Amplicon Sequencing of Single-copy Protein-coding Genes Reveals Accurate Diversity for Sequence-discrete Microbiome Populations

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11 ABSTRACT An in-depth understanding of microbial function and the division of ecological niches 12 requires accurate delineation and identification of microbes at a fine taxonomic resolution. 13 Microbial phylotypes are typically defined using a 97% small subunit (16S) rRNA threshold. 14 However, increasing evidence has demonstrated the ubiquitous presence of taxonomic units of 15 distinct functions within phylotypes. These so-called sequence-discrete populations (SDPs) have 16 used to be mainly delineated by disjunct sequence similarity at the whole-genome level. However, 17 gene markers that could accurately identify and quantify SDPs are lacking in microbial community 18 studies. Here we developed a pipeline to screen single-copy protein-coding genes that could 19 accurately characterize SDP diversity via amplicon sequencing of microbial communities. Fifteen 20 candidate marker genes were evaluated using three criteria (extent of sequence divergence, 21 phylogenetic accuracy, and conservation of primer regions) and the selected genes were subject to 22 test the efficiency in differentiating SDPs within Gilliamella, a core honeybee gut microbial 23 phylotype, as a proof-of-concept. The results showed that the 16S V4 region failed to report 24 accurate SDP diversities due to low taxonomic resolution and changing copy numbers. In contrast, 25 the single-copy genes recommended by our pipeline were able to successfully quantify Gilliamella 26 SDPs for both mock samples and honeybee guts, with results highly consistent with those of 27 metagenomics. The pipeline developed in this study is expected to identify single-copy protein 28 coding genes capable of accurately quantifying diverse bacterial communities at the SDP level.

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30 **IMPORTANCE** Microbial communities can be distinguished by discrete genetic and ecological characteristics. These sequence-discrete populations are foundational for investigating the 31 32 composition and functional structures of microbial communities at high resolution. In this study, we 33 screened for reliable single-copy protein-coding marker genes to identify sequence-discrete 34 populations through our pipeline. Using marker gene amplicon sequencing, we could accurately and 35 efficiently delineate the population diversity in microbial communities. These results suggest that 36 single copy protein-coding genes can be an accurate, quantitative and economical alternative for 37 characterizing population diversity. Moreover, the feasibility of a gene as marker for any bacterial 38 population identification can be quickly evaluated by the pipeline proposed here.

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40 **KEYWORDS** microbiota, SDP, quantification, 16S, metagenomics, *Gilliamella*

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42 **INTRODUCTION**

Accurate identification of distinct functional units in natural bacterial communities is crucial in understanding their ecological roles, interactions within the network, as well as the fine-scale composition and dynamic changes within the whole community. As a rule of thumb, a bacterial phylotype is often defined by grouping strains that share a sequence identify greater than 97% for a

47 selected fragment of the small subunit (16S) rRNA gene [1]. However, increasing evidence has 48 indicated that a bacterial phylotype may contain multiple finer lineages, each showing distinct 49 biological traits. For example, closely related enterotoxigenic Escherichia coli (ETEC) isolates form discrete lineages with consistently definable variations in virulence profiles [2]. Such intra-50 51 phylotype lineages could be delineated based on divergence in genomic sequences and phylogenetic 52 inferences. These finer subdivisions of phylotypes are called sequence-discrete populations (SDPs), 53 which typified by genetic and genealogical discontinuity from the rest of the community, and are 54 delineated by overall sequence divergence at the whole-genome level [3-5]. A broad comparison of 90,000 bacterial genomic sequences, with a close examination of pairwise genomic similarities in 55 56 natural bacterial communities, has proved the pervasive discontinuity in genetic similarity below 57 and above SDPs [3]. Bacteria in the same SDP normally show less than ca. 5% variation in whole-58 genome sequences. This genetic divergence is much less than those among strains of the same 59 phylotype (ca. 30%) [6]. With respect to habitats, specific SDPs are likely ubiquitous in various 60 environments, such as human and animal guts [5, 7, 8], freshwater [9], ocean [10] and soil [11]. 61 Therefore, SDPs are probably better than phylotypes, as taxonomic units that represent functional 62 entities in bacterial communities, which are likely shaped by ecological pressure and evolutionary selection. As such, SDPs are important units of microbial diversity and should be considered as 63 64 baseline information for investing crucial questions, such as how do bacterial populations interact 65 and evolve within communities [4].

Despite the essential nature of accurate SDP identification, a rapid and accurate method that can 66 67 trace SDP boundaries is still lacking, especially with regards to the selection of proper markers for evaluating sequence divergence. It is obvious that genetic divergence among bacterial strains is 68 69 dependent on which genes are compared. We now understand that the commonly used 16S gene 70 cannot generally provide sufficient resolution to characterize SDP diversity [12, 13]. For example, in cases where the SDPs show a \sim 5-10% genome-wide divergence, they varied mostly merely < 0.1% 71 72 in the 16S sequences [14]. Moreover, the copy number of the 16S gene may vary significantly 73 among phylotypes or even among strains of the same phylotype, making quantitative 74 characterization of bacterial community a challenging, if not impossible, task [15, 16]. The 16S was 75 selected for phylotype delineation years ago because it has conserved primer sites that flank 76 relatively variable regions that made it easy to sequence with Sanger technology. Currently, much 77 effort has been put into developing genes or gene segments that can be easily sequenced, and that 78 vary enough to serve as practical proxies for SDP delineation [17-19]. However, a systematic 79 evaluation of the validity and performance of such genes in SDP delineation, which includes the 80 rapidly increasing but heterogeneously sampled database, has not been carried out.

Fortunately, recent developments in microbial genomics show a promising solution to 81 82 complement the coverage of bacterial genomes. The number of sequenced genomes of various 83 bacterial lineages has been growing rapidly. For example, the Genomes OnLine Database (GOLD) now contains 437,099 bacterial genomes, the majority of which (397,945) are uncultured, 84 representing host-associated, environmental and engineered ecosystems [20]. The ever-growing 85 86 bacterial genome dataset offers a great opportunity to screen phylogenetically informative genes that show good performance in taxonomic delineation, including those capable of quantitatively 87 charactering bacterial communities at the SDP level [21, 22]. For instance, Wu and colleagues 88 89 identified 114 PhyEco universal markers for all bacteria [23]. From these universal markers, 15 90 single-copy protein-coding genes were successfully applied in estimating species abundances using 91 shotgun metagenomic data [24]. On the other hand, growing numbers of genomes and 92 metagenomes produced for particular bacterial communities or taxonomic groups allow for

93 comprehensive characterization of SDP diversity within focal environments and bacterial groups.

94 Taking social bee gut microbiota as an example, diverse strains derived from major honeybee hosts

have been isolated and deep-sequenced [25], including well-covered SDPs of nearly all core gut bacterial phylotypes [5, 26, 27]. Thus, the relatively complete genome dataset provides a genome-

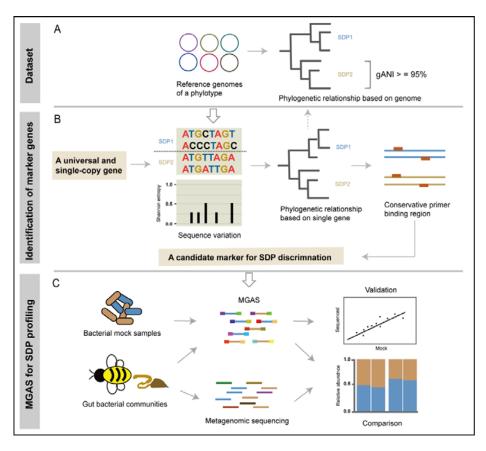
97 wide-based gold standard for defining SDPs for the honeybee core bacteria.

98 In the present study, we developed a pipeline to screen potential marker genes capable of 99 accurate identification and quantification of SDP diversity. We used the core bacterial phylotype 100 Gilliamella derived from the eastern honeybee Apis cerana as a proof of concept, and delineated 101 Gilliamella SDPs based on a set of comprehensive genome sequences. We further screened 15 102 single-copy protein-coding genes, which are present in all bacteria, to identify candidate marker 103 genes capable of differentiating the defined Gilliamella SDPs. Important characteristics such as the 104 level of sequence divergence, phylogenetic robustness, and the presence of conservative primer 105 regions, are considered in marker gene screening. Finally, we applied the candidate markers in 106 amplicon sequencing of both bacterial mock samples and real honeybee guts to verify their 107 efficiency in SDP profiling (Fig. 1). The markers we identified could accurately, consistently and 108 quantitatively capture SDP diversity.

109

110 **RESULTS**

111 A comprehensive genome reference database for honeybee gut bacteria. A comprehensive 112 genome reference database was constructed for honeybee gut bacteria (Table S1). A total of 242 113 genomes were included, covering 103 isolates from A. cerana and 139 from A. mellifera. SDPs 114 were identified for the core gut bacterial phylotypes using these reference genomes. SDPs differed 115 between honeybee species, which is consistent with previous studies [27, 28]. Within A. cerana 116 phylotypes, 5 SDPs were identified for *Gilliamella* (Gillia, n=65), 2 for *Bifidobacterium* (Bifido, 117 n=9), 1 for Lactobacillus Firm5 (Firm5, n=6), 1 for Apibacter (Apib, n=16) and 2 for Snodgrassella (Snod, n=7). Within A. mellifera phylotypes, 6 SDPs were identified for Gillia (n=65), 9 for Bifido 118 119 (n=19), 2 for Lactobacillus Firm4 (Firm4, n=2), 6 for Firm5 (n=18) and 2 for Snod (n=35) (Table 120 S1). These SDPs delineated by genomes were used as references for subsequent taxonomic 121 assignments for the 16S, marker gene, or metagenome-based SDP identifications. 122



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FIG 1 Screening marker genes suitable for SDP discrimination and quantification. (A) SDPs are identified for gut bacterial phylotypes based on phylogenetic relationships and genome-wide pairwise average nucleotide identities (gANI). (B) A candidate marker gene for SDP discrimination is selected from a set of universal and single-copy genes based on sequence variation, phylogenetic relationship and well-conserved regions for primer design. (C) The performance of marker gene amplicon sequencing (MGAS) on SDP identification and quantification is validated and compared as characterized using the mock samples and gut gut communities.

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132 Single-copy marker genes showed higher sequence variations at the SDP level than the 133 16S gene. Sufficient sequence variation is crucial for high resolution discrimination of bacterial 134 SDPs. Here we compared the average Shannon entropy (ASE) between the whole-16S and the 15 135 single-copy marker genes. Our results clearly showed that the marker genes had much higher ASEs 136 at both phylotype and SDP levels compared to those of the 16S (Fig. 2A). The regional difference 137 in the variation levels between 16S and selected marker genes was also compared along the full gene length. A slide-window (20 bp) ASE analysis showed that although several spikes of variable 138 139 regions were identified along the 16S gene, with the highest variable region corresponded to part of the classic V3 region, its regional ASEs were generally lower compared to marker genes, e.g., NusA, 140 141 PTH and frr (Fig. 2B; Fig. S1).

Because phylogenetic placement of the query sequence is a critical step in our SDP identification method, each marker gene will need to first produce a "correct" phylogeny for the phylotype in question. Therefore, we further examined whether each of the 15 marker genes could produce the same SDP phylogeny as inferred from whole-genome sequences of *Gilliamella*. Here, the tree based on all 65 *A. cerana Gilliamella* genomes was used as the gold standard. The results showed that all 15 marker genes but *rnhB* reconstructed the SDP phylogeny, with all strains assigned to corresponding SDPs (Fig. S2). On the *rnhB* gene tree, two *Gilliamella* genomes were

149 misplaced from SDP Acer_Gillia_4 to Acer_Gillia_2, which was likely due to a higher sequence 150 similarity between these two SDPs at a value of $90.93\% \pm 0.18$ SD comparing to that between other

151 SDPs (79.98% \pm 1.89 SD). Therefore, *rnhB* was subsequently excluded from further screening.

152 For the 14 remaining marker genes, we further explored for regions that were suitable for 153 amplicon sequencing, based on the presence of conserved primer regions flanking the hyper-154 variable region. The *RimM* gene lacked hyper variable regions across the full gene length (Fig. S1), 155 while some other genes (murB, RecR, miaA, RbfA, RibF, RuvA, RsfS and YebY) did not demonstrate 156 promising conserved regions for primer design. These genes were then excluded from the candidate 157 gene pool. The 5 remaining candidates (frr, NusA, PTH, truB and smpB) all had a hyper-variable 158 region of ~200-550 bp that was flanked by conservative primer regions. Among them, frr, NusA 159 and PTH produced an amplicon of ~200 bp (Fig. 2B), which could be thoroughly sequenced with 160 most current shotgun sequencing methods (e.g., PE100 or PE150). These 3 genes were then chosen 161 for the final test for their performance in SDP discrimination in both identity and quantity, using 162 Gilliamella mock samples and real honeybee guts.

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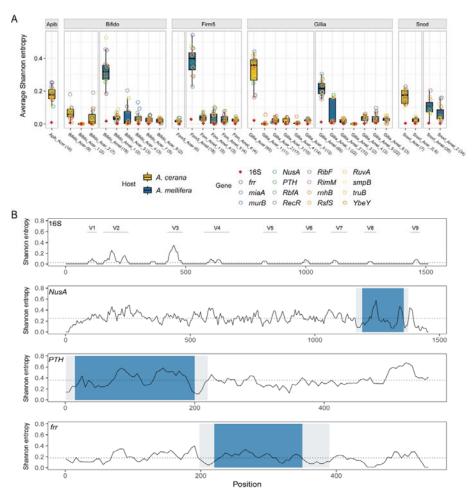


FIG 2 Marker genes are highly variable among SDPs. (A) Average Shannon entropy of the 15 marker genes and the 16S gene at both phylotype and SDP levels of honey bee gut bacteria. Numbers in brackets for each of the SDP groups indicate the number of strains examined for that specific group. (B) The Shannon entropy across 16S and candidate marker genes of all *A. cerana Gilliamella*. The Shannon entropy value is subsequently averaged by a 20-bp slide-window at a 5-bp step. Gray shadows depict conserved regions optimal for primer-binding sites and blue shadows are considered as hypervariable regions in this study. Dash lines represent the mean Shannon

171 entropy values cross all sequences. Gray lines depict the classic variable regions of the 16S gene. Apib: Apibacter;

172 Bifido: Bifidobacterium; Firm5: Lactobacillus Firm5; Gillia: Gilliamella; Snod: Snodgrassella alvi.

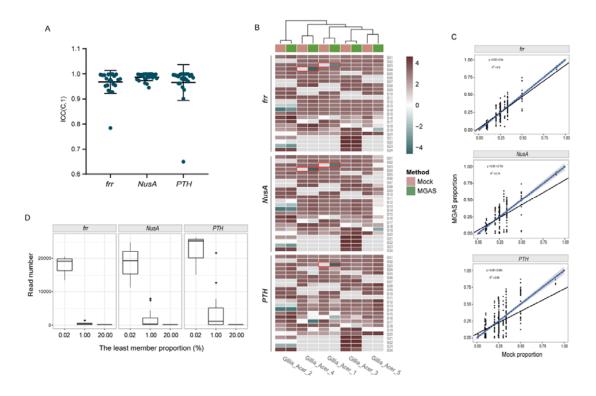
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Marker gene amplicon sequencing (MGAS) showed high accuracy, sensitivity and repeatability in SDP profiling of mock samples. Mock samples contained varied proportions of the representative strain cultures of the 5 *Gilliamella* SDPs. These samples were extracted for DNA and amplified for the hyper-variable regions of the 3 candidate marker genes (*frr*, *NusA* and *PTH*). Twenty-four barcoded amplicons were pooled and shotgun sequenced for ca. 1 Gb data (ca. 2.5 million reads). Each mock sample was sequenced three times. An average of 73,462, 86,467 and 113,498 reads per sample was generated for *frr*, *NusA* and *PTH*, respectively.

181 The results of MGAS showed a high level of repeatability across the three replicates, where the 182 average ICC(C,1) > 0.9, except for *PTH*, which had an ICC(C,1) of 0.752 among samples with 183 equal proportion of bacterial DNA (Fig. 3A; Fig. S4C). With regards to detection accuracy, MGAS 184 correctly detected all bacterial members present in 22/24 samples, while two samples (S03 and S04) showed false positive results, which was probably derived from sample contamination or 185 186 sequencing error (Fig. 3B). Because the sensitivity of amplicon sequencing was affected by 187 sequencing depth, we calculated the minimum read numbers required to detect members at low abundances, using rarefaction curves (Fig. S5). The results suggested that strains with a relative 188 189 abundance of 1% could be detected by a minimum of ca. 1,123, 2,953 and 5,034 reads for frr, NusA 190 and PTH (equivalent to 0.49, 1.29 and 2.44 Mb data per sample), respectively. Accordingly, lower 191 abundance would require deeper sequencing. At a relative abundance of 0.02%, approximately 192 17,778, 18,518 and 22,222 reads (7.75, 8.07 and 10.76 Mb data) were required for frr, NusA and 193 PTH, respectively (Fig. 3D; Fig. S5). The sequencing depth was generally sufficient for SDP 194 detection in our study. Among the 216 sequenced samples, only two samples were sequenced with only 963 (frr) and 2,348 (PTH) reads, respectively, and failed in identifying corresponding SDP 195 196 members at the lowest proportions (1% and 0.1%, respectively) due to insufficient sequencing 197 depth.

198 In addition to accurately identify Gilliamella SDPs, all three marker genes performed well in 199 quantifying relative abundances for mock samples. The relative abundances revealed by amplicon 200 reads were highly congruent with corresponding mock proportions in bacterial mock samples, with the average \mathbb{R}^2 values of 0.91, 0.74 and 0.66 for frr, NusA and PTH, respectively (p < 2.2e-16, Fig. 201 3C). The DNA mock samples yielded similar results, with the average R^2 values of 0.99, 0.91 and 202 0.99, for frr, NusA and PTH, respectively (Fig. S4B). Taken together, the MGAS method showed 203 204 high levels of accuracy, sensitivity and repeatability in characterizing SDP compositions, in both 205 taxonomic identity and relative abundance.

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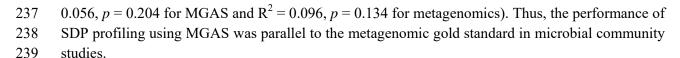


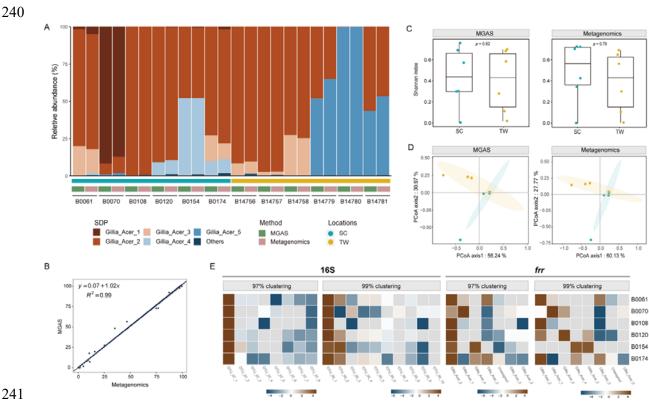


209 FIG 3 MGAS accurately identifies A. cerana Gilliamella SDPs. (A) Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of 210 relative abundance among the three replicates of MGAS samples. The ICC is calculated using the two-way mixed 211 effects model with consistency (C) as the relationship among replicates, and single (1) result as the unit of 212 measurement, i.e., ICC(C, 1). (B) Relative SDP abundances in mock samples revealed by marker gene sequencing. 213 The results shown in the heatmap are the logarithms of the relative abundances of the five representative strains of 214 the five SDPs of A. cerana Gilliamella. Grey box indicates a relative abundance at zero. False positive results are 215 framed in red. (C) Spearman correlation of SDP abundances in A. cerana Gilliamella communities revealed by 216 sequencing against mock samples. $p \leq 2.2e-16$. The black line presents the linear regression of the MGAS results 217 against SDP abundances in mock samples. The blue solid and gray dashed lines represent a 1:1 line and the fitted 218 exponential regression (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade), respectively. (D) Minimum read 219 numbers required for detecting members at low abundances.

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221 MGAS performed equally well as metagenomics in characterizing honeybee gut SDP 222 diversity. To examine the performance of the MGAS method in characterizing honeybee gut 223 microbiota, we used frr (Fig. 4) and PTH (Fig. S6) genes to calculate Gilliamella SDP diversities 224 for the 12 A. cerana workers from Sichuan and Taiwan, China. The MGAS was able to assign strains to the correct SDP at accurate abundance for real gut samples, with results were highly 225 congruent with those from metagenomic sequencing (with $R^2 = 0.99$ for frr and 0.97 for PTH, p < 226 227 2.2e-16, Fig. 4B; Fig. S6B). Both results revealed that most individual bees were dominated by two 228 or three Gilliamella SDPs, yet with significant variations in dominant members and compositions 229 among individuals and across geographical locations (Fig. 4A). Gillia Acer 2 was the dominant 230 SDP in most of the sequenced bees, which was found in 11 out of the 12 samples, with 10 bearing 231 relative abundances of 48.06 - 98.37% (Fig. 4A). Both methods showed congruent results in alpha 232 diversity (p = 0.82 and 0.79 for MGAS and metagenomics sequencing, respectively, Wilcoxon 233 rank-sum test, Fig. 4C). At the beta diversity level, the principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based 234 on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity revealed that the gut bacterial communities from bees of Sichuan and Taiwan formed two distinct clusters, which separated along the first axis (Fig. 4D). This result was 235 again consistent between the MGAS and metagenomic methods (Adonis PERMANOVA, $R^2 =$ 236





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243 FIG 4 MGAS shows high congruence to metagenomic sequencing at SDP-level analysis. (A) Relative 244 abundances of Gilliamella SDPs revealed by MGAS (frr) and metagenomics sequencing of A. cerana gut 245 communities. (B) Spearman correlation coefficient between MGAS and metagenomics results, with $R^2 = 0.99$, $p < 10^{-10}$ 246 2.2e-16. The black line presents the linear regression of the MGAS results in SDP abundances against those of 247 metagenomics. The blue solid and gray dashed lines represent a 1: 1 line and the fitted exponential regression 248 (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade), respectively. (C) Shannon diversity index of SDP 249 frequencies for bee guts from two locations calculated by MGAS (left panel) and metagenomic sequencing (right 250 panel). The two methods showed no significant difference, with the p-value of 0.70 and 0.82 in SC and TW, 251 respectively, by Wilcoxon rank-sum test. (D) Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based on Bray-Curtis 252 dissimilarity of SDP compositions of honey bee workers from Sichuan and Taiwan using MGAS (left panel, 253 Adonis PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.056$, p = 0.204) and metagenomic sequencing (right panel, Adonis 254 PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.096$, p = 0.134). Each point represents the value for an individual bee and the color 255 represent the location (Sichuan or Taiwan) of each bee. The shaded ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals on 256 the ordination. (E) Relative abundances of Gilliamella OTUs in the gut microbiota of A. cerana assigned by 257 clustering at 97% or 99% thresholds for 16S V4 and frr. The result shown in the heatmap are the logarithms of the 258 relative abundances of the OTUs or five SDPs. Individual bees are marked to right of each row. Grey box 259 indicates a relative abundance at zero.

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The 16S V4 region was also used to determine the *Gilliamella* SDP compositions for the 6 bee gut samples from Sichuan. We applied operational taxonomic unit (OTU) clustering based on sequence similarity at 97% and 99% identity thresholds, which are commonly adopted for surveying phylotype and intra-phylotype microbial diversities, respectively [12, 29], to assess the efficacy of 16S in SDP profiling. 16S amplicon sequencing resulted in 8 and 10 OTUs at 97% and 99% thresholds, respectively, with a frequency cut off at > 100. The identified OTU numbers

267 differed from those of the MGAS results at the same sequence similarity thresholds (Fig. 4E). 268 Alarmingly, 16S amplicons failed to assign OTUs to the correct SDPs via blast. And the relative 269 OTU proportions revealed by 16S disagreed with those from MGAS, where the numbers of 270 dominant OTUs (> 1%) revealed by MGAS were more congruent to those from metagenomics. The 271 improved performance with the MGAS method in characterizing SDP diversity is likely due to 272 greater sequence divergence of the marker genes. For instance, the average pairwise inter-SDPs 273 sequence similarity in the frr hyper-variable region was significantly lower (90.92% \pm 3.18, n = 65) 274 than that of the 16S rRNA gene V4 region (99.95% \pm 0.65, n = 44) (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, p < 275 2e-16).

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277 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

278 We developed a pipeline to identify reliable marker genes for accurate identification and 279 quantification of SDPs from bacterial communities. Three important criteria were applied in the 280 assessment: the extent of sequence divergence, phylogenetic accuracy, and the presence of flanking 281 conservative primer regions. Single-copy protein-coding genes identified by our pipeline were 282 applied as marker genes in SDP quantification of honeybee gut microbiota, successfully producing 283 results consistent with those from metagenomics, which were used as the gold standard. Conversely, 284 we showed that the widely used 16S contained limited sequence divergence within phylotypes, 285 failing to provide sufficient resolution in differentiating SDPs. As a result, 16S V4 amplicon 286 sequencing cannot reflect fine scale bacterial diversity for the community. Consequently, dominant 287 OTUs delineated by 16S at 97% or 99% thresholds significantly differed from the defined SDPs. 288 On the other hand, the OTUs of single-copy protein-coding genes screened out by our pipeline were 289 successfully assigned to the correct SDPs, and the numbers of dominant OTUs showed more 290 congruent results to those from metagenomics.

291 Compared with whole-genome shotgun sequencing, amplicon sequencing of single-copy 292 protein-coding genes provides an alternative solution to characterize SDP diversity in an accurate, 293 quantitative and economical way. We address that not every single copy protein-coding gene is 294 efficacious in SDP quantification. The candidate gene must meet all three criteria integrated in our 295 pipeline to be a good marker gene. For a phylotype that is well represented by genomes of various 296 lineages, all single-copy genes, including protein-coding genes, can be evaluated by our pipeline. In 297 this case, we expect dozens to hundreds of proper marker genes to be filtered out. On the other hand, 298 a small set of core single-copy protein-copy genes that are determined to be universally present 299 among known bacteria, such as the 15 marker genes tested in this study, will likely provide 300 candidate genes suitable for accurate characterization of SDP diversity for less known bacterial taxa. 301 Accurate identification of the SDP composition will also facilitate the prediction of the 302 functional capacity of microbial communities. Functional attributes of a given bacterial lineage are 303 strongly correlated to its phylogenetic position [30]. Therefore, various approaches, e.g., PICRUTs 304 [31], have been developed to predict potential functions of a given microbial community based on 305 phylogenetic profiles of bacterial members. However, 16S sequences are employed in most current 306 programs for phylogenetic reconstruction. As demonstrated in this study, single-copy protein-307 coding genes identified by our pipeline show better fidelity in revealing phylogenetic relationships 308 for the focal phylotype. Therefore, we anticipate that function prediction for microbial communities 309 will be further improved by integrating single-copy protein-coding genes and the screening pipeline 310 described here.

311

312 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genome references of core gut bacteria of honeybees. A total of 242 bacterial genomes associated with *A. mellifera* and *A. cerana* were downloaded from the NCBI genome database (Table S1). These 242 genomes were used as the reference database of honeybee gut bacteria, which comprised the 6 major phylotypes: *Apibacter* (n=16), *Bifidobacterium* (n=28), *Lactobacillus* Firm4 (n=2), *Lactobacillus* Firm5 (n=24), *Gilliamella* (n=130) and *Snodgrassella* (n=42).

318 SDP delineation for honeybee core phylotypes. Protein-coding genes of all sequenced 319 genomes were annotated using Prokka (https://github.com/tseemann/prokka) [32]. Core genes, 320 which were defined as being shared by > 99% strains of a given phylotype, were identified using Roary (version 3.13.0) [33] with the parameter -blastp 75. Multiple sequence alignments were 321 322 v7.467, https://github.com/The-Bioinformaticscarried out using MAFFT (version 323 Group/Albiorix/wiki/mafft) [34]. Phylogenetic trees were constructed using core single-copy genes 324 of each phylotype by RAxML (version 8.2.12, -x 12345 -N 1000 -p 12345 -f a -m GTRGAMMA) 325 [35]. Phylogenies were visualized in R (version 3.6.0) using the package ggtree v2.4.1 [36] or 326 iTOL (version 6.1.1) [37]. Pairwise genome-wide average nucleotide identity (gANI) values were 327 calculated using pyani (version 0.2.10; https://github.com/widdowquinn/pyani) [38]. A clade with a 328 $gANI \ge 95\%$ from its closest clade was defined as an SDP.

329 Screening for candidate marker genes capable of discriminating Gilliamella SDPs. The 330 fifteen universal single-copy maker genes (frr, NusA, PTH, RbfA, RecR, rnhB, RibF, RimM, RsfS, 331 RuvA, smpB, truB, miaA, murB and YebY, listed in Table S2) [24] were evaluated as candidate 332 genes. The sequences of candidate marker genes were retrieved by MIDAS (version 1.3.2) [24], 333 whereas the 16S genes were retrieved from the reference genomes using an in-house script. The 334 average Shannon entropy (ASE) of the full gene length was used to assess sequence variation 335 between strains of inter- and intra-SDPs for all phylotypes, where the Shannon entropy for each 336 nucleotide site across genomes in comparison was calculated using oligotyping (version 2.1) [39].

The phylotype *Gilliamella*, which contains the most genomes available for this study, was used as a proof of concept to examine the efficacy of marker genes in SDP differentiation. For each SDPs in phylotype *Gilliamella*, the Shannon entropy values were subsequently averaged for each 20-bp slide-window with a 5-bp step to evaluate the regional genetic divergence along the full length of the marker genes. Pairwise sequence similarities were determined by Clustal Omega [40].

342 From the candidate genes, potential marker genes that may efficiently distinguish all known 343 SDPs of the Gilliamella phylotype were screened. The following criteria were followed: 1) the 344 marker genes should contain conservative regions flanking the hyper-variable region for designing 345 primers enabling recovery target phylotype; 2) the amplicon length is between ~150-550 bps; 3) the 346 amplified region is sufficiently variable to allow the discrimination of SDPs; and 4) the primers are 347 specific to the focal phylotype to avoid off-target amplifications. The aforementioned 15 marker 348 genes were subject to these criteria, and 5 of them (ffr, NusA, PTH, truB and smpB) were selected as 349 potential markers for identifying SDPs of A. cerana Gilliamella. Among these, three genes (ffr, 350 NusA and PTH) were subjected to further testing as a proof of concept, because their amplicon 351 lengths were 206, 206 and 230 bp, respectively, which were ideal for current shotgun sequencing 352 platforms. To increase the throughput and cost efficiency, 24 amplicons were pooled for one 353 sequencing run. The 5' end of both forward and reverse primers were tagged with 6-bp unique 354 barcode sequences (see Table S3) to distinguish positive and negative DNA strains, and to 355 differentiate samples.

Bacterial mock samples. One representative strain from each of the five *Gilliamella* SDPs associated with *A. cerana* was cultured at 35°C and 5% CO₂ for 48 h, on heart infusion agar (HIA)

358 medium containing 5% sheep's blood [41]. To screen potential contaminations, the full-length 16S 359 gene was amplified for each bacterial culture using universal primers 27F and 1492R [41] and was 360 subject to Sanger sequencing. 16S sequences were checked against those of the reference strains for 361 identification, before strains were mixed for mock samples. Each Gilliamella culture was adjusted 362 to OD600 = 0.5. Twenty-four mock SDP communities were prepared by mixing up 2-5 of the 363 representative strains at varied proportions. The compositions of the mock samples were set as: 364 equal proportion of each of the five strains, equal proportion of four strains with the absence of one 365 strain at a time, equal proportion of three strains with the absence of two randomly selected strains, and a series of varied compositions with relative abundances ranging from ca. 0.02% to 50%. DNA 366 367 of the bacterial mixtures were extracted using a CTAB-based DNA extraction protocol followed by 368 recovery in 10 mM Tris-EDTA buffer (1×TE, pH 7.4) and quantified using the Qubit® DNA Assay Kit on a Qubit® 3.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, CA, USA). Alternatively, genomic DNA of 369 370 each of the five representative strain cultures was extracted separately and the mixed at varied 371 compositions and proportions (see Table S4).

372 SDP identification and quantification for mock samples using amplicon sequencing of the 373 amplification three marker genes. PCR was performed for frr (frr-F 5' 374 GCTGAAGATGCAAGAAC and frr-R 5' GCATCACGACGAATATT), NusA (NusA-F 5' 375 CTTGAAATTGAAGAACT and NusA-R 5' GTACCTTGTTCAGCTAA), and PTH (PTH-F 5' 376 AAACTTATTGTAGG and PTH-R 5' CCACTTAAATTCATAAA) for each mock sample with 377 three replicates. Triplicate 50-µl reactions were carried out with 25 µl of 2 \times Phanta Max Master 378 Mix (Vazyme Biotech, Nanjing, China), 2 µl (each) of 10 µM primer, 19 µl of ddH₂O, and 2 µl of 379 template DNA. The thermocycling profile consisted of an initial 3-min denaturation at 95 °C, 35 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C, 15 s at 52 °C for NusA and frr or at 42 °C for PTH, and 20 s at 72 °C and a 380 381 final 10-min extension step at 72 °C. After being visualized on 2% agarose gels, DNA was purified 382 using a gel extraction kit (Qiagen, Germany) and quantified using the Qubit® DNA Assay Kit on a Qubit® 3.0 Fluorometer. Barcoded amplicons of up to 24 mock samples were pooled together and 383 384 subject to Illumina sequencing using a NovaSeq 6000 platform (PCR-free library, 150 PE) at 385 Novogene (Beijing, China). Approximately 1 Gb of raw data were obtained from each pooled 386 library (Table S5).

387 The program fastq-multx (version 1.3.1. https://github.com/brwnj/fastq-multx) was employed 388 to demultiplex sequencing reads based on barcode sequences. The 6-bp barcodes in reverse 389 sequences were trimmed using Seqtk (https://github.com/lh3/seqtk). The demultiplexed paired-end 390 reads were then analyzed in QIIME2 (version 2020.2. https://qiime2.org) [42]. A plugin DATA2 391 [43] was used to denoise reads and to group sequences into amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). 392 Individual ASVs were then taxonomically classified using blast (classify-consensus-blast) at a 97% 393 identity threshold (Fig. S3) against the 3 marker genes (ffr, NusA and PTH) derived from the 394 customized bee gut bacterial dataset. The relative abundance of each SDP (RA_{SDP}) was calculated 395 as: $RA_{SDP} = (NR_{SDP}) / (NR_{Gillia})*100$, where NR_{SDP} represents the number of reads mapped to the 396 focal SDP and NR_{Gillia} represents the number of reads mapped to all Gilliamella SDPs. These 397 estimated abundances were then compared to those of the mock samples. The performance of SDP 398 profiling of the 3 marker genes was evaluated on the basis of accuracy, sensitivity and repeatability. 399 Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) with a two way random/mixed (ICC(C,1)) model was used 400 to assess the repeatability of this method using SPSS (version 20.1) [44].

401 Rarefaction curves were plotted using identified SDP numbers against read numbers, which 402 were used to infer the minimum read number required to detect strains at varied proportions. For 403 each sample, ASVs with a depth <100 were filtered out. Rarefaction was performed using QIIME2

with the plugin alpha-rarefaction and a sampling depth of 40,000 reads per sample and default
parameters. Minimum read numbers for identifying SDPs with relative abundances of 0.02%, 1%
and 20% were chosen manually.

407 **SDP identification and quantification for** *A. cerana* **gut microbiota using 16S, marker** 408 **genes, and metagenome sequencing.** Adult worker bees collected in Sichuan were used to 409 quantify *Gilliamella* SDP diversity using three different methods (16S V4 region amplicon 410 sequencing, MGAS and metagenomic sequencing). Bees were first cooled at 4 °C for 10 min. Then 411 the entire guts were dissected from the abdomen using sterile forceps and DNA was extracted using 412 a CTAB bead-beating protocol described previously [45].

Firstly, the 16S V4 region was amplified for six bee guts from Sichuan and sequenced using an
Illumina Hiseq X Ten platform (250-300 bp insert size, 250 PE) at BGI-Shenzhen (Shenzhen,
China). Raw reads obtained for each sample were summarized in Table S6. Data quality control
was performed using fastp (version 0.13.1, -q 20 -u 10 -w 16) [46]. The demultiplexed sequences

417 were denoised and grouped into ASVs using an open reference method VSEARCH [47] embedded

418 in QIIME 2. The taxonomic identification for ASVs was subsequently performed using the naive-

419 Bayesian classifier trained on the BGM-Db, a curated 16S reference database for the classification

420 of honeybee and bumblebee gut bacteria [48]. A feature table and ASVs consisting of filtered 16S

reads pertaining to *Gilliamella* was constructed. OTU clustering was performed at both 97% and 99%
identity thresholds, respectively, using VSEARCH with cluster-features-de-novo method.
Additionally, low-abundant OTUs comprising of <100 reads were removed. Taxonomic

425 Additionary, low-abundant OTOS comprising of <100 reads were removed. Taxonomic
 424 assignments for OTUs were performed using blast against the BGM-Db with SDP-level taxonomy.
 425 OTU composition heatmaps were generated based on relative abundances and visualized in R.

Secondly, for each sample, the marker genes *frr* and *PTH*, which demonstrated the best and worst performances in accuracy and sensitivity, respectively, among the 3 marker genes, were applied following the same pipeline used in the mock samples. ASVs of the six sample from Sichuan were clustered into OTUs and filtered following the abovementioned 16S V4 pipeline. Taxonomic assignments for OTUs were performed by blast against *frr* sequences derived from the customized bee gut bacterial genome sequence database.

432 Finally, metagenome sequencing of four bee (B0108, B0120, B0154 and B0174) guts was 433 performed using an Illumina Hiseq X Ten platform (300-400 bp insert size, 150 PE) at BGI-434 Shenzhen. Additional metagenomes of eight worker bee guts (BioProject PRJNA705951) were 435 download from NCBI (Table S6). The metagenome sequencing was used as the gold standard for 436 Gilliamella diversity distributed in the honeybee guts. Shotgun reads mapped to the A. cerana 437 genome (GCF 001442555.1) using BWA aln (version 0.7.16a-r1181, -n 1) [49] were identified as 438 host reads and subsequently excluded. We used the 'run midas.py species' script in MIDAS with 439 default parameters to estimate the relative abundances of SDPs for each sample. Finally, the results 440 from MGAS were compared to those from metagenome sequencing to assess the performance of 441 the marker genes.

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- 442

443 been submitted to NCBI under BioProject PRJNA772085.

444

445 SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

446 FIG S1 The Shannon entropy across the remain marker genes of all A. cerana Gilliamella. The

Data availability. Raw data from MGAS, 16S V4 amplicon and metagenomic sequencing have

447 Shannon entropy value is subsequently averaged by a 20-bp slide-window at a 5-bp step. Dash lines

448 represent the mean Shannon entropy values cross all sequences.

FIG S2 All but *rnhB* of the 15 marker genes produce five SDPs for *A. cerana Gilliamella* phylotype in concert with the whole-genome result.

- 451 FIG S3 Histograms of average nucleotide identity values of the 3 marker genes from comparisons
- 452 between strains belonging to the same SDPs (green) or different SDPs (red). Vertical black line 453 indicates the threshold for bacterial SDPs taxonomy for the present method.
- 454 FIG S4 MGAS accurately identifies the A. cerana Gilliamella SDPs in DNA mock samples. (A)
- 455 Relative SDP abundances in mock samples revealed by MGAS. The results shown in the heatmap
- are the logarithms of the relative abundances percentage of the five representative strains of the five
- 457 SDPs of A. cerana Gilliamella. Grey box indicates a relative abundance at zero. (B) Spearman
- 458 correlation of SDP abundances in *A. cerana Gillimella* communities revealed by sequencing against
- 459 mock samples, p < 2.2e-16. The black line presents the linear regression of the MGAS results 460 against SDP abundances in mock samples. The blue solid and grav dashed lines represent a 1: 1 line
- against SDP abundances in mock samples. The blue solid and gray dashed lines represent a 1: 1 line and the fitted exponential regression (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade),
- 462 respectively. (C) Repeatability of relative abundance between replicates of DNA mock samples. n =
- 463 6, ICC(C,1) is 0.936, 0.974 and 0.752 for *frr*, *NusA* and *PTH* genes, respectively.
- 464 **FIG S5** Rarefaction curves of detected bacterial SDPs in bacterial mock samples reach the 465 saturation stage with increasing read numbers.
- 466 FIG S6 Amplicon sequencing with the PTH gene showed high congruence to metagenomic
- 467 sequencing at SDP-level analyses. (A) Relative abundances of Gilliamella SDPs revealed by

468 MGAS (PTH gene) and metagenomics sequencing of A. cerana gut communities. (B) Spearman

- 469 correlation coefficient between MGAS and metagenomics results, with $R^2 = 0.97$, p < 2.2e-16. The
- 470 black line presents the linear regression of the MGAS results in SDP abundances against those of
- 471 metagenomics. The blue solid and gray dashed lines represent a 1: 1 line and the fitted exponential
- 472 regression (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade), respectively.
- 473 **TABLE S1** Information of the reference genomes.
- 474 **TABLE S2** Information of the marker genes.
- 475 **TABLE S3** List of barcode sequences.
- 476 **TABLE S4** Mixing ratio of mock samples.
- 477 **TABLE S5** Statistics of data outputs.
- 478 TABLE S6 Summary of read processing and data obtained from marker gene, 16S V4 amplicon
- 479 and metagenomic sequencing of honey bee guts.
- 480

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485 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

486 Xin Z. and Xue Z. designed, organized and coordinated the study. C.Y. conducted the screening 487 pipeline development, marker gene and 16S V4 amplicon sequencing analysis. Q.S. retrieved the 488 sequences of the 16S and single-copy protein-coding genes, and conducted reference-based 489 metagenome mapping. M.T. assisted in sequence variation analysis. S.L. conducted sample 490 collection and SDP identification. Xin Z., Xue Z., C.Y. and Hao Z. wrote the first drafts and all 491 authors contributed to and proofed the manuscript.

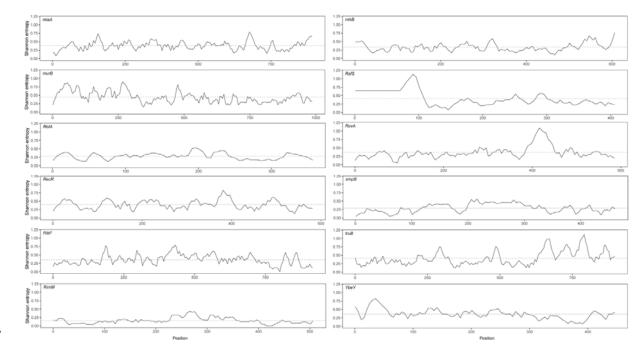
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639 FIG S1 The Shannon entropy across the remain marker genes of all A. cerana Gilliamella. The Shannon entropy

value is subsequently averaged by a 20-bp slide-window at a 5-bp step. Dash lines represent the mean Shannonentropy values cross all sequences.

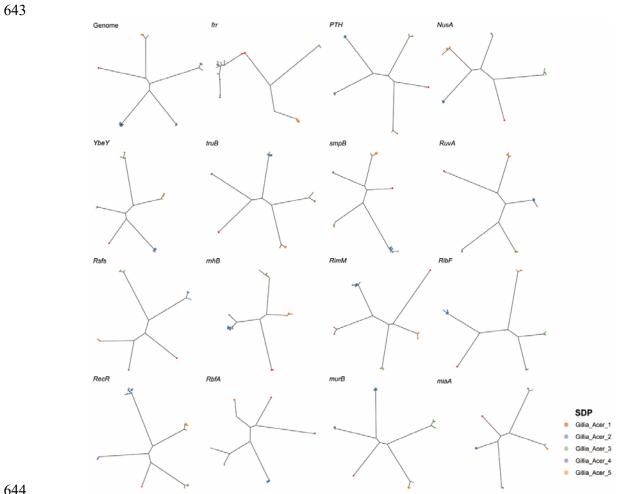
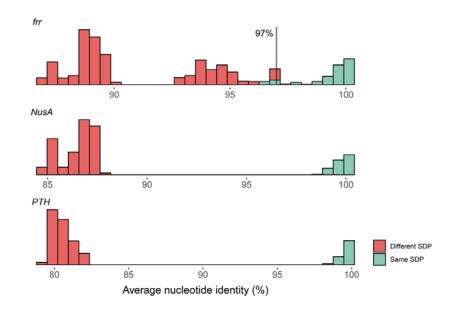


FIG S2 All but rnhB of the 15 marker genes produce five SDPs for A. cerana Gilliamella phylotype in concert

with the whole-genome result.



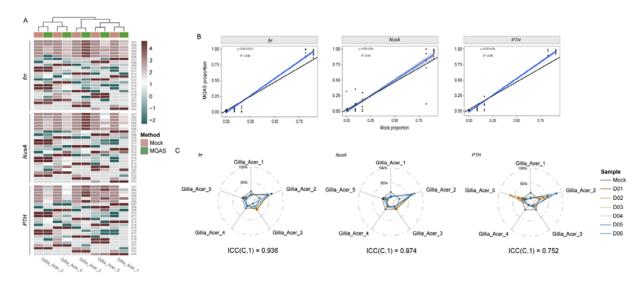
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651 FIG S3 Histograms of average nucleotide identity values of the 3 marker genes from comparisons between strains

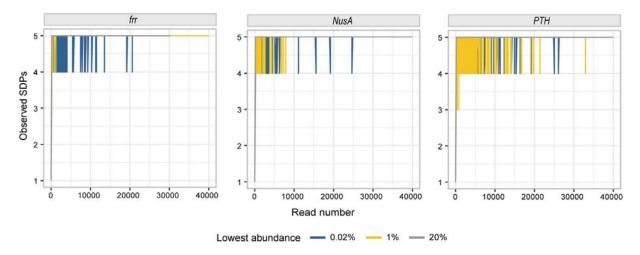
belonging to the same SDPs (green) or different SDPs (red). Vertical black line indicates the threshold forbacterial SDPs taxonomy for the present method.







658 FIG S4 MGAS accurately identifies the A. cerana Gilliamella SDPs in DNA mock samples. (A) Relative SDP 659 abundances in mock samples revealed by MGAS. The results shown in the heatmap are the logarithms of the 660 relative abundances percentage of the five representative strains of the five SDPs of A. cerana Gilliamella. Grey 661 box indicates a relative abundance at zero. (B) Spearman correlation of SDP abundances in A. cerana Gillimella 662 communities revealed by sequencing against mock samples, p < 2.2e-16. The black line presents the linear 663 regression of the MGAS results against SDP abundances in mock samples. The blue solid and gray dashed lines 664 represent a 1:1 line and the fitted exponential regression (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade), 665 respectively. (C) Repeatability of relative abundance between replicates of DNA mock samples. n = 6, ICC(C,1) 666 is 0.936, 0.974 and 0.752 for frr, NusA and PTH genes, respectively.



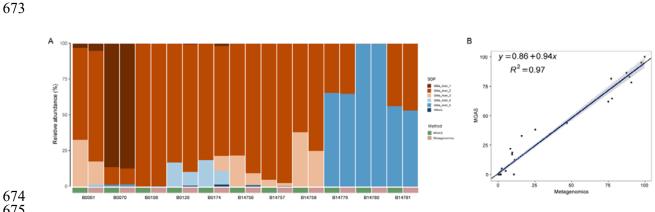
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670 FIG S5 Rarefaction curves of detected bacterial SDPs in bacterial mock samples reach the saturation stage with

671 increasing read numbers.

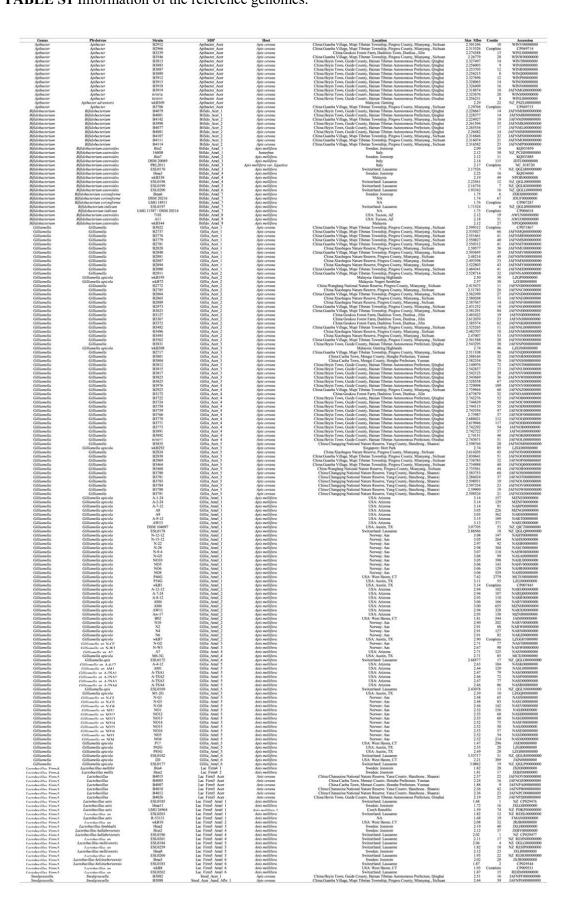
bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.10.22.465537; this version posted October 23, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.





676 FIG S6 Amplicon sequencing with the PTH gene showed high congruence to metagenomic sequencing at SDP-677 level analyses. (A) Relative abundances of Gilliamella SDPs revealed by MGAS (PTH gene) and metagenomics 678 sequencing of A. cerana gut communities. (B) Spearman correlation coefficient between MGAS and metagenomics results, with $R^2 = 0.97$, p < 2.2e-16. The black line presents the linear regression of the MGAS 679 680 results in SDP abundances against those of metagenomics. The blue solid and gray dashed lines represent a 1: 1 681 line and the fitted exponential regression (with 95 % confidence interval shown in gray shade), respectively.

683 **TABLE S1** Information of the reference genomes.



685 (Continued Table S1)

Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella	B3800	Snod Acer Aand Aflo 1	Apis cerana	China:Caoba Town, Mengzi County, Honghe Prefecture, Yunnan	2.23	21	JAFNPH00000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella	B3837	Snod Acer Aand Aflo 1	Apis cerana	China:Changqing National Nature Reserve, Yang County, Hanzhong, Shaanxi	2.04	33	JAFNP100000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	wkB237A	Snod Acer Aand Aflo 1	Apis and reniformis	Singapore: Hort Park	2.32	21	MEIM00000000
Snodgrassella	Snoderassella alvi	wkB273	Snod Acer Aand Aflo 1	Apis florea	Sinaasore: Clementi Park	2.32	31	MEIL00000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	wkB298B	Snod Acer Aand Aflo 1	Apis cenana	Singapore: Hort Park	2.34	42	MEIK00000000
Snodprassella	Snodgrassella alvi	002	Snod Amel 1	Anis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	1.60	259	JAIL00000000
Snodprassella	Snoderassella abri	A-10-12	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	63	NAGY01000000
Snoderassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A11	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.43	122	NAGZ00000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A-11-12	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	90	NAHA00000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A-1-12	Stood Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	58	NAHR00000000
Snoderassella	Snoterassella alvi	A12	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.40	214	NAGX00000000
Snoderassella	Snoderassella alvi	A2	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.43	84	NAHC01000000
Snoderassella	Snoderassella alvi	A-2-12	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	75	NAHD0100000
Snodgrassella	Snoderassella alvi	A3	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.43	109	NAHE01000000
Snoderassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A5	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.43	120	NAHE01000000
Snoderassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A-5-24	Snod Amel 2	Anix mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.49	172	NAHG01000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	A-9-24	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	62	NAHH0100000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	Aw-18	Snod Amel 2	Apix melliferu	USA: Arizona	2.50	88	NAGW0100000
Snoderassella	Snoderassella abri	Aw-20	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.50	65	MVDP0100000
Snoderassella	Snodgrassella alvi	EL	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Arizona	2.39	381	NXEN0000000
Snodgrassella	Snoderassella alvi	ESL0196	Snod Amel 2	Anix mellifera	Switzerland: Lausanne	2.45	15	OGL\$0000000
Snodgrassella	Snoterassella abd	121	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	2.33	456	AV01.0000000
Snoderamella	Snoderassella alvi	MS1-3	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: Austin, TX	2.50	93	MFIX0000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella abri	N-23	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	128	NAH00000000
Snoderassella	Snodgrassella alvi	N9	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.40	129	NAHK01000000
Snodgrassella	Snoterassella alvi	N-51	Snot Amel 2	Ania mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	98	NAHL0000000
Snoterassella	Snoderassella alvi	N-52	Snod Amel 2	Ania mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	73	NAHM01000000
Snoterassella	Snoderassella alvi	N-54	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	38	NAH00000000
Snotgrassella	Snoderassella alvi	N-55	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	77	NAHP0000000
Snoderassella	Snoderassella alvi	N-W4	Snod Amel 2	Anix mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	75	NAH0100000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	N-W7	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.42	62	NAH0100000
Snodgrassella	Snotgrazzella alvi	011	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	1.37	401	1AIK00000000
Snodgrassella	Snoterassella abi	P14	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	1.31	385	1ACG0000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	PEB0171	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	2.52	77	MED/0000000
Snodgrassella	Snoterassella abri	PEB0178	Snod Amel 2	Anis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	2.52	135	METW0000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	wkB2	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	USA: Austin, TX	2.53	Complete	CP007446
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	N-S3	Snot Amel 2	Anis mellifera	Norway: Aas	2.46	Composise 79	NAJIN0000000
Snodgrassella	Snotgrassella alvi	wkB332	Stod_Amel_2 Stod_Amel_2	Apis mellifera	Malavsia: Genting Highlands	2.49	30	MEL100000000
Snodgrassella	Snodgrassella alvi	wkB339	Snod Amel 2	Apis mellifera	Malaysia: Genting Fightands	2.50	27	ME100000000
Snodgrassella	Snotgrassella alvi	wk89	Stod_Amel_2 Stod_Amel_2	Apis metafera Apis mellifera	USA: West Haven, CT	2.50	15	MEIN0000000

PhyEco marker	Gene	Length/bp
B000079	frr	558
B000041	NusA	1,476
B000103	PTH	642
B000063	RbfA	378
B000080	RecR	606
B000039	rnhB	627
B000096	RibF	939
B000086	RimM	531
B000062	RsfS	315
B000071	RuvA	609
B000065	smpB	483
B000032	<i>truB</i>	921
B000082	miaA	912
B000114	murB	1,011
B000081	YebY	468

 TABLE S2 Information of the marker genes.

Barcode NO.	Forward seq (5'to 3')	Reverse seq (5'to 3')
B01	ATCACG	ACTGAT
B02	CGATGT	ATGAGC
B03	TTAGGC	ATTCCT
B04	TGACCA	CAAAAG
B05	ACAGTG	CAACTA
B06	GCCAAT	CACCGG
B07	CAGATC	CACGAT
B08	ACTTGA	CACTCA
B09	GATCAG	CAGGCG
B10	TAGCTT	CATGGC
B11	GGCTAC	CATTTT
B12	CTTGTA	CCAACA
B13	AGTCAA	CGGAAT
B14	AGTTCC	CTAGCT
B15	ATGTCA	CTATAC
B16	CCGTCC	CTCAGA
B17	GTAGAG	GACGAC
B18	GTCCGC	TAATCG
B19	GTGAAA	TACAGC
B20	GTGGCC	TATAAT
B21	GTTTCG	TCATTC
B22	CGTACG	TCCCGA
B23	GAGTGG	TCGAAG
B24	GGTAGC	TCGGCA

TABLE S3 List of barcode sequences.

SampleID	B2776	B2889	lixing rati B3801	B3172	B3788	Barcode NO.
S01	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B01
S02	25.00	25.00	0.00	25.00	25.00	B02
S03	0.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	B03
S04	25.00	0.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	B04
S05	25.00	25.00	25.00	0.00	25.00	B05
S06	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	0.00	B06
S07	33.33	33.33	0.00	33.33	0.00	B07
S08	0.00	33.33	0.00	33.33	33.33	B08
S09	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	33.33	B09
S10	33.33	0.00	33.33	0.00	33.33	B10
S11	33.33	33.33	33.33	0.00	0.00	B11
S12	24.39	24.39	2.44	24.39	24.39	B12
S13	24.94	24.94	0.25	24.94	24.94	B13
S14	24.99	24.99	0.02	24.99	24.99	B14
S15	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B15
S16	1.00	9.00	50.00	10.00	30.00	B16
S17	50.00	1.00	30.00	9.00	10.00	B17
S18	30.00	50.00	10.00	1.00	9.00	B18
S19	10.00	30.00	9.00	50.00	1.00	B19
S20	9.00	10.00	1.00	30.00	50.00	B20
S21	0.00	0.00	10.00	90.00	0.00	B21
S22	0.00	0.00	1.00	99.00	0.00	B22
S23	0.00	0.00	0.10	99.90	0.00	B23
S24	0.00	0.00	50.00	50.00	0.00	B24
D01	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B01
D02	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B02
D03	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B03
D04	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B04
D05	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B05
D06	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	B06
D07	90.00	9.00	0.90	0.09	0.01	B07
D08	9.00	0.90	0.09	0.01	90.00	B08
D09	0.90	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	B09
D10	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	B10
D11	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	B11
D12	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	0.09	B12
D13	90.00	9.00	0.90	0.09	0.01	B13
D14	9.00	0.90	0.09	0.01	90.00	B14
D15	0.90	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	B15
D16	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	B16
D17	0.09	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	B17

TABLE S4 Mixing ratio of mock samples.

(Continued	Table S4)					
D18	0.01	90.00	9.00	0.90	0.09	B18
D19	0.00	0.00	1.64	16.39	81.97	B19
D20	0.00	0.00	1.64	16.39	81.97	B20
D21	0.00	1.64	16.39	81.97	0.00	B21
D22	1.64	16.39	81.97	0.00	0.00	B22
D23	16.39	81.97	0.00	0.00	1.64	B23
D24	81.97	0.00	0.00	1.64	16.39	B24

Note: B2776, B2889, B3801, B3172 and B3788 are the representative strain of Acer_Giliia_1 to Acer_Giliia_5, respectively.

LibraryID	Raw reads	Clean reads	Raw base/G	Clean base/G	Effective rate/%	Q20/%	Q30/%	GC content/%
f1S01-f1S24	2,910,358	2,904,839	0.87	0.87	99.81	98.96	96.8	42.92
f2S01-f2S24	4,370,025	4,362,026	1.31	1.31	99.82	98.99	96.88	42.85
f3S01-f3S24	3,971,727	3,966,181	1.19	1.19	99.86	98.34	94.65	42.84
N1S01-N1S24	3,101,708	3,097,334	0.93	0.93	99.86	98.83	96.33	38.67
N2S01-N2S24	3,455,304	3,451,312	1.04	1.04	99.88	97.96	93.59	38.66
N3S01-N3S24	2,893,355	2,889,594	0.87	0.87	99.87	97.8	93.25	38.64
P1S01-P1S24	5,446,708	5,439,697	1.63	1.63	99.87	99.1	96.48	36.74
P2S01-P2S24	2,698,030	2,694,490	0.81	0.81	99.87	98.97	96.29	36.88
P3S01-P3S24	3,377,356	3,371,139	1.01	1.01	99.82	97.95	93.16	37.08
fD01-fD24	3,599,515	3,595,846	1.08	1.08	99.9	98.41	95.28	42.44
ND01-ND24	4,399,592	4,393,529	1.32	1.32	99.86	98.42	95.02	38.73
PD01-PD24	3,387,737	3,380,942	1.02	1.01	99.8	98.53	95.13	36.64
fB0061-fB14781	5,441,182	5,434,806	1.63	1.63	99.88	99.24	97.36	42.25
PB0061-PB14781	3,591,409	3,587,252	1.08	1.08	99.88	98.8	95.75	36.55

TABLE S5 Statistics of data outputs.

Note: 1. f1 - f3, N1 - N3 and P1 - P3 represent the three replicates for *frr*, *NusA* and *PTH* gene sequencing, and S01 - S24 are mock samples with different ratio of mixing bacterial cells shown in Table S4.

2. f, N and P represent the *frr*, *NusA* and *PTH* gene sequencing, and D01 - D24 are mock sample with different ratio of mixing bacterial DNA shown in Table S4.

3. f and P represent the frr and PTH gene sequencing, and BXXXX present Apis cerana gut sample

Gut ID		Raw	PE reads		J	oined and	<i>Gilliamella</i> reads			
_	16S	frr	PTH	Meta	16S	frr	PTH	Meta	16S	Meta
B0061	84,584	358,851	65,424	33,687,518	82,760	311,842	60,964	5,159,739	25,700	3,185
B0070	85,169	253,390	94,393	37,685,288	83,491	223,179	91,436	5,909,974	47,892	7,661
B0108	83,908	349,570	123,368	45,115,102	82,132	344,248	121,018	4,242,595	39,424	2,189
B0120	85,368	389,432	29,023	34,543,934	83,267	262,273	28,277	4,523,366	22,741	815
B0154	83,691	289,878	-	34,969,488	81,143	226,310	-	4,622,933	26,346	1,086
B0174	84,281	361,728	75,882	38,471,836	81,979	287,357	68,222	6,058,633	18,258	243
B14756	-	224,748	118,334	21,491,068	-	194,850	114,236	4,622,933	-	17,472
B14757	-	354,956	158,879	22,959,909	-	328,188	156,087	4,622,933	-	5,546
B14758	-	277,823	165,638	24,408,709	-	224,100	160,741	9,658,926	-	4,182
B14779	-	342,928	151,481	23,802,654	-	285,197	146,421	7,922,065	-	8,133
B14780	-	301,064	48,088	23,495,452	-	272,069	47,247	7,123,654	-	3,064
B14781	-	291,415	71,187	22,381,871	-	237,037	68,190	9,626,197	-	3,686

TABLE S6 Summary of read processing and data obtained from marker gene, 16S V4 amplicon and metagenomic sequencing of honey bee guts.

Note: "16S" indicates 16S V4; "Meta" indicates metagenomic; "-" indicates no test.