Recovery of high-quality assembled genomes via single-cell genome-guided

binning of metagenome assembly

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Abstract

High-quality (HQ) reference genomes are essential for understanding the phylogeny

and function of uncultured microbes in complex microbial ecosystems. However,

existing metagenomic binners often fail to reconstruct a reasonable number of reliable

HQ genomes owing to a lack of ideal binning guides. Here, we present a single-cell

genome-guided binning of metagenomic assemblies (SIGMA) to reconstruct the HQ

genomes of multiple strains from microbial communities at once. SIGMA generates

self-reference sequences from the same sample by single-cell sequencing and uses

them as guides to reconstruct metagenomic bins. The single-cell genome guide

enabled precise binning and sequence integration and produced the largest number of

HQ genomes from mock community and human microbiota samples in comparison

with conventional binners. SIGMA can recover rRNA and tRNA genes and link

plasmids to the host. This ability will contribute to understanding intraspecies diversity

and distribution of mobile genetic elements in uncultured microbes.

Introduction

The accumulation of reference genomes from microbes has provided insight into the ecology and evolution of environmental and host-associated microbiomes. The golden standard for microbial genome sequencing has been to culture specific strains and sequence extracted DNA[1–3]. Recently, metagenomic analysis, which combines direct extraction of genomic DNA from the microbial community with *in silico* reconstruction of each microbial genome sequence from massive sequenced reads, has attracted much attention. A growing number of metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) are asserting our understanding of microbial diversities in various environments[4–9].

In a metagenomic approach, genome reconstruction is performed in two steps: (1) assembly of fragmented genome sequences to contigs and (2) binning contigs into lineages as bins. Current state-of-the-art binners rely on nucleotide compositional information such as tetranucleotide frequency, GC content, or sequence coverage[10–12]. However, these tools demonstrate different performances and produce different MAGs including incomplete bins and multi-species composite bins[13]. Composite genomes that aggregate sequences originating from multiple distinct species or strains can yield misleading insights if they are registered as single genomes in the reference database[14]. To solve these problems, several approaches combine and curate the result of multiple binners to generate a large number of high-quality (HQ) genomes[13,15,16]. However, in the real samples, it is difficult to verify the certainty of the binning results because there are numerous microbes without the reference genome and the proportion of microbial species richness among them is unknown.

Single-cell genomics is an alternative approach that enables culture-independent sequencing of microbial genomes[17]. In contrast to metagenomics, single-cell genomics does not require microbial population clonality but instead recovers genome sequences from individual cells. In single-cell genomics, the DNA amplification process often causes amplification biases and incompleteness in genome sequences. Therefore, co-assembly of individual single-cell sequencing data is generally required to compensate for the gaps and errors in each SAG sequence[18]. However, most SAGs generally have low completeness, and even with co-assembly, produced shortly fragmented contigs, rarely covering their entire genomic area.

Metagenomics assesses the genomes of all microbes present in a sample, whereas single-cell genomics reveals individual genomes. Therefore, it has been suggested that integrating the two can compensate for each of their specific shortcomings[19–21]. However, no efforts have been made to acquire a comprehensive

draft genome of the human microbiota using this hybrid approach. Moreover, its
advantages over the conventional metagenomics binning have not been verified. In this
study, we developed a novel single-cell genome-guided binning of metagenome
assembly (SIGMA) to recover at once HQ genomes of multiple bacterial strains from
the microbial community. We used microfluidic technology-aided approaches to obtain
a large number of single-cell amplified genomes (SAGs) for guided binning[22,23]. Mock
community and human microbiota samples were tested to compare the binning
accuracy and the number of HQ genomes between conventional binners and SIGMA.
We also investigated the integration of single-cell genomes with metagenomes to
acquire strain-resolved genomes and to validate the presence of aggregate sequences
originating from multiple distinct species in metagenomic bins.
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Results
Overview of the single-cell genome-guided binning of metagenome assembly
(SIGMA).
Conventional metagenomic phylogenetic classification tools[24], [25] and
conventional metagenomic binners[10–12] have difficulty in allocating contigs to bins from
complex microbial communities in the absence of known microbial genome information
as teaching data for classifying closely related species or strains. Our SIGMA tool uses
single-cell amplified genomes, which are newly produced in the same sample, as
teaching data for metagenome binning (Fig. 1). The SAGs of uncultured microbes
serve as ideal references for metagenome binning from the reference-lack microbial
community. These SAGs were obtained using the SAG-gel platform[22,26], which enables
obtaining the contamination-less SAGs in a high throughput manner with the aid of
microfluidic droplet format. Multispecies SAGs obtained by assembly from each single-
cell genome are grouped into individual strains using the ccSAG method[18]. Composite
SAGs (CoSAGs) are constructed by re-assembling (co-assembling) single-cell reads
(SRs) recognized as identical strains. Based on genome completeness (>50%) and
contamination (10%), non-redundant SAGs (nrSAGs) are collected for use as binning
references. Besides, metagenomic reads (MRs) are obtained from the same sample
and are assembled into metagenomic assembled contigs (MAs). The contigs in
nrSAGs are mapped to the contigs in MA to allocate contigs in MAs to single cell-
guided bins (sgBins). Finally, the paired nrSAGs and sgBins at the strain level are
merged to fill in the gaps for each other and extend the contig length as single-cell-
guided MAGs (sgMAGs) or metagenome-guided SAGs (mgSAGs).
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Evaluation of single-cell genome and metagenome assemblies

To confirm sequence accuracy in nrSAGs and MAs, single-cell genomic and
metagenomic sequencings were performed with the same cell mock community
containing 15 different bacteria (Supplementary Table 1). In total, we obtained 48 SRs
and one MR with total read lengths of 3.9 Gb and 2.6 Gb, respectively (Supplementary
Table 2).

Following the assembly, 15 nrSAGs were obtained, which covered all species in
the mock community. From SAG to CoSAG according to taxonomy identification
(Supplementary Table 3), the average completion rates improved from 33.5% to
66.6%, with low contamination rates of 0.3% and 0.76%, respectively (Supplementary
Table 4). In 14 nrSAGs, approximately ≥98.5% of the total length of each was correctly
mapped to reference genomes. In Mock-C00006 (*Lactobacillus delbrueckii*), some
contigs (8.5% of the total length) were mapped to other microbial genomes. The
original SAGs were obtained from physically isolated single-cells in gel capsules[22];
however free DNA was randomly captured and subsequently amplified simultaneously.
The unmapped contigs could have been derived from these free DNA fragments.
Alternatively, we confirmed that 1008 contigs of total 1016 MA contigs were mapped to
single reference genomes (Supplementary Fig. 1).   In addition, there were no 16S
rRNA gene sequences for *Bacteroides uniformis* and *Escherichia coli* in MA, while all
nrSAGs remained individual 16S rRNA sequences (Supplementary Fig. 2). Overall,
both the nrSAGs and the MA showed a high sequence accuracy as high identity
corresponding to reference genomes. Thus, we considered that the metagenomic
binning step was crucial for reconstructing each genome from the MA.

**Comparison of the characteristics of single-cell-guided bins with conventional
bins.**

We investigated the characteristics of bins collected by SIGMA and
conventional binners (Fig. 2). Three binners, CONCOCT[10], MaxBin2[12], and
MetaBAT2[11], were used to construct bins, and DAS_Tool[13] was subsequently used to
obtain refined bins. Based on 15 reference genomes (Supplementary Table 1), we
assessed the taxa of each bin and estimated the total sizes of the contigs incorrectly
binned to different bacterial bins and contigs unbinned to any reference genomes (Fig.
2a). The binner with the smallest incorrect binned contig was SIGMA with 20 kbp,
followed by MetaBAT2 with 181 kbp. The binner with the smallest unbinned contig was
CONCOCT (1 kbp), while the unbinned contig length was 892 kbp in SIGMA. Total
lengths of contigs unbinned into target sgBins were inversely correlated with the guide

SAG completeness (Fig. 2b), suggesting that the SAG completeness strengthens the
adequacy of the contig allocation to the bin.
We also calculated F1 scores, a harmonic mean of precision and recall, to
evaluate the accuracy of bins construction against true reference genomes (Fig. 2c).
The precision depends on the less false-positive contig that is incorrectly allocated in
the bin. Although the ability to force contigs into bins helps improve completeness, it
carries the risk of inclusion of artificial sequences as false-positive contigs and
increases contamination rates. SIGMA demonstrated high-precision bins against all 15
corresponding references. The high-precision bin (F1 score >0.9) for SIGMA,
DAS_Tool, MetaBAT2, MaxBin2, and CONCOCT were 15, 14, 8, 13, and 12,
respectively, while all binners except MetaBAT2 had equally high precision values.
Alternatively, the recall value depends on the true completeness of the bacterial
genome. SIGMA demonstrated the highest F1 scores among all reference genomes
owing to the highest recall value. In this test, SAG qualities were limited to low-quality
(LQ) to medium-quality (MQ), which were not the best conditions to guide binning;
however, it was still remarkably clear that SIGMA had the best binning accuracy. Thus,
the single-cell guided binning approach of SIGMA helps accurate and efficient
allocation of contigs into different bacterial genomes compared to conventional binners.
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Effectiveness to merge nrSAGs and sgBins
The merging of paired nrSAGs and sgBins into sgMAG or mgSAG improved
several genome assembly quality metrics such as completeness and N50 in multiple
microbial communities including human gut microbiota, and human skin microbiota
(Fig. 3ab). Although the completeness of either nrSAG or sgBin was low (average:
74.5%), that of sgMAG and mgSAG was much improved (average: 93.6%) (Fig. 3a).
N50 metrics of most nrSAGs (average: 48.2 kb) improved after merging nrSAG and
sgBin (average: 87.7 kb), except in the case of low completeness of sgBins (Fig. 3b).
Low completeness of sgBins occurred often, particularly in skin microbiota (average
completeness: 23.1%). This may be due to the inability of metagenomic data to
produce qualified MAs owing to some interfering factors, such as human DNA
contamination. Thus, to recover sgBins with high completeness, it is necessary to
increase the MA mapping rate by improving its assembly accuracy and by increasing
SAGs repertoire corresponding to MAs. In addition, rRNA and tRNA gene sequences
were often compensated from nrSAGs (Recovery rate of rRNA: 5S: >53.1%, 16S:
>94.1%, 23S: >98.5% in nrSAGs; and 5S: >7.5%, 16S: >13.4%, 23S: >14.9% in

sgBins)(Fig. 3cb), thus merging of nrSAGs and sgBin is extremely important for
incorporating phylogenetic information of draft genomes.
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Recovery of HQ draft genomes from multiple microbial communities using
SIGMA.
We assessed the quality of all draft genomes according to the Genomic
Standards Consortium[9]. From the mock community sample, SIGMA, DAS_Tool, and
MaxBin2 constructed MAGs corresponding to 15 reference genomes, whereas
MetaBAT2 and CONCOCT constructed more than the expected 15 MAGs, including
several LQ MAGs (Fig. 4a). Thus, the risk of creating unreliable MAGs must also be
deliberated when considering conventional binners. SIGMA uses nrSAG taxonomy to
identify representative species and to extract contigs in MA necessary for binning, such
that the risk of producing artificial MAGs that cannot be present in actual samples is
diminished. Regarding draft genome quality, SIGMA produced a total of 13 HQ draft
genomes, with better accuracy than other binners. (Fig. 4a). For non-chromosomal
elements, all plasmid sequences existed in MA; however, these were lost in the
plasmid-containing bacterial genomes after binning (Supplementary Fig. 3). SIGMA
demonstrated constant and higher plasmid coverage (97.2%) than other binners (50.6-
74.5%) in five bacteria.
To evaluate the performance of SIGMA in human gut and skin microbiota, three
SR sets (each 96 SR, 100 Mb/SR) and three MRs (each 6 Gb) were obtained, and the
assemblies were binned with SIGMA and other binners. Here, MQ and HQ draft
genomes were considered for comparison. SIGMA was able to construct the largest
number of genomes with a total of 93 (21 HQ) and 45 (10 HQ) genomes from the gut
and skin, respectively (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Table 5). In gut microbiota, none of
the HQ genomes were constructed in other binners. Although there were draft
genomes that satisfied a completeness >90% and contamination <5% in conventional
binners, difficulty in recovery of rRNA and tRNA sequences were clearly indicated
(Fig.4 bc). SIGMA demonstrated consistent high performance in the recovery of rRNA
(5S: >40.9%, 16S: >63.4%, and 23S: >67.7%) and tRNA (average: 17.2 ± 2.9) in each
microbial sample. SIGMA used a large number of sequencing reads by incorporating
single-cell genomics and metagenomics; however, trends were unchanged, even when
the read number used for other binners was equal to that when SIGMA was used
(Supplementary Fig. 4).
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Coverage of SIGMA-produced draft genomes against bacterial diversity

To determine the extent to which the constructed genome covered all
metagenomic sequence fractions, MRs were mapped to their respective genomes and
mapping rates were calculated. In MAGs constructed by MaxBin2 and CONCOCT,
>90% of MRs were mapped (Fig. 5a). These high mapping rates were considered
owing to their algorithm trends of unbinned contig reduction (Fig. 2a). The MR mapping
rates in SIGMA were in the middle of all binners, ranging from 74.3% to 85.7% for gut
microbiota and 55.3% to 86.4% for skin microbiota. Regarding the bacterial diversity,
SIGMA detected more bacterial genomes than other binners, with 52 genera in gut
microbiota (Fig. 5b) and nine genera in skin microbiota (Fig. 5c). We considered that
the metagenomic coverage of SIGMA could be improved by increasing the number of
obtained SAGs from the same samples and the number of detected taxa.
223
Strain-resolved genome analysis based on single-cell genomes toward revealing
intra-species diversities.
Accurate genomic classification of closely related species and subspecies from
the microbial community is important and is required to discuss intra-species diversity.
Therefore, to assess separation accuracy of closely related genomes, we assessed the
correspondence between MAG and SAG sequences of the same species.
In skin microbiota, conventional metagenome binner yielded one
Staphylococcus hominis MAG, whereas SIGMA yielded two *S. hominis* strain mgSAGs.
We considered that conventional MAG had difficulty in binning contigs to two different
strains in the sample. To confirm further details, we calculated the average nucleotide
identity (ANI) of the two strain genomes obtained by SIGMA and other binners against
the original SAGs (Fig. 6a) and we confirmed all ANI showed >97% identities. We
found that while the presence of two strains is evident at the single-cell level, only
SIGMA was able to output strain-resolved genomes, and the binner produced MAGs
which demonstrated increased similarity to only one strain. Notably, we found plasmids
in conventional MAGs; however, plasmid assignment to mgSAGs clearly indicated that
these two strains had specifically different plasmids (Fig. 6b). Thus, SIGMA will aid
strain-resolved binning and plasmid-host allocation, resulting in an understanding of
intra-species diversities and linking mobile gene elements to hosts.
243
Validation of aggregate sequences originating from multiple distinct species.
SAG can be used as a self-check reference to evaluate the appropriateness of
conventional MAG binning results, and it may also be possible to remove unsuitable
contigs such as aggregate sequences from multiple species. A simple way to detect

incorrect sequences in MAG is to map corresponding SAG sequences to MAGs (Fig.

6c). For *S. hominis* obtained from human skin microbiota, we screened SAG

sequences which were mapped on MAGs obtained with conventional binners. This

result clearly indicated that *S. hominis* MAGs showed different sizes between different

binners, suggesting substantial lack or excess of the genome sequence, and some

sequences from the closed *Staphylococcus* genus (*S. epidermidis*) were contaminated

in all MAGs (55.6-146.8kb). In particular, we found that the longest contaminated

contig (44 Kb) in MAGs of DAS_tool and MaxBin2 showed homology (identity 98.5%)

to pSE2 plasmid of *S. epidermidis* (CP066374). The genome sizes of publicly available

S. hominis isolate genomes are 2.1 to 2.3 Mb and are similar to the draft genome

obtained with SIGMA (tentatively named SIGMA-A and SIGMA-B). SIGMA-A and

SIGMA-B exhibited some common sequences between *S. hominis* and *S. epidermidis*;

however, there were no obvious interspecies aggregate sequences. Using SAGs as

references, contigs that have been erroneously removed or included by conventional

binners can be correctly assigned, suggesting that even uncultured bacterial genomes

can be validated for showing their reliability at the strain-level.

Discussion

266   HQ reference genomes are essential for understanding the phylogeny and

function of uncultured microbes in complex microbial ecosystems. In a changing

environment, microbes acquire adaptive evolution through repeated genetic mutations

and horizontal transfer, etc.[27–30]. To best understand the connections between

microbial communities and their habitats is to recover genomes from the communities

themselves, rather than referring to genomes of closely related bacteria isolated from

different environments.

273   Despite the cell mock community being a simple sample consisting of 15

different bacteria, the occurrence of false-positive contigs in the conventional MAG

suggested the requirement for careful selection of the metagenomic binner depends on

the presence of conserved genes and consistency of nucleotide composition. As

reported previously[13,15], the tool that utilizes the bin refinement strategy demonstrated

high accuracy, which was in agreement with MAG and reference genomes. These

tools utilize multiple binners to generate various combinations of bins for reference to

each other from single or multiple metagenomics data. Alternatively, SIGMA generates

self-references from the same sample at the single-cell level and they are

subsequently guided to bin metagenomic contigs for genome reconstruction. SIGMA

enabled us to obtain the highest qualities in draft genomes, both in the mock and

human microbiota samples, by assigning metagenomic sequences in correct bins, as
well as by filling the gap in highly common sequences, such as rRNA genes, and
linking the host with extrachromosomal elements, such as plasmids. The integration of
metagenomics and single-cell genomics has been used to improve genome recovery
from environmental bacteria. It was previously reported that metagenomic reads can
be used to fill in gaps in SAGs[19], or that SAGs can be used as scaffolds for MAGs[20].
However, the number of constructed genomes was limited, and no tool has been
developed to comprehensively obtain multispecies genomes at once, which is mostly
due to the lack of technology that provides good quality SAGs as binning guides. In
SIGMA, the qualities of SAGs obtained by our SAG-gel technology[22] were sufficiently
high to prevent false-positive contigs in supervised contig identification. In addition,
merging of SAGs with the metagenomic bin aided recovery of rRNA and tRNA
sequences, which were frequently lacking in the MAGs obtained by conventional
binners. This advantage overcomes the incompleteness of phylogenetic information
contained in conventional metagenomic bins, suggesting that this technology can be
used to move forward from conventional microbial profiling using 16S rRNA gene
amplicon sequencing to metabolic function analysis referring to novel genomes.
One of the challenges of SIGMA is the difficulty in obtaining genome sequences
beyond the number of SAGs acquired in advance. To obtain comprehensive genomes
from samples of high microbial diversity or to obtain genomes of rare microbes, it is
necessary to obtain a large number of SAGs or to selectively obtain SAGs of the
desired taxa. In this study, we recruited the SAGs with the completeness >20% to
produce CoSAG with the completeness >50%. To improve the genome number, the
approaches are considered to accumulate massive LQ SAGs with low sequencing
efforts to produce nrSAG which covers a broad microbial spectrum, or target single-cell
genome sequencing with species enrichment techniques[17,31,32]. Another issue with
SIGMA is that it only allows allocation to a single sgBin per contig for binning using
nrSAG as a guide. Under this binning condition, if there are multiple bacterial strains
with extremely similar sequences, the assignment of MA contig to sgBin may not be
fulfilled in any of the strain genomes. Nonetheless, the implementation of contig
assignment to multiple sgBin requires careful consideration owing to the complexity of
the computational process and the possibility of producing interspecies aggregate
sequences. We recommend using mgSAG, where the completeness of the SAG itself
is increased and used as primary data, and the metagenome is used as supplementary
information. This procedure allows us to obtain strain-resolved genomes and observe
differences among strains, taking advantage of the resolution of SAGs.

SIGMA has the ability to control the SAG integration level by adjusting
parameters. It is possible to construct representative sequences for each taxonomy
rank by appropriately setting single copy marker gene homology, ANI, and
tetranucleotide frequency, which are parameters used for SAG integration to CoSAG.
These SAGs can be utilized as reference genome sequences against which resulting
MAGs are checked for harboring interspecies aggregate sequences. Verification of the
reliability of MAGs is critical because composite genomes that aggregate sequences
from several different populations can provide misleading insights when treated and
reported as a single genome. By using SIGMA, if biological samples that are the
source of metagenomic data are properly stored and new single-cell data can be
obtained, we will be able to increase the accuracy of acquired data curation and MAG
by obtaining new single-cell genomes. Besides, SIGMA can subdivide genomes of
individual strains, even for species that cannot be divided into strain levels by
metagenomic bins. Single-cell based strain-resolved genome analysis will contribute to
our understanding of intraspecies diversity and distribution of non-chromosomal
elements[29,33–35].

In conclusion, SIGMA can integrate SAG and MAG to reconstruct qualified
microbial genomes and control their binning resolution based on the numbers and
classification of SAGs.   Since it can provide reliable HQ genomes from a variety of
microbial communities, it will represent a powerful tool to support microbial research
that requires reference genome expansion and strain-resolved analysis toward
understanding microbial association to the host or environment. Thus, SIGMA is highly
scalable and can be applied to reuse previously acquired metagenomics data and
single-cell genomics tools to be developed.
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Methods
Experimental design and sample collection.
Studies with human subjects were approved by the School of Science and
Engineering at Waseda University (No. 2018-323 and No. 2019-381). The subjects
gave their written informed consent prior to sample collection. Fresh feces were
collected by subjects in 15 mL vials containing 3 mL GuSCN solution (TechnoSuruga
Laboratory Co., Ltd,) and stored for 2 d maximum, prior to DNA extraction and single-
cell encapsulation in droplets.
Skin bacterial samples were collected and placed in Dulbecco's phosphate-
buffered saline (DPBS) by swabbing the surface of facial skin using sterile cotton
applicators (Nissui Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd) pre-moistened with DPBS by subjects and

were stored at room temperature for 2 d maximum, prior to DNA extraction and single-
cell genome amplification.

The mock microbial community (Cell-Mock-001) was obtained from the National
Institute of Technology and Evaluation Biological Resource Center, Japan. This mock
microbial community was composed of 15 bacterial strains detected in various
environments (intestinal, oral, skin, and natural environment) as follows: *Bacteroides*
uniformis, Bifidobacterium pseudocatenulatum, Clostridium clostridioforme,
Cutibacterium acnes subsp. *acnes, Escherichia coli* K-12*, Parabacteroides distasonis,*
Staphylococcus epidermidis, Streptococcus mutans, Acinetobacter radioresistance,
Comamonas terrigenous, Bacillus subtilis subsp. *subtilis, Clostridium butyricum,*
Corynebacterium striatum, Lactobacillus delbrueckii subsp. *delbrueckii,* and
Pseudomonas putida.

Single-cell genome sequencing with SAG-gel.
Single-cell genome sequencing was performed with single-cell whole genome
amplification (WGA) using the SAG-gel platform according to our previous
reports[22,26]. Following homogenization of human feces in GuSCN solution (500 µL),
the supernatant was recovered by centrifugation at 2000 ×*g* for 30 s, followed by
filtration through 35-µm nylon mesh and centrifugation at 8,000 ×*g* for 5 min. The
resulting cell pellets were suspended in PBS, washed twice at 8,000 ×*g* for 5 min. Skin
swab samples in DPBS were processed in the same manner except for
homogenization.

Prior to single-cell encapsulation, cell suspensions were adjusted to 0.1
cells/droplets in 1.5% agarose in PBS to prevent encapsulation of multiple cells in
single droplets. Using the droplet generator (On-chip Biotechnologies Co., Ltd.), single
microbial cells were encapsulated in droplets and collected in a 1.5-mL tube, which
was chilled on ice for 15 min to form the gel matrix. Following solidification, collected
droplets were broken with 1H,1H,2H,2H-perfluoro-1-octanol (Sigma-Aldrich) to collect
beads. Thereafter, the gel beads were washed with 500 µL acetone (Sigma-Aldrich),
and the solution was mixed vigorously and centrifuged. The acetone supernatant was
removed, 500 µL isopropanol (Sigma-Aldrich) was added, and the solution was mixed
vigorously and centrifuged. The isopropanol supernatant was removed, and the gel
beads were washed three times with 500 µL DPBS.

Thereafter, individual cells in beads were lysed by submerging the gel beads in
lysis solutions: first, 50 U/µL Ready-Lyse Lysozyme Solution (Epicentre), 2 U/mL
Zymolyase (Zymo research), 22 U/mL lysostaphin (MERCK), and 250 U/mL

mutanolysin (MERCK) in DPBS at 37 °C overnight; second, 0.5 mg/mL

achromopeptidase (FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals) in PBS at 37 °C for 8 h; and third, 1

mg/mL Proteinase K (Promega) with 0.5% SDS in PBS at 40 °C overnight. At each

reagent replacement step, the gel beads were washed three times with DPBS and

subsequently resuspended in the next solution. Following lysis, gel beads were

washed with DPBS five times and the supernatant was removed. Then, the beads

were suspended in Buffer D2 and subjected to multiple displacement amplification

(MDA) using a REPLI-g Single Cell Kit (QIAGEN).

Following WGA at 30 °C for 2 h and 65 °C for 3 min, gel beads were washed three

times with 500 µL DPBS. Thereafter, beads were stained with 1× SYBR Green

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) in DPBS. Following confirmation of DNA amplification by the

presence of green fluorescence in the gel, fluorescence-positive beads were sorted

into 0.8 µL DPBS in 96-well plates using a FACSMelody cell sorter (BD Bioscience)

equipped with a 488-nm excitation laser. Following droplet sorting, 96-well plates

proceeded to the second round of WGA or were stored at −30 °C.

Following gel bead collection in 96-well plates, second-round MDA was

performed with the REPLI-g Single Cell Kit. Buffer D2 (0.6 µL) was added to each well

and incubated at 65 °C for 10 min. Thereafter, 8.6 µL of MDA mixture was added and

incubated at 30 °C for 120 min. The MDA reaction was terminated by heating at 65 °C

for 3 min. Following second-round amplification, master library plates of SAGs were

prepared. For quality control, aliquots of SAGs were transferred to replica plates for

DNA yield quantification using a Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity Assay Kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific). For sequencing analysis, sequencing SAG libraries were prepared

from the second-round MDA product using QIAseq FX DNA Library Kit (QIAGEN).

Ligation adaptors were modified to TruSeq™–Compatible Full-length Adapters UDI

(Integrated DNA Technologies). Each SAG library was sequenced using an Illumina

HiSeq 2 × 150 bp configuration (Macrogen).

16S rDNA sequencing.

To confirm amplification from single-cell genomes and to identify the taxonomy

from the mock community sample, 16S rRNA gene fragments V3–V4 were amplified

with 341F and 806R primers (Forward, 5′-

TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3′;

reverse, 5′-

GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC

-3′) and sequenced by Sanger sequencing from SAGs obtained by SAG-gel. Following

taxonomy identification with BLAST, every two to four species for mock communities
were selected for whole-genome sequencing.
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Metagenome sequencing.
Total DNA was extracted from mock samples according to the International
Human Microbiota Standard protocol Q[36]. The DNeasy Power Soil Pro Kit (QIAGEN)
was used for total DNA extraction from fecal and skin swab samples. Metagenomic
sequencing libraries were constructed from extracted DNA samples with 10-µL (1/5
volume) reactions of the QIAseq FX DNA Library Kit. Each metagenomic sequencing
library was sequenced using an Illumina HiSeq 2 × 150 bp configuration (Macrogen).
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Pre-processing and assembly of single-cell genomic and metagenomic sequence
reads
SRs and MRs were individually processed for eliminating LQ reads by using
fastp 0.20.1[37] with default options. SRs were assembled *de novo* using SPAdes 3.14.0
(options for SAG: --sc --careful --disable-rr --disable-gzip-output -t 4 -m 32), and contigs
<1000 bp were excluded from subsequent analyses[38]. The MRs were assembled into
contigs *de novo* using SPAdes 3.14.0 (options: --meta, -t 12, -m 96).
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Grouping of the same strain SAGs into CoSAG
SAGs with the completeness >10% in the mock community, 20% in the human
microbiota sample, and contamination of <10% were selected with CheckM[39]. ANI was
calculated for selected SAGs using fastANI 1.3[40]. The homology of common single-
copy marker genes obtained using CheckM v1.1.2 taxonomy workflow (option: -nt --
tab_table -t 16 domain Bacteria) was calculated by blastn 2.9.0+ with the default
option. SAGs with ANI >95%, single-copy marker gene homology >99%, and tetra-
nucleotide frequencies correlation >90% were identified in the same strain group. SRs
from one SAG were mapped to other SAGs in the same group using MINIMAP2 2.17
(options: -ax sr)[41]. According to the ccSAG procedure[18], potential chimeras that
partially aligned were split into aligned and unaligned fragments. The short fragments
(<20 bp) were discarded. Clean and chimera-removed reads were obtained using
cycles of cross-reference mapping and chimera splitting for each sample in the same
group. Quality controlled reads from the same group were co-assembled *de novo* as
CoSAG using SPAdes (options: --sc --careful --disable-rr --disable-gzip-output -t 4 -m
32).
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SAG-guided binning of metagenome contigs

The MAs were individually mapped against the strain-specific nrSAG contig using BWA 0.7.17 with the default option[42]. MA contigs that showed >99% identity (>200bp) to nrSAG contigs were extracted to construct sgBins by assignment based on nrSAG taxa.

Merging of nrSAG and sgBin

For the two sets of assemblies, nrSAG and sgBin, CheckM was performed to measure their completeness, and the assembly with higher completeness was defined as the master and that with lower completeness as the slave. Slave assemblies were processed using SeqKit [43], and contigs <10000 bp were removed. Master and slave assemblies were merged using HaploMerger2_20180603[44] to create sgMAGs or mgSAGs. Thereafter, MAGs were reconstructed by using the DAS-tool from MAs that were unclassified as sgBin.

Conventional MAG binning

For comparison of MAG quality, multiple binning of metagenomic contigs were conducted with conventional binners including CONCOCT 1.0.0[10], MaxBin 2 2.2.6[12], and MetaBAT 2 2.12.1[11] with default options. To refine the binning results obtained using these three different methods, DAS_Tool 1.1.2[13] was used with default options.

Gene prediction, taxonomy identification, and plasmid detection

CDS, rRNAs, and tRNAs were extracted from all SAGs or MAGs by Prokka 1.14.6[45] (option: --rawproduct --mincontiglen 200). 16S and 23S rRNA genes with lengths ≥700 and 1100 bp, respectively, were detected. Taxonomy identification was performed using GTDB-Tk 1.3.0[46] with the default option, using the Release95 database. PlasClass[47] was used for detecting plasmids.

Quality assessment of draft genomes from the mock community

In the mock community sample analysis, ANIs of each draft genome (sgMAG and mgSAG) for the closest reference genome were calculated with fastANI 1.3. The closest taxa with ≥ 99.5% ANI was assigned to each draft genome. The quality of all obtained SAGs and MAGs were evaluated using QUAST v.5.0.2 (default option)[48], ChcekM v1.1.2 lineage workflow (option: --nt --tab_table -t 16), and identification of 5S, 16S, and 23S rRNA. To assess the accuracy of procured draft genomes in mock community samples, draft genomes were individually mapped to the

corresponding taxa reference genome using MINIMAP2 2.17 with default options. The

mapping results were converted to the pileup textual format using samtools 1.9[49], and

the genomic coverage L for the reference genome was calculated using the following

equation.

$$L_i = length(A_i \cap G_g), where\ g = \arg\max_{j \in G}\{ANI(A_i, G_j)\}$$

where A_i represents the ith draft genome. G and G_j represent the set of reference

genomes and the jth reference genome of the set, respectively. G_g represents the

corresponding reference genome against A_i. When the reference genome is G_g and the

draft genome is A_i, precision (P), recall(R), and F value (F_1 score) of the reference

genome were calculated using the following equations.

$$P_i = \frac{L_i}{length(A_i)}$$

$$R_i = \frac{L_i}{length(G_g)}$$

$$F_1 score_i = 2\frac{P_i R_i}{P_i + R_i}$$

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KA, HT, and MH conceived and designed the experiments. KA, KI, MK, and MH
developed SIGMA. TS, TY, TE, and AM conducted genomics experiments and
collected the data. KA and KI conducted bioinformatic analysis of the metagenomic
data and single-cell genomic data. KA and MH wrote the manuscript. All authors read
and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

MH and HT are shareholders in bitBiome, Inc., which provides single-cell genomics
service using SAG-gel workflow as bit-MAP. MH is a founder of bitBiome, Inc. KA, TS,
TY, TE, and AM are employed at bitBiome, Inc. KA, KI, MK, HT, and MH are inventors
on patent applications submitted by bitBiome, Inc. covering the technique for
integration of metagenome and single-cell genome data.

Figures

Fig. 1 Overview of single-cell genome-guided binning of metagenomic assemblies

(SIGMA) workflow. Single-cell sequencing reads (SRs) and metagenomic sequencing reads

(MRs) are obtained from the same microbial community. (1) *De novo* assembly of each SR to a

single-cell amplified genome (SAG). (2) SAGs of the same strain are identified into the group

and co-assembled into composite SAG (CoSAG). (3) *De novo* assembly of MRs to

metagenome-assembled contigs (MAs). (4) MA is classified to single-cell genome-guided bin

(sgBin) by mapping MA on non-redundant SAG (nrSAG). (5) Paired nrSAGs and sgBins are

merged to single-cell genome-guided MAG (sgMAG) or metagenome-guided SAG (mgSAG).

(6) Unbinned contigs in MA are extracted and subsequently (7) re-binned and refined by

conventional metagenomic binning and refinement tools. (8) Four types of draft genomes (SAG,

sgMAG, mgSAG, and MAG) are finally acquired.

Fig. 2 Precision of single-cell-guided binning of metagenome assembly from a mock

microbial community of 15 bacteria.

(a) Total length of contigs incorrectly binned to different species and unbinned metagenome

assembled contigs (MAs). (b) Correlation between completeness of non-redundant single-cell

amplified genomes (nrSAGs) and total length of contigs unbinned to the target single-cell

genome-guided bin (sgBin). (c) The plots of F1 scores, precision, and recall of all reported bins

(center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, minimum or maximum

values between upper and lower quartiles that are extended 1.5 times the interquartile region).

Individual values are represented as dots.

Fig. 3 Assembly quality metrics of single-cell-guided metagenome-assembled genome

(sgMAG) and metagenome-guided single-cell amplified genome (mgSAG) obtained by

merging non-redundant single-cell amplified genomes (nrSAGs) and single-cell genome-

guided bins (sgBins). All data were collected from a mock community containing 15 bacteria,

three human fecal samples, and three human skin swab samples. (a) Scatter plot of

completeness of nrSAGs versus sgBins corresponding to all medium-quality (MQ) and high-

quality (HQ) sgMAGs and mgSAGs. (b) Relationship between N50s of nrSAG and of sgMAG or

mgSAG. Numbers of rRNA genes (c) and tRNA genes (d) in draft genomes produced in SIGMA

workflow (center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, minimum or

maximum values between upper and lower quartiles that are extended 1.5 times the

interquartile region, Wilcoxon rank sum test ***: p <0.001).

Fig. 4 Draft genomes reconstructed from the cell mock community and human microbiota samples with SIGMA and other binners. All data were collected from a mock community containing 15 bacteria, three human fecal samples, and three human skin swab samples. (a) The number of reconstructed genomes per method. Human gut and skin data show medium-quality (MQ) and high-quality (HQ) genomes only. Number of rRNA genes (b) and tRNA genes (c) in draft genomes produced with SIGMA and other tools (center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, minimum or maximum values between upper and lower quartiles that are extended 1.5 times the interquartile region).

Fig. 5 Diversity of draft genomes reconstructed by SIGMA.

(a) Fraction of metagenomic reads against draft genomes constructed by each binner. SIGMA

shows a fraction of metagenomic reads against four types of draft genomes. The number of

draft genomes acquired from (b) human gut and (c) human skin are collapsed by genus

assigned with GTDB-Tk.

Fig. 6 Strain-resolved genome analysis of human skin microbes for host-plasmid linking

assignment and detection of interspecies chimeric sequences.

(a) Mean pairwise genomic similarities between *Staphylococcus hominis* draft genomes

obtained with SIGMA (SIGMA-A and SIGMA-B), and other binners. (b) The scatter plot shows

the length of plasmid contigs assigned to SIGMA-A and SIGMA-B. Different plot symbols show

contigs obtained with different binners. (c) Interspecies chimeric sequence detection by

alignment of *S. hominis* MAGs derived with conventional binners, and *S. hominis* SIGMA-A and

S. hominis SIGMA-B. The outermost circles show draft genomes and the inner circles show the

result of mapping individual SAGs, which belong to the same genus of *Staphylococcus*, to the

draft genome. *S. hominis* SIGMA-A SAG: Light blue, *S. hominis* SIGMA-B SAG: Blue,

Staphylococcus epidermidis SAG: Yellow.