPhIAn 2.2.0 (3527)
4th	MetaPhyler 1.25 (1298)	mOTUs 2.5.1 (682)	MetaPhIAn 2.2.0 (1497)	MetaPhlAn 2.9.21 (4349)
5th	TIPP 2.0.0 (1424)	MetaPhIAn 2.9.21 (789)	MetaPhyler 1.25 (1586)	MetaPhyler 1.25 (5148)
6th	MetaPhlAn 2.2.0 (1789)	MetaPalette 1.0.0 (1182)	mOTUs 1.1 (2317)	mOTUs 1.1 (5253)
7th	MetaPhIAn 2.9.21 (2159)	MetaPhyler 1.25 (2264)	TIPP 2.0.0 (2361)	MetaPalette 1.0.0 (5989)
8th	mOTUs 1.1 (2305)	Bracken 2.5 (2881)	MetaPalette 1.0.0 (2390)	Bracken 2.5 (6574)
9th	MetaPalette 1.0.0 (2417)	TIPP 2.0.0 (3361)	Bracken 2.5 (2685)	TIPP 2.0.0 (7146)
10th	FOCUS 0.31 (3424)	FOCUS 0.31 (3764)	FOCUS 0.31 (3894)	FOCUS 0.31 (11082)

Figure 6: Methods rankings and scores obtained for the different metrics over all samples and taxonomic ranks. For score calculation, all metrics were weighted equally.

Figure 4, 5, 6 is an updated version of Figure 6 from [???] including sourmash, comparing 10 different methods for taxonomic profiling and their characteristics at each taxonomic rank. While previous methods show reduced completeness, the ratio of taxa correctly identified in the ground truth, below the genus level, sourmash can reach 88.7% completeness at the species level with the highest purity (the ratio of correctly predicted taxa over all predicted taxa) across all methods: 95.9% when filtering predictions below 1% abundance, and 97% for unfiltered results. sourmash also has the lowest L1-norm error (the sum of the absolute difference between the true and predicted abundances at a specific taxonomic rank), the highest number of true positives and the lowest number of false positives.

Table 1: Updated Supplementary Table 12 from [???]. Elapsed (wall clock) time (h:mm) and maximum resident set size (kbytes) of taxonomic profiling methods on the 64 short read samples of the CAMI II mouse gut data set. The best results are shown in bold. Bracken requires to run Kraken, hence the times required to run Bracken and both tools are shown. The taxonomic profilers were run on a computer with an Intel Xeon E5-4650 v4 CPU (virtualized to 16 CPU cores, 1 thread per core) and 512 GB (536.870.912 kbytes) of main memory.

Taxonomic binner	Time (hh:mm)	Memory (kbytes)
MetaPhlAn 2.9.21	18:44	5,139,172
MetaPhlAn 2.2.0	12:30	1,741,304
Bracken 2.5 (only Bracken)	0:01	24,472
Bracken 2.5 (Kraken and Bracken)	3:03	39,439,796
FOCUS 0.31	13:27	5,236,199
CAMIARKQuikr 1.0.0	16:19	27,391,555
mOTUs 1.1	19:50	1,251,296
mOTUs 2.5.1	14:29	3,922,448
MetaPalette 1.0.0	76:49	27,297,132
TIPP 2.0.0	151:01	70,789,939
MetaPhyler 1.25	119:30	2,684,720
sourmash 3.4.0	16:41	5,760,922

When considering resource consumption and running times, sourmash used 5.62 GB of memory with an LCA index built from the RefSeq snapshot (141,677 genomes) with scaled=10000 and k=51. Each sample took 597 seconds to run (on average), totalling 10 hours and 37 minutes for 64 samples. MetaPhlan 2.9.21 was also executed in the same machine, a workstation with an AMD Ryzen 9 3900X 12-Core CPU running at 3.80 GHz, 64 GB DDR4 2133 MHz of RAM and loading data from an NVMe SSD, in order to compare to previously reported times in Table $\underline{1}$. MetaPhlan took 11 hours and 25 minutes to run for all samples, compared to 18 hours and 44 minutes previously reported, and correcting the sourmash running time by this factor it would likely take 16 hours and 41 minutes in the machine used in the original comparison. After correction, sourmash has similar runtime and memory consumption to the other best performing tools (mOTUs and MetaPhlAn), both gene marker and alignment based tools.

Additional points are that sourmash is a single-threaded program, so it didn't benefit from the 16 available CPU cores, and it is the only tool that could use the full RefSeq snapshot, while the other tools can only scale to a smaller fraction of it (or need custom databases). The CAMI II RefSeq

snapshot for reference genomes also doesn't include viruses; this benefits sourmash because viral *Scaled MinHash* sketches are usually not well supported for containment estimation, since viral sequences require small scaled values to have enough hashes to be reliable.

Notes:

• private database, private taxonomies are easily supported without reindexing.

Discussion

Scaled MinHash provides efficient compositional queries for large data sets.

Scaled MinHash is an implementation of ModHash using concepts from MinHashing. Scaled MinHash sketches support a variety of features that are convenient for compositional queries, including containment, hash removal, abundance tracking, and downsampling of sketches to lower scaled values. (CTB: mention streaming, hash occurrence guarantees?) In exchange, Scaled MinHash sketches have limited sensitivity for small queries and are only bounded in size by H/s, which is usually quite large.

Once a Scaled MinHash is calculated, the original data does not need to be revisited during searches. This allows sketches to serve as a distributable compressed index for sequence content. Moreover, because these sketches are collections of hashes, existing k-mer indexing approaches can be applied to the sketches to provide fast database search.

In exchange for these many conveniences, $Scaled\ MinHash\$ sketches have limited sensitivity on small data sets. (More here.) $Scaled\ MinHash\$ sketches offer a fixed range of possible hash values, but with reduced sensitivity for small datasets when using larger s (scaled) values. A biological example are viruses: at $s=2000\$ many viruses are too small to consistently have a hashed value selected by the $Scaled\ MinHash\$ approach. Other $MinHash\$ approaches sidestep the problem by using hashing and streaming the query dataset (Mash Screen) or loading the query dataset into an approximate query membership data structure (CMash) to allow comparisons with the variable range of possible hash values, but both solutions require the original data or a more limited data representation than $Scaled\ MinHash\$. The consistency of operating in the same data structure also allows further methods to be develop using only $Scaled\ MinHash\$ sketches are available.

Another drawback of Scaled MinHash when compared to regular MinHash sketches is the size: the MinHash parameter s sets an upper bound on the size of the sketch, independently of the size of the original data. Scaled MinHash sketches grow proportionally to the original data cardinality, and in the worst case can have up to $\frac{H}{s}$ items.

Intuitively, Scaled MinHash is performing a density sampling at a rate of 1 k-mer per s k-mers seen.

Others have also applied the ModHash concept to genomic data; see, for example, Durbin's "modimizer" [3].

Scaled MinHash sketches support many convenient operations.

Scaled MinHash supports many convenient operations that minimize the need to reprocess the original data, which can be important for genomics applications.

Because Scaled MinHash sketches collect any value below a threshold this also guarantees that once a value is selected it is never discarded. This is useful in streaming contexts: any operations that used a previously selected value can be cached and updated with new arriving values. $\mathbf{MOD}_m(W)$ has similar properties, but this is not the case for $\mathbf{MIN}_n(W)$, since after n values are selected any displacement caused by new data can invalidate previous calculations.

Scaled MinHash also directly supports the addition and subtraction of hash values from a sketch, allowing post-processing and filtering. Although possible for $\mathbf{MIN}_n(W)$, in practice this requires oversampling (using a larger n) to account for possibly having less than n values after filtering (the approach taken by Finch [???]).

Another useful operation is *downsampling*: the contiguous value range for Scaled MinHash sketches allow deriving $\mathbf{SCALED}_{s'}(W)$ sketches for any $s' \geq s$ using only $\mathbf{SCALED}_{s}(W)$. MinHash and ModHash can also support this operation, as long as $n' \leq n$ and m' is a multiple of m. Note also that Scaled MinHash and regular MinHash can be converted between each other in certain situations.

Abundance filtering is another extension to MinHash sketches, keeping a count of how many times a value appeared in the original data. This allows filtering for low-abundance values, as implemented in Finch [???], another MinHash sketching software for genomics. Filtering values that only appeared once was implemented before in Mash by using a Bloom Filter and only adding values after they were seen once, with later versions also implementing an extra counter array to keep track of counts for each value in the MinHash. These operations can be done in Scaled MinHash without auxiliary data structures.

min-set-cov supports accurate compositional analysis of metagenomes.

Many metagenome content analysis approaches use reference genomes to interpret metagenome content. Here, we frame the computational challenge of discovering the appropriate reference genomes for a set of metagenome reads as a min-set-cov problem, in which we seek the *minimum* set of reference genomes necessary to account for all mappable reads. We show that this can be resolved efficiently for real-world data sets using a greedy algorithm together with *Scaled MinHash* and large-scale containment search of GenBank.

Our comparison of hash-based estimation of containment to mapping results in Figure $\underline{3}$ shows that this approach is an accurate proxy for systematic mapping. In particular, hash-based estimation of containment closely matches actual read mapping performance.

One confounding factor is that for real metagenomes, exact reference strains are not usually present in the database. This manifests in two ways in Figure ??. First, there is a systematic mismatch between the hash content and the mapping content (green line), because mapping software is more permissive in the face of small variants than k-mer-based exact matching. Moreover, many of the lower rank genomes in the plot are from the same species but different *strains* as the higher ranked genomes, suggesting that strain-specific portions of the reference are being utilized for matching at lower ranks. In reality, there will usually be a different mixture of strains in the metagenome than in the reference database. Approaches such as spacegraphcats may help resolve this by building new references, yada.

Note: gather can also be applied to private databases.

Leftover text:

Our implementation of gather does not currently select the set of smallest genomes, but rather the smallest set of genomes. If there are two genomes with equal containment of the k-mers, it is arbitrary as to which one is chosen.

Note that here we are providing one approach / approximation (Scaled MinHash containment) with one shingling approach (k-mers) to tackle metagenome composition for mapping and taxonomy. The min-set-cover approach could be used with exact containment, and/or with other shingling approaches.

xx can we guess at places where gather would break? One is equivalent containment/different genome sizes.

Any data structure supporting both the $containment\ C(A,B)=\frac{|A\cap B|}{|A|}$ and $remove\ elements$ operations can be used as a query with <code>gather</code> . For example, a set of the k-mer composition of the query supports element removal, and calculating containment can be done with regular set operations. Approximate membership query (AMQ) sketches like the $Counting\ Quotient\ Filter\ [\ref{eq:containment}]$ can also be used, with the benefit of reduced storage and memory usage. Moreover, the collection of datasets can be implemented with any data structure that can do containment comparisons with the query data structure. Here it can be important to have performant containment searches, since <code>gather</code> may run <code>FindBestContainment</code> many times.

min-set-cov supports accurate taxonomic classification of metagenome content

Once the min-set-cov approach has identified reference genomes, we can build a taxonomic classifier for metagenome content by simply reporting the taxonomies of the constitutent genomes. Our initial taxonomic benchmarking show that this approach is competitive for all metrics across all taxonomic levels.

This approach does not result in the taxonomic saturation caused by the increasing size of large reference databases associated with many other k-mer based methods (Kraken, etc.). As long as every genome in the database possesses a distinct combination of k-mers, the min-set-cov approach can disambiguate reference genomes based on this combination. In practice, our use of *Scaled MinHash* k-mer/hash sampling will limit the resolution of our technique for very closely related genomes, because distinct hashes will not be chosen for them.

One convenient feature of this approach to taxonomic analysis is that new or changed taxonomies can be readily incorporated by assigning them directly to genome identifiers; the majority of the compute is involved in finding the reference genomes, which can have assignments in different taxonomic frameworks. For example, sourmash already supports GTDB natively, and will also support the emerging LINS framework. sourmash can also readily incorporate updates to taxonomies, e.g. frequent updates to the NCBI taxonomy, without requiring expensive reanalysis of the primary metagenome data or even redoing the min-set-cov computation.

Finally, as with the underlying min-set-cov algorithm, it is straightforward to support taxonomic analysis using custom databases and/or custom taxonomic assignments; sourmash already supports this natively.

Algorithm is simple, computational performance is great

The algorithms underlying both *Scaled MinHash* and the greedy min-set-cov solution are simple to describe and straightforward to implement. This increases the likelihood of correct implementation, provides opportunities for independent optimization of data structures, and simplifies interoperability between different implementations.

We provide two implementations with this paper: sourmash, a fully supported open source implementation with command-line, Python and Rust APIs; and smol, a much shorter Rust implementation for demonstration purposes.

sourmash supports large scale data analysis

Taxonomic profiling is fundamentally limited by the availability of reference datasets, even if new reference datasets can be derived from clustering possible organisms based on sequence data in metagenomes [???]. The sourmash project provides large scale databases for NCBI and GTDB taxonomies, and supports search of all available genomes.

Limitations of gather

(For Scaled MinHash, gather, and taxonomy. Move where? Conclusions?)

gather as implemented in sourmash has the same limitations as $Scaled\ MinHash\$ sketches, including reduced sensitivity to small genomes/sequences such as viruses. $Scaled\ MinHash\$ sketches don't preserve information about individual sequences, and short sequences using large scaled values have increasingly smaller chances of having any of its k-mers (represented as hashes) contained in the sketch. Because it favors the best containment, larger genomes are also more likely to be chosen first due to their sketches have more elements, and further improvements can take the size of the match in consideration too. Note that this is not necessarily the $similarity\ J(A,B)$ (which takes the size of both A and B), but a different calculation that normalizes the containment considering the size of the match.

gather is also a greedy algorithm, choosing the best containment match at each step. Situations where multiple matches are equally well contained or many datasets are very similar to each other can complicate this approach, and additional steps must be taken to disambiguate matches. The availability of abundance counts for each element in the *Scaled MinHash* is not well explored, since the process of *removing elements* from the query doesn't account for them (the element is removed even if the count is much higher than the count in the match). Both the multiple match as well as the abundance counts issues can benefit from existing solutions taken by other methods, like the *species score* (for disambiguation) and *Expectation-Maximization* (for abundance analysis) approaches from Centrifuge [???].

(From David Koslicki) Gotchas:

- Lack of sensitivity for small queries
- Potentially large sketch sizes

And a couple other that I've tentatively/mathematically observed:

• The variance of the estimate of C(A,B)=|AB| / |A| appears to also depend on |A|, which was somewhat surprising

• The "fixed k-size" problem (which might be able to be overcome with the prefix-lookup data structure, if one sacrifices some accuracy)

Conclusion

- scaled min hash is powerful, with well defined limitations.
- gather is awesome and convenient.
- taxonomy is awesome and overcomes limitations of many current approaches.
- sourmash is robust software that provides a practically usable implementation of these ideas.
- future directions...

Scaled MinHash sketches are simple to implement and analyze, with consistent guarantees for the range of values and subsetting properties when applied to datasets. Containment and similarity operations between *Scaled MinHash* sketches avoid the need to access the original data or more limited representations that only allow membership query, and serve as a proxy for large scale comparisons between hundreds or thousands of datasets.

Small genomes require low scaled values in order to properly estimate containment and similarity, and exact k-mer matching is brittle when considering evolutionarily-diverged organisms. While some of these problems can be overcome in future work, *Scaled MinHash* sketches can serve as a prefilter for more accurate and computationally expensive applications, allowing these methods to be used in larger scales by avoiding processing data that is unlikely to return usable results.

Scaled MinHash sketches are effective basic building blocks for creating a software ecosystem that allow practical applications, including taxonomic classification in metagenomes and large scale indexing and searching in public genomic databases.

Methods

Implementation of Scaled MinHash

We provide two implementations of Scaled MinHash, smol and sourmash. smol is a minimal implementation of *Scaled MinHash* developed to demonstrate the method; it does not include many required features for working with real biological data, but its smaller code base makes it a more readable and concise example of the method. sourmash [4] implements features and functionality needed for large scale analyses of real data.

Comparison between CMash, mash screen, and Scaled MinHash.

Experiments use $k=\{21,31,51\}$ (except for Mash, which only supports $k\leq 32$). For Mash and CMash they were run with $n=\{1000,10000\}$ to evaluate the containment estimates when using larger sketches with sizes comparable to the Scaled MinHash sketches with scaled=1000. The truth set is calculated using an exact k-mer counter implemented with a HashSet data structure in the Rust programming language [???].

For *Mash Screen* the ratio of hashes matched by total hashes is used instead of the *Containment Score*, since the latter uses a k-mer survival process modeled as a Poisson process first introduced in [???] and later used in the *Mash distance* [???] and *Containment score* [???] formulations.

MHBT

The $\it MinHash Bloom Tree (\it MHBT)$ is a variation of the $\it Sequence Bloom Tree (\it SBT)$ that uses Scaled MinHash sketches as leaf nodes instead of Bloom Filters as in the SBT. The search operation in SBTs is defined as a breadth-first search starting at the root of the tree, using a threshold of the original $\it k$ -mers in the query to decide when to prune the search. MHBTs use a query Scaled MinHash sketch instead, but keep the same search approach. The threshold of a query $\it Q$ approach introduced in [???] is equivalent to the containment

$$C(Q,S)=rac{|Q\cap S|}{|S|}$$

described in [???], where S is a Scaled MinHash sketch. For internal nodes n (which are Bloom Filters) the containment of the query Scaled MinHash sketch Q is

$$C(Q,n) = rac{|\set{h \in n \mid orall h \in Q}|}{|Q|}$$

as defined by [???] for the Containment MinHash to Bloom Filter comparison.

MHBTs support both containment and similarity queries. For internal nodes the containment C(Q,n) is used as an upper-bound of the similarity J(Q,n):

Inverted index

The LCA index in sourmash is an inverted index that stores a mapping from hashes in a collection of signatures to a list of IDs for signatures containing the hash. Despite the name, the list of signature IDs is not collapsed to the lowest common ancestor (as in kraken), and is calculated as needed by downstream methods using taxonomy information stored separately in the LCA index.

The mapping from hashes to signature IDs in the LCA index is an implicit representation of the original signatures used to build the index, and so returning the signatures is implemented by rebuilding the original signatures on-the-fly. Search in an LCA index matches the k-mers in the query to the list of signatures IDs containing them, using a counter data structure to sort results by number of hashes per signature ID. The rebuilt signatures are then returned as matches based on the signature ID, with containment or similarity to the query calculated against the rebuilt signatures.

mash screen [???] has a similar index, but it is constructed on-the-fly using the distinct hashes in a sketch collection as keys, and values are counters initially set to zero. As the query is processed, matching hashes have their counts incremented, and after all hashes in the query are processed then all the sketches in the collection are checked in the counters to quantify the containment/similarity of each sketch in the query. The LCA index uses the opposite approach, opting to reconstruct the sketches on-the-fly.

References

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Scaled MinHash sketches support efficient indexing for largescale containment queries

CTB: Additional points to raise:

- in-memory representation of sketches may be too big (!!), goal here is on disk storage/low minimum memory for "extremely large data" situation.
- Also/in addition, want ability to do incremental loading of things.
- Note we are not talking here about situations where the indices themselves are too big to download.
- I think rename LCA to revindex. Or make up a new name.

We provide two index data structures for rapid estimation of containment in large databases. The first, the MinHash Bloom Tree (MHBT), is a specialization of the Sequence Bloom Tree [???], and implements a k-mer aggregative method with explicit representation of datasets based on hierarchical indices. The second is LCA, an inverted index into sketches, a color-aggregative method with implicit representation of the sketches.

We evaluated the MHBT and LCA databases by constructing and searching a GenBank snapshot from July 18, 2020, containing 725,331 assembled genomes (5,282 Archaea, 673,414 Bacteria, 6,601 Fungi 933 Protozoa and 39,101 Viral). MHBT indices were built with scaled=1000, and LCA indices used scaled=10000. Table $\underline{2}$ shows the indexing results for the LCA index, and Table $\underline{3}$ for the MHBT index.

Table 2: Results for LCA indexing, with scaled=10000 and k=21.

Domain	Runtime (s)	Memory (MB)	Size (MB)
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Domain	Runtime (s)	Memory (MB)	Size (MB)
Viral	57	33	2
Archaea	58	30	5
Protozoa	231	3	17
Fungi	999	3	65
Bacteria	12,717	857	446

Table 3: Results for MHBT indexing, with scaled = 1000, k = 21 and internal nodes (Bloom Filters) using 10000 slots for storage.

Domain	Runtime (s)	Memory (MB)	Size (MB)
Viral	126	326	77
Archaea	111	217	100
Protozoa	206	753	302
Fungi	1,161	3,364	1,585
Bacteria	32,576	47,445	24,639

Index sizes are more affected by the number of genomes inserted than the individual *Scaled MinHash* sizes. Despite Protozoan and Fungal *Scaled MinHash* sketches being larger individually, the Bacterial indices are an order of magnitude larger for both indices since they contain two orders of magnitude more genomes.

Comparing between LCA and MHBT index sizes must account for their different scaled parameters, but as shown in Chapter $\underline{1}$ a $Scaled\ MinHash\$ with $scaled\ = 1000\$ when downsampled to $scaled\ = 10000$ is expected to be ten times smaller. Even so, MHBT indices are more than ten times larger than their LCA counterparts, since they store extra caching information (the internal nodes) to avoid loading all the data to memory during search. LCA indices also contain extra data (the list of datasets containing a hash), but this is lower than the storage requirements for the MHBT internal nodes.

We next executed similarity searches on each database using appropriate queries for each domain. All queries were selected from the relevant domain and queried against both MHBT (scaled=1000) and LCA (scaled=10000), for k=21.

Table 4: Running time in seconds for similarity search using LCA (scaled=10000) and MHBT (scaled=1000) indices.

	Viral	Archaea	Protozoa	Fungi	Bacteria
LCA	1.06	1.42	5.40	26.92	231.26
SBT	1.32	3.77	43.51	244.77	3,185.88

Table 5: Memory consumption in megabytes for similarity search using LCA (scaled=10000) and MHBT (scaled=1000) indices.

	Viral	Archaea	Protozoa	Fungi	Bacteria
LCA	223	240	798	3,274	20,926
SBT	163	125	332	1,656	2,290

Table 4 shows running time for both indices. For small indices (Viral and Archaea) the LCA running time is dominated by loading the index in memory, but for larger indices the cost is amortized due to the faster running times. This situation is clearer for the Bacteria indices, where the LCA search completes in 3 minutes and 51 seconds, while the SBT search takes 54 minutes.

When comparing memory consumption, the situation is reversed. Table 5 shows how the LCA index consistently uses twice the memory for all domains, but for larger indices like Bacteria it uses as much as 10 times the memory as the MHBT index for the same data.

For both runtime and memory consumption, it is worth pointing that the LCA index is a tenth of the data indexed by the MHBT. This highlights the trade-off between speed and memory consumption for both approaches, especially for larger indices.

Notes: * new genomes can be added quickly to SBT.