

1 **Strand-wise and bait-assisted assembly of nearly-full *rrn***
2 **operons applied to assess species engraftment after faecal**
3 **microbiota transplantation**

4 Alfonso Benítez-Páez^{1,2*}, Annick V. Hartstra³, Max Nieuwdorp³, Yolanda Sanz^{1*}

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6 1 Microbial Ecology, Nutrition & Health Research Unit. Institute of Agrochemistry and Food
7 Technology, Spanish National Research Council (IATA-CSIC). 46980 Paterna-Valencia, Spain.

8 2 Host-Microbe Interactions in Metabolic Health laboratory. Príncipe Felipe Research Centre
9 (CIPF). 46012 Valencia, Spain.

10 3 Department of Internal and Vascular Medicine, Amsterdam University Medical Centres. 1105 AZ
11 Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

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13 Running title: *rrn* operon sequencing for assessing species engraftment

14 * To whom any correspondence should be addressed: ABP E-mail abenitez@cipf.es, YS E-mail
15 yolsanz@iata.csic.es.

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18 **Abstract**

19 **Background.** Effective methodologies to accurately identify members of the gut microbiota at the
20 species and strain levels are necessary to unveiling more specific and detailed host-microbe
21 interactions and associations with health and disease.

22 **Methods.** MinION™ MkIb nanopore-based device and the R9.5 flowcell chemistry were used to
23 sequence and assemble dozens of *rrn* regions (16S-ITS-23S) derived from the most prevalent
24 bacterial species in the human gut microbiota. As a method proof-of-concept to disclose further
25 strain-level variation, we performed a complementary analysis in a subset of samples derived from
26 an faecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) trial aiming amelioration of glucose and lipid
27 metabolism in overweight subjects with metabolic syndrome.

28 **Results.** The resulting updated *rrn* database, the data processing pipeline, and the precise control of
29 covariates (sequencing run, sex, age, BMI, donor) were pivotal to accurately estimate the changes in
30 gut microbial species abundance in the recipients after FMT. Furthermore, the *rrn* methodology
31 described here demonstrated the ability to detect strain-level variation, critical to evaluate the
32 transference of bacteria from donors to recipients as a consequence of the FMT. At this regard, we
33 showed that our FMT trial successfully induced donors' strain engraftment of e.g. *Parabacteroides*
34 *merdae* species in recipients by mapping and assessing their associated single nucleotide variants
35 (SNV).

36 **Conclusions.** We developed a methodology that enables the identification of microbiota at species-
37 and strain-level in a cost-effective manner. Despite its error-prone nature and its modest per-base
38 accuracy, the nanopore data showed to have enough quality to estimate single-nucleotide variation.
39 This methodology and data analysis represents a cost-effective manner to trace genetic variability
40 needed for better understanding the health effects of the human microbiome.

41 ***Trial registration.*** The study was prospectively registered at the Dutch Trial registry - NTR4488

42 (<https://www.trialregister.nl/trial/4488>).

43 **Keywords:** nanopore sequencing, MinION, gut microbiota, faecal microbiota transplantation,

44 single nucleotide variation, species-level resolution, *rrn* operon.

45 **Background**

46 Studying complex human-associated microbial communities demands the development of cost-
47 effective sequencing strategies providing informative DNA pieces and high coverage outputs, thus
48 permitting to discern the specific species or strains inhabiting an ecosystem. Metagenomics based
49 on DNA shotgun sequencing is, up to date, the only strategy that enable us to reach such a
50 resolution level, but it is still highly expensive. This makes it unaffordable for most of the studies
51 aiming to define microbiota features associated with health or disease including large number of
52 samples to minimize the noise introduced by other covariates that contribute to the high inter-
53 individual variability of the microbiota. As a consequence, most of the microbiome analyses have
54 been performed through targeted amplification of universal gene markers, mainly few hypervariable
55 regions (e.g. V3 and/or V4) of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene. This protocol shows limitations since
56 it only allows to capture changes affecting the global microbiome structure but does not permit
57 precise taxonomic identifications at the species levels, mostly because of the limited resolution of
58 this gene marker among closely related species. We have developed a nanopore-based sequencing
59 method to improve the resolution of taxonomy identifications by studying the microbial genetic
60 variability of the nearly-full 16S rRNA gene previously [1]. This approach has also demonstrated to
61 perform well in a wide variety of microbiota inventories [2-5]. More recently, we have also
62 pioneered a new methodology combining the sequencing of an extremely variable multi-locus
63 region with sample multiplexing [6] for improving the species-level characterisation of complex
64 microbial communities [2, 7]. Despite the promising performance of the *rrn* region for microbial
65 species identification, one of the main pitfalls of this methodology is the lack of a reference
66 database to compare the long-reads generated from nanopore-based devices. In this regard, we have
67 made a great effort to compile a vast amount of genetic information of *rrn* sequences from
68 thousands of bacterial species [6]. Nonetheless, the limited amount of properly annotated DNA
69 sequences available in public repositories of bacteria from multiple ecosystems will restrict the

70 utilisation of this approach for less explored habitats [2, 8]. Moreover, recent studies indicate that
71 the architecture of the *rrn* region is not equally conserved in all bacteria; thus, microbial
72 communities enriched in Deinococcus-Thermus, Chloroflexi, Planctomycetes phyla might be
73 difficult to be studied by such pipeline [9]. Anyhow, the utility of the *rrn* to survey the biological
74 diversity has been explored across-kingdoms, showing promising results also for the identification
75 of metazoans by metabarcoding approaches [10].

76 Although the issues concerning unlinked 16S rRNA and 23S rRNA markers can be addressed, in
77 certain bacteria groups and environmental samples, through the study of individual regions, the
78 database completeness and proper annotation are pivotal for the complete implementation of this
79 molecular appraisal. For that reason in this study, we aimed to perform a bait-assisted assembly of
80 the nearly-full *rrn* regions of the human intestinal microbiota by using nanopore-based sequencing.
81 Therefore, we provided *de novo* information of the *rrn* region of microorganisms from the human
82 gut, one of the environments most extendedly investigated, enriching the *rrn* database with
83 annotation of dozens of microbial species and strains. As a proof of concept of the utility of this
84 methodology we have estimated the changes in the gut microbiota, at the species-level, as a
85 consequence of a faecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) intervention in humans, using the
86 updated *rrn* database. Furthermore, we have explored the potential of this approach to unveil the
87 strain-level variation to track species engraftment after FMT.

88 **Methods**

89 *Subjects, samples, and clinical data*

90 Samples were obtained upon informed consent from a previous FMT clinical trial carried out in the
91 frame of the MyNewGut project. The details of the study design are publicly available elsewhere
92 [11]. Briefly, a total of twenty-four faecal samples were analysed in the present study. Twenty
93 samples were obtained from 10 recipients involved in the allogenic FMT, who provided one sample

94 before (PRE-FMT faecal samples) and 4 weeks after (POST-FMT faecal samples) the intervention.

95 The samples of 4 donors were also analysed and the effect of this variable in the recipients was

96 considered in the data analysis. This subset of samples was mainly assessed to explore the

97 differential species engraftment in multiple FMT recipients with common donors.

98 *DNA extraction, multi-locus amplification, and sequencing*

99 Microbial DNA was recovered from 100 mg faeces by using the QIAamp® Fast DNA Stool Mini kit

100 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to manufacturer's instructions and omitting cell disruption by

101 mechanical methods (bead-beating) to preserve DNA with high molecular weight. The *rrn* region

102 comprising the nearly-full bacterial RNA ribosomal operon (16S, ITS, and 23S) was amplified as

103 previously published [6]. Dual-barcoded purified PCR products were mixed in equimolar

104 proportions before sequencing library preparation. In total, three different libraries were prepared

105 from ~1 ug mixed amplicon DNA (containing 7, 8, and 10 barcoded samples, respectively) using

106 the SQK-LSK108 sequencing kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) following the

107 manufacturer's instructions to produce 1D reads. Each library was individually loaded into

108 respective FLO-MIN107 (R9.5) flowcells (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) and

109 sequencing was carried out in the portable sequencer MinION™ MkIb (Oxford Nanopore

110 Technologies, Oxford, UK) operated with *MINKNOW* v1.10.23 software (Oxford Nanopore

111 Technologies, Oxford, UK). Flowcells were primed according to manufacturer instructions, and

112 then a ~18h run of 1D sequencing was executed for each library and flowcell, respectively.

113 *Data pre-processing*

114 Fast5 files were processed with the *albacore* v2.1.3 basecaller and *fasta* files were retrieved for

115 downstream analyses. The barcode and primer (forward or reverse) sequence information was used

116 for demultiplexing into the DNA reads generated from forward and reverse primers according to

117 previous procedures [6]. A size filtering step was configured to retain those reads with at least 1,500

118 nt in length. Barcode and primer sequences were then removed by trimming 50 nucleotides at 5' end
119 of forward and reverse reads.

120 *Bait-assisted rrn assembly*

121 The study design and the assembly of *rrn* is graphically explained in [Figure 1](#) and performed in
122 different steps as follows:

- 123 • reads from all the 24 samples were merged respectively into forward and reverse subsets.
- 124 • forward read binning into precise microbial species by using competitive alignment against
125 the non-redundant 16S NCBI database (release January 2018). The *LAST* aligner [12] with -
126 s 2 -q 1 -b 1 -Q 0 -a 1 -r 1 configuration was used for such aim. Alignment score was the
127 main criterion to select top-hits. In case of multiple hits with same top score, the alignment
128 was discarded for downstream processing. The sequence identity (sequence identity above
129 the 33th percentile $\geq 85\%$) and length information (alignments ≥ 1500 nt) were used to
130 retaining high-quality alignments.
- 131 • a maximum of 500 forward reads per species (randomly shuffled), producing high-quality
132 alignments, were selected, aligned through iterative refinement methods implemented in
133 *MAFFT* v7.310 and default parameters [13], and then consensus sequenced obtained by
134 using *hmmbuild* and *hmmemit* algorithms implemented in *HMMER3* [14]. No significant
135 improvements on consensus *rrn* were obtained using more than 500 sequences per species.
- 136 • consensus sequences were annotated according to NCBI taxonomy and used as reference to
137 binning reverse reads in similar manner as made for forward reads. The thresholds for
138 selection of high-quality alignments based on reverse reads and preliminary assemble of *rrn*
139 regions were 85% sequence identity (upper 45th percentile) and ≥ 3500 nt in length.
- 140 • reverse reads were compared against the consensus sequences obtained from forward reads
141 assemblies and binned into respective species according to the NCBI taxonomy annotation.
142 A maximum of 500 reverse reads per species (randomly shuffled), producing high-quality

143 alignments, were selected, merged with maximum 500 forward reads assigned reciprocally
144 to same species (randomly shuffled), aligned through iterative refinement methods
145 implemented in *MAFFT*, and then a new consensus sequenced was obtained by using
146 *hmmbuild* and *hmmemit* algorithms implemented in *HMMER3*.

147 • final consensus sequences were annotated according to concordant NCBI taxonomy,
148 obtained from forward and reverse reads, and used as a reference to study abundance and
149 prevalence of gut microbiota at the species level.

150 • a blast-based search of *rrn* assemblies against then non-redundant nucleotide and reference
151 16S NCBI databases was accomplished to evaluate the identity of the operons
152 reconstructed. Similarly, annotation of *rrn* assemblies was evaluated against the SILVA
153 database [15] through SINA aligner [16]. Top hit selection was based on the taxonomy
154 score, $TS = \text{Log}_{10}[\text{alignment score} * \text{sequence identity} * \text{alignment length}]$.

155 *Long-read mapping and variant calling*

156 The *rrn* database [6] was updated with more than two-hundred new *rrn* operon sequences
157 assembled in this study (labeled as operONT) and re-annotated to different taxonomy levels
158 according to the NCBI taxonomy database. The mapping of sample reads was performed against the
159 *rrn_Dbv2* by competitive alignment using *LAST* aligner similarly as above stated. Taxonomy
160 assignment was based on best hit retrieved by calculation of TS (see above) and reliable taxonomy
161 assignments were filtered to those based on alignments with at least 85% sequence identity and
162 longer than 1500 nt. Species read counts were normalised, and a covariate-controlling linear mixed
163 models based method was used to explore the differential abundance of taxonomy features between
164 conditions as stated in the next paragraph. The species engraftment was evaluated by a selection of
165 all sample reads mapped to the *Parabacteroides merdae* and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* species.
166 To detect informative sites, based on single nucleotide variants probably linked to strain variation,
167 we firstly proceed to map all selected reads to the respective reference *rrn* using *LAST* aligner and

168 the parameters set across this study (see *rrn* assembly). The *maf-convert* algorithm (*LAST* aligner
169 toolkit) was used to create respective *sam* files. The algorithms compiled into *samtools* v1.3.1 were
170 used to index, order, and pileup reads as well as retrieving the information regarding to the
171 nucleotide frequency per site and coverage (*vcf* files). The site selection was based on positions of
172 *rrn* with the lowest frequency of the dominant allele, without reductions in the coverage (>75% of
173 the relative coverage), thus obtaining sites with a balanced representation of at least the two most
174 predominant alleles. Secondly, the samples reads mapped to the reference species were individually
175 assessed to detect meaningful changes between recipients' PRE-FMT and POST-FMT in intestinal
176 bacterial genotypes. Changes in nucleotide frequencies per SNV site were assessed by calculating
177 the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index between pairs of POST-FMT samples and PRE-FMT or
178 respective donor samples following statistical evaluation by using Wilcoxon signed rank test for
179 paired samples.

180 *Sanger sequencing and validation of Parabacteroides merdae SNVs*

181 The reference *rrn* from *P. merdae* was submitted to the Primer-Blast web server
182 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/>) to retrieve specific primer pairs to amplify
183 selectively this *rrn* and primers flanking the SNV-743, SNV-1975, and SNV-3016 for Sanger
184 sequencing. The comparison against the non-redundant NCBI database and *Parabacteroides*
185 [taxid:375288] as reference organism were fixed as checking parameters for primer prediction. The
186 *rrn* region from *P. merdae* was amplified by 28-PCR cycles, including the following stages: 95°C
187 for 20 s, 61°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 150 s. Phusion High-Fidelity Taq Polymerase (Thermo
188 Scientific) and the pm485 (TTTCGCACAGCCATGTGTTTTGTT) and pm3647
189 (TGCCGTTGAAACTGGGTTACTTGA) primer pair, were used in the amplification reaction. PCR
190 products were cleaned with Illustra GFX PCR DNA and gel band purification kit (GE Healthcare,
191 Chicago, IL, USA) and sequenced in by Sanger technology in an ABI 3730XL sequencer (STAB-
192 VIDA, Caparica, Portugal) using the described primers above (pm485 and pm3647), additionally to

193 the primers pm1584 (TTCGCGTCTACTCACTCCGACTAT) and pm2415
194 (ACCCCTTACGGAGTTTATCGTGGA). The sequencing electropherograms from *abl* files were
195 visualised with FinchTV v1.4.0 (Geospiza Inc.).

196 *Diversity and taxonomic analyses at the species level*

197 Prevalence and abundance of a total of 2,519 species contained in the database was evaluated, and
198 diversity analyses were completed taking into account the species with > 0.01% of relative
199 abundance on average (~250 species in total). Alpha diversity descriptors such as Chao's index,
200 Shannon's entropy, Simpson's reciprocal index, and dominance were obtained by using *qiime*
201 v1.9.1 [17]. Similarly, *qiime* was used to calculate Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index among samples
202 and to perform multivariate exploratory (Principal Coordinate Analysis - PCoA) and statistical
203 (PERMANOVA) analyses. A linear mixed model (LMM - *nlme* R package) analysis was also
204 conducted on log-transformed and normalised data to detect differential features in the microbiota
205 before and after the intervention. Inherent variation due to individual features was set as a random
206 effect for each variable analysed (fixed effect). The possible covariates of the clinical and faecal
207 microbiota that showed differences between the study groups (p-value \leq 0.05) were selected.
208 Recognised covariates of microbiota such as age, sex, baseline BMI, and sequencing batch were
209 identified as significant in this study as well and, also, included as random effects in the LMM. To
210 identify microbial species potentially linked to clinical variables altered as a consequence of the
211 FMT the Kendall's τ (tau) between variable-pairs was estimated and corrected for multiple testing,
212 using false discovery rate (FDR) approach. Associations were selected when FDR p-value \leq 0.1.
213 Graphics were performed on R v3.6 using *ggplot2* and *ggridges* packages.

214 **Results**

215 *Assembly and taxonomic identification of human gut microbiota-derived rrn sequences*

216 We retrieved a total of ~516k reads after base calling from three MinION™/R9.5 sequencing runs,
217 ~430k reads after size trimming (83.3% retained), and ~427k reads successfully demultiplexed
218 (82.7%). The number of the forward and reverse reads obtained after demultiplexing was 210,736
219 and 216,617 (0.49 and 0.51 proportions), respectively. During the first step of the bait-based *rrn*
220 assembly (Figure 1), based on mapping of forward reads against the non-redundant NCBI 16S
221 database and selection of high-quality alignments, we detected the presence of 381 different
222 species. However, the preliminary *rrn* assembly was initiated only for those species with at least 5X
223 coverage, 250 in total. The mapping of reverse reads against the preliminary *rrn* assemblies
224 permitted to confirm the detection of 229 microbial species. Figure S1 shows the initial assessment
225 of alignments produced from forward and reverse reads according to different sequencing batches
226 of our study. Additionally, the high-quality alignments (see methods) resulting from mapping
227 forward and reverse reads against respective reference databases were evaluated to determine
228 mismatch and indels proportions in a microbial species-wise manner. The above analysis for the
229 top-20 most abundant species detected in the strand-based mapping of reads is depicted in Figure 2.
230 After measuring the proportion of mismatches and indels (opened gaps in queries and targets under
231 alignment scoring configuration - see methods), we observed that forward reads produced
232 alignments on 16S rRNA gene sequences with a homogeneous distribution of indels across the
233 species (observation extended to less abundant species), and that variation in mismatch rates were
234 peculiarly more pronounced in species such as *Oscillibacter valericigenes*, *Phascolarctobacterium*
235 *faecium*, and *Roseburia hominis*, thus suggesting a probable detection of strain-associated genetic
236 variation for the microbial communities evaluated. Similar patterns were observed for the appraisal
237 of the alignments produced from reverse reads indicating there were no drastic changes in the
238 quality of alignments originated by both subsets of reads. The absence of several and notable shifts

239 in the distribution of mismatches in reverse reads was expected since the reference database used
240 for such mapping is thought to contain already the potential genetic variation uncovered from the
241 previous forward reads binning (Figure 2).

242 After merging forward and reverse reads to obtain final *rrn* assemblies, we retrieved a total of 229
243 *rrn* sequences that were subject of cross-identification to evaluate the taxonomy annotation using
244 different methods and databases used by dozens of taxonomy classifiers as reference. We found
245 limitations to do so given the scarce taxonomic information of this multi-locus region despite the
246 fact that it contains the classical marker for species bacterial identification, the 16S rRNA gene.
247 When we explored the SILVA "ssu" and "lsu" databases (for analysis of 16S and 23S rRNA genes,
248 respectively) through the SINA aligner, we obtained classifications towards genus level given this is
249 the deeper taxonomy level predominantly found in this database. Accordingly, we retrieved a genus
250 match for 155 (68%) *rrn* sequences using the 16S marker and 133 (58%) genus matches using the
251 23S marker. Most of the remaining assemblies were correctly identified at family and order levels.
252 Similar performances were observed when using the 16S taxonomic classification of the RDP and
253 Greengenes databases. Additionally, we submitted the set of 229 *rrn* sequences to the Blast server
254 at NCBI (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) to be compared to the non-redundant nucleotide
255 collection and the reference 16S database. Top hits from the non-redundant nucleotide database
256 (based on the TS score - see methods) indicated that only 124 *rrn* sequences (54%) produced
257 alignments covering $\geq 95\%$ of the query length. The global assessment of *rrn* sequences against this
258 database also produced hits predominantly annotated as "uncultured bacteria" (54%). Among the
259 subset of alignments covering $\geq 95\%$ of query length, we observed that those supporting the species
260 match had an averaged sequence identity of 98.61 ± 1.69 (mean \pm sd), whereas those supporting
261 genus and "uncultured bacteria" matches had an averaged sequence identity of 94.69 ± 3.43 and
262 95.46 ± 3.67 , respectively. Similar distributions were observed for alignments covering less than
263 95% of query sequences, where predominantly the 23S region was preferentially explored

264 (alignment length ~2,630 nt on average). Examples of full *rrn* sequences retrieving matched
265 annotations and including those with lower, mid, and higher coverage are disclosed in [Figure S2](#).

266 In summary, we obtained the best results when comparing the *rrn* sequences against the reference
267 16S NCBI database (release May 2019). This enable us to identify correctly 183 of the sequences
268 (80%) at the species level and 23 (10%) at genus level. The remained 23 *rrn* sequences (10%)
269 matched with species belonging to different genus, but in all cases were related to species of the
270 Enterobacteriaceae family (e.g. *Shigella*, *Escherichia*, *Citrobacter*, *Salmonella*) difficult to
271 distinguish by inspecting only the 16S rRNA gene sequence [18]. The global assessment of our
272 assembled set of *rrn* sequences against the 16S NCBI database is shown in [Figure 3A](#), where five
273 levels of information are compiled including sequence identity, alignment length, coverage,
274 coverage ratio (forward vs reverse reads employed in assembly), and level of match. We observed
275 species matches even when coverage was very low (e.g. assemblies based on ten reads), and species
276 matching with modest sequence identity (~89%), possibly indicating accumulation of high genetic
277 variability at the strain level for certain species. The comparison of indels and mismatch proportions
278 retrieved from alignments supporting best hits against NCBI databases, the 16S and non-redundant
279 nucleotide collection (this last discriminating 23S alignments from those of whole *rrn*), showed an
280 expected progressive increase in either mismatch and indels proportions from queries identified at
281 the species, genus, and other taxonomy levels (unclassified bacteria included) ([Figure 3B](#)).
282 However, this was only observed for 16S and 23S alignments separately since for those covering
283 the entire *rrn* the highest mismatch and indels rates were detected for identifications at genus level
284 ([Figure 3B](#)).

285 *FMT associated microbiota shifts*

286 All forward and reverse reads were mapped to assess shifts in diversity and taxonomic features. Of
287 all reads, only 43% supported alignments with the top quality (identity and length), and used in
288 downstream analyses. After the taxonomy assignment, we found not drastic changes in any of the

289 alpha diversity descriptors analysed. Notwithstanding, we found that the FMT increased the
290 richness (Chao's index) of the microbiota in six out of the ten recipients (Figure S3), who showed a
291 gain-of 31 species on average. In the remaining four recipients there was a reduction of richness
292 resulting in an averaged loss of 16 species as a result of the FMT. The beta diversity evaluation,
293 based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index, indicated minor shifts in the microbial structure of
294 recipients as a consequence of the FMT (PERMANOVA = 1.02, $p = 0.403$). Nevertheless, the gut
295 microbiota composition of the recipients was strongly influenced, from larger to a lesser extent, by
296 the sequencing run (PERMANOVA = 3.69, $p = 0.001$), the sex (PERMANOVA = 1.70, $p = 0.032$),
297 and the donor (PERMANOVA = 1.69, $p = 0.004$). The result of this multivariate analysis is shown
298 in Figure 4A. Globally, we observed that POST-FMT samples tended to map closer to those from
299 donors. To further assess this hypothesis, we compared the distances (Bray-Curtis metrics) between
300 the respective donors and the PRE-FMT microbiota, and the donors and the POST-FMT
301 microbiota. As a result, we noted that donors' microbiota and PRE-FMT pairs were more dissimilar
302 when compared to POST-FMT pairs, as indicated by the decreased Bray-Curtis distance. ($p =$
303 0.075) (Figure 4B).

304 Additionally, we performed a LMM analysis disclosing similar results than beta diversity
305 evaluation. We found that sequencing batch, sex, and donors were the main covariates influencing
306 the microbiota data. Furthermore, we found that age and baseline BMI also explain, to some extent,
307 the gut microbiota variation between the subjects involved in this study. After including the
308 variables mentioned above as random effects in the model, a list of microbial species altered as a
309 consequence of the FMT was retrieved (Table 1). Seventeen different microbial species were found
310 to be differentially abundant when comparing paired samples obtained before and after FMT, and
311 only three of them seemed to decline because of the transplantation, e.g. *Bifidobacterium*
312 *adolescentis*. Moreover, a kind of species replacement effect between *Ruminococcus bicirculans*
313 and *Ruminococcus callidus* was observed. According to abundance and the occurrence pattern, *R.*

314 *callidus* seemed to occupy the niche of *R. bicirculans*. On the other hand, we detected several
315 potential bacterial consortia consisting of closely related species, such as those included in the
316 *Parabacteroides*, *Butyricimonas*, and *Sutterella* genera which all tended to raise as a consequence
317 of the FMT (Table 1).

318 *Gut microbial species transferred and engrafted*

319 In order to assess species engraftment, we next deeply analysed the donor and recipient microbiota
320 pairs at species and strain level. For that purpose, we selected *Parabacteroides merdae*, a
321 predominant species in the samples assessed and showing a remarkable change as a result of the
322 FMT (Figure 5A), and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, a highly abundant species in the samples
323 analysed as well, for which an evident transference between donor-recipient pairs was not observed
324 (Figure 5B), to detect single nucleotide variation (SNV) associated with strains. After massive
325 analysis of the total dataset, we found three potential informative SNV sites in the *P. merdae* *rrn*,
326 whereas six were found in the *F. prausnitzii* counterpart (Figure 5C-D). When we studied the
327 nucleotide frequencies of these particular SNVs across samples, a clear transference pattern of *P.*
328 *merdae* genotype from donors-to-recipients was detected as indicated by the decreased genetic
329 distance (Bray-Curtis) between POST-FMT and donor samples when compared to that of POST-
330 FMT and PRE-FMT pairs (Figure 5E). By contrast, the genetic distances retrieved after comparison
331 of *F. prausnitzii* genotypes between POST-FMT or PRE-FMT samples and their donors did not
332 indicate transference of strains belonging to this species from donors to recipients (Figure 5F).
333 Direct Sanger sequencing of *P. merdae* SNV-743, SNV-1975, and SNV-3016 in two recipients and
334 their common donor, supported the accuracy of our long-read based assessment of FMT (Figure
335 5G). Globally, we observed the presence of a mix of strains in some of the samples analysed, given
336 the basecalling profile visualised in the electropherograms (e.g. SNV-743 of Donor1 and 06-Pre
337 samples). This pattern of strain co-existence was more evident in POST-FMT samples of both
338 recipients analysed (see SNV-743 and SNV-1975 in Figure 5G). The predominant haplotype

339 observed in the Donor1 (A743-C1975-G3016) was transferred to the two recipients explored, and
340 became dominant after the FMT. Similar patterns of transference were observed in other donor-
341 recipient pairs. Globally, our results demonstrated that the increased abundance of *P. merdae* in
342 POST-FMT samples was a direct consequence of donor's strain transmission. This is likely the case
343 for other bacterial species increased as a result of the FMT.

344 *Correlation between clinical variables and the species abundance after FMT*

345 Among multiple clinical variables evaluated in this cohort of subjects, FMT induced remarkable
346 changes in markers of glucose metabolism and blood pressure of the recipients (Table 2). Fasting
347 insulin ($p = 0.030$), fasting glucose ($p = 0.074$), and consequently, the HOMA-IR ($p = 0.005$) were
348 improved in recipients after the FMT. In line with these findings, there was a decrease in the
349 glycosylated haemoglobin concentration after the FMT as well ($p = 0.060$). On the other hand, the
350 systolic and diastolic blood pressures were also lower as a consequence of the donor FMT treatment
351 and reduced by 10% ($p = 0.028$) and 19% ($p = 0.0008$), respectively (Table 2). The concentration of
352 faecal SCFAs such as faecal butyrate ($p = 0.018$) and acetate ($p = 0.033$), were decreased after the
353 FMT but not that of propionate ($p = 0.280$). Regarding markers of lipid metabolism, the HDL
354 cholesterol levels in plasma were reduced ($p = 0.032$). By computing Kendall's τ (tau) parameter,
355 we established associations between these clinical variables and the abundance of microbial species
356 altered as a consequence of the FMT. Species such as *R. bicirculans*, which were reduced after
357 FMT, correlated positively with the reduction of Hba1c, HOMA-IR, and plasma insulin ($\tau = 0.56$,
358 0.49, 0.39 and FDR = 0.017, 0.028, 0.081, respectively), whereas blood pressure parameters
359 correlated negatively with abundance of *B. coccoides* ($\tau = -0.55$, -0.43 and FDR = 0.009, 0.049,
360 respectively for Diastolic and Systolic blood pressure), and to a lesser extent with *P. merdae*
361 abundance ($\tau = -0.42$, FDR = 0.091 for Diastolic blood pressure). The above correlations were not
362 detected for other closely related species (e.g. *Ruminococcus albus*, *Ruminococcus gnavus*, *Blautia*

363 *luti*, *Blautia wexlerae*, *Parabacteroides johnsonii*, *Parabacteroides distasonis*, or *Parabacteroides*
364 *goldsteinii*).

365 **Discussion**

366 The emergence of single-molecule and synthesis-free based sequencing methods and its portable
367 devices has democratised the genomics, making itself a disruptive technology with application
368 across multiple life-science and clinical disciplines. In general, the central claim of the third-
369 generation sequencing platforms, despite their higher error-rates, is the ability to produce very long
370 DNA reads with a handy application to resolve eukaryote genomes and their repetitive structures
371 [19-24]. This strength has also been advantageous to better assess the composition of complex
372 microbial communities, making it possible to expand the genetic information classically used in
373 microbiota surveys and retrieving reliable taxonomy identifications at the species-level [1, 25].

374 Here we explored the *rrn* of the human gut microbiota through the nanopore sequencing and *de*
375 *novo* assembly of this multi-locus hypervariable region to gain insights into these genetic markers
376 and their potential use to deeply characterize complex communities at species and strain level.
377 Through the pipeline for the *rrn* assembly, we realised that the indels rate during the strand-wise
378 alignments was always higher than mismatches, likely an effect of the alignment parameters (see
379 methods). Notwithstanding, close inspections of the alignments suggest that such indels are
380 produced in homopolymeric regions (containing single or di-nucleotide repeats), a common failure
381 during basecalling of nanopore data [21, 26]. On the other hand, the final assemblies were
382 recovered with less than 1% indels proportions when compared to database references, thus
383 indicating they were drastically attenuated when compared to the strand-wise evaluation, and
384 suggesting that assemblies have largely been improved to correct typical errors of nanopore data,
385 and likely retaining the nucleotide changes (mismatches) linked to species/strains genetic
386 variability.

387 In our study, identifications of assembled *rrn* were based mostly on sequence identities higher than
388 99%, achieving a similar accuracy as in previous studies based on *de novo* genome assembly [20,
389 22]. Furthermore, we have been able to detect the variability at strain level because the *rrn*
390 sequences retrieved allowed the correct identification of bacterial species showing 89% and 91%
391 sequence identity, against references, when using the 16S rRNA gene and the entire *rrn* region as
392 query, respectively. Nevertheless, the possibility that some of the species identified could be novel
393 ones cannot be disregarded despite the vast amount of genetic and taxonomy information of
394 microbes inhabiting the gut environment compiled during last years [27-29]. Interestingly, we have
395 also obtained correct species identification through *rrn* sequencing supported by very low coverage
396 assemblies, at least ten reads. Since the R7.3 was initially released, the constantly improved
397 chemistry on nanopore devices enables better assemblies with lower coverages [21, 30]. Therefore,
398 the improved chemistry releases (e.g. R10 and later) are also expected to influence the quality of
399 assemblies and to increase drastically the sensitivity of this approach to detect and measure reliably
400 and rapidly the presence of more microbial species/strains in the gut microbiota.

401 We provided *de novo* reliable assemblies for more than two-hundred *rrn* regions of human gut
402 microbes. The taxonomic identification of such assemblies indicated that the best results were those
403 obtained with the 16S rRNA NCBI database (different releases used during assembly and
404 annotation) probably because this is the most studied and used marker for bacteria taxonomy.
405 Furthermore, the high amount of high sequence identity matches (>95%) retrieved with
406 "unculturable bacteria" when *rrn* assemblies were compared against the NCBI non-redundant
407 nucleotide collection, highlights the high level of uncertainty of taxonomic assignments done based
408 on metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) released so far in major public repositories. The
409 assembled *rrn* regions could represent the basis for taxonomy identification of these unclassified
410 entries given the distribution of mismatches was close to that observed for positively identified *rrn*
411 assemblies. Additionally, future *rrn* comparative assessments on large collection of MAGs [27]

412 could help to solve taxonomy issues on gene catalogues of the human microbiome. The annotation
413 of the final *rrn* assemblies obtained against different databases and algorithms indicated that we
414 were able to reconstruct a large proportion of *rrn* regions from approximately 40 new microbial
415 species, and more than 150 new strains absent in the first database release [6].

416 By using approximately a dataset consisting of 400K nanopore reads derived from 24 samples, the
417 updated *rrn* database, and controlling the covariates influencing the microbiota, we proved the
418 validity of the methodology to assess changes in the human gut microbiota at species and strain
419 level as a consequence of a FMT intervention. This long amplicon-based approach, enable us to
420 detect the increase of several species from the *Parabacteroides*, *Butyricimonas*, *Ruminococcus*, and
421 *Sutterella* species as a result of FMT. Additionally to age, sex, sequencing run, and baseline BMI,
422 we found that the donor is a critical covariate of the impact of the FMT in the recipient microbiota
423 when using a unique donor for multiple recipients. These results are partly in agreement with those
424 previously published using short-reads from V4 hypervariable regions of the 16S rRNA bacterial
425 gene [11], however, our results outperform the taxonomy resolution reached previously, thus
426 providing a more accurate gut microbiota survey. Interestingly, a recent FMT study to treat
427 ulcerative colitis (UC) where the microbiota was analysed sequencing short-reads also showed
428 increases of *Sutterella* species as a consequence of the intervention [31]. Similarly, the abundance
429 of *Butyricimonas* species was increased as a consequence of an FMT intervention to eradicate
430 antibiotic-resistant bacteria [32]. These findings suggest that some species could be often shifted as
431 a result of the FMT in humans, regardless the condition of the recipient.

432 Nonetheless, the presumable transference of species between donor and recipients and their
433 engraftment could not be confirmed based on the short-read amplicon technology due to the lack of
434 sufficient resolution. Also the potential replacement between closely related species in the recipient
435 could be overseen in conventional microbiota surveys based on short-reads. To shed light on the
436 ability of the *rrn* sequencing approach to assess SNVs likely associated with the strain diversity, we

437 selected *P. merdae*, a species that exhibited a remarkable increase in the recipients' gut after FMT,
438 and *F. prausnitzii*, which seemed to be not affected by the FMT intervention. The combined
439 information of three different informative SNVs from the *P. merdae rrm* demonstrated that the
440 increase of this species in recipients after FMT was more than likely because of the strain
441 transference from donors.

442 The taxonomic resolution achieved with our sequencing approach also would help to support more
443 firmly a causal relationship between the changes in the gut microbiota and the improvements in the
444 recipients' metabolic markers and blood pressure since robust evidence of the transference of
445 bacterial strains from the donor to the recipient that correlated to the improved clinical variables
446 could be provided. Notwithstanding, the direct implication of particular species such as *B.*
447 *coccoides* and *P. merdae* and their strains in the improvement of cardio-metabolic health markers
448 would need to be further explored in future (single strain) intervention studies. The performance of
449 nanopore-generated data for identification of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) on eukaryote
450 and prokaryote organisms has been previously reported [33, 34]. Altogether, those results suggest
451 that despite the error-prone nature of these data, well-processed nanopore reads have enough quality
452 to estimate SNVs, additionally to its recognised utility for chromosome assemblies.

453 The capacity of the methodology described in here to unveil SNVs will be pivotal in the near future
454 to establish reliable genotype-to-phenotype associations between human diseases and microbiome
455 at the strain-level. Additionally to its cost-effectivity, the data derived from our method could be
456 analysed in a reference-based (read mapping against the *rrm* database) or reference-independent
457 manner (read assembly into discrete similarity clusters), making this approach versatile either for
458 strain surveillance and discovery. All in all, the features mentioned above should be central to
459 define subtle genetic variation in the human microbiome and profiling such variants as harmful or
460 beneficial for human health, what is part of an envisioned field of research in the frame of the
461 epidemiology of microbial communities and the human microbiome [35].

462 **Conclusions**

463 The updated version of the *rrn* database will be useful to do reliable microbial surveys at the species
464 level and, potentially, to infer strain variations taking into account the most abundant members of
465 the human intestinal microbiota. This long-read approach allows the detection of species- and
466 strain-level changes in the microbiota at lower cost compared to the expensive shotgun-DNA-
467 sequencing-based metagenomics approach that up to date is the only one with the ability to provide
468 such level of information. Thus, the affordability of this methodology will help to improve
469 microbiota surveys aiming to discriminate the human gut microbial species associated with health
470 and disease. This methodology has been proven to perform well for the identification of species and
471 strains transferred and engrafted in the gut microbiota of the new recipients receiving FMT, as a
472 proof of concept. Considering our promising results, future studies should be conducted to expand
473 the knowledge of *rrn* diversity across this and other environments, using improved releases of the
474 nanopore chemistry, and to provide more robust tools for microbiome research progressing towards
475 their standardization.

476 **List of abbreviations**

477 BMI, body mass index; FDR, false discovery rate; FMT, faecal microbiota transplantation; LMM,
478 linear mixed model; NCBI, national center for biotechnology information; MAG, metagenome
479 assembled genome; PCoA, principal coordinate analysis; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; RDP,
480 ribosomal database project; *rrn*, bacterial ribosome RNA operon (16S-ITS-23S); SNP, single
481 nucleotide polymorphism, SNV, single nucleotide variation; UC, ulcerative colitis.

482 **Declarations**

483 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

484 The study was prospectively registered at the Dutch Trial registry
485 (<https://www.trialregister.nl/trial/4488>), conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the
486 Declaration of Helsinki and the ethical standards of the responsible local committee on human
487 experimentation of the Amsterdam UMC (location AMC) [11]. Registered on August 1st, 2014.
488 First participant was enrolled on September 1st, 2014.

489 *Availability of data and material*

490 The albacore-based called *fast5* files obtained from respective runs are publicly available in the
491 European Nucleotide Archive upon accession number <PRJEB33947>. The updated *rrn* database
492 (*rrn_DBv2*) is publicly accessible at the GitHub repository https://github.com/alfbenpa/rrn_DBv2.

493 *Competing interests*

494 The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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501 *Authors' contributions*

502 ABP conceived and designed the study. ABP performed sequencing experimental research and data
503 analysis, AVH and MN performed clinical research. ABP and YS directed the study. ABP and YS
504 wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript.

505

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- 607

608 Tables

609 Table 1. Changes in abundance and prevalence of gut microbial species after FMT.

Genus	Species	Abundance PRE-FMT (N = 10) ¹	Abundance POST-FMT (N = 10) ¹	Prevalence PRE-FMT (N = 10)	Prevalence POST-FMT (N = 10)	p-value
<i>Parabacteroides</i>	<i>P. merdae</i>	3.44 ± 0.61	4.36 ± 0.26	100%	100%	0.002
	<i>P. johnsonii</i>	1.46 ± 1.58	2.97 ± 0.48	50%	100%	0.005
	<i>P. goldsteinii</i>	1.60 ± 1.75	2.65 ± 1.08	50%	90%	0.032
<i>Butyricimonas</i>	<i>B. paravirosa</i>	1.18 ± 1.27	2.44 ± 0.89	50%	90%	0.031
	<i>B. virosa</i>	2.44 ± 1.39	3.33 ± 0.50	80%	100%	0.033
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	<u><i>R. bicirculans</i></u> ²	<u>1.84 ± 1.66</u>	<u>0.58 ± 1.34</u>	<u>60%</u>	<u>20%</u>	0.017
	<i>R. callidus</i>	0.41 ± 0.86	1.64 ± 1.51	20%	60%	0.010
<i>Sutterella</i>	<i>S. massiliensis</i>	3.05 ± 1.39	4.17 ± 0.69	90%	100%	0.021
	<i>S. wadsworthensis</i>	2.27 ± 1.73	3.44 ± 0.86	70%	100%	0.019
<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>B. finegoldii</i>	0.83 ± 1.35	2.17 ± 1.23	30%	80%	0.046
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	<u><i>B. adolescentis</i></u> ²	<u>2.32 ± 1.60</u>	<u>1.95 ± 1.40</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>70%</u>	0.024
<i>Blautia</i>	<i>B. coccoides</i>	1.33 ± 1.45	2.44 ± 0.89	50%	90%	0.034
<i>Coprococcus</i>	<i>C. eutactus</i>	2.08 ± 1.58	2.85 ± 1.62	70%	80%	0.045
<i>Desulfovibrio</i>	<i>D. piger</i>	1.76 ± 1.95	2.90 ± 1.29	50%	90%	0.035
<i>Paraprevotella</i>	<i>P. clara</i>	2.06 ± 1.52	3.66 ± 0.46	70%	100%	0.011
<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>P. bivia</i>	0.63 ± 1.03	1.99 ± 1.44	30%	70%	0.038
<i>Terrisporobacter</i>	<u><i>T. mayombi</i></u> ²	<u>1.96 ± 1.72</u>	<u>1.24 ± 1.36</u>	<u>60%</u>	<u>50%</u>	0.029

610 1 Data expressed as the mean of the number of normalised reads in log₁₀ scale ± standard deviation
611 (sd).

612 2 Results underlined are those of bacterial species decreasing after FMT.

613

614

615 Table 2. Clinical variables altered after the FMT.

Clinical outcome	PRE-FMT (N = 10) ¹	POST-FMT (N = 10) ¹	Statistics
Diastolic blood pressure	87.4 ± 8.2	72.0 ± 9.9	$v = -16.9, p < 0.001$
Systolic blood pressure	138.6 ± 15.3	124.5 ± 14.2	$v = -14.2, p = 0.028$
Fasting glucose (mmol/L)	5.49 ± 0.35	5.31 ± 0.50	$v = -0.18, p = 0.074$
Fasting insulin (mg/dL)	84.7 ± 30.9	63.6 ± 21.9	$v = -19.0, p = 0.030$
HOMA-IR	2.96 ± 0.99	2.16 ± 0.78	$v = -0.93, p = 0.005$
Hba1c (mmol/L)	36.5 ± 4.1	35.7 ± 3.6	$v = -0.96, p = 0.060$
Plasma HDL (mmol/L)	1.59 ± 0.29	1.40 ± 0.23	$v = -0.191, p = 0.032$
Faecal butyrate (µmol/g)	88.6 ± 44.2	60.3 ± 40.9	$v = -31.6, p = 0.018$
Faecal acetate (µmol/g)	434.0 ± 148.3	308.2 ± 121.1	$v = -135.7, p = 0.033$

616 ¹ Data expressed as the mean ± standard deviation (sd).

617 v = variation between groups analysed applying a LMM (PRE-FMT group as reference), HDL =
618 high density lipoprotein, Hba1c = glycosylated haemoglobin.

619

620 **Figure legends**

621 **Figure 1.** Graphical description of the study. Data acquisition and processing steps, including the
622 sample selection, amplicon sequencing, and the general pipeline to assemble de novo *rrn* regions
623 from human gut microbiota, are depicted.

624 **Figure 2.** Comparative analysis of the stranded-based alignment of nanopore reads to respective
625 baits before assembly. In each case, the alignments for the top 20 most abundant species were
626 evaluated in terms of the indels and mismatch content across the full set of reads mapped. The
627 species occurrence of the individual forward and reverse read assessments is linked by dashed lines.
628 These density ridgeline plots were designed with the *ggridges* R package.

629 **Figure 3.** Taxonomic identification of final *rrn* assemblies. A - Scatter plot showing information for
630 the sequence identity supporting the identification of assembled *rrn* against the NCBI 16S database,
631 and the coverage (number of reads) accounted for the respective assemblies. Additional levels of
632 information are included in the plot such as taxonomy level match, bias coverage between forward
633 and reverse reads, and alignment size (see graph symbols and their colour and size scale). B - The
634 indel and mismatch content evaluation in the alignments resulting from cross-identification of *rrn*
635 assemblies against the NCBI 16S database and the non-redundant nucleotide collection (GenBank).
636 Those values were discriminated by the taxonomic level of identification according to the original
637 species-level annotation of respective *rrns* (see the colour legend). UB, uncultured bacteria.

638 **Figure 4.** Beta diversity of the microbial communities assessed by *rrn* sequencing. A - Scatter plot
639 compiling data from the multivariate analysis (principal coordinate analysis - PCoA) of the
640 microbiota from recipients and donors involved in the FMT. The donor and recipient samples and
641 the sampling time points, are defined according to the legend on top. PCo; principal coordinate (the
642 two most informative are shown). B - A genetic distance-based approach to evaluate microbiota
643 transference between donors and recipients pairs. The microbial community structures of PRE-FMT

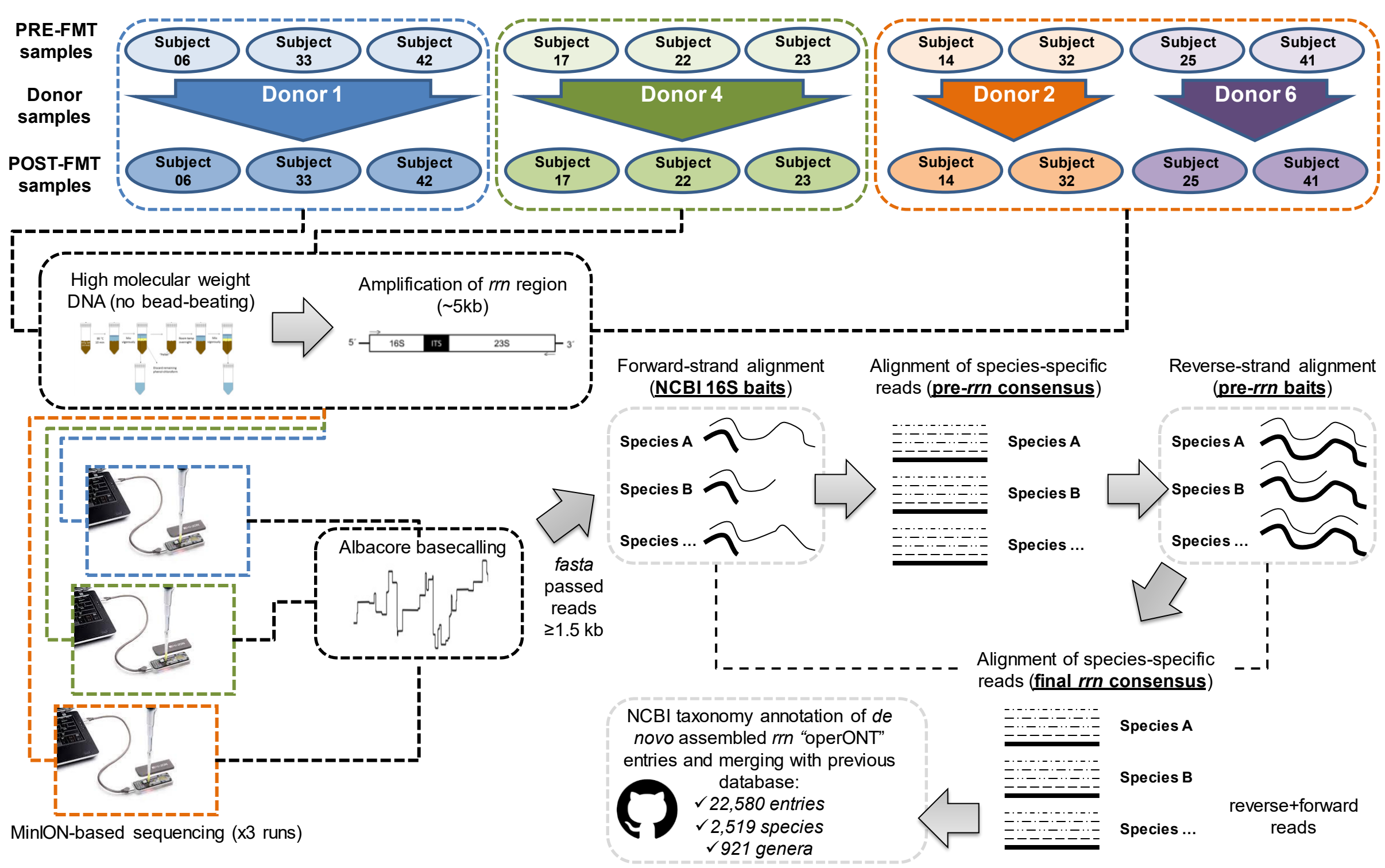
644 and POST-FMT samples were compared with donors, respectively, through the calculation of the
645 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index and represented as boxplots. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test for
646 paired samples was used to compare differences in genetic distances.

647 **Figure 5.** Single nucleotide variation (SNV) analysis to detect species transference and
648 engraftment. The species *Parabacteroides merdae* and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* *rrns* were used
649 to unveil SNVs within each species and their abundance as a consequence of the FMT (A and B
650 panels, respectively). C and D - The mapping, indexing, and pileup of thousands of reads on *P.*
651 *merdae* and *F. prausnitzii* *rrn* enable us to uncover polymorphic sites exhibiting an even frequency
652 for at least two nucleotides. Those potential SNVs are highlighted inside open circles, and the
653 position number in the *rrn* is also indicated. The structural arrangement of the *rrn* is drawn on the x-
654 axis. The black lines indicate the relative frequency of the dominant allele, whereas the grey lines
655 indicate the relative coverage per site related to the average across the *rrn*. E and F - The
656 distribution of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index of the microbiota between POST-FMT and PRE-
657 FMT samples and the corresponding donors, using the combined nucleotide frequencies of SNVs
658 detected in *P. merdae* and *F. prausnitzii*, respectively. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test for paired
659 samples was used to compare the genetic distances of the microbiotas. G - Electropherograms
660 obtained from Sanger sequencing for the strains of *P. merdae* SNV-743, SNV-1975, and SNV-
661 3016. The predominant alleles inferred for every sample (based on the Q-score of basecalling)
662 supported the hypothesis of that the strains were transferred between donors and recipients pairs, as
663 anticipated during the nanopore-based assessment.

664 **Figure S1.** Comparative analysis of the alignments based on forward and reverse reads. Sequence
665 identity, mismatch and indels proportions, are represented as histograms. Sequencing runs
666 discriminate the distributions (see colour legend). Vertical dotted lines of the sequence identity plots
667 indicate the threshold for selection of high-quality reads for downstream analyses.

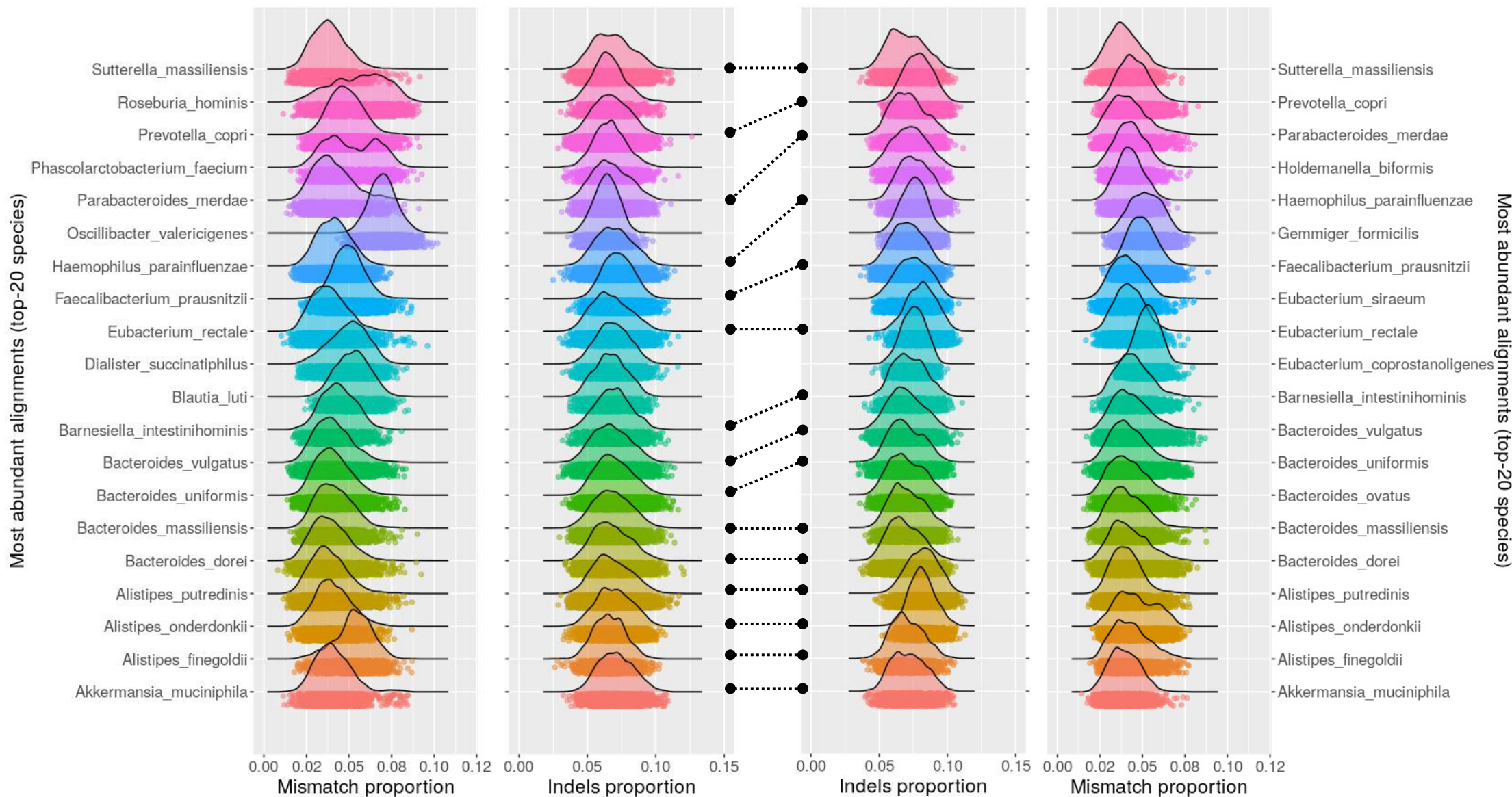
668 **Figure S2.** Blast-based results showing correct identification of assembled *rrns*. The top hits
669 supporting the identification are shown for six different *rrns* assembled with low, mid or high
670 coverage (number of reads).

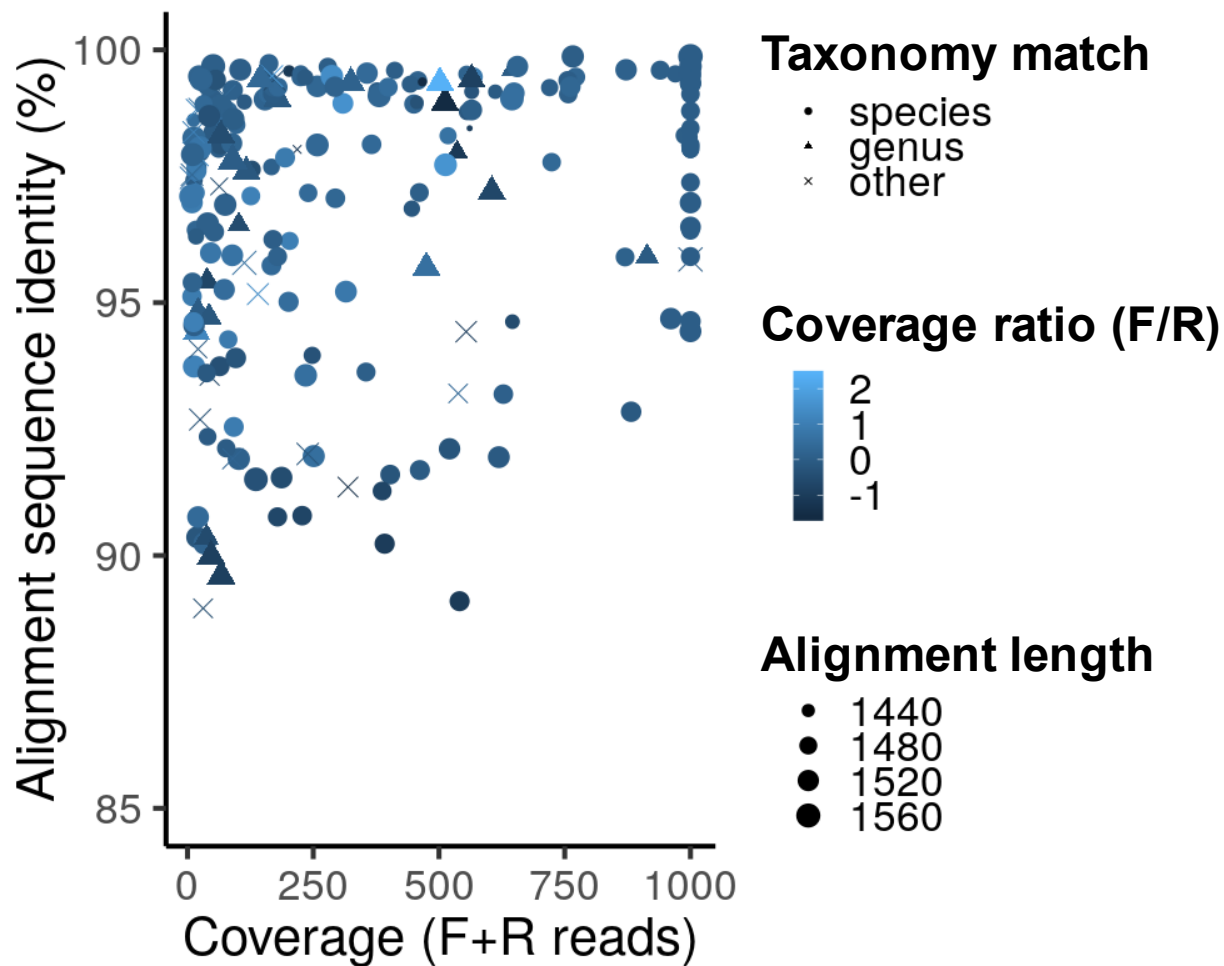
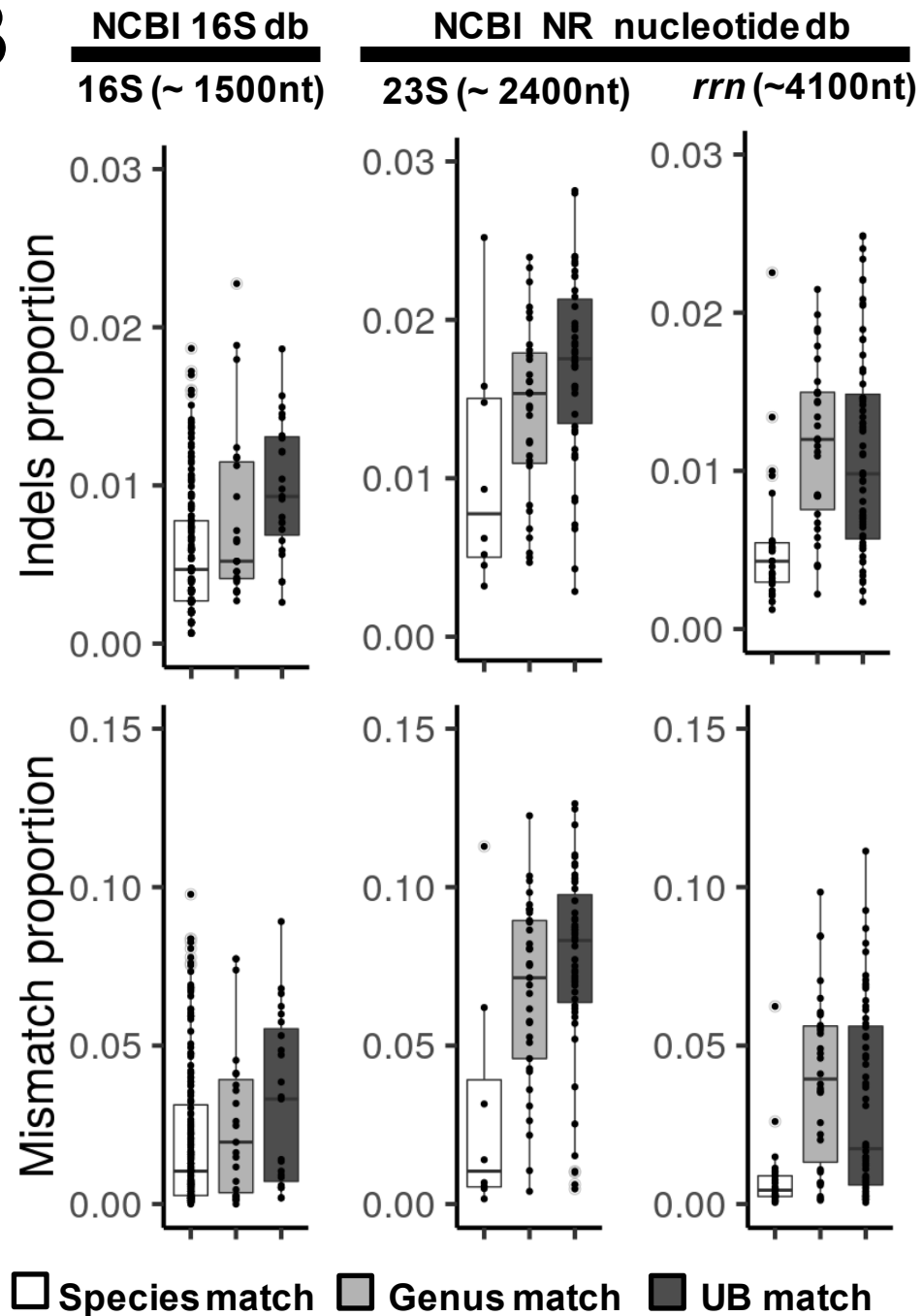
671 **Figure S3.** Alpha diversity of the recipients' microbiota s before and after FMT. The distribution of
672 values obtained for four alpha diversity indicators, including the Chao's index, Shannon's index,
673 reciprocal Simpson's index, and dominance index are shown as boxplots. The results of the
674 Wilcoxon signed-rank test applied to establish differences between the two groups of samples
675 (POST-FMT and PRE-FMT) is also shown.



Forward read mapping (against non-redundant NCBI 16S database)

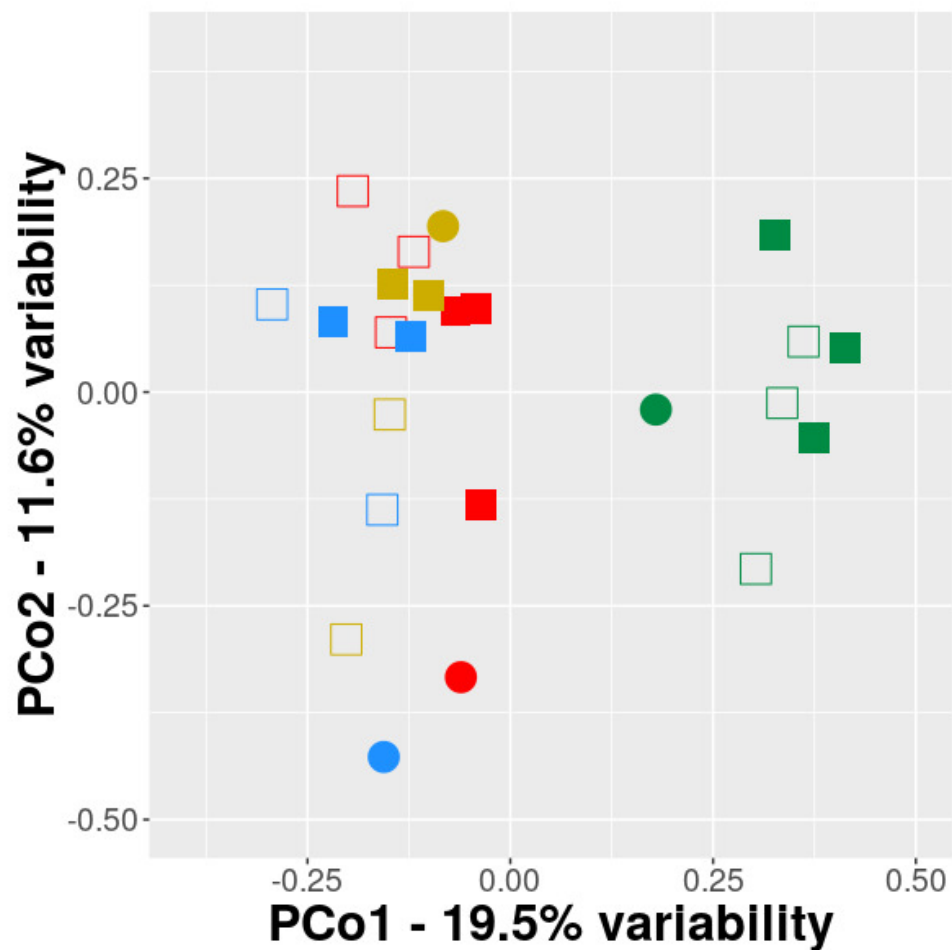
Reverse read mapping (against forward-read-based *rrn* assemblies)



A**B**

A

- Recipients' PRE-FMT samples
- Recipients' POST-FMT samples
- Donors' samples

**B**