Metagenome-assembled genomes from a population-based cohort uncover novel gut species and within-species diversity, revealing prevalent disease associations

Kateryna Pantiukh[1]*, Kertu Liis Krigul[1], Oliver Aasmets[1], Elin Org[1]*

[1] Institute of Genomics, Estonian Genome Centre, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

*Address correspondence to Kateryna Pantiukh and Elin Org pantiukh@ut.ee, elin.org@ut.ee

Present address: Institute of Genomics, Estonian Genome Centre, University of Tartu, Tartu 51010, Estonia, phone: (372) 737 4034; fax: (372) 737 4060

ABSTRACT

Metagenomic profiling has advanced understanding of microbe-host interactions. However, widely used read-based approaches are limited by incomplete reference databases and the inability to resolve strain-level variation. Here, we present a scalable, genome-resolved framework that integrates population-specific metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) to discover novel species, sub-species diversity, and disease associations. From 1,878 deeply sequenced samples in the Estonian microbiome cohort (EstMB-deep), we reconstructed 84,762 MAGs representing 2,257 species, including 353 (15.6%) previously uncharacterized species reaching up to 30% relative abundances in some individuals. We integrated these MAGs with the Unified Human Gastrointestinal Genome (UHGG) collection to create an expanded reference (GUTrep), enabling profiling of 2,509 EstMB individuals and testing associations with 33 prevalent diseases. Of 25 diseases with significant associations, 8 involved newly identified species, underscoring the value of population-specific MAGs. To quantify within-species diversity, we developed the Genome Unit Number (GUN), a novel MAG-based metric that informed sub-species analyses. Based on normalized GUN (nGUN), we prioritized *Odoribacter splanchnicus,* a prevalent species with the lowest sub-species heterogeneity, yielding sufficient power for sub-species association study. We identified two dominant

genome units, GU-N1 and GU-N2, with distinct gene repertoires and divergent disease

associations. Notably, GU-N1 was negatively associated with gastritis and duodenitis and

hypertensive heart disease, associations undetected at the species level. Our study expands the

human gut reference landscape, demonstrates the importance of population-specific MAGs for

uncovering novel microbial diversity, and reveals new disease associations on sub-species level

obscured at higher taxonomic levels, highlighting the need for genome-resolved approaches in

microbiome research.

IMPORTANCE

Microbiome studies increasingly recognize that species-level profiles can mask critical sub-

species differences relevant to health and disease. However, our work shows that within-

species diversity varies drastically across gut microbes, with some species exhibiting almost as

many distinct sub-species clusters as recovered genomes, making association studies at the sub-

species level essentially intractable. To address this, we introduce the Genome Unit Number

(GUN), a scalable metric for quantifying sub-species structure. Using GUN, we demonstrate

that only species with limited within-species diversity, such as *Odoribacter splanchnicus*,

currently allow for robust sub-species association testing. These findings emphasize the need

to systematically evaluate species structure across the gut microbiome and call for the

development of new computational and statistical approaches to enable meaningful sub-species

analyses in highly diverse species.

KEYWORDS

48 Gut microbiome, metagenome assembled genomes, genome unit number, population

49 microbiome, metagenomics, metagenome-wide associations study, sub-species diversity.

INTRODUCTION

The human gut microbiome exhibits remarkable diversity across individuals and populations, necessitating comprehensive global reference databases to enable accurate taxonomic and functional profiling of microbial communities. In recent years, considerable research effort has been directed towards establishing collections of global reference genomes of the human gut microbiome. Initially, the focus was on sequencing bacteria that could be isolated and cultured[1,2]. However, rapid technological advancements have facilitated the generation of vast amounts of metagenomic data and the development of techniques for assembling genomes from unculturable species, consequently improving reference databases. These metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) substantially expand the number of gut microbial species, as 81% of the species in the current version of the Unified Human Gastrointestinal Genome (UHGG) collection were identified by MAGs while having no corresponding representative in any human gut culture database[3]. Moreover, MAG assembly enables genome-centric analyses, such as identifying strains of species present in a population and conducting strain-level association studies[4,5]. Therefore, MAGs enable us to significantly improve our understanding of the ecosystem under study.

The importance of MAGs recovery is exemplified in population biobanks that include deeply phenotyped individuals and their microbiome samples. In this case, it becomes possible to identify correlations between known, newly reconstructed species and specific genome structure and various environmental, dietary, or health-related factors. In recent years, several population-based biobanks with metagenomic datasets have been established, for example, the Dutch Microbiome cohort from the Lifelines biobank[6], the Israeli Project 10K cohort[7,8], the FinRisk cohort[9], and the EstMB cohort from the Estonian Biobank[10]. Analyses of these datasets have demonstrated that gut microbiome composition is associated with a range of environmental and lifestyle factors, particularly diet and medication use[10,11], and that variation in the microbiome is associated with several diseases, such as cardiovascular diseases[12,13],

mental health disorders[14] and cancers[15,16]. Furthermore, emerging evidence suggests that the

gut microbiome has predictive power, as demonstrated in the context of incident heart failure[17].

However, many of these studies still rely solely on reference databases. These databases may

lack representatives for many uncultured or underrepresented population-specific microbial

species, leading to incomplete or biased interpretations.

In the present study, we leveraged deep metagenomic sequencing of a population-based

Estonian microbiome-deep (EstMB-deep) cohort to assemble a comprehensive collection of

metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs), substantially expanding the reference database of

human gut microbes with hundreds of previously uncharacterized species. We integrated these

population-specific MAGs with public reference data and conducted association analyses with

33 prevalent diseases. To systematically assess within-species diversity, we developed a novel

Genome Unit Number (GUN) metric. We demonstrated its utility by identifying specific

disease associations at sub-species level in *Odoribacter splanchnicus* that were not apparent at

the species level. Our findings demonstrate that genome-resolved microbiome profiling can

uncover novel disease-linked microbial signatures beyond that remain hidden using

conventional approaches.

RESULTS

Study design and cohort overview

The study aimed to first recover metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) from a deeply

sequenced Estonian gut microbiome cohort (EstMB-deep, N=1,878) and expand the reference

database by combining these newly assembled genomes with the existing public Unified

Human Gastrointestinal Genome (UHGG) collection and demonstrate the added value of

genome-resolved, sub-species analysis in identifying disease associations[3] (**Figure 1a**).

The EstMB-deep subcohort used in the study is a subset of the volunteer-based Estonian

Microbiome cohort that is resequenced with much deeper coverage than the initial sample set

(**Figure S1**). In the EstMB-deep subcohort, each sample corresponds to a unique individual,

with balanced distributions of age and gender. In brief, the EstMB cohort included 1,764

women (70.31%) and 745 men (29.69%), and the EstMB-deep subcohort consists of 1,308

women (69.65%) and 570 men (30.35%), with both cohorts representing individuals aged 23

to 89 (**Figure S2a**). Compared to the EstMB average sequencing depth (30.63 ± 3.12 million

reads per sample), EstMB-deep achieved over threefold higher coverage (106.70 ± 42.1

million, **Figure S2b**). A detailed description of the EstMB, including omics and phenotypic

data, is provided in Aasmets & Krigul et al. 2022[10].

FIG 1. Study overview and cohort description. **a.** Study workflow overview. **b.** Overview of

the metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) recovery pipeline.

Creating a representative MAGs pool of gut bacteria in the Estonian population

To characterize population-specific microbes and expand publicly available human gut microbiome databases with microbial genomes from the Estonian population, we performed *de novo* metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) reconstruction from all 1878 samples in the EstMB-deep cohort. The MAG reconstruction pipeline is summarized in **Figure 1b**. We successfully reconstructed 84,762 MAGs from EstMB-deep, with an average of 45.13 MAGs per sample. Among these, 42,049 (49.61%) were almost complete MAGs, i.e. MAGs with completeness > 90% and contamination < 5% according to CheckM. To describe the Estonian population species pool, we clustered all MAGs with dRep using a 95.0% ANI threshold, ensuring that the final clusters represent distinct species.

The species-level clustering procedure yielded 2,257 clusters (**Table S1**). For each cluster, the representative MAG was selected based on genome completeness, minimal contamination, strain heterogeneity, and N50 (a parameter reflecting assembly fragmentation level). We refer to these 2,257 species representative MAGs as the "ESTrep" collection. The majority of ESTrep MAGs from the ESTrep collection (72.97%, n=1647 MAGs) were almost complete MAGs (MAGs >90% complete and <5% contaminated). Under the MIMAG standard[18], 475 representative MAGs (21.05%) qualified as high quality, exhibiting >90% completeness, <5% contamination, and the presence of the 5S, 16S, and 23S rRNA genes together with at least 18 tRNAs. The remaining genomes included 1,714 MAGs (75,94%) of medium quality (MQ) and 68 MAGs (3,01%) of low quality (LQ) (Figure S3).

MAG assembly remains essential for detecting novel population-specific species

Next, we identified previously uncharacterized species within the ESTrep MAGs collection. MAGs were categorized as novel species if their taxonomic classification at the species level or higher couldn't be assigned using the GTDB-Tk[19], a common approach for evaluating

whether a newly reconstructed MAG represents a new species[20,21]. Of the 2,257 representative

MAGs, 353 (15.64%) were classified as novel. Among these, 231 MAGs (65.44%) had > 90%

and < 5% contamination, and 57 (16.15%) also contained rRNA and tRNA genes, meeting the

MIMAG guidelines for high-quality MAGs[18]. We observed a strong correlation between the

number of novel species discovered and the number of samples analyzed (R^2 = 0.97).

Specifically, for every 500 samples, approximately 102 novel species were identified (**Figure**

2a). As we have not observed any indication of a plateau with the current sample size, we

expect that analysing more samples will reveal additional species.

Although Estonia is considered a Westernised population, novel species still make up a

significant proportion of the microbiome community. These newly identified species were

distributed across multiple phyla (**Figure 2b**). On average, 2.82% of the total reads per sample

were assigned to these novel species, even reaching a maximum relative abundance of 32.34%

in some samples (**Figure 2c**). Since these species are absent from public databases and may be

population-specific, microbiome studies that rely solely on existing references may

substantially underestimate microbial diversity.

FIG 2. Overview of novel species from the EstMB MAGs collection**. a.** The relationship

between the number of samples analyzed and the cumulative number of novel species

identified. **b**. Phylogenetic tree of the ESTrep species. The inner circle displays a phylogenetic tree of species, with branches colored by phylum (according to the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB-Tk v2.3.0), the outer ring highlights novel species assembled in this study. **c.** Relative abundances of known and novel species.

Integrating population-specific and global MAGs improves reference quality and uncovers assembly biases

As the success of metagenome assembly and genome reconstruction depends on multiple technical and analytical factors, we did not expect to recover all microbial genomes present in the gut. Therefore, we constructed an integrated species-level reference by combining newly reconstructed MAGs from the Estonian population with publicly available human gut-associated species. This integrated reference, called the GUTrep collection (**Figure 1a**), was generated by deduplicating the ESTrep MAGs collection and UHGG MAGs collection[22] at a 95.0% ANI threshold, retaining the highest-quality MAG for each species. When two MAGs from one species were present (one from ESTrep and one from UHGG), the highest-quality MAG was selected for the final collection. The final GUTrep database comprises 4,792 species, of which 3,285 (68.55%) originated from UHGG and 1,507 (31.45%) from ESTrep, thereby substantially improving the UHGG dataset. Notably, the ESTrep contribution includes 353 novel species, 607 known species absent from UHGG and 927 higher-quality MAGs already represented in UHGG.

To estimate microbiome composition across the EstMB dataset (n = 2,509), we mapped all reads against the GUTrep collection. This approach, which does not require deep sequencing, identified 3,423 species in total. On average, each sample contained 292 species, whereas MAG assembly yielded an average of 45 MAGs per sample (**Figure 3a**). The most prevalent (>95%) species detected by read mapping were all well-known gut microbes: *Phocaeicola dorei*, *Bacteroides species* (*B. uniformis*, *B. xylanisolvens*, *B. ovatus*), *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, and *Odoribacter splanchnicus, P. dorei and B. uniformis* also being among the most abundant

species in addition to *Prevotella copri* (>2% on average) **(Figure S4)**. We observe that samples

with more species detected by mapping also tended to have more MAGs recovered (**Figure**

S5). However, the number of assembled genomes per species did not clearly correlate with

species prevalence or mean abundance (**Figure 3b, Table S2**). Moreover, the difference

between these values can range from minimal to substantial. For example, despite one of the

most prevalent species, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens,* being detected in 97.13% of samples and

having a mean relative abundance of 0.39%, only 18 MAGs were assembled for this species.

This pattern, common among newly identified species, highlights that many species detected

by mapping are represented only by a few MAGs, complicating genome-centric analysis

(**Figure 3c, Table S3**). Among 3,423 species detected, only 199 were represented by more than

100 assembled MAGs and just 19 species had over 500 recovered MAGs (**Figure S6**),

illustrating the challenges of comprehensive genome reconstruction.

FIG 3. Assembly–mapping comparison and MWAS associations **a.** Average number of species detected by read mapping (yellow) versus number of recovered MAGs per sample (blue). **b.** Relationship between species prevalence, mean relative abundance, and number of assembled MAGs per species. **c.** Prevalence of the top 10 novel species with the highest number of recovered MAGs, comparing recovery by MAG assembly (green bars) and detection by read mapping (grey bars). **d.** Metagenome-wide association results between GUTrep species abundances and chronic ischemic heart disease. Each data point corresponds to a single species, with vertical position reflecting the log-transformed *p*-value from linear regression; significant associations for newly reconstructed species are highlighted with a box.

Newly assembled species provide valuable input for association studies

Next, we utilized the comprehensive electronic health records (EHR) data from the Estonian population to perform a microbiome-wide association study (MWAS) of common diseases, using the population-based GUTrep reference. We included 33 prevalent diseases (≥ 100 cases each; Table S4), spanning various categories, such as the respiratory system (7 diseases), circulatory system (7 diseases), and digestive system (4 diseases) disorders. Associations between species abundance and diseases were assessed using linear regression models adjusted for BMI, gender, and age. To reduce multiple testing, we limited the analysis to species present in $\geq 1\%$ of the samples, resulting in 1,595 species.

We identified 105 significant associations (Bonferroni-adjusted $p < 2.71 \times 10^{-5}$) between 96 bacterial species and 25 diseases (**Table S4, Table S5**). Notably, newly assembled species were associated with 8 out of the 33 diseases, including asthma, chronic ischemic heart disease, chronic rhinitis, nasopharyngitis and pharyngitis, female infertility, heart failure, haemorrhoids, iron deficiency anaemia, and vitamin D deficiency. For example, one of the strongest associations was observed for chronic ischemic heart disease, involving a newly

217   assembled species from the *Nanosynbacter* genus (species ID: H2144_Nanosynbacter_undS,

218   adjusted $p = 3.13 \times 10^{-6}$) (**Figure 3d, Table S4**). These findings emphasize the importance of

219   population-specific reference databases for detecting disease-associated microbiome changes.

220   However, further studies are needed to confirm whether these associations generalize beyond

221   the Estonian cohort.

MAGs data enables within species genetic diversity analysis across species

Most large-scale microbe-disease or MWAS studies are conducted at the species level,

although strain-level analysis is often recommended for understanding the functional

insights[23–25]. However, strain definitions vary substantially across studies, and many species

do not exhibit genomic clustering patterns that provide sufficient sample sizes for robust sub-

species-level association testing. Metagenome assembly enables high-resolution reconstruction

of species-level genomic diversity and allows the identification of taxa for which such analyses

are feasible, thereby broadening the range of detectable biological and clinical associations. To

capture this variation systematically and to select species suitable for sub-species-level

MWAS, we introduce the **Genome Unit Number (GUN)** metric. GUN quantifies genomic

diversity within a species by counting the number of highly similar genome units per each

species (Average Nucleotide Identity, ANI > 99%). We further define the **normalized GUN**

(nGUN), which scales the GUN by the total number of MAGs recovered for the analyzed

species, allowing comparison across species with differing MAG counts.

nGUN = (Number of genome units / Number of MAGs) × 100%

We focused on species with >10 reconstructed MAGs, yielding 376 species across diverse

phyla. Notably, none of the newly identified species were included due to an insufficient

number of MAGs.

The nGUN values varied widely, ranging from 0.4 to 100 (**Figure 4a, Table S6**), indicating

substantial differences in species population genetic diversity. *Odoribacter splanchnicus*

exhibited the lowest nGUN (0.4), with one genome unit per ~250 MAGs, reflecting low

diversity despite high prevalence. In contrast, *Prevotella copri* had one of the highest nGUN

(94.0), consistent with its well-documented heterogeneity, where nearly every MAG represents

a unique genome unit, making it difficult to conduct sub-species association analysis in the

population. Interestingly, *Alistipes_A* genus appeared in both the lowest and highest nGUN

groups.

We also examined nGUN distribution across six phyla with ≥10 species present in each:

Bacillota, Bacteroidota, Verrucomicrobiota, Bacillota_A, *Pseudomonadota,* and

Cyanobacteriota all of which exhibited a broad range in nGUN distributions (**Figure 4b**).

Bacillota species tended to have higher nGUN values, indicating that this phylum generally

tends to have a higher number of genome units per species. In contrast, *Verrucomicrobiota*,

Cyanobacteriota, and *Pseudomonadota* exhibited lower nGUN values, suggesting that species

in these phyla typically have fewer genome units per species. However, due to the small sample

sizes in some phyla, further studies are needed to confirm whether these differences represent

true phylum-level trends.

FIG4. Within-species diversity and sub-species analysis of *Odoribacter splanchnicus*. a. Normalized genome unit number (nGUN) values for the top 50 species with the highest number of metagenome assembled genomes. **b.** Distribution of nGUN values across major gut bacteria phyla. **c.** *Odoribacter splanchnicus* relative abundance, number of recovered MAGs and prevalence across samples.

nGUN–guided sub-species analysis reveals phenotype associations missed at the species level

In order to demonstrate the value of nGUN–guided sub-species MWAS analysis, we selected *O. splanchnicus* due to its low nGUN (0.4) and high prevalence (detected in 96.14% of samples, assembled in 72.68%, **Figure 4c**). Among its MAGs, we identified four distinct genome units, two of which were rare (found in 2 and 19 samples, respectively). Therefore, we focused on the two major genome units with high case numbers: genome unit N1 (GU-N1, n =

974 samples, original cluster ID: 1_2.3.4.6.9) and genome unit N2 (GU-N2, n=335 samples,

original cluster ID: 1_1) (**Figure 5a**).

Logistic regression models adjusted for BMI, gender, and age were used to assess the

association between the presence or absence of *O. splanchnicus* GU-N1 and GU-N2 and the

same 33 diseases previously analyzed at the species-level MWAS. Our analysis identified a

significant association between the presence of GU-N1 and two different diseases - gastritis

and duodenitis, and hypertensive heart disease (**Figure 5b**). The odds ratio for GU-N1 was less

than 1 in both diseases (gastritis and duodenitis OR = 0.56, hypertensive heart disease OR =

0.63), indicating that its presence is associated with a reduced likelihood of having the disease.

Notably, these associations were not detected at the species level, highlighting the added

resolution of sub-species-level analysis.

To explore functional differences, we performed a pangenome analysis of GU-N1 and GU-N2.

We carried out Principal coordinate analysis of predicted gene cluster presence/absence, which

showed clear separation between the genome units (**Figure 5c**). We identified that the two

genome units formed distinct clusters, indicating clear genomic differentiation based on gene

content (**Figure 5d**), with 40 gene clusters unique to one of the two (**Figure 5e, Table S7**).

While most encoded hypothetical or uncharacterized proteins, some were annotated with

putative functions based on the Clusters of Orthologous Genes (COG20)[26]. GU-N22 harboured

a broader repertoire of genes associated with stress response, iron acquisition, and

antimicrobial resistance - traits consistent with enhanced survival in inflammatory

gastrointestinal environments. These included elevated copy numbers of the extracytoplasmic

stress sigma factor RpoE (σ^E), iron transport components FecR and CirA, and multidrug

resistance elements such as AcrR and an ABC-type efflux pump (YadH). In contrast, GU-N1

was enriched for redox maintenance proteins such as YyaL/DsbD, suggesting a distinct strategy

centered on oxidative stress mitigation.

FIG 5. Genomic structure and disease-associated variation across two major *O. splanchnicus* genome units **a.** Heatmap of Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) values among *O. splanchnicus* MAGs, revealing two distinct genome units. **b.** Volcano plot of associations between the two major *O. splanchnicus* genome units and 33 disease phenotypes. The red line indicates the Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold. **c.** Pangenome analysis of five representative MAGs from each *O. splanchnicus* genome unit (GU-N1 and GU-N2). **d.** Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of *O. splanchnicus* representative MAGs based on predicted gene cluster presence/absence profiles. **e.** Gene clusters uniquely present in only one of the two major *O. splanchnicus* genome units.

DISCUSSION

Our study presents a scalable, genome-resolution framework for population-scale microbiome analysis, enabling improved species and sub-species characterization and discovery of disease associations. By expanding the gut microbial reference database with thousands of metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs), including novel bacterial species, as well as sub-species genome units of known taxa, we address a major limitation in current reference datasets, which often underrepresent global microbiome diversity. We demonstrate that

genome-resolution microbiome analysis, coupled with population-specific MAGs catalogues,

enables more comprehensive species- and sub-species-level association studies. Furthermore,

we introduce the Genome Unit Number (GUN), a novel quantitative metric of within-species

genetic diversity, which we applied across 378 gut species to guide candidate selection for sub-

species-level analysis. Using this framework, we uncovered genome unit-specific disease

signals for *O. splanchnicus* that were invisible at the species level and provided functional

genomic insights that may explain these associations.

Read-based taxonomic profiling remains the most widely adopted approach to characterize

microbial communities, particularly in association studies[27,28]. Alternatively, metagenome

assembled genomes (MAGs) offer a culture-independent, reference-free approach to recover

community structure[29]. Despite deep sequencing (an average of 106 million read pairs per

sample), metagenome assembly and binning reconstructed only ~45 genomes per sample on

average, compared to 292 species detected by read mapping, highlighting that even abundant

taxa are not always fully recoverable by MAGs reconstruction and *de novo* MAG assembly

and binning alone fails to capture the full microbial diversity. This finding challenges the

common assumption that high-abundance taxa can be reliably assembled given sufficient

sequencing depth[30–32]. We observed multiple cases where prevalent and relatively abundant

species yielded few MAGs. For instance, *Bacteroides xylanisolvens,* present in 97.13% of

samples at 0.39% mean abundance, yielded only 18 MAGs. Similar trends were observed for

novel species, e.g., an undefined species from the *Butyricimonas* genus (ID: H0366) was

assembled from just 36 samples but detected in >55% samples by mapping. These findings

support earlier observations that low-abundance but genetically distinct species may assemble

more readily than abundant, genetically diverse taxa[33] and underscore the need for a hybrid

strategy combining MAG assembly and high-resolution read mapping against population-

specific reference. Our GUTrep database exemplifies such a strategy, integrating local MAGs

with the Unified Human Gastrointestinal Genome (UHGG) collection to improve reference coverage. Notably, 31% of dereplicated GUTrep species originated from our Estonian-specific MAGs, illustrating the added value of local assembly efforts.

A common argument against investing in resource-intensive *de novo* assembly is that the rapidly growing and regularly updated public gut genome catalogues increasingly capture known microbial diversity, suggesting that most gut species will soon be represented, and further assembly may become redundant. However, our findings challenge this assumption, and support continued *de novo* assembly in new population studies. Early efforts reported high proportions of novel taxa, with 77% of MAGs classified as novel in Pasolli et al[34] and 66% in Almeida et al[35]. More recent studies, such as Leviatan et al., still report 310 novel species out of 3,594 assembled (8.6%)[36]. In our cohort, we recovered 353 novel species from 2,257 MAGs (15.6%), with ~102 additional novel species per 500 samples, and no indication of a discovery plateau. Moreover, we confirm a previously reported finding that many novel species assembled from a few samples were nonetheless widespread by mapping, suggesting that assembly remains essential even in well-characterized industrialized populations[33]. These results reinforce the idea that local assembly efforts complement global references and remain critical for uncovering the full spectrum of microbial diversity.

Another advantage of *de novo* assembly is its ability to uncover sub-species-level variation[5,24]. Strains of the same species can differ significantly in function and disease associations[37]. As a classic example, well-known gut microbe *Escherichia coli* species includes strains which can be pathogenic (e.g., enterohaemorrhagic O157:H7), probiotic (Nissle 1917), or commensal (K-12), and this demonstrates how it can be insufficient to study the microbe at the species level[38]. While strain-level taxonomic profilers such as MetaPhlAn 4.0[39] offer efficient resolution, they lack the genomic content necessary for detailed functional analyses, as they usually based on marker genes only analysis Other powerful tools, such as inStrain, operate at the whole-genome

level and can report presents of different strains even among strains coexisting within the same

sample[62].

In contrast, reconstructing MAGs directly from samples linked to host metadata allows for in-

depth investigation of within-species genomic variation in relation to specific phenotypes.

Nevertheless, this approach is not feasible for all species in the population. Many taxa,

especially newly discovered ones, are only recovered in a small number of samples, limiting

their use in association analysis. In our dataset, no newly identified species was assembled in

more than 36 samples; the most prevalent was a novel species from the *Butyricimonas* genus

(MAG ID: H0366). For species that are well represented in the MAGs dataset, high intraspecies

genomic diversity can further complicate analysis. Thus, within-species genomic variability

becomes a critical consideration when selecting candidate species for analysis on sub-species

level.

Our normalized genome unit number, or nGUN, helps to assess whether sub-species analysis

is feasible by quantifying within-species diversity. High nGUN value of the species might

indicate that each individual harbours a unique genome unit, complicating population-level

associations. In this study, we analysed within-species diversity across 378 gut species,

expanding upon previous work that showed a strain richness of 92 gut species based on pure

isolates from at least three different individuals[40]. Our results significantly expand on this by

including a broader range of species, each represented by more than 10 MAGs. Consistent with

earlier findings, we observe substantial variability in sub-species diversity across species[40].

However, our data provides a more detailed and comprehensive picture due to the larger

number of species. Among the 14 overlapping species between the two studies, some show

similar patterns of genomic diversity - for example, *Odoribacter splanchnicus* and *Barnesiella*

intestinihominis exhibit consistently low diversity, while others like *Bifidobacterium longum*

remain highly diverse. Other overlapping examples, such as *Fusicatenibacter saccharivorans*

and *Coprococcus eutactus*, display divergent diversity estimates, likely reflecting methodological differences (culture isolate vs metagenome-based) and highlighting the need for further comparative research. Highly diverse species such as *Prevotella copri,* well known from other studies[41,42], are absent from the Chen-Liaw dataset, but prominent in ours. Our larger dataset also allowed the investigation of phylum-level patterns, suggesting that the common phyla, such as *Bacteroidota and Bacillota_A* species, tend to have higher nGUN values, while *Verrucomicrobiota, Cyanobacteriota,* and *Pseudomonadota* exhibit lower diversity. These phylum-level differences in within-species diversity suggest possible evolutionary or ecological constraints. However, further studies are needed, particularly for the less common phyla, to validate and understand the underlying mechanisms.

Understanding microbiome diversity at both species and sub-species levels enhances resolution in metagenome-wide association studies (MWAS). At the species level, we identified 96 bacterial species significantly associated with 25 common diseases, of which 8 diseases involved previously uncharacterized species, highlighting the limits of relying solely on global references. These differences may reflect population-specific variation driven by local differences in diet, genetics, and lifestyle[11]. At the sub-species level, we identified associations undetectable at the species level, such as *Odoribacter splanchnicus* genome unit GU-N1 negative association with gastritis, duodenitis and hypertensive heart disease. Previous research has shown that the abundance of the genus *Odoribacter* is negatively correlated with systolic blood pressure in overweight and obese pregnant women, suggesting that SCFA-producing taxa may influence host blood pressure[43]. Comparative genomic analysis of the MAGs from two *O. splanchnicus* genome units helped us to identify a set of gene clusters that differed between the two groups. These genomic features suggest that GU-N1 is functionally better adapted to conditions characteristic of gastritis and duodenitis, such as oxidative stress, nutrient limitation, and host antimicrobial pressure. Together, our findings highlight the value of

genome-resolved metagenomic approaches in revealing disease-relevant microbial functions that would remain hidden in broader taxonomic analysis. While our study focused on a single, ethnically homogeneous Northern European population, several key findings, such as the detection of widespread yet previously uncharacterized species and species structures within common gut taxa, are likely to extend beyond the Estonian population. However, microbiome composition is influenced by genetic, dietary and environmental factors that vary between populations. Future studies in diverse cohorts will be essential to evaluate the generalizability of our results and validate the species - and sub-species disease associations uncovered here. The genome-resolved analytical framework we present is scalable and readily applicable to other population-scale microbiome datasets, enabling cross-cohort comparison and discovery.

Our study also has some limitations that should be considered. First, the reliance on short-read sequencing may reduce assembly contiguity and sub-species resolution compared to long read approaches[44]. Although long read technologies offer higher genomic completeness, their current cost limits their use in large-scale population studies. A practical compromise could involve using short-read sequencing for most samples and applying long read sequencing to key or novel taxa. Second, the observed associations are correlative, and further validation in longitudinal and experimental studies is needed to assess causality. Third, our association study on sub-species level is focused on one species due to sample representation and analytical feasibility, and broader application across species remains a key next step. Finally, the genome unit number (GUN) is influenced by multiple biological and technical factors that may bias its ability to accurately reflect within-species microdiversity. These include pangenome size, genome length, the propensity for horizontal gene transfer, and the level of homologous recombination. In addition, when a species is present within a sample as several highly similar genomic variants that may belong to different genome units, metagenomic assembly becomes more challenging. In such cases, MAGs may fail to be recovered or may represent composite

genomes spanning multiple genome variants, which can lead to underestimation or conflation of true within-species diversity. Moreover, while functional differences between genome units of one species were identified, interpretation was limited by the prevalence of unannotated genes. Future improvements in genome annotation and cross-cohort replication will be essential to build on these findings. Despite these challenges, our findings demonstrate the value of population-scale metagenomics in uncovering novel microbial diversity and functional signatures relevant to human health.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study expands the human gut genomic reference, underscores the importance of population-specific MAGs in uncovering novel microbial diversity, and reveals sub-species disease associations obscured at higher taxonomic levels, thereby highlighting the critical need for genome-resolved approaches in microbiome research.

METHODS

Estonian Microbiome cohort description

The Estonian Microbiome Cohort (EstMB) was established in 2017, when stool, oral, and blood samples were collected from 2509 Estonian Biobank (EstBB) participants[10]. The EstBB is a volunteer-based population cohort initiated in 1999 that currently includes over 212,000 adults of European ancestry ($\geq$ 18 years old) across Estonia[45]. Extensive information is available for the EstMB participants, including data from self-reported questionnaires and electronic health records (EHRs) (completed by medical professionals) covering diseases, medication use and medical procedures both before and after sample collection. In addition to the questionnaire and EHR data, the participants' anthropometric measurements (e.g., height, weight, blood pressure, and waist and hip circumferences) were taken during a pre-registered visit upon delivering the stool sample. The Estonian Microbiome Deep cohort (EstMB-deep)

461   includes a subset of stool samples from the EstMB cohort that have been resequenced with

462   over three times deeper coverage (N = 1878).

Microbiome sample collection and DNA extraction

The participants collected a fresh stool sample immediately after defecation with a sterile

Pasteur pipette and placed it inside a polypropylene conical 15 mL tube. The participants were

instructed to time their sample collection as close as possible to the visiting time in the study

center. The samples were stored at −80 °C until DNA extraction. The median time between

sampling and arrival at the freezer in the core facility was 3 h 25 min (mean 4 h 34 min), and

the transport time was not significantly associated with alpha (Spearman correlation, p-value

0.949 for observed richness and 0.464 for Shannon index) nor beta diversity (Bray–Curtis, p-

value 0.061, R-squared 0.0005). Microbial DNA extraction was performed after all samples

were collected using a QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Germany). For the extraction,

approximately 200 mg of stool was used as a starting material for the DNA extraction kit,

according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was quantified from all samples using a

Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer with a dsDNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Shotgun metagenomic sequencing

Sequencing for the main EstMB cohort was done using shotgun metagenomic paired-end

sequencing on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform and described in detail in[10]. The EstMB-

deep cohort samples were selected based on DNA quality and resequenced at higher depth

using paired-end shotgun metagenomic sequencing on the MGISEQ-2000 platform.

Sequencing reads' quality control (QC) was performed using FastQC (v0.12.1)[46], and human

reads were filtered using Bowtie2 (v0.6.5)[47] against the GRCh38.p14 human genome reference.

While following the QC, the EstMB cohort had an average of 30.63 ± 3.12 million reads per

sample, the EstMB-deep cohort resulted in 106.70 ± 42.1 million reads per sample, indicating

over three times deeper sequencing coverage. Sequencing depth was evaluated with Nonpareil

v3.5.5[63].

EstMB MAGs metagenome assembly and binning

EstMB MAGs collection refers to all MAGs recovered from the EstMB-deep cohort, which

comprises 1,878 samples sequenced at deep coverage. Reads were assembled into contigs with

MEGAHIT (v1.2.9)[48]. Binning was performed separately for each sample from the EstMB-

deep cohort. Contigs were binned using binners: MetaBAT (v2.15)[49], MaxBin (v2.2.7)[50], and

VAMB (v3.0.7)[51], with further refining with DAS Tool (v1.1.4)[52]. MAGs resulting from this

process form the EstMB MAGs collection. MAG quality, including completeness and

contamination, was estimated using CheckM (v2.3.1)[53].

ESTrep MAGs collection

ESTrep MAGs collection refers to representative MAGs from the EstMB MAGs collection

described earlier. Representative MAGs were selected from the EstMB MAGs collection by

clustering MAGs from the EstMB MAGs collection on the species level (Average Nucleotide

Identity, ANI index = 95) with dRep[54]. Taxonomy of all representative MAGs was assigned

using GTDB-Tk (v2.3.0)[19], a software toolkit for assigning objective taxonomic classifications

to bacterial and archaeal genomes based on the Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB)[19,55]. If

a MAG could not be taxonomically classified at the species level or higher using GTDB-Tk,

this indicates that the genome does not closely match any existing entries in the GTDB

reference database. Therefore, it was treated as a novel species. This criterion is widely used

in studies involving MAG assembly[20,21]. MAG completeness and contamination were

estimated using CheckM (v2.3.1)[53]. Ribosomal RNA genes were identified with Barrnap

v0.8[56], and tRNA genes were predicted using tRNAscan-SE v2.0.0[57].

MAGs were classified into three quality tiers. High-quality (HQ) MAGs were defined as those

with >90% completeness and <5% contamination and by the presence of ≥ 21 tRNA genes and

a full complement of rRNA genes (5S, 16S, and 23S)[18]. Medium-quality (MQ) MAGs were

defined as those with >50% completeness and <10% contamination. MAGs not meeting HQ

or MQ thresholds were classified as low-quality (LQ). Assembly statistics, including total

assembly size, number of contigs, N50, and GC content, were calculated using SeqKit

(v2.3.1)[58].

Population-based reference GUTrep MAGs collection

The GUTrep MAGs collection is a non-redundant set of representative MAGs, created by

combining MAGs from the current study (ESTrep MAGs) with those from the Unified Human

Gastrointestinal Genome (UHGG) collection[35]. This integrated reference includes both

population-specific taxa identified in our cohort and globally distributed species that, while

detected in our samples, could not be completely assembled but are present in public databases.

To remove redundancy, MAGs from both collections were clustered at the species level using

an average nucleotide identity (ANI) threshold of 95% with dRep[54]. For each species cluster

containing MAGs from both sources, the higher-quality MAG — based on completeness,

contamination, and assembly statistics, was retained as the representative.

Species relative abundance and prevalence estimation

To evaluate species-level relative abundance and prevalence, we used all samples from the

EstMB cohort, as it includes more samples than the EstMB-deep cohort. Deep sequencing is

less critical for read profiling against an established reference database, whereas the larger

sample size of the EstMB cohort is crucial for the subsequent association analyses. Reads were

mapped against the GUTrep MAGs collection using CoverM[59] and aggregated into a relative

abundance table with a custom Python script.

Species-level association study

For the association study, we used species-level relative abundance data from the EstMB cohort as previously described. We tested associations between centered log-ratio (CLR) transformed species abundances and participants' health status for common diseases in the Estonian population. We selected 33 diseases based on ICD10 codes from the electronic health records, each with at least 100 prevalent cases within the EstMB cohort. The remaining samples were considered as controls for each studied disease. From the 4,792 bacterial species in the GUTrep reference, we included 1,842 species with a prevalence >1% for the association analysis. Linear regression models, adjusted for BMI, gender, and age, were constructed to evaluate the association between the selected diseases and CLR-transformed species abundance. A stringent Bonferroni correction was applied to the significance level, adjusting for the number of analyzed species, resulting in a corrected alpha of 2.71×10^{-5} (from an original alpha of 0.05).

Genome Unit Number estimation

The Genome Unit Number (GUN) quantifies the number of genome units (GUs) identified for a given species. Genome units are defined as clusters of genomes from the same species sharing an average nucleotide identity (ANI) greater than 99% (analysis is restricted to species represented by more than 100 assembled MAGs). The normalized GUN (nGUN) represents the number of genome units per 100 MAGs and is calculated by dividing the species GUN by the total number of MAGs for that species and multiplying by 100 to express the value as a percentage.

The corresponding formula is shown below:

$$nGUN = \frac{species\ GUN}{Total\ number\ of\ MAGs} * 100\%$$

Sub-species association study

Candidate species for sub-species association analysis were selected based on two criteria: (1) a high number of reconstructed MAGs per species, and (2) the lowest normalized GUN (nGUN), indicating fewer sub-species clusters per species. These criteria were established to ensure sufficiently large sample sizes for robust microbiome-wide association studies (MWAS). Genome units were defined using dRep[54]. Based on these criteria, *O. splanchnicus* was selected as the candidate species for sub-species analysis. We examined *O. splanchnicus* sub-species population structure and focused on two out of the five most prevalent identified *O. splanchnicus* genome units. The remaining three genome units were excluded due to their presence in only a small subset of samples. For association analyses, we used presence/absence data from the two selected genome units. These genome units were designated as GU-N1 (n = 974; original cluster ID: 1_2.3.4.6.9) and GU-N2 (n = 335; original cluster ID: 1_1). Logistic regression analyses adjusted for sex, age, and BMI were performed for the same 33 diseases previously examined at the species level. To account for multiple testing, a stringent Bonferroni correction was applied, resulting in a corrected significance threshold of $\alpha = 1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ (original $\alpha = 0.05$).

For species cluster structure visualisation, we used ANIclustermap[60]. Pangenome analysis and pangenome visualisation were performed using the Anvi'o workflow with standard parameters[61].

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We express our gratitude to all individuals who made valuable contributions to the Estonian Microbiome cohort, as well as to those who developed the software and databases utilized in this study. We thank Mait Metspalu, Andres Metspalu, Lili Milani and Tõnu Esko from the Estonian Biobank research team for the Estonian Biobank health data collection.

Data analysis was carried out in part in the High-Performance Computing Centre of the
University of Tartu, and we thank the HPC Support Team of the Institute of Computer Science
at the University of Tartu for delivering exceptional service and assistance in installing the
necessary programs on the cluster. Special thanks to the Writing Retreat organized by the
Institute of Genomics, University of Tartu, for providing a conducive atmosphere for writing
this paper. We also thank MMHP (Million Metagenomes of Human Project) for providing the
sequencing for the EstMB-deep cohort.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, K.P., K.L.K. and E.O.; Methodology, K.P. and O.A.; Data analysis, K.P.;
Visualization, K.P.; prepared the first draft of the manuscript, which all authors reviewed and
edited, K.P. All authors agreed to submit the manuscript, read and approved the final draft, and
assumed full responsibility for its content, including the accuracy of the data.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

The source code for the analyses is available at GitHub:

https://github.com/Chartiza/EstMB_MAGs_db_paper.

Representative MAGs from the EstMB-deep cohort samples have been deposited in the
European Nucleotide Archive under study accession PRJEB76860. The phenotype data contain
sensitive information from healthcare registers, and they are available under restricted access
through the Estonian biobank upon submission of a research plan and signing a data transfer
agreement. All data access to the Estonian Biobank must follow the informed consent
regulations of the Estonian Committee on Bioethics and Human Research, which are clearly
described in the Data Access section at https://genomics.ut.ee/en/content/estonian-biobank. A
preliminary request for raw metagenome and phenotype data must first be submitted via the
email address releases@ut.ee.

FUNDING

This work was funded by the Estonian Research Council grant (PRG1414 to E.O.) and an EMBO Installation grant (No. 3573 to E.O.). EstMB sample collection was supported by the Estonian Center of Genomics/Roadmap II project No. 16-0125.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

REFERENCES

1. Forster, S.C., Kumar, N., Anonye, B.O., Almeida, A., Viciani, E., Stares, M.D., Dunn, M., Mkandawire, T.T., Zhu, A., Shao, Y., et al. (2019). A human gut bacterial genome and culture collection for improved metagenomic analyses. Nat. Biotechnol. *37*, 186–192. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-018-0009-7.

2. Zou, Y., Xue, W., Luo, G., Deng, Z., Qin, P., Guo, R., Sun, H., Xia, Y., Liang, S., Dai, Y., et al. (2019). 1,520 reference genomes from cultivated human gut bacteria enable functional microbiome analyses. Nat. Biotechnol. *37*, 179–185. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-018-0008-8.

3. Almeida, A., Mitchell, A.L., Boland, M., Forster, S.C., Gloor, G.B., Tarkowska, A., Lawley, T.D., and Finn, R.D. (2019). A new genomic blueprint of the human gut microbiota. Nature *568*, 499–504. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-0965-1.

4. Hildebrand, F. (2021). Ultra-resolution Metagenomics: When Enough Is Not Enough. mSystems *6*, e00881-21. https://doi.org/10.1128/mSystems.00881-21.

5. Chen, L., Wang, D., Garmaeva, S., Kurilshikov, A., Vich Vila, A., Gacesa, R., Sinha, T., Segal, E., Weersma, R.K., Wijmenga, C., et al. (2021). The long-term genetic stability and individual specificity of the human gut microbiome. Cell *184*, 2302-2315.e12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2021.03.024.

6. Gacesa, R., Kurilshikov, A., Vich Vila, A., Sinha, T., Klaassen, M.A.Y., Bolte, L.A., Andreu-Sánchez, S., Chen, L., Collij, V., Hu, S., et al. (2022). Environmental factors shaping the gut microbiome in a Dutch population. Nature *604*, 732–739. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-04567-7.

7. Shilo, S., Bar, N., Keshet, A., Talmor-Barkan, Y., Rossman, H., Godneva, A., Aviv, Y., Edlitz, Y., Reicher, L., Kolobkov, D., et al. (2021). 10 K: a large-scale prospective longitudinal study in Israel. Eur. J. Epidemiol. *36*, 1187–1194. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-021-00753-5.

8. Reicher, L., Shilo, S., Godneva, A., Lutsker, G., Zahavi, L., Shoer, S., Krongauz, D., Rein, M., Kohn, S., Segev, T., et al. (2025). Deep phenotyping of health–disease continuum in the Human Phenotype Project. Nat. Med. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-025-03790-9.

9. Salosensaari, A., Laitinen, V., Havulinna, A.S., Meric, G., Cheng, S., Perola, M., Valsta,
L., Alfthan, G., Inouye, M., Watrous, J.D., et al. (2021). Taxonomic signatures of cause-
specific mortality risk in human gut microbiome. Nat. Commun. *12*, 2671.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22962-y.

10. Aasmets, O., Krigul, K.L., Lüll, K., Metspalu, A., and Org, E. (2022). Gut metagenome
associations with extensive digital health data in a volunteer-based Estonian microbiome
cohort. Nat. Commun. *13*, 869. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28464-9.

11. Rothschild, D., Weissbrod, O., Barkan, E., Kurilshikov, A., Korem, T., Zeevi, D., Costea,
P.I., Godneva, A., Kalka, I.N., Bar, N., et al. (2018). Environment dominates over host
genetics in shaping human gut microbiota. Nature *555*, 210–215.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nature25973.

12. Palmu, J., Salosensaari, A., Havulinna, A.S., Cheng, S., Inouye, M., Jain, M., Salido,
R.A., Sanders, K., Brennan, C., Humphrey, G.C., et al. (2020). Association Between the
Gut Microbiota and Blood Pressure in a Population Cohort of 6953 Individuals. J. Am.
Heart Assoc. *9*, e016641. https://doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.120.016641.

13. Lin, Y.-T., Sayols-Baixeras, S., Baldanzi, G., Dekkers, K.F., Hammar, U., Nguyen, D.,
Nielsen, N., Eklund, A.C., Varotsis, G., Holm, J.B., et al. (2025). The association between
the gut microbiome and 24-h blood pressure measurements in the SCAPIS study.
Commun. Med. *5*, 276. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43856-025-00980-x.

14. Brushett, S., Gacesa, R., Vich Vila, A., Brandao Gois, M.F., Andreu-Sánchez, S., Swarte,
J.C., Klaassen, M.A.Y., Collij, V., Sinha, T., Bolte, L.A., et al. (2023). Gut feelings: the
relations between depression, anxiety, psychotropic drugs and the gut microbiome. Gut
Microbes *15*, 2281360. https://doi.org/10.1080/19490976.2023.2281360.

15. Kartal, E., Schmidt, T.S.B., Molina-Montes, E., Rodríguez-Perales, S., Wirbel, J.,
Maistrenko, O.M., Akanni, W.A., Alashkar Alhamwe, B., Alves, R.J., Carrato, A., et al.
(2022). A faecal microbiota signature with high specificity for pancreatic cancer. Gut *71*,
1359–1372. https://doi.org/10.1136/gutjnl-2021-324755.

16. Wirbel, J., Pyl, P.T., Kartal, E., Zych, K., Kashani, A., Milanese, A., Fleck, J.S., Voigt,
A.Y., Palleja, A., Ponnudurai, R., et al. (2019). Meta-analysis of fecal metagenomes
reveals global microbial signatures that are specific for colorectal cancer. Nat. Med. *25*,
679–689. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-019-0406-6.

17. Erawijantari, P.P., Kartal, E., Liñares-Blanco, J., Laajala, T.D., Feldman, L.E., The
FINRISK Microbiome DREAM Challenge and ML4Microbiome Communities, Carmona-
Saez, P., Shigdel, R., Claesson, M.J., Bertelsen, R.J., et al. (2023). Microbiome-based risk
prediction in incident heart failure: a community challenge. Preprint,
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.10.12.23296829
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.10.12.23296829.

18. The Genome Standards Consortium, Bowers, R.M., Kyrpides, N.C., Stepanauskas, R.,
Harmon-Smith, M., Doud, D., Reddy, T.B.K., Schulz, F., Jarett, J., Rivers, A.R., et al.
(2017). Minimum information about a single amplified genome (MISAG) and a
metagenome-assembled genome (MIMAG) of bacteria and archaea. Nat. Biotechnol. *35*,
725–731. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.3893.

19. Chaumeil, P.-A., Mussig, A.J., Hugenholtz, P., and Parks, D.H. (2020). GTDB-Tk: a
toolkit to classify genomes with the Genome Taxonomy Database. Bioinformatics *36*,
1925–1927. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btz848.

20. Duru, I.C., Lecomte, A., Shishido, T.K., Laine, P., Suppula, J., Paulin, L., Scheperjans,
F., Pereira, P.A.B., and Auvinen, P. (2024). Metagenome-assembled microbial genomes
from Parkinson's disease fecal samples. Sci. Rep. *14*, 18906.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-69742-4.

21. Rodríguez-Cruz, U.E., Castelán-Sánchez, H.G., Madrigal-Trejo, D., Eguiarte, L.E., and
Souza, V. (2024). Uncovering novel bacterial and archaeal diversity: genomic insights
from metagenome-assembled genomes in Cuatro Cienegas, Coahuila. Front. Microbiol.
15, 1369263. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2024.1369263.

22. Almeida, A., Nayfach, S., Boland, M., Strozzi, F., Beracochea, M., Shi, Z.J., Pollard,
K.S., Sakharova, E., Parks, D.H., Hugenholtz, P., et al. (2021). A unified catalog of
204,938 reference genomes from the human gut microbiome. Nat. Biotechnol. *39*, 105–
114. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-020-0603-3.

23. Van Rossum, T., Ferretti, P., Maistrenko, O.M., and Bork, P. (2020). Diversity within
species: interpreting strains in microbiomes. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. *18*, 491–506.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-020-0368-1.

24. Hildebrand, F. (2021). Ultra-resolution Metagenomics: When Enough Is Not Enough.
mSystems *6*, 10.1128/msystems.00881-21. https://doi.org/10.1128/msystems.00881-21.

25. Carrow, H.C., Batachari, L.E., and Chu, H. (2020). Strain diversity in the microbiome:
Lessons from Bacteroides fragilis. PLOS Pathog. *16*, e1009056.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1009056.

26. Galperin, M.Y., Vera Alvarez, R., Karamycheva, S., Makarova, K.S., Wolf, Y.I.,
Landsman, D., and Koonin, E.V. (2025). COG database update 2024. Nucleic Acids Res.
53, D356–D363. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkae983.

27. Jin, D.-M., Morton, J.T., and Bonneau, R. (2024). Meta-analysis of the human gut
microbiome uncovers shared and distinct microbial signatures between diseases.
mSystems *9*, e00295-24. https://doi.org/10.1128/msystems.00295-24.

28. Maghini, D.G., Oduaran, O.H., Olubayo, L.A.I., Cook, J.A., Smyth, N., Mathema, T.,
Belger, C.W., Agongo, G., Boua, P.R., Choma, S.S.R., et al. (2025). Expanding the human
gut microbiome atlas of Africa. Nature *638*, 718–728. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-
08485-8.

29. Yang, C., Chowdhury, D., Zhang, Z., Cheung, W.K., Lu, A., Bian, Z., and Zhang, L.
(2021). A review of computational tools for generating metagenome-assembled genomes
from metagenomic sequencing data. Comput. Struct. Biotechnol. J. *19*, 6301–6314.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csbj.2021.11.028.

30. Albertsen, M., Hugenholtz, P., Skarshewski, A., Nielsen, K.L., Tyson, G.W., and
Nielsen, P.H. (2013). Genome sequences of rare, uncultured bacteria obtained by
differential coverage binning of multiple metagenomes. Nat. Biotechnol. *31*, 533–538.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.2579.

31. Vicedomini, R., Quince, C., Darling, A.E., and Chikhi, R. (2021). Strainberry: automated
strain separation in low-complexity metagenomes using long reads. Nat. Commun. *12*,
4485. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-24515-9.

32. Nayfach, S., Shi, Z.J., Seshadri, R., Pollard, K.S., and Kyrpides, N.C. (2019). New
insights from uncultivated genomes of the global human gut microbiome. Nature *568*,
505–510. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1058-x.

33. Feng, X., and Li, H. (2024). Evaluating and improving the representation of bacterial
contents in long read metagenome assemblies. Genome Biol. *25*, 92.
https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-024-03234-6.

34. Pasolli, E., Asnicar, F., Manara, S., Zolfo, M., Karcher, N., Armanini, F., Beghini, F.,
Manghi, P., Tett, A., Ghensi, P., et al. (2019). Extensive Unexplored Human Microbiome
Diversity Revealed by Over 150,000 Genomes from Metagenomes Spanning Age,
Geography, and Lifestyle. Cell *176*, 649-662.e20.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2019.01.001.

35. Almeida, A., Nayfach, S., Boland, M., Strozzi, F., Beracochea, M., Shi, Z.J., Pollard,
K.S., Sakharova, E., Parks, D.H., Hugenholtz, P., et al. (2021). A unified catalog of
204,938 reference genomes from the human gut microbiome. Nat. Biotechnol. *39*, 105–
114. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-020-0603-3.

36. Leviatan, S., Shoer, S., Rothschild, D., Gorodetski, M., and Segal, E. (2022). An
expanded reference map of the human gut microbiome reveals hundreds of previously
unknown species. Nat. Commun. *13*, 3863. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-31502-1.

37. Ravichandar, J.D., Rutherford, E., Chow, C.-E.T., Han, A., Yamamoto, M.L., Narayan,
N., Kaplan, G.G., Beck, P.L., Claesson, M.J., Dabbagh, K., et al. (2022). Strain level and
comprehensive microbiome analysis in inflammatory bowel disease via multi-technology
meta-analysis identifies key bacterial influencers of disease. Front. Microbiol. *13*, 961020.
https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.961020.

38. Leimbach, A., Hacker, J., and Dobrindt, U. (2013). E. coli as an All-Rounder: The Thin
Line Between Commensalism and Pathogenicity. In Between Pathogenicity and
Commensalism Current Topics in Microbiology and Immunology., U. Dobrindt, J. H.
Hacker, and C. Svanborg, eds. (Springer Berlin Heidelberg), pp. 3–32.
https://doi.org/10.1007/82_2012_303.

39. Blanco-Míguez, A., Beghini, F., Cumbo, F., McIver, L.J., Thompson, K.N., Zolfo, M.,
Manghi, P., Dubois, L., Huang, K.D., Thomas, A.M., et al. (2023). Extending and
improving metagenomic taxonomic profiling with uncharacterized species using
MetaPhlAn 4. Nat. Biotechnol. *41*, 1633–1644. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-023-
01688-w.

40. Chen-Liaw, A., Aggarwala, V., Mogno, I., Haifer, C., Li, Z., Eggers, J., Helmus, D.,
Hart, A., Wehkamp, J., Lamousé-Smith, E.S.N., et al. (2024). Gut microbiota strain
richness is species specific and affects engraftment. Nature.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-08242-x.

41. Metwaly, A., and Haller, D. (2019). Strain-Level Diversity in the Gut: The P. copri Case.
Cell Host Microbe *25*, 349–350. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2019.02.006.

42. Fehlner-Peach, H., Magnabosco, C., Raghavan, V., Scher, J.U., Tett, A., Cox, L.M.,
Gottsegen, C., Watters, A., Wiltshire-Gordon, J.D., Segata, N., et al. (2019). Distinct
Polysaccharide Utilization Profiles of Human Intestinal Prevotella copri Isolates. Cell Host
Microbe *26*, 680-690.e5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2019.10.013.

43. Gomez-Arango, L.F., Barrett, H.L., McIntyre, H.D., Callaway, L.K., Morrison, M., and
Dekker Nitert, M. (2016). Increased Systolic and Diastolic Blood Pressure Is Associated
With Altered Gut Microbiota Composition and Butyrate Production in Early Pregnancy.
Hypertension *68*, 974–981. https://doi.org/10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.116.07910.

44. Olson, N.D., Treangen, T.J., Hill, C.M., Cepeda-Espinoza, V., Ghurye, J., Koren, S., and
Pop, M. (2019). Metagenomic assembly through the lens of validation: recent advances in
assessing and improving the quality of genomes assembled from metagenomes. Brief.
Bioinform. *20*, 1140–1150. https://doi.org/10.1093/bib/bbx098.

45. Milani, L., Alver, M., Laur, S., Reisberg, S., Haller, T., Aasmets, O., Abner, E., Alavere,
H., Allik, A., Annilo, T., et al. (2025). The Estonian Biobank's journey from biobanking to
personalized medicine. Nat. Commun. *16*, 3270. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-025-
58465-3.

46. Andrews, S. FastQC: A Quality Control Tool for High Throughput Sequence Data.
Version 0121 Available at: https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/

47. Langmead, B., and Salzberg, S.L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2.
Nat. Methods *9*, 357–359. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.1923.

48. Li, D., Liu, C.-M., Luo, R., Sadakane, K., and Lam, T.-W. (2015). MEGAHIT: an ultra-
fast single-node solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct *de*
Bruijn graph. Bioinformatics *31*, 1674–1676.
https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv033.

49. Kang, D.D., Li, F., Kirton, E., Thomas, A., Egan, R., An, H., and Wang, Z. (2019).
MetaBAT 2: an adaptive binning algorithm for robust and efficient genome reconstruction
from metagenome assemblies. PeerJ *7*, e7359. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.7359.

50. Wu, Y.-W., Simmons, B.A., and Singer, S.W. (2016). MaxBin 2.0: an automated binning
algorithm to recover genomes from multiple metagenomic datasets. Bioinformatics *32*,
605–607. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv638.

51. Nissen, J.N., Johansen, J., Allesøe, R.L., Sønderby, C.K., Armenteros, J.J.A., Grønbech,
C.H., Jensen, L.J., Nielsen, H.B., Petersen, T.N., Winther, O., et al. (2021). Improved
metagenome binning and assembly using deep variational autoencoders. Nat. Biotechnol.
39, 555–560. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-020-00777-4.

52. Sieber, C.M.K., Probst, A.J., Sharrar, A., Thomas, B.C., Hess, M., Tringe, S.G., and
Banfield, J.F. (2018). Recovery of genomes from metagenomes via a dereplication,
aggregation and scoring strategy. Nat. Microbiol. *3*, 836–843.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-018-0171-1.

53. Parks, D.H., Imelfort, M., Skennerton, C.T., Hugenholtz, P., and Tyson, G.W. (2015). CheckM: assessing the quality of microbial genomes recovered from isolates, single cells, and metagenomes. Genome Res. *25*, 1043–1055. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.186072.114.

54. Olm, M.R., Brown, C.T., Brooks, B., and Banfield, J.F. (2017). dRep: a tool for fast and accurate genomic comparisons that enables improved genome recovery from metagenomes through de-replication. ISME J. *11*, 2864–2868. https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2017.126.

55. Parks, D.H., Chuvochina, M., Waite, D.W., Rinke, C., Skarshewski, A., Chaumeil, P.-A., and Hugenholtz, P. (2018). A standardized bacterial taxonomy based on genome phylogeny substantially revises the tree of life. Nat. Biotechnol. *36*, 996–1004. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.4229.

56. Seemann, T. (2013). Barrnap 0.8: Basic Rapid Ribosomal RNA Predictor. Available at. https://github.com/tseemann/barrnap

57. Chan, P.P., Lin, B.Y., Mak, A.J., and Lowe, T.M. (2021). tRNAscan-SE 2.0: improved detection and functional classification of transfer RNA genes. Nucleic Acids Res. *49*, 9077–9096. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkab688.

58. Shen, W., Le, S., Li, Y., and Hu, F. (2016). SeqKit: A Cross-Platform and Ultrafast Toolkit for FASTA/Q File Manipulation. PLOS ONE *11*, e0163962. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0163962.

59. Aroney, S.T.N., Newell, R.J.P., Nissen, J.N., Camargo, A.P., Tyson, G.W., and Woodcroft, B.J. (2025). CoverM: read alignment statistics for metagenomics. Bioinformatics *41*, btaf147. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btaf147.

60. Musiał, K., Petruńko, L., and Gmiter, D. (2024). Simple approach to bacterial genomes comparison based on Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) using fastANI and ANIclustermap. Acta Univ. Lodz. Folia Biol. Oecologica *18*, 66–71. https://doi.org/10.18778/1730-2366.18.10.

61. Eren, A.M., Esen, Ö.C., Quince, C., Vineis, J.H., Morrison, H.G., Sogin, M.L., and Delmont, T.O. (2015). Anvi'o: an advanced analysis and visualization platform for 'omics data. PeerJ *3*, e1319. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1319.

62. Olm, M. R. et al. inStrain profiles population microdiversity from metagenomic data and sensitively detects shared microbial strains. Nat. Biotechnol. 39, 727–736 (2021).

63. Rodriguez-R, L. M., Gunturu, S., Tiedje, J. M., Cole, J. R. & Konstantinidis, K. T. Nonpareil 3: Fast Estimation of Metagenomic Coverage and Sequence Diversity. mSystems 3, e00039-18 (2018).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental Figures (pantiukh_Suppl_Figures.docx). Fig. S1 to S4.

Supplemental Tables (pantiukh_Supplementary_Tables_S1-S7.xlsx). Tables S1 to S7.