

1 **Reference genome-independent taxonomic profiling of microbiomes with mOTUs3**

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3 Hans-Joachim Ruscheweyh<sup>1,\*</sup> [hansr@ethz.ch](mailto:hansr@ethz.ch)

4 Alessio Milanese<sup>1,2,\*</sup> [alessio.milanese@biol.ethz.ch](mailto:alessio.milanese@biol.ethz.ch)

5 Lucas Paoli<sup>1</sup> [lucas.paoli@biol.ethz.ch](mailto:lucas.paoli@biol.ethz.ch)

6 Nicolai Karcher<sup>2</sup> [nicolai.karcher@embl.de](mailto:nicolai.karcher@embl.de)

7 Quentin Clayssen<sup>1</sup> [quentin.clayssen@gmail.com](mailto:quentin.clayssen@gmail.com)

8 Marisa Isabell Metzger<sup>2</sup> [marisa.metzger@embl.de](mailto:marisa.metzger@embl.de)

9 Jakob Wirbel<sup>2</sup> [jakob.wirbel@embl.de](mailto:jakob.wirbel@embl.de)

10 Peer Bork<sup>2,3,4</sup> [bork@embl.de](mailto:bork@embl.de)

11 Daniel R. Mende<sup>5</sup> [danielrmende@gmail.com](mailto:danielrmende@gmail.com)

12 Georg Zeller<sup>2#</sup> [zeller@embl.de](mailto:zeller@embl.de)

13 Shinichi Sunagawa<sup>1,#</sup> [ssunagawa@ethz.ch](mailto:ssunagawa@ethz.ch)

14 *\*Contributed equally to this work*

15 *#Corresponding authors*

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17 <sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Institute of Microbiology and Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, ETH Zürich,  
18 Zürich 8093, Switzerland

19 <sup>2</sup>Structural and Computational Biology Unit, European Molecular Biology Laboratory, 69117  
20 Heidelberg, Germany

21 <sup>3</sup>Max Delbrück Centre for Molecular Medicine, Robert-Rössle-Str. 10, 13092, Berlin, Germany

22 <sup>4</sup>Department of Bioinformatics, Biocenter, University of Würzburg, Am Hubland, 97074, Würzburg,  
23 Germany

24 <sup>5</sup>Department of Medical Microbiology, Amsterdam UMC, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, the  
25 Netherlands

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 **Background:** Taxonomic profiling is a fundamental task in microbiome research that aims to detect  
31 and quantify the relative abundance of microorganisms in biological samples. Available methods  
32 using shotgun metagenomic data generally depend on the availability of sequenced and taxonomically  
33 annotated reference genomes. However, the majority of microorganisms have not been cultured yet  
34 and lack such reference genomes. Thus, a substantial fraction of microbial community members  
35 remains unaccounted for during taxonomic profiling of metagenomes, particularly in samples from  
36 underexplored environments. To address this issue, we have developed the mOTU profiler, a tool that  
37 enables reference genome-independent species-level profiling of metagenomes. As such, it supports  
38 the identification and quantification of both “known” and “unknown” species based on a set of select  
39 marker genes.

40 **Results:** Here, we present mOTUs3, a command line tool that enables the profiling of metagenomes  
41 for >33,000 species-level operational taxonomic units. To achieve this, we leveraged the  
42 reconstruction and analysis of >600,000 draft genomes, most of which are metagenome assembled  
43 genomes (MAGs), from diverse microbiomes, including soil, freshwater systems, and the  
44 gastrointestinal tract of ruminants and other animals, which we found to be greatly underrepresented  
45 by reference genomes. Overall, two-thirds of all species-level taxa lacked a reference genome. The  
46 cumulative relative abundance of these newly included taxa was low in well-studied microbiomes,  
47 such as the human body sites (6-11%). By contrast, they accounted for substantial proportions (ocean,  
48 freshwater, soil: 43-63%) or even the vast majority (pig, fish, cattle: 60-80%) of the relative  
49 abundance across diverse non-human-associated microbiomes. Using community-developed  
50 benchmarks and datasets, we found mOTUs3 to be more accurate than other methods and to be more  
51 congruent with 16S rRNA gene-based methods for taxonomic profiling. Furthermore, we demonstrate  
52 that mOTUs3 greatly increases the resolution of well-known microbial groups into species-level taxa  
53 and helps identify new differentially abundant taxa in comparative metagenomic studies.

54 **Conclusions:** We developed mOTUs3 to enable accurate species-level profiling of metagenomes.  
55 Compared to other methods, it provides a more comprehensive view of prokaryotic community  
56 diversity, in particular for currently underexplored microbiomes. To facilitate comparative analyses  
57 by the research community, it is released with >11,000 precomputed profiles for publicly available  
58 metagenomes and is freely available at: <https://github.com/motu-tool/mOTUs>.

59

60 **Keywords:** Metagenomics, microbial community, benchmarking, taxonomic profiling, marker gene,  
61 metagenome-assembled genome, single-cell genome, reference genome

62

63 **Background**

64 Identifying and quantifying the abundance of taxa (i.e., taxonomic profiling) is a critical step in  
65 linking the composition of microbial communities to environmental functions and host health-related  
66 phenotypes [1,2]. Metagenomic sequencing of DNA directly extracted from an environmental or host-  
67 derived sample has enabled researchers to taxonomically profile microbial communities in an  
68 unbiased and cultivation-independent manner. The development of tools to generate accurate  
69 taxonomic profiles from metagenomic data has therefore become important to our understanding of  
70 microbial communities [3]. However, existing tools rely on the availability of informative sequences  
71 (such as k-mers or marker genes [4,5]), which are predominantly extracted from taxonomically  
72 annotated reference genomes (RefGs).

73 In recent years, high-throughput culturing of microorganisms coupled with RefG sequencing (known  
74 as culturomics) [6] has substantially expanded the proportion of microbial taxa with whole genome  
75 sequences in data repositories (e.g., NCBI RefSeq) benefitting taxonomic profiling tools. However,  
76 there is a strong bias toward microorganisms from well-studied habitats (e.g., human body sites)  
77 and/or those that can be readily cultivated using standard laboratory methods. Thus, most microbes on  
78 Earth remain uncultivated and lack a representative RefG [7,8], although they can be both globally  
79 prevalent [9] and numerically dominant in many environments [10, 11, 12, 13]. As a result, the  
80 incorporation of RefGs from newly isolated microbes into taxonomic profiling tools can be slow and  
81 disproportional across environments. This poses an additional challenge for accurate taxonomic  
82 profiling, given that microorganisms that remain undetected bias the abundance estimates of those  
83 that are detected [14,15].

84 To close the gap between the detectable and actual diversity present in microbial community samples,  
85 we developed mOTUs [14,16], a software tool that uses universal, protein-coding, single-copy  
86 phylogenetic marker gene (MG) sequences to quantify the taxonomic composition of microbial  
87 communities from metagenomic sequence data (for further applications, see also Ruscheweyh et al.  
88 2021 [17]). As these MGs are present in all organisms, they can be identified not only in RefGs, but  
89 also in metagenomic assemblies. Conceptually, mOTUs is based on clustering sets of MGs

90 representing individual organisms by sequence similarity into species-level units. In the absence of a  
91 generalizable species concept for prokaryotes [18,19], we refer to these units as MG-based  
92 operational taxonomic units (abbreviated as ‘mOTUs’).  
93 As an alternative to RefG sequencing, draft genomes are increasingly reconstructed by computational  
94 binning of metagenomic assemblies into metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs [20]) or by  
95 sequencing amplified DNA from individual cells, resulting in single cell genomes (SAGs [21]). These  
96 cultivation-independent methods have provided genomic access to microbial diversity in previously  
97 underexplored environments. Here, in addition to MGs found in RefG and metagenomic data, we now  
98 incorporate those found in MAGs and SAGs to more than double the number of taxa represented,  
99 adding >20,000 new mOTUs compared to the previous major release [14]. Our evaluations show that  
100 mOTUs3 outperforms other methods as assessed using metrics for taxonomic tool benchmarking  
101 developed independently from our study [3,22]. Furthermore, we found mOTUs3 to provide an  
102 unprecedented view of the species-level diversity within the most dominant heterotrophic bacterial  
103 clade in the ocean and to greatly extend the number of detected and differentially abundant species in  
104 cross-sectional studies, as exemplified in a comparison between rumen microbiomes of high- and  
105 low-level methane-emitting sheep.

106

## 107 **Results**

### 108 *Taxonomic profiling of diverse environments with mOTUs3*

109 We developed mOTUs3 to facilitate the metagenomic profiling of 33,570 mOTUs, which is a 4.3-fold  
110 increase compared to mOTUs2 (Figure 1a). Among all mOTUs, 35% were represented by a RefG  
111 (n=11,915; ref-mOTUs), while an additional 21,655 were derived using MGs (*de novo*-  
112 metagenomic contigs (n=2,297; meta-mOTUs) or extended sources, such as MAGs (*de novo*-  
113 assembled or imported) and a smaller number of SAGs and isolate genomes (n=19,358; ext-mOTUs),  
114 to substantially extend the database coverage for reference genome-independent taxonomic profiling  
115 of diverse environments. MGs not assigned to any mOTU were additionally added to the database and  
116 merged into a single ‘unassigned’ group to improve the quantification accuracy of taxonomic profiles,  
117 as previously demonstrated [14].

118  
119 The newly established database allowed us to determine and systematically compare the fraction of  
120 taxa currently not represented by RefGs in various environments. These environments include  
121 extensively studied human-associated ones, for which metagenomic studies are complemented by  
122 several culturomics efforts (e.g., Lagier et al. [23]). Furthermore, we included data from >20  
123 environmental and animal-associated microbiomes (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2) that have been  
124 primarily studied by metagenomic approaches. Overall, we found that more than half (11,882) of all  
125 meta/ext-mOTUs (i.e., mOTUs not represented by any RefG) could not be assigned to any known  
126 family (Supplementary Table 3; Methods), illustrating the taxonomic novelty covered by mOTUs3.  
127 The distribution of the newly included data into ref/meta/ext-mOTUs was highly variable across the  
128 different environments (Supplementary Figure 1). As expected, 97% of the ~400,000 MAGs from  
129 human microbiome samples (Supplementary Table 1) had already been represented by 2,360 pre-  
130 existing (i.e., ref/meta-)mOTUs (Supplementary Table 4). Notably, the remaining 3% represented  
131 2,750 new ext-mOTUs, showing that novel species can still be uncovered by studying  
132 underrepresented populations, dietary habits and/or disease states [24,25]. By contrast, we found that  
133 only ~25% of the 6,479 MAGs from mouse gut metagenomes (Supplementary Table 1) corresponded  
134 to pre-existing mOTUs (n=72), despite ongoing cultivation efforts [6]; the remaining 75% were  
135 grouped into 587 ext-mOTUs (Supplementary Table 4). However, the vast majority of ext-mOTUs  
136 (n=16,021) resulted from the inclusion of other animal-associated (e.g., ruminants, fish, chicken, pig,  
137 bee, dog, cat) and environmental (e.g., soil, freshwater, wastewater, ocean, air) microbiomes  
138 (Supplementary Table 1) for which the generation of representative RefGs is lagging.  
139 We used mOTUs3 to profile 10,541 available shotgun metagenomic data sets across the 23  
140 environments covered by its database (Supplementary Table 1). For comparative analyses, we subset  
141 the data to 5,756 high-quality samples (Methods; Supplementary Table 5) from 16 environments and  
142 found the overall number of detected mOTUs to range from 247 (honey bee) to >6,000 (ocean,  
143 wastewater and cattle microbiomes). To illustrate the proportion of quantifying taxa currently not  
144 represented by RefGs (Figure 1b), we summarized the cumulative relative abundances of unassigned  
145 taxa and the different types of mOTUs (ref-mOTUs, meta-mOTUs, ext-mOTUs). The fraction of

146 unassigned taxa was highest for soil samples (33%; s.d. 8%), which reflects the high microbial  
147 diversity in soil as well as challenges in reconstructing genomes from this environment [26]. By  
148 contrast, more than 87% (s.d. 0.7%) of the relative abundance was represented by ref-mOTUs in  
149 human skin samples mainly due to the dominance of few taxa with cultivated representatives [27].  
150 Similarly, the fraction of relative abundance assigned to ext-mOTUs varied considerably between  
151 environments: on average, only ~6% of the bacterial abundance in human-associated samples was  
152 assigned to newly added taxa, while this fraction was as high as ~80% in cattle rumen microbiomes.  
153

154 *Comparison with other taxonomic profilers*

155 As in other fields of bioinformatics, there is broad consensus that the performance of analysis tools  
156 needs to be carefully evaluated. However, best practices (e.g., balancing precision and recall,  
157 selecting criteria for ‘best’ performance) are often debated [28,29], and in microbiome research, an  
158 agreement on some fundamental concepts (e.g., sequence vs. taxonomic abundance, representation of  
159 unknown taxa in ground truth data) is still lacking [30,31]. In an attempt to address some of these  
160 issues in a community-driven effort, modeled after successful examples in other fields [32,33], the  
161 Critical Assessment of Metagenome Interpretation (CAMI) has provided curated ground truth datasets  
162 along with a tool (OPAL) to reproducibly evaluate metagenomic analysis tools [3,22].

163 Using the latest CAMI datasets with disclosed results [34], we compared mOTUs3 to its prior major  
164 release version (mOTUs2) [14] and other selected metagenomic profiling tools (MetaPhlAn3 [5] and  
165 Bracken [4,35], Methods) representing conceptually different, well-performing approaches to  
166 taxonomic profiling [30]. Using the OPAL tool for scoring and evaluation, we first evaluated  
167 presence/absence ( $F_1$ -score) and relative abundance predictions (L1 norm error) at the species level.  
168 For the different datasets, which represented samples from five human body sites and the mouse gut  
169 microbiome, mOTUs3 and MetaPhlAn3 performed generally better than Bracken and mOTUs2  
170 (Figure 2a/b). At higher taxonomic ranks, mOTUs3 had similar or higher scores than the other tools.  
171 For some datasets, taxonomic ranks and tools, there was little to no room for improvements of the  $F_1$ -  
172 score or L1 norm error. This may be due to the simulated datasets being mainly based on taxa for  
173 which RefGs are available and/or result from incongruencies of taxonomic annotations used by the

174 different profilers compared to the ground truth. In addition to the L1 norm error, OPAL computes  
175 additional metrics for profiling quality (completeness, purity, weighted UniFrac error) and  
176 summarizes them across taxonomic ranks into a composite score. Based on this evaluation criterion,  
177 mOTUs3 outperformed the other tools (Figure 2c), as well as additional tools assessed in the CAMI  
178 challenge (Methods; Supplementary Figure 2).

179 In the absence of independent ground truth data sets to benchmark taxonomic profiling tools for less  
180 well-studied environments, we correlated taxonomic profiles obtained by mOTUs3 and other tools to  
181 those obtained by analyzing 16S rRNA gene (16S) fragments. This approach leverages both the  
182 availability of comprehensive 16S databases for taxonomic classification [36] and the possibility of  
183 estimating taxonomic abundances based on 16S-based data from metagenomes [37]. Briefly, we  
184 extracted 16S fragments from the same datasets we used for metagenomic profiling and generated  
185 relative abundance profiles for them (Methods). To ensure comparability between 16S and  
186 metagenomic profiles, the analysis was performed at the genus and higher taxonomic ranks (for  
187 discussion, see Salazar et al. [37]). We found that mOTUs3 had consistently higher correlations with  
188 16S profiles than the other tools across all environments, except for the human gut for which  
189 MetaPhlAn3 showed correlation coefficients similar to those of mOTUs3 (Figure 3).

190

#### 191 *Resolving the diversity of Pelagibacterales with mOTUs3*

192 In addition to the broader taxonomic coverage by mOTUs3 across environments, we sought to  
193 investigate the capability of mOTUs3 to resolve microbial clades into more fine-grained taxonomic  
194 units. To this end, we focused on Pelagibacterales (also referred to as the SAR11 clade), which is the  
195 most abundant heterotrophic bacterial group in the global oceans [38]. Members of the  
196 Pelagibacterales have previously been shown to display high genomic variability while maintaining  
197 highly conserved 16S sequences [39]. This prompted us to evaluate the species-level resolution of  
198 mOTUs3 and to compare the diversity represented by mOTUs to the diversity represented by  
199 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) defined by 16S sequence similarity.

200 For this analysis, we selected from all mOTUs annotated as Pelagibacterales (n=1,029; 2,063  
201 genomes) those that were represented by genomes with complete 16S sequences (n=602; 1,105  
202 genomes). The number of mOTUs was comparable to the number resulting from a 95% average  
203 nucleotide identity (ANI)-based clustering of the 1,105 genome sequences into species-level groups  
204 (n=700; Figure 4a), which is common practice in the field of microbial phylogenomics [7,40].  
205 Moreover, we found sequence identities of mOTUs-representing MGs to linearly correlate with those  
206 of whole genomes across the whole range of observed values ( $r^2=0.71$ ; Figure 4b). By contrast, 16S  
207 sequence-based OTUs using a 97% or 99% sequence similarity cutoff resulted in a 31.7-fold (n=19)  
208 or 5.8-fold (n=104) lower number of taxonomic units, respectively, compared to mOTUs (Figure 4a).  
209 This discrepancy is also reflected by a weaker correlation ( $r^2=0.45$ ; Figure 4b) of identities between  
210 16S sequences and corresponding whole genome sequences. The minimum 16S identities were ca.  
211 87% and started saturating at approximately 97% at which point genome identities were still as low as  
212 ~70-80% (Figure 4b). Similar findings were reported previously albeit on smaller datasets [39].  
213 Finally, comparing the grouping of genomes by mOTUs and ANI into species-level clusters, we  
214 found almost perfect congruence (Figure 4c, Methods).

215  
216 *Differential abundance of novel archaea in low/high methane-emitting sheep rumen metagenomes*  
217 High-resolution taxonomic profiling of metagenomes from underexplored environments can be  
218 achieved by custom-made marker gene or genome databases selected for the microbial community  
219 under study [12,41]. However, this approach is often labor- and resource-intensive and requires  
220 specialized expertise, and its results cannot easily be compared across studies and communities. To  
221 demonstrate the utility of mOTUs3 to address these challenges, we reanalyzed rumen metagenomes  
222 from high- and low-methane emitting (HME and LME) sheep [41]. Importantly, these data were not  
223 used for the database construction of mOTUs3.

224 Based on mOTUs3 taxonomic profiles, we identified 131 microbial species that differed significantly  
225 in abundance between HME and LME samples and showed an at least tenfold increase or decrease in  
226 relative abundance (corresponding to a generalized fold change of  $\geq 1$  [42]). Among these  
227 differentially abundant species, 92% were represented by ext-mOTUs. These were therefore not

228 expected to be detectable by reference-based profilers. To test this, we applied the same workflow  
229 using MetaPhlAn3 and Bracken (see Methods), which yielded only 10 and 30 differentially abundant  
230 species for the respective tools (Figure 5a).

231 Given the metabolic importance of methanogenic archaea in ruminants as well as previous evidence  
232 of uncharted archaeal diversity in the sheep rumen [12], we further investigated the species-level  
233 diversity of known and unknown archaeal species. To this end, we reconstructed a phylogenetic tree  
234 of the archaeal mOTUs detected in the sheep rumen metagenomes (n=15) and contextualized them  
235 with reference genomes from members of the genera *Methanobrevibacter* and *Methanospaera*  
236 (Figure 5b). This analysis revealed that all six differentially abundant archaea in the sheep rumen  
237 corresponded to ext-mOTUs. Two of them, which were significantly more abundant in high-methane  
238 emitters, were most closely related to *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii*, which itself was not detected.  
239 Notably, the MG sequence similarity between these ext-mOTUs and *M. gottschalkii* was <85%  
240 (Figure 5b), which is well below the species-level cutoff of 96.5% used by mOTUs [16] and therefore  
241 suggests that these ext-mOTUs represent novel *Methanobrevibacter* spp.

242

## 243 **Discussion**

244 With mOTUs3, we have developed a taxonomic profiler that combines state-of-the-art accuracy, as  
245 demonstrated in competitive benchmarks based on simulated datasets, with an innovative database  
246 construction approach to detect and quantify underrepresented microbes from diverse environments at  
247 high (i.e., species-level) taxonomic resolution. The ability to incorporate MG sequences from any  
248 MAG and SAG to generate mOTUs *de novo* and independently from the availability of RefGs and/or  
249 prior existence of taxonomic annotations (such as NCBI or GTDB species names) will allow users to  
250 continuously extend the core database of mOTUs to represent microbial diversity from newly  
251 explored microbiomes. Such future extensions could also target eukaryotic microorganisms, as these  
252 are an integral part of many microbial communities, but are not well represented in databases of  
253 existing taxonomic profiling tools.

254 However, the flexibility in defining operational taxonomic units *de novo* comes with a need for  
255 taxonomic annotation, as is also the case for 16S rRNA-based *de novo* clustered OTUs. Despite the  
256 calibration of MG sequence identity cutoffs to maximize congruence with the NCBI taxonomy [16],  
257 this procedure can lead to conflicts with existing taxonomies. Irrespective of the ongoing debate on  
258 whether prokaryotic species should be consistent with genomic similarity-based criteria, delineating  
259 species by sequence identity puts mOTUs at a disadvantage in benchmarks, such as CAMI, which  
260 rely on rigid matching of taxonomic labels. The high performance of mOTUs [34] despite this  
261 disadvantage is likely due to the higher number of quantified taxa and the resulting reduction in  
262 compositionality-related biases.

263

## 264 **Conclusions**

265 The present work introduces mOTUs3 as a reference-genome independent tool that allows for  
266 charting the taxonomic landscape of many environments at species-level resolution. Its independence  
267 from taxonomically annotated reference genomes, makes it generally applicable also beyond well-  
268 studied environments to quantify and reveal yet uncharacterized microbial species of potential  
269 biological relevance. To support the research community, mOTUs3 is documented and available as  
270 open source software at <https://github.com/motu-tool/mOTUs>.

271

## 272 **Methods**

### 273 *Collection and processing of data to compile the mOTUs3 database*

274 To extend the taxonomic coverage of the mOTUs3 database, 4,531 publicly available metagenomic  
275 datasets from 23 environments (Supplementary Table 1) were processed to generate 150,880 MAGs  
276 as previously described [43]. Briefly, BBMap (v.38.71) was used to quality control sequencing reads  
277 from all samples by removing adapters from the reads, removing reads that mapped to quality control  
278 sequences (PhiX genome) and discarding low-quality reads ( $trimq=14$ ,  $maq=20$ ,  $maxns=1$  and  
279  $minlength=45$ ). For metagenomic data of human origin, human genome-derived reads were removed  
280 using the masked human reference genome provided by BBMap. Quality-controlled reads were  
281 merged using bbmerge.sh with a minimum overlap of 16 bases, resulting in merged, unmerged paired

282 and single reads. The reads were assembled into scaffolded contigs (hereafter scaffolds) using the  
283 SPAdes assembler (v3.14 or v3.12) [44] in metagenomic mode. Genes were predicted on length-  
284 filtered ( $\geq 500$  bp) scaffolded contigs (hereafter scaffolds) using Prodigal (v2.6.3) [45]. Universal  
285 single-copy phylogenetic marker genes (MGs) were extracted using fetchMGs (v1.2; *-m extraction*)  
286 [16].

287 Scaffolds were length-filtered ( $\geq 1000$  bp) and within each study, quality-controlled reads from each  
288 sample were mapped against the scaffolds of each sample. Mapping was performed using BWA  
289 (v0.7.17-r1188; *-a*) [46]. Alignments were filtered to be at least 45 bp in length, with an identity of  $\geq$   
290 97% and a coverage of  $\geq 80\%$  of the read sequence. The resulting BAM files were processed using  
291 the *jgi\_summarize\_bam\_contig\_depths* script of MetaBAT2 (v2.12.1) [20] to compute within- and  
292 between-sample coverages for each scaffold. The scaffolds were binned by running MetaBAT2 on all  
293 samples individually (*--minContig 2000* and *--maxEdges 500* for increased sensitivity). These  
294 metagenomic bins were complemented with 454,773 external draft genomes ( $\sim 96\%$  MAGs;  $\sim 4\%$   
295 isolate and single-cell genomes) from previous work (Supplementary Table 1). Complete genes in  
296 external draft genomes and metagenomic bins were predicted using Prodigal (v2.6.3; *-c -m -g 11 -p*  
297 *single*) and MGs were extracted using fetchMGs (v1.2) (*-m extraction -v -i*).

298 Metagenomic bins and draft genomes were annotated with Anvio (v5.5.0) [47], quality controlled  
299 using the CheckM (v1.0.13) [48] lineage workflow (completeness  $\geq 50\%$  and contamination  $< 10\%$ )  
300 and filtered for genomes containing at least six out of the 10 MGs used by mOTUs [16] to produce  
301 the dataset of MGs from a total of 499,512 *de novo*-generated MAGs (i.e., quality-controlled  
302 metagenomic bins) and external draft genomes used for the construction of the mOTUs3 database.

303

#### 304 *Construction of the mOTUs3 database*

305 MGs from 499,512 genomes were mapped against the latest mOTUs database (v2.5.1), which was an  
306 update of version 2.0 to account for a more recent release of the progenomes2 database [49] (Figure  
307 1a) using vsearch [50] (v2.14.1; *--usearch\_global --strand both --id 0.8 --maxaccepts 10000 --*  
308 *maxrejects 10000*). MGs from a total of 283,250 and 136,429 genomes were assigned to existing ref-

309 mOTUs and meta-mOTUs, respectively. These genomes were removed since they were already  
310 represented. The remaining 79,833 genomes resulted in an extension of the mOTUs database by  
311 19,358 new mOTUs (ext-mOTUs). For consistency with the taxonomic annotation of ref-mOTUs,  
312 ext-mOTUs were annotated using the STAG classifier (<https://github.com/zellerlab/stag>, version 0.7;  
313 default parameters) trained on genomes in the proGenomes2 database [49] (NCBI taxonomy, version:  
314 8 January 2019). MGs identified on scaffolds that were not binned into MAGs were used to update  
315 the ‘unassigned’ mOTU, which contain unbinned MGs that are used to estimate the quantity of  
316 unknown species, by aligning these MGs against the extended database using vsearch (v2.14.1;  
317 *usearch\_global --maxaccepts 1000 --maxrejects 1000 --strand both*). MGs that did not align within  
318 MG-specific cutoffs [51] were clustered using vsearch (v2.14.1; *--cluster\_fast*) using MG-specific  
319 cutoffs and the representative sequence was added to the unassigned mOTU.

320

321 *Computation of mOTUs3 profiles for comparative analyses*

322 A total of 11,164 metagenomic and metatranscriptomic samples (Supplementary Table 1,  
323 Supplementary Table 2) were quality controlled and merged as described above and profiled with  
324 mOTUs3 using default parameters and the *-c* option to build a community resource of taxonomic  
325 profiles. For comparative analyses across environments, 5,756 of these samples were used after  
326 removing all (n=623) metatranscriptomic samples, metagenomic samples from environments with too  
327 few samples (termite, panda, aerosols and bioreactor) or from studies comprising samples from  
328 different environments and samples with less than 5,000 mapped inserts. To calculate the total  
329 number of detected mOTUs for a given environment, we counted the number of mOTUs with a  
330 prevalence greater than 0.1% (Supplementary Table 5). To compare the median number of detected  
331 mOTUs across different environments, we downsampled the insert counts to 5,000 using the *rrarefy*  
332 function of the vegan package [52].

333

334 *Comparison of taxonomic profilers using the CAMI framework*

335 The performance of mOTUs3 was evaluated and compared to mOTUs2 and other taxonomic profilers  
336 by analyzing 113 publicly available samples (49 human-associated, 63 mouse gut metagenomes)

337 provided by the second CAMI challenge (<https://cami-challenge.org/participate>). The samples were  
338 profiled with mOTUs3 (v3.0.1; *-C precision*), mOTUs2 (v2.1.1; *-C precision*), MetaPhlAn3 (v3.0.7; *-  
339 -CAMI\_format\_output --index mpa\_v30\_CHOCOPhlan\_201901*) [5] and Kraken/Bracken (v2.1.2; *--  
340 db=k2\_standard\_20201202 --paired / v2.6.1; --db=k2\_standard\_20201202 -r 100 -l S|G|F|O|C|P|D*)  
341 [4,35]. Kraken/Bracken reports were further translated into the CAMI format ed files using the  
342 *tocami.py* script provided at [https://github.com/hzi-bifo/cami2\\_pipelines](https://github.com/hzi-bifo/cami2_pipelines). For comparative analyses,  
343 the OPAL framework (v1.0.9) [22] was used with default parameters providing the gold standard with  
344 the parameter *--gold\_standard\_file*, the names of the tools with *--labels*, the description with *-d*, the  
345 output with *--output\_dir* and the taxonomic profiles files as positional arguments.

346

347 *Comparison of metagenomic profiles with 16S rRNA gene-based profiles*

348 The 16S rRNA-based taxonomic profiler mTAGs [37] (v1.0.1; *-ma 1000 -mr 1000*) was used to  
349 generate relative abundance profiles for metagenomic samples (Supplementary Table 1). The output  
350 of mTAGs was mapped to the NCBI taxonomy to facilitate comparative analysis. The same samples  
351 were profiled with MetaPhlAn3 (v3.0.7; *--index mpa\_v30\_CHOCOPhlan\_201901*) and  
352 Kraken/Bracken (v2.1.2; *--db=k2\_standard\_20201202 --paired / v2.6.1; --  
353 db=k2\_standard\_20201202 -r 100 -l S*). Samples with small read/insert coverages (mTAGs<10,000,  
354 mOTUs<1,000, Kraken/Bracken<10,000, no filtering was done on MetaPhlAn3 as profiles contain  
355 relative abundances) were removed, leaving 6,119 samples for comparative analysis. Spearman  
356 correlations were calculated for each taxonomic rank based on concatenated relative abundances  
357 between mTAGs and the metagenomic profiling tools.

358

359 *Comparison of Pelagibacterales genome clusters with marker gene and 16S rRNA gene sequences*

360 Out of 2,063 genomes belonging to 1,029 mOTUs annotated as Pelagibacterales, 1,105 genomes  
361 (from 602 mOTUs) that contained a complete copy of the 16S rRNA gene were selected. These  
362 genomes were also clustered based on average nucleotide identity using dRep [53] (v2.5.4; *-comp 0 -  
363 con 1000 -sa 0.95 -nc 0.2*) using a 95% cutoff as part of the OMD [43]. In addition, these genomes  
364 were clustered based on their 16S rRNA gene identity (99% and 97%) using vsearch [50] (v2.14.1; *--*

365 *cluster\_smallmem --id 0.97 / 0.99*). The consistency between the different clustering approaches was  
366 evaluated using the V-measure, which combines both the homogeneity and completeness metrics  
367 [54].

368 To correlate distances of the 1,105 genomes between the different clustering techniques we performed  
369 exhaustive distance calculations at the whole-genome level, the 10 MGs used by mOTUs and the 16S  
370 rRNA gene. Whole genome distances were computed using MASH [55] as implemented in dRep  
371 (v2.5.4). MG- and 16S rRNA gene-based distances were computed using vsearch (v2.14.1; --  
372 *allpairs\_global --id 0.0*) and MG distances were averaged across the 10 genes prior to computing  
373 correlations.

374  
375 *Differential abundance of mOTUs between low/high methane-emitting sheep*  
376 Samples from sheep rumen metagenomes (n=16) [41] were profiled with mOTUs3 (v3.0.1; -c),  
377 MetaPhlAn3 (v3.0.7; --index *mpa\_v30\_CHOCOPhAn\_201901*) and Kraken/Bracken (v2.1.2; --  
378 *db=k2\_standard\_20201202 --paired / v2.6.1; --db=k2\_standard\_20201202 -r 100 -l S*). To test for  
379 differentially abundant species between low methane emitters (LMEs) and high methane emitters  
380 (HMEs), the respective profiles were analyzed using SIAMCAT default workflows [42]. This  
381 workflow includes filtering of species/mOTUs with a relative abundance of >0.1% in at least one  
382 sample [42]. Wilcoxon test results were corrected for multiple testing using the Benjamini–Hochberg  
383 method [56] at 5% FDR. The reported effect size measure is the generalized fold change (gFC),  
384 calculated as the log10 of the geometric mean of quantile differences between groups as defined in  
385 SIAMCAT [42].

386 A phylogeny was constructed for all archaeal mOTUs belonging to the *Methanobrevibacter* and  
387 *Methanospaera* genera or the *Thermoplasmata* class that passed the relative abundance filtering (14  
388 ext-mOTUs, 1 ref-mOTU) together with ref-mOTUs from *Methanobrevibacter* and *Methanospaera*  
389 (n=15) and a randomly selected *Thermoplasmata* ref-mOTU as an outgroup. Representative genomes  
390 from these 31 mOTUs were selected either by picking the centroid genome (for ext-mOTUs) or the  
391 reference genome (for ref-mOTUs). Marker genes were individually aligned (*mafft* [57], v7.458), the

392 alignments were concatenated and a maximum-likelihood phylogeny was calculated using RAxML  
393 [58] (v8.2.12; *raxmlHPC -p 12345 -m PROTGAMMAAUTO*). The distance between the 14 ext-  
394 mOTUs and their closest ref-mOTU was calculated based on averaged marker gene distances across  
395 the 10 genes (v2.14.1; *vsearch --allpairs\_global --id 0.0*).

396

397 **Declarations**

398 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

399 Not applicable

400

401 *Consent for publication*

402 Not applicable

403

404 *Availability of data and materials*

405 The mOTUs3 software is documented and publicly available as open source software (GPL 3) at

406 <https://github.com/motu-tool/mOTUs>. The updated mOTUs3 database can be found at Zenodo

407 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5140350>) and contains all MGs used in this study and the public

408 profiles generated with mOTUs3. A complete list with all sequencing samples used for building the

409 database and/or for profiling can be found in Supplemental Tables 1 and 2.

410

411 *Competing interests*

412 none declared

413

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420

421 *Authors' contributions*

422 GZ and SS conceived and supervised the work. HJR and AM developed code, generated the database  
423 with support from DRM, and performed the benchmark analysis. LP and NK performed the  
424 taxonomic diversity analysis of the SAR11 clade and the comparative metagenomic analysis,  
425 respectively. QC supported the collection and processing of data. MIM and JW contributed to the  
426 taxonomic annotation of mOTUs. HJR, AM, LP, NK, PB, DRM, GZ and SS wrote the manuscript.  
427 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

428

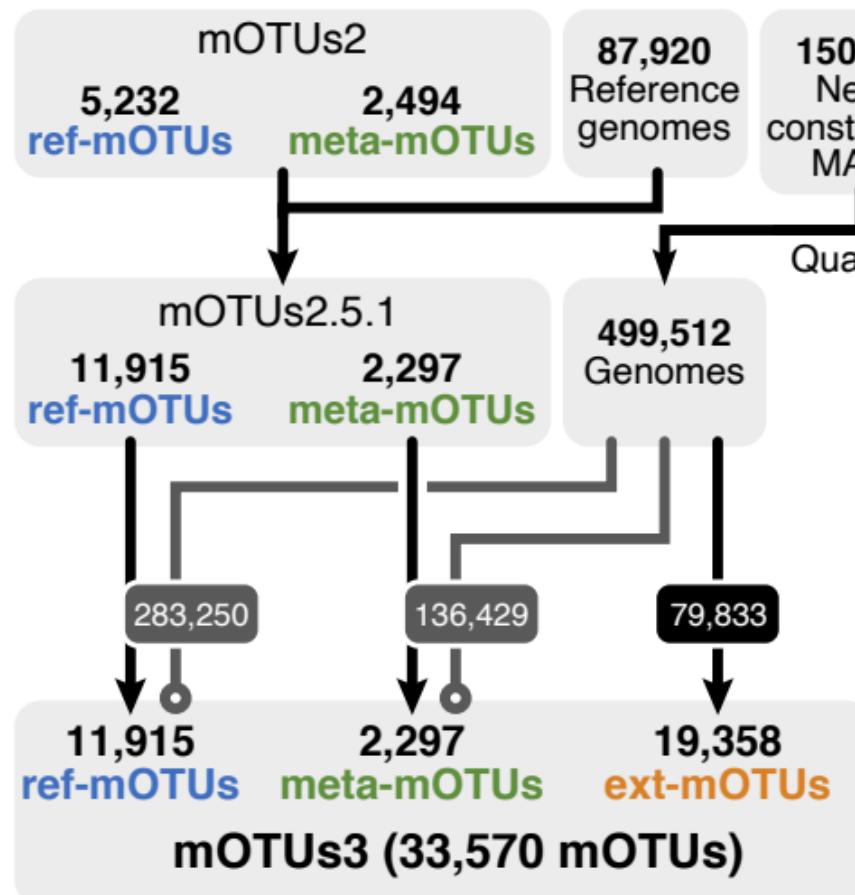
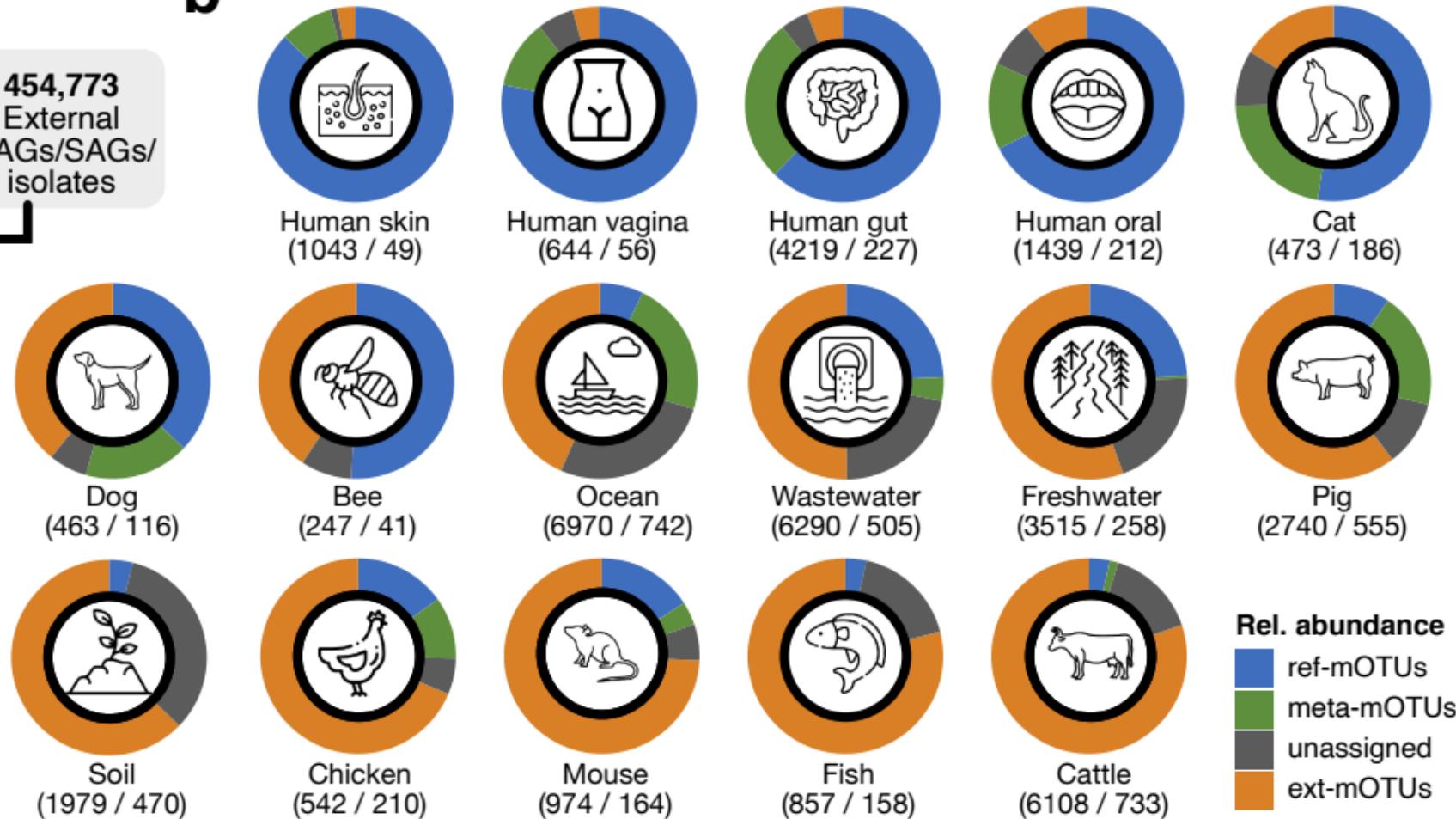
429 *Acknowledgments*

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432 of mOTUs and the users of mOTUs for their feedback and continuous support.

433

434 *Authors' information*

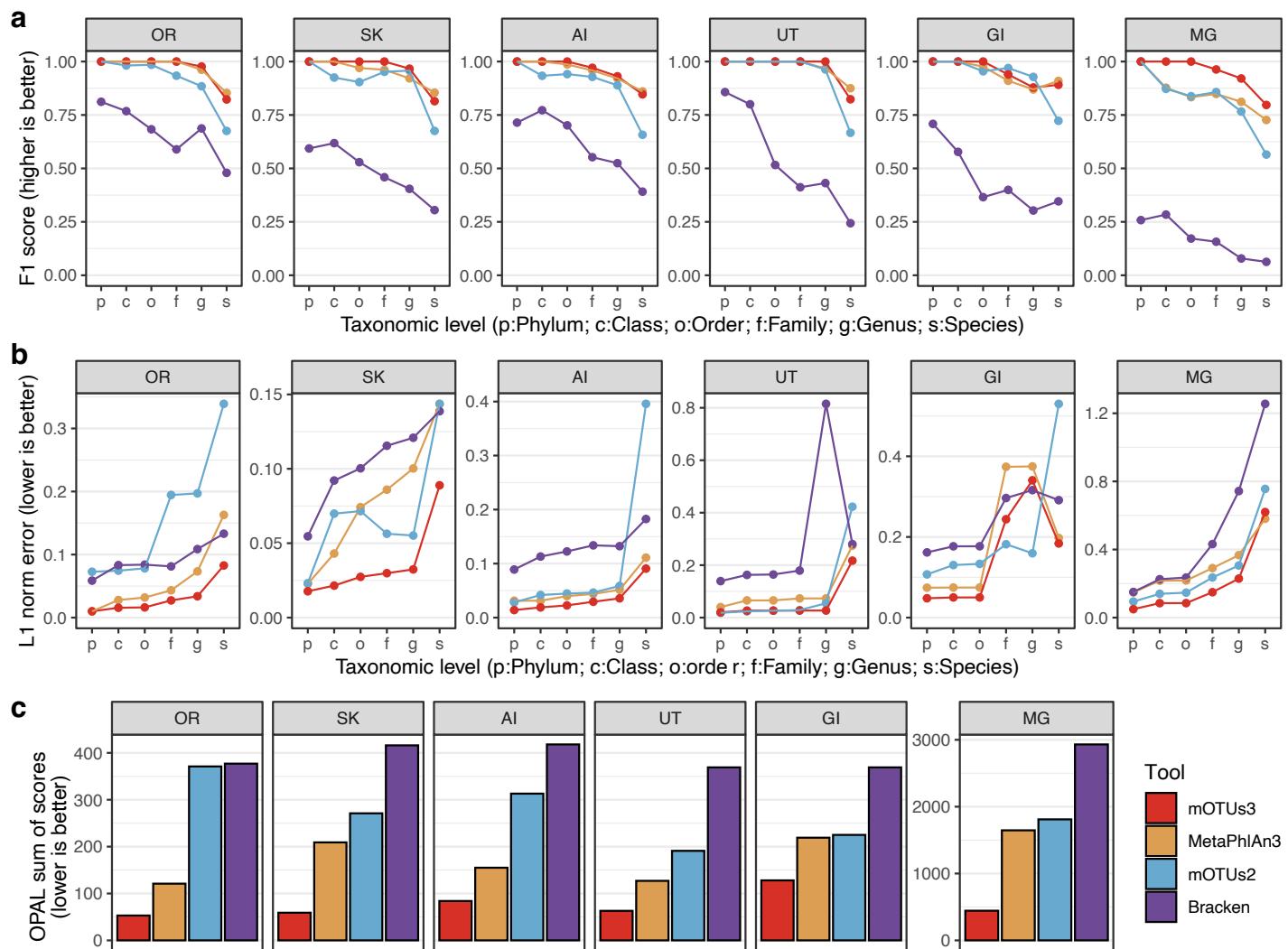
435 Hans-Joachim Ruscheweyh and Alessio Milanese contributed equally to this work.

**a****b**

436 **Figure 1. The mOTUs3 database enables species-level profiling across diverse environments.**

437 **(a)** The database of the previous major release of mOTUs (version 2)[14] was updated to version 2.5  
438 to account for the current release of the *progenomes2* database[49]. Based on version 2.5, the  
439 mOTUs3 database was constructed by adding universal, single-copy phylogenetic marker genes  
440 (MGs) from 605,653 genomes (metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) and a smaller number of  
441 isolate and single amplified genomes (SAGs)). This addition resulted in the extension of the database  
442 by 19,358 new species-level, MG-based operational taxonomic units (ext-mOTUs). Genomes already  
443 represented by ref- and meta-mOTUs in version 2.5 were not added (gray lines). **(b)** Breakdown by  
444 the three types of mOTUs shows that mOTUs3 enables the reference genome-independent profiling  
445 of a substantial fraction of microbial diversity across different environments. The numbers below the  
446 ring charts represent the total number of mOTUs that were detected per environment (left)  
447 considering only species with a prevalence of 0.1% and the median number of mOTUs per sample  
448 that were detected after downsampling to 5,000 inserts (right).

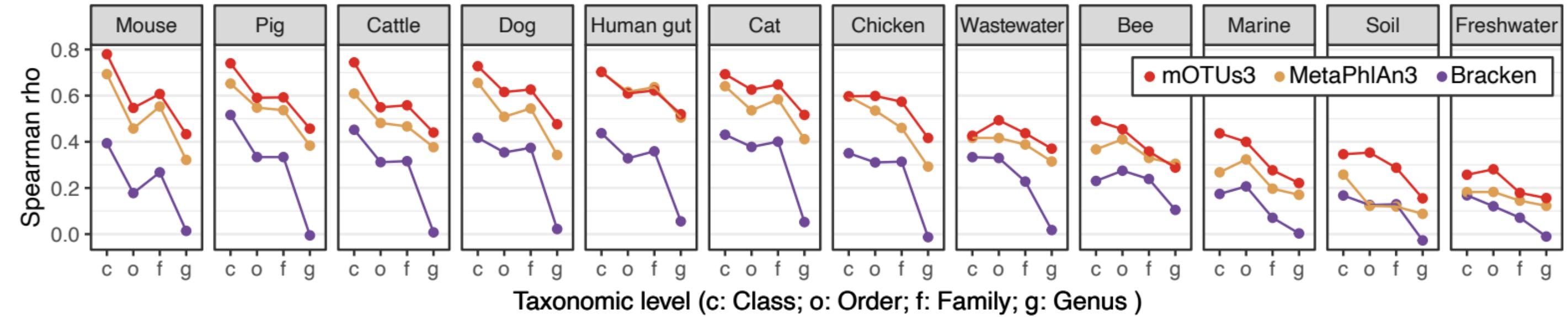
449



450 **Figure 2. Comparison of mOTUs to other taxonomic profilers.**

451 The performance of mOTUs3 was compared to other taxonomic profiling tools based on the dataset  
452 from the second Critical Assessment of Metagenome Interpretation (CAMI) challenge (see Methods).  
453 The F1 score (**a**) and L1 norm error (**b**) are shown as reported by the OPAL tool[22] for each  
454 taxonomic rank (x-axis). High L1 norm error values at the family and genus levels of GI samples  
455 mostly derive from an updated taxonomy of the highly abundant Oscillospiraceae (previously  
456 Ruminococcaceae)[59]. (**c**) Each method was ranked across all samples and for each taxonomic rank  
457 using four measures (completeness, purity, L1 norm error and weighted UniFrac error), and the  
458 OPAL sum of scores was calculated as a sum of these ranks (lower rank indicates better  
459 performance). OR: oral cavity, SK: skin, AI: airways, UT: urogenital tract, GI: gastrointestinal tract,  
460 MG: mouse gut.

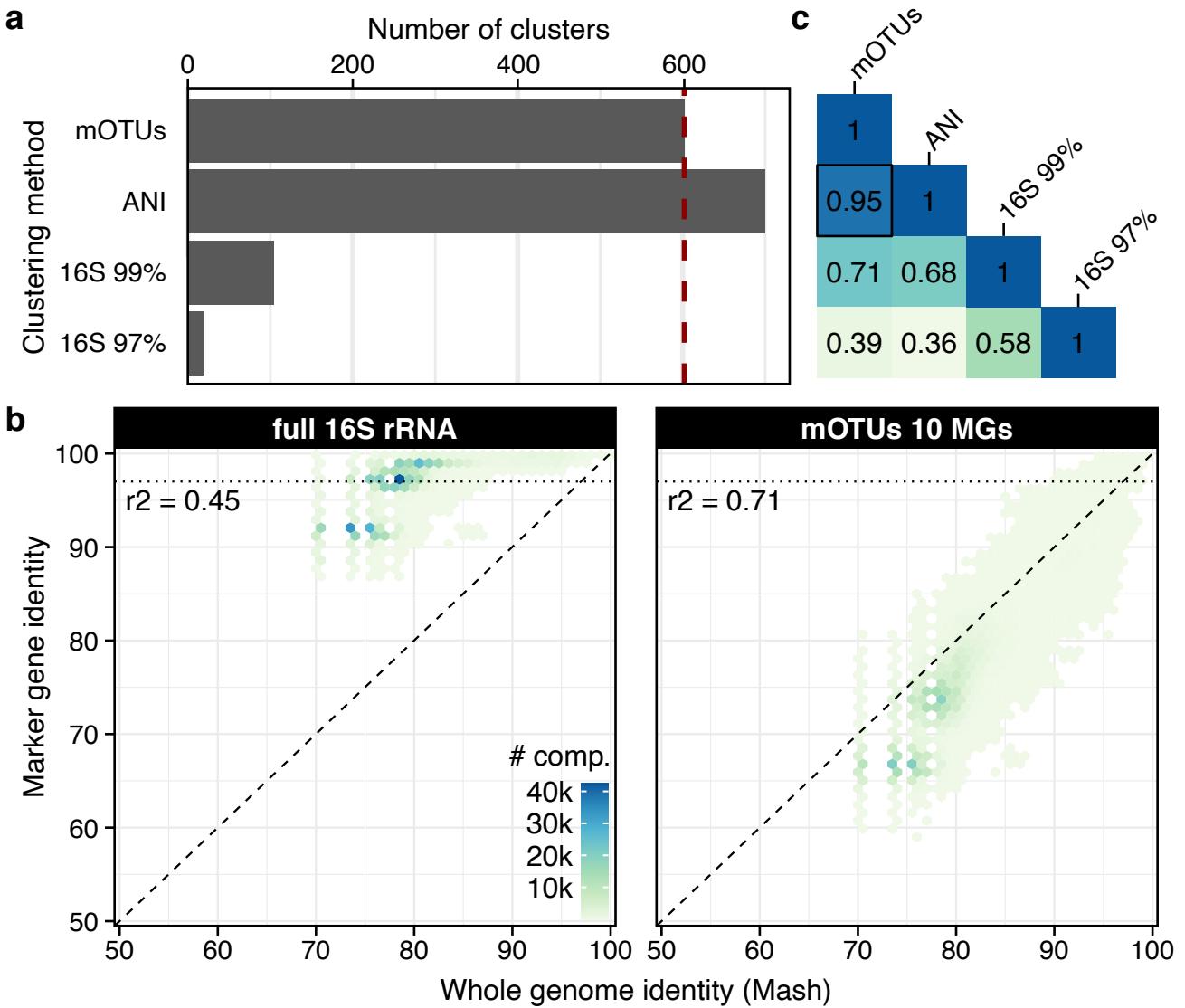
461



462 **Figure 3. Comparison of metagenomic profiling tools using 16S rRNA-based taxonomic profiles.**

463 Spearman correlations between relative abundances generated by different metagenomic profiling  
464 tools and 16S rRNA gene-based profiles from the same samples. The correlations were calculated at  
465 different taxonomic ranks (x-axis; c: class, o: order, f: family, g: genus) and showed that mOTUs3  
466 generally had the highest values for the different body sites tested, except for human gut samples with  
467 similar values for mOTUs3 and MetaPhlAn3.

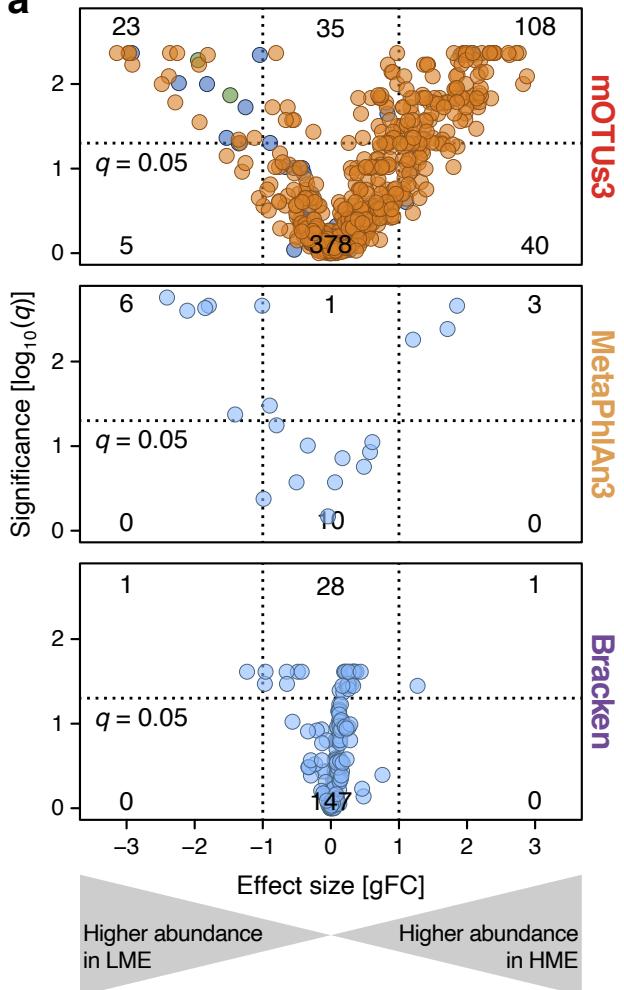
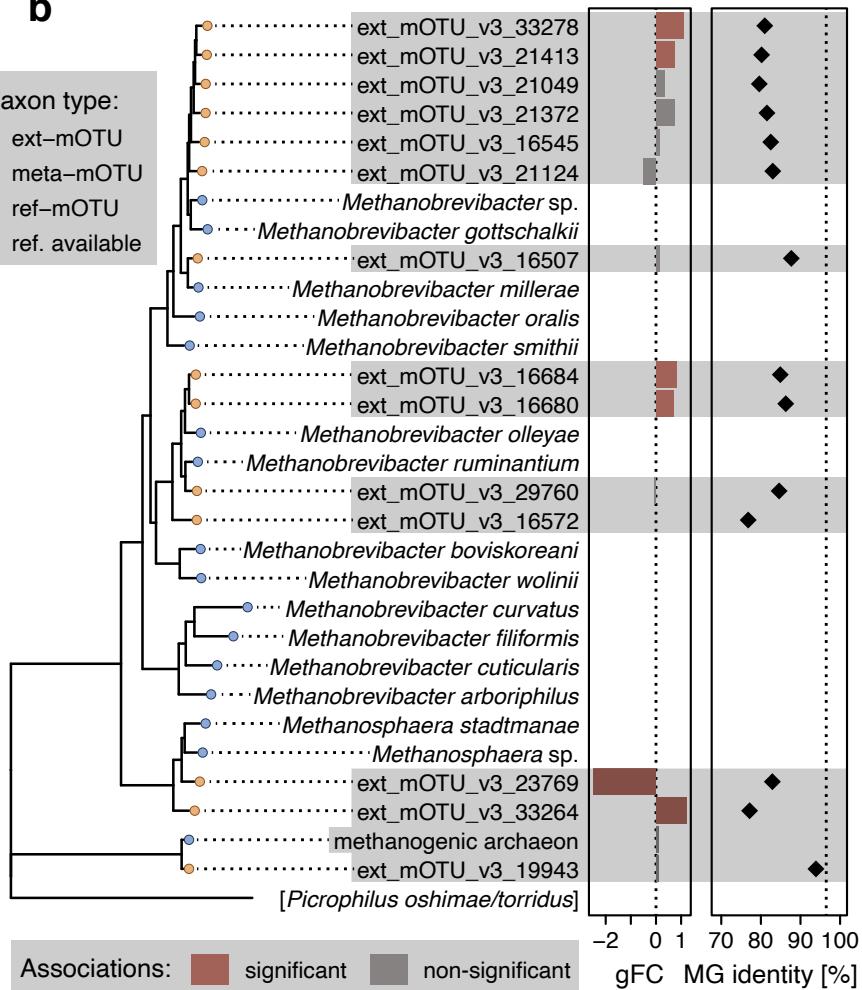
468



469 **Figure 4. Species-level diversity of Pelagibacterales as resolved by mOTUs3.**

470 (a) The number of taxonomic units within the Pelagibacterales order varies depending on the  
471 clustering method used, which was based on using marker gene (MG) sequences (used by mOTUs),  
472 Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) of whole genomes, and full length 16S rRNA gene sequences. (b)  
473 mOTUs marker gene distances better capture whole genome distances compared to full length 16S,  
474 explaining the patterns observed in (a). In particular, 16S rRNA gene sequence identity saturates  
475 while whole genome similarity can be as low as 70-80%. (c) The different clustering approaches vary  
476 in their agreement with each other as determined by the V-measure, which captures both the  
477 completeness and homogeneity of the clusterings. The highest agreement was found between mOTUs  
478 and with whole genome clustering by ANI.

479

**a****b**

480 **Figure 5. Detection of differentially abundant taxa in low/high-level methane-emitting sheep**

481 **rumen microbiomes.**

482 **(a)** A comparison between metagenomic profilers shows that mOTUs3 detected 131 differentially  
483 abundant species ( $q$ -value  $<0.05$  and an absolute generalized fold change  $> 1$ ; indicated by dotted  
484 lines) between low- and high-level methane-emitting sheep, while MetaPhlAn3 and Bracken detected  
485 nine and two species, respectively. Most of the species detected by mOTUs were represented by ext-  
486 mOTUs only, demonstrating the added value of reference genome-independent profiling enabled by  
487 mOTUs3. **(b)** Archaeal mOTUs present in the sheep rumen microbiome (highlighted in gray) were  
488 phylogenetically contextualized with *Methanobrevibacter* spp. and *Methanospaera* spp. represented  
489 by ref-mOTUs. All differentially abundant ext-mOTUs (middle panel) correspond to distinct yet  
490 undescribed *Methanobrevibacter* spp. as supported by MG sequence identities (right panel) to the  
491 closest known species being below the species-level cutoff of 96.5% (dotted vertical line).

492

493

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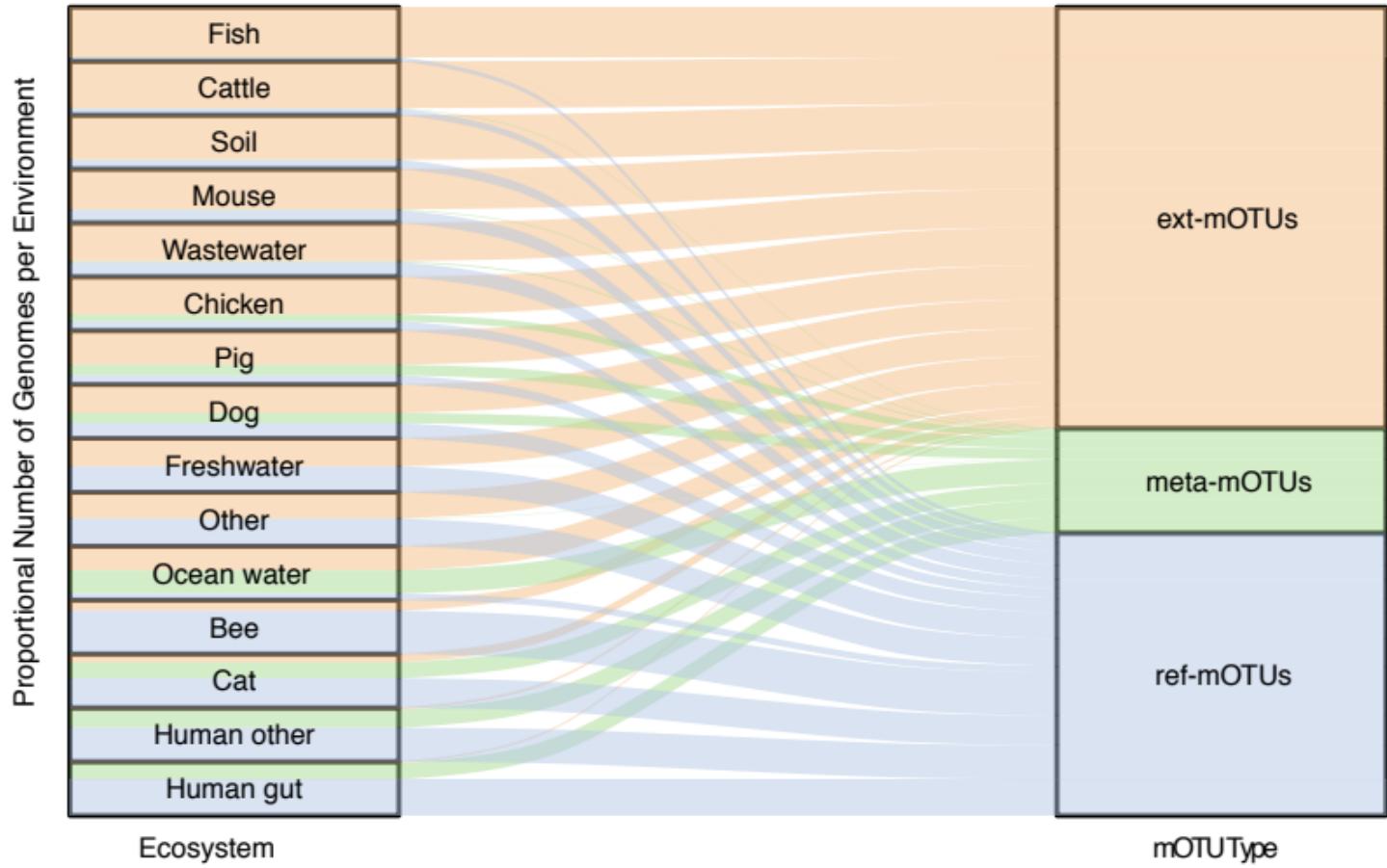
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## **Supplementary Information**

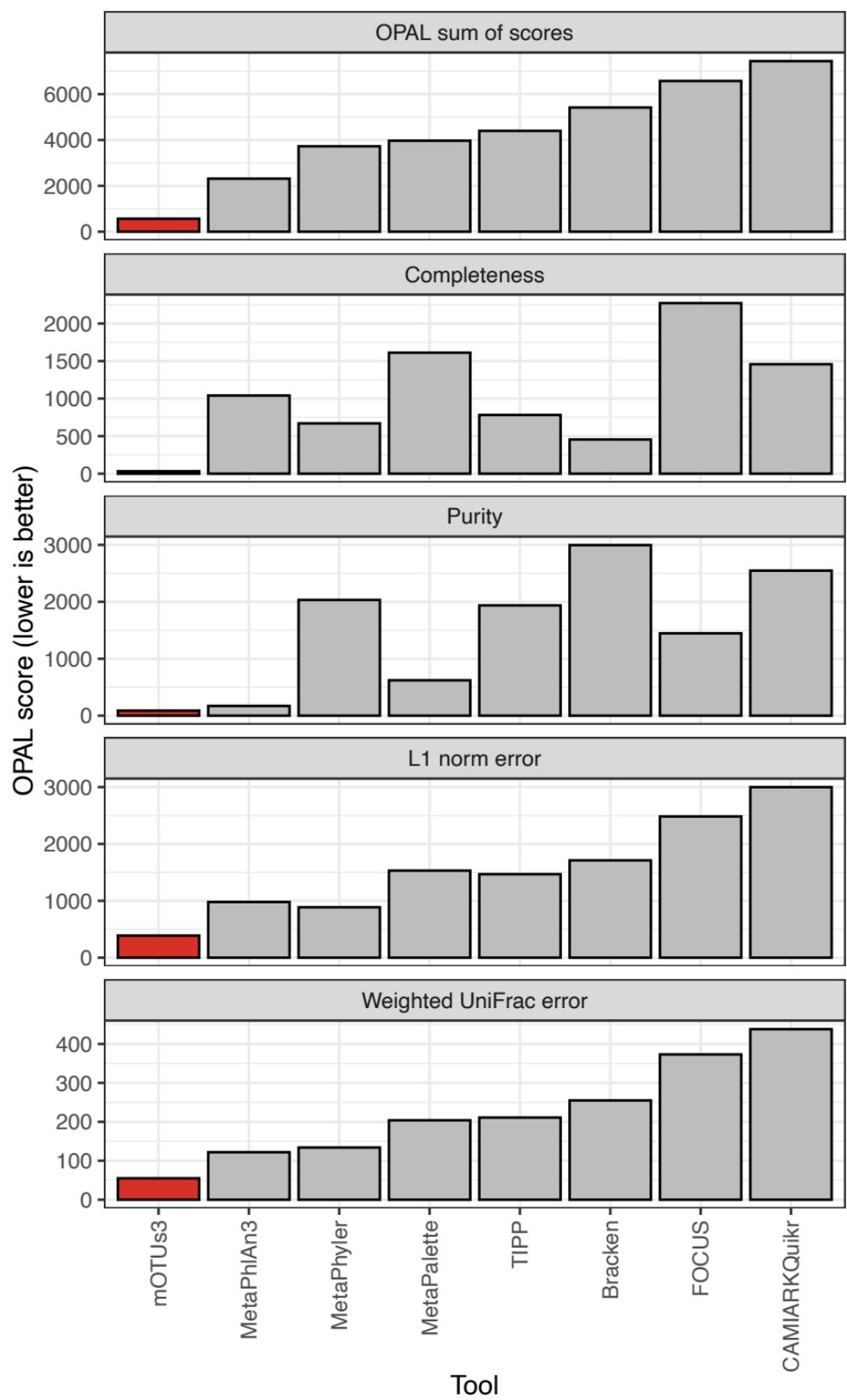
Supplementary Information for this manuscript includes:

- Legends for Supplementary Figures 1-2
- Legends for Supplementary Tables 1-5



**Supplementary Figure 1. Environment-specific membership of genomes in ref-, meta- and ext-mOTUs.**

A total of 499,512 genomes derived from 23 environments (environments with few genomes are grouped as ‘Other’, see Supplementary Tables 1 and 3) were used for the extension. The number of genomes was normalized by environments. The proportions of genomes per environment that are either associated with ref- and meta-mOTUs or were used to build ex-mOTUs are shown in the colors blue, green or orange, respectively. For example, the majority of genomes from the human gut match ref-mOTUs, whereas the vast majority of genomes from the fish environment are used to build ext-mOTUs.



**Supplementary Figure 2. OPAL score broken down to individual metrics for the 63 mouse gut metagenomic samples.**

The evaluation was performed using the OPAL tool [1] on 63 simulated mouse gut metagenomes [2], which also provided taxonomic profiles for seven different taxonomic profiling tools, and to which we have added mOTUs3 profiling results. The OPAL tool ranks the tools for each sample and for each taxonomic level. The measures considered are completeness, purity, L1 norm error and weighted UniFrac error, shown individually in the bottom 4 plots. Tools with a lower score perform better, as the OPAL score is a sum over rank. The top plot represents the OPAL sum of scores, which is the sum over the four individual measures. mOTUs3 scored best in all categories, including the OPAL sum of scores.

## **Supplementary Table Legends**

### **Supplementary Table 1: Included studies and associated environments.**

Data from 91 studies from 23 environments were included in the extension and/or profiling of the mOTUs database. Of these, 39 studies were selected for in-house MAG reconstruction and 11,164 sequencing samples from 67 studies were used for taxonomic profiling.

### **Supplementary Table 2: Sequencing samples included in the taxonomic profile.**

A total of 11,164 samples were taxonomically profiled. Sample names are connected to public repositories by biosample and sequencing run ids. The project name column links the sample name to the study name used in Supplementary Table 1.

### **Supplementary Table 3: Breakdown of taxonomic novelty in ext-mOTUs.**

Taxonomic novelty increases with higher ranks, i.e., more than 50% of ext-mOTUs were assigned to previously unknown families.

### **Supplementary Table 4: Contribution of genomes to ref-, meta- or ext-mOTUs.**

Genomes/MAGs from different studies and environments contribute in varying proportions to the extension of the database.

### **Supplementary Table 5: Data for Figure 1.**

For each sample that passed the filter (total 5,756), we reported the relative abundance for each mOTU type. Additionally, we added the total number of detected mOTUs and the habitat.

## References

1. Meyer F, Bremges A, Belmann P, Janssen S, McHardy AC, Koslicki D. Assessing taxonomic metagenome profilers with OPAL. *Genome Biol.* 2019;20:51.
2. Meyer F, Lesker T-R, Koslicki D, Fritz A, Gurevich A, Darling AE, et al. Tutorial: assessing metagenomics software with the CAMI benchmarking toolkit. *Nat Protoc.* 2021;16:1785–801.