Long read metagenomics-based precise tracking of bacterial strains and genomic

changes after fecal microbiota transplantation

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Abstract

Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) has revolutionized the treatment of recurrent

Clostridioides difficile infection (rCDI) and is being evaluated across other diseases. Accurate

tracking of bacterial strains that stably engraft in recipients is critical for understanding the

determinants of strain engraftment, evaluating their correlation with clinical outcomes, and

guiding the development of therapeutic bacterial consortia. While short-read sequencing has

advanced FMT research, it faces challenges in strain-level *de novo* metagenomic assembly. In

this study, we described a novel framework, *LongTrack*, which uses long-read metagenomic

assemblies and rigorous informatics tailored for FMT strain tracking. We highlighted

LongTrack's advantage over short-read approaches especially when multiple strains co-exist in

the same sample. We showed LongTrack uncovered hundreds of engrafted strains across six

FMT cases of rCDI and inflammatory bowel disease patients. Furthermore, long reads also

allowed us to assess the genomic and epigenomic stability of engrafted strains during the 5-

year follow-ups, revealing structural variations that may be associated with strain adaptation in a

new host environment. Combined, our study advocates the use of long-read metagenomics and

LongTrack to enhance strain tracking in future FMT studies, paving the way for the development

of more effective defined biotherapeutic as an alternative to FMT.

Main

Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) has emerged as a new therapeutic strategy,

transforming the treatment paradigms for patients with recurrent *Clostridioides difficile* infection

(rCDI)[1–3]. By transferring gut microbiota from a healthy donor into a patient, FMT effectively

restores the patient's gut microbial ecology[4,5]. Potential applications of FMT extend beyond rCDI

onto treating a broader array of diseases[6,7], such as the treatment of inflammatory bowel

disease (IBD) [8–10] and cancer immunotherapy[11–13] .

The FMT procedure operates on the principle of transferring gut microbiota, which

constitutes diverse bacterial strains, the functional impact units of the gut microbiota[14–16], from a

healthy donor into a recipient[4,17]. Precise and comprehensive tracking of these strains from

transplantation to engraftment within the recipient's gut is essential for understanding factors

that facilitate or hinder colonization[5,17–19], providing vital information on how specific strains

correlates with clinical outcomes[18,20] ,which can guide the development of defined bacterial

consortiums, composed of strains with beneficial effects, for safer therapeutic applications[19–21].

High throughput metagenomic shotgun sequencing studies have provided valuable

insights into strain engraftment in FMT in various diseases[18,20–25] primarily through short-read

sequencing to detect single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and/or gene clusters that can

track strains in the recipient after FMT[22–24,26–28]. However, a recent study, using genome

sequences from extensive bacterial isolates collection[20] for strain tracking, showed that short-

read approaches face challenges when multiple strains co-exist in a single microbiome

sample[29–34,35]. Once individual isolate genomes from donor and pre-FMT recipient samples are

assembled with high-purity and high-completeness, reliable tracking can be achieved using

each strain's unique k-mers in short-read metagenomic data[20]. However, standard culturing

methods often miss certain bacterial taxa due to the selectivity of culture media and/or

conditions[36], and pose challenges for scaling up large FMT cohorts. Long-read sequencing

empowers *de novo* genome assembly of complete, contiguous, strain-level resolution

metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) at strain resolution[32,37–39], greatly complementing

culture and short-read approaches[40–42]. With this rationale, we developed a new framework,

LongTrack, that uses rigorous informatics tailored to reliably use long-read MAGs for strain

tracking (**Fig. 1**). Building upon systematically cultured bacterial strains from FMT donors and

recipients for rCDI with 5-year follow-ups[20] (**Fig. 1A**), this strain collection served as a ground

truth for LongTrack evaluation (**Fig. 1B**) and showed that LongTrack outperforms short-read

based methods, especially in distinguishing co-existing bacterial strains within a microbiome

sample (**Fig. 1C**). Additionally, taking the advantages of long-read sequencing in strain-level

read mapping[40,42] and direct detection of bacterial DNA methylation[43–47], we identified structural

variations (SVs) and epigenetic changes within strains as they transferred from donors to post-

FMT recipients during follow-up (**Fig. 1D**).

Results

High purity, strain-level long-read MAGs serve as a solid foundation for LongTrack.

The success of strain tracking in FMT depends on obtaining strain-resolved and high purity

genomes from both the donor and the recipient before FMT, allowing differentiation among co-

existing strains of the same species.

Bacterial isolation is an effective method for achieving this, as sequencing individual

colonies yield discrete genomes with high purity and completeness. With this rationale, we built

on the collection of 1000+ bacteria isolates with individually assembled genomes as ground

truth[20] to evaluate the long-read MAGs, and their accuracy in FMT strain tracking. We selected

four FMT cases of rCDI (3 donors and 4 recipients) from which, 184 unique strains (105 species)

were isolated with individually assembled genomes[20] (**Extended Data Fig. 1**). We generated

new long-read sequencing data for 15 samples, and deeper short-read for two samples to

enable a systematic evaluation along with LongTrack.

To construct strain-level long-read MAGs, we employed a pipeline tailored for long-read

sequencing data, involving metagenomic assembly, haplotype phasing, and strain-level

refinement (**Extended Data Fig. 2, Methods**). From four cases, we obtained a total of 460 long-

read MAGs (460 strains across 312 species), including 60 strains shared with cultured isolates

(**Fig. 2A**). As Donor 1 (D1) had the most bacterial isolates (136 unique strains), we focused on

D1 to demonstrate the advantage of long reads for *de novo* assembly of MAGs compared to

short reads. We obtained 135 short-read MAGs from D1 (**Fig. 2B**) and 20 short-read MAGs

from R1 using metaSPAdes[48], which demonstrates better performance compared to MEGAHIT[49]

(**Supp Fig. S1).** Contamination analysis with CheckM[50] for 460 long-read MAGs (from all 4

cases) and 155 short-read MAGs (from D1 and R1) revealed lower contamination and higher

contig N50 values in long-read MAGs than short-read MAGs (**Fig. 2C-D**). Specifically, for D1,

the assemblies yielded 124 long-read MAGs and 135 short-read MAGs with comparable

completeness (78.2% vs 78.6 %, **Extended Data Fig. 3A**). Although short-read data had the

advantage in sequencing depth (47 Gb vs. 23 Gb), long-read MAGs still consistently exhibit

significantly lower contamination rates (1.24% vs 2.11%, **Extended Data Fig. 3B**) and larger

N50 values (627.5 kb vs 56.9 kb, **Extended Data Fig. 3C**). These findings are consistent with

previous studies that demonstrated the advantage of long-read sequencing for *de novo*

metagenomic assembly across many microbiome samples[30,37–40,51,52].

In our in-depth evaluation, we compared these MAGs to the isolate genomes. For D1, 31

and 23 isolate genomes were shared with long-read MAGs and short-read MAGs, respectively

(**Fig. 2B**). and long-read MAGs include all 23 MAGs recovered by short-read MAGs along with 8

additional strains (**Fig. 2B**). Both long-read and short-read MAGs spanned the same 17

taxonomic orders, with 8 detected only by MAGs (**Fig. 2E**). Additionally, all MAGs overlapping

with isolate genomes, including 60 long-read MAGs (across 4 cases) and 23 short-read MAGs

(from D1), were used to evaluate the reliability of long-read MAGs in comparison with short-read

MAGs. First, we assessed their contamination levels by mapping MAGs to their corresponding

isolate genomes (**Fig. 2F, Extended Data Fig. 4A**), which provide more reliable insights than

estimates by CheckM[50] (**Extended Data Fig. 4B**). The contamination levels were lower for long-

read MAGs (1.34%) compared to short-read MAGs (4.77%), for both species with a single and

co-existing strains (**Fig. 2F**, **Extended Data Fig. 4C-D**). We further evaluated the k-mer

similarity between MAGs and their corresponding isolate genomes, which consistently indicated

long-read MAGs exhibit a higher similarity (**Extended Data Fig. 4E**). Importantly, long-read

sequencing effectively recovered the same number of strains as bacterial culture from the same

donor sample while these co-existing strains were not completely recovered in the short-read

MAGs (**Fig. 2G**). We also identified 11 plasmids from the 60 shared isolate genomes of which 7

plasmids, including one circular, were recovered from long-read sequencing. However, none of

the 7 plasmids were correctly binned with their matching chromosomes, highlighting that

plasmid binning in microbiome settings remain a challenge and need to be assisted by more

specialized methods such as Hi-C[53]. While the shared strains demonstrate the reliability of long-

read MAGs, the inherent methodological differences between metagenomics and bacterial

isolation remain. Specifically, long-read MAGs, favor strains with modest-to-high relative

abundance, such as *Akkermansia muciniphila* (0.63%) and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* (3.94%),

while bacterial culture favors strains selected by culture media rather than abundance, such as

Escherichia coli with abundance below 0.01% (**Fig. 2A**). In D1, 37.1% and 65.9% metagenomic

reads can be mapped to the isolate genomes and long-read MAGs (**Methods**), respectively,

with 76% mapping to the merged reference (isolate genomes and long-read MAGs) (**Supp Fig.**

S2). Interestingly, the 31 shared strains accounted for 30.7% metagenomic reads, because of

their relatively high abundance, highlighting the complementarity between long-read MAGs and

bacterial culture.

LongTrack enables reliable use of Long-read MAGs for precise FMT strain tracking

Once individual isolate genomes are assembled, strain tracking can be reliably performed using

unique k-mers (n=31) selected from isolate genomes and short-read sequencing of post-FMT

samples, providing a robust ground truth for evaluating LongTrack[20]. This k-mer based strategy

(Strainer) has been demonstrated[20] with superior performance compared to several SNP-based

approaches[20] including inStrain[27], StrainFinder[23] , and ConStrains[22], particularly for modest-to-

low abundance strains and multiple co-existing strains. Our independent evaluation of

LongTrack confirmed that the k-mer based approach is more sensitive than the SNP-based

method (StrainFinder[23]), which tends to miss modest-to-low abundance strains (**Extended Data**

Fig. 5).

However, Strainer is not compatible with long-read MAGs that often comprise incomplete

MAGs (taxa with modest-to-low abundance) which can lead to false strain tracking results)

Therefore, to reliably use long-read MAGs for FMT strain tracking, we developed LongTrack,

where for similar co-existing strains in one fecal sample, or two similar strains each in the donor

sample and recipient pre-FMT samples, we selected unique k-mers only from their common

genomic regions (**Fig. 1C**). This adaptation avoids the selection of unreliable k-mers that appear

to be unique to a strain but are not, due to the incompleteness of long-read MAGs, highlighting

a key difference between high purity but incomplete long-read MAGs and the complete

genomes of bacterial isolates[20] (**Methods**). We compared the number of unique k-mers used for

strain tracking in multiple co-existing strains, using the original Strainer with high completeness

isolate genomes versus LongTrack with high-purity long-read MAGs (**Fig. 3A**). Although

LongTrack generally kept fewer unique k-mers compared to Strainer, it still retained enough

unique k-mers for reliable strain tracking in post-FMT samples (**Fig 3B**). In addition, we

compared the sensitivity of LongTrack and culture-based strain tracking using the union of all

strains detected by long-read MAGs and isolate genomes as the reference set. Specifically,

when assessing sensitivity across varying abundance ranges, LongTrack demonstrated 100%

sensitivity for strains with relative abundance >0.01 and maintained a high sensitivity of 83% for

strains with relative abundance between 0.001 and 0.01, while culture-based strain tracking

missed many taxa in these ranges. However, for ultra-low abundance strains (<1e–4),

LongTrack's sensitivity dropped sharply, while culture-based approach achieved >98%

sensitivity (**Extended Data Fig. 6**). These results illustrate that LongTrack effectively captures

strains with moderate to high abundance, while culture-based methods have a clear advantage

in detecting very low-abundance taxa, due to the limited sequencing depth inherent in

metagenomic approaches. This evaluation highlights the complementary nature of the two

approaches for FMT strain tracking.

We further compared precision and specificity of strain tracking based on LongTrack with

long-read MAGs (across 4 cases) versus Strainer with short-read MAGs (D1), with multiple fecal

sampling time points each. LongTrack achieved great precision (1.00) and specificity (1.00) (**Fig.**

3B) when using shared isolate genomes as the ground truth[20], while Strainer with short-read

MAGs had lower precision (0.96) and much lower specificity (0.33) (**Fig. 3B**), likely due to the

false-positive tracking and missed the co-existing strains (**Fig. 3C**). Building upon the two well-

characterized FMT cases, D1->R1 and D1-> R2, we found 100% consistency of strain tracking

results between LongTrack with long-read MAGs and ground truth for all 31 shared strains (**Fig.**

3C). In contrast, Strainer with short-read MAGs correctly track 23 of the 31 strains (74%) but

failed to track the other 8 strains in post-FMT samples as it was not able to resolve the multiple

strains co-existing within the same donor sample. In addition, we also observed that Strainer

with short-read MAGs produced six false positives due to high contamination. For instance, the

short-read MAGs *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* has contamination levels of 8.76%, with 28% of

the contamination originating from *Bacteroides vulgatus* within the same sample (**Supp Fig. S3),**

leading to unreliable k-mers and the false positive tracking results (**Fig. 3C**). We applied

LongTrack to two additional rCDI FMT cases: D2->R3 and D3->R4 and also found high

precision (**Fig. 3D-E**). A noteworthy observation is that long-read MAG completeness does not

significantly affect tracking accuracy. We performed additional evaluations with two mock FMT

scenarios with *in silico* spike-in (**Methods**). In the first evaluation, we spiked-in three strains of

Phocaeicola massiliensis (Str 1-3) to D1, and a fourth strain of *P. massiliensis* (Str 4) to pre-FMT

R1; all four were present in post-FMT R1 (**Fig. 3F**). LongTrack recovered all four strains and

accurately tracked them in post-FMT R1, while short-read MAGs only recovered two of the four

strains (**Fig. 3F**). In the second evaluation, we spiked-in ten pairs of strains, each with high

similarity (ANI>99.5%), from ten different species, to D1 and pre-FMT R1. All twenty strains

were added to post-FMT R1 (**Fig. 3G**). LongTrack correctly tracked all strains in post-FMT

recipients, while Strainer with short-read MAGs missed two (**Fig. 3G**).

LongTrack helps better understand strain engraftment in rCDI and IBD patients

Building on the reliability of LongTrack-based FMT strain tracking as evaluated, we scale up strain tracking to more comprehensively understand strain engraftment in FMT. Across all the four cases of rCDI FMT, long-read sequencing recovered 396 MAGs with diverse taxonomy distribution (**Fig. 4A**) that were not captured by the previous culture-based study[20].

We performed LongTrack to measure the engraftment of donor strains in the recipients, focusing on uncultured strains from long read. We used *proportional engraftment of donor strains* (PEDS) to summarize strain engraftment up to five years after FMT. We found consistent and stable engraftment of donor strains (**Fig. 4B**), with PEDS values comparable to cultured strains (**Extended Data Fig. 7A**). In these individuals, we report an average PEDS of 98% of uncultured strains in the first week, which stabilized ~96% at 8 weeks and remained 63% even 5 years later. This demonstrates that FMT can lead to a stable long-term engraftment of donor's uncultured strains in rCDI patients. We also monitored the persistence of recipient strains post-FMT using *proportional persistence of recipient strains (PPRS)*. We observed a major reduction (47%) in PPRS of recipient strains post-FMT, both for cultured and uncultured strains, indicating a major shift in the gut microbiota following FMT (**Fig. 4C, Extended Data Fig. 7B**). The absence of *C. difficile* in post-FMT R1 is noteworthy, suggesting that the transplantation led to a more balanced and health-promoting gut microbiota (**Extended Data Fig. 8A**).

We examined the individual trajectories of long-read MAGs recovered strains for donor-recipient pairs (**Extended Data Fig. 8**) and found several strains that stably engrafted in the recipient after five years potentially linked to human health and diseases. One notable example, *A. muciniphila* , present in D1 and D2, is a mucin-degrading bacterium linked to various health benefits and improved treatment outcomes[54–59]. It helps prevent *C. difficile* overgrowth through the modulating gut microbiota and metabolites[32], supports gut barrier integrity and immune response[33]. *A. muciniphila* strains from D1 and D2 demonstrated stable engraftment in post-

FMT recipients, with persistence observed for up to five years (**Extended Data Fig. 8A-B**). *F.*

prausnitzii is another species well resolved exclusively by long-read MAGs. and related to

human health through short chain fatty acids production[61–66] and , a potential role in maintaining

gut health and preventing IBD[62,63,67]. *F. prausnitzii* strain from D1 was detected in 8-week post-

FMT R1 but not detected 5-year post-FMT R1 (**Extended Data Fig. 8A**).

Next, we performed LongTrack to expand the tracking analysis to strains from post-FMT

samples and reversely tracked them in earlier time points (**Methods**). This approach captures

strains that were low-abundance in donor or pre-FMT but increased in post-FMT samples,

allowing them to be assembled by long reads. Indeed, this design helped us identify 35

additional strains from the three FMT cases (**Extended Data Fig. 9A-C**). All these cases have

clear evidence that they were from either the donor sample or pre-FMT samples but were not

recovered by long-read sequencing due to low abundance. Interestingly, we also observed

novel strains recovered from post-FMT recipients, but no evidence supported their presence in

any of the earlier times, neither donor nor pre-FMT (**Extended Data Fig. 9D-F**). For example,

Acidaminococcus intestini, present only in the 5-year post-FMT R1 (**Extended Data Fig. 9D**),

was likely acquired from the environment sometime between week 8 and year 5, unless its

abundance was below detections limit in all the earlier time points.

We further applied the LongTrack to two FMT cases for the treatment of IBD[8,68], which

represents pre-FMT recipients with more complex microbiome than rCDI patients. The two IBD

patients (R5 and R6) each received fecal samples from six donors (D4 - D9) (**Extended Data**

Fig. 10), as multiple donors are often used in the FMT treatment of IBD [8,68]. This greater

complexity of FMT provided a great opportunity to demonstrate the power of LongTrack for

strain tracking. We conducted long-read sequencing on two of the donors (D4 and D5) and the

two pre-FMT recipients and recovered 188 MAGs. Out of these strains, 64% and 35% strains

from the two donors successfully engrafted in the two 16-week post-FMT recipients,

respectively (**Figs. 4D-E**). We also estimated PPRS and observed that 80% and 96% of strains

from pre-FMT recipients were present in 16-week post-FMT recipients (**Fig. 4D-E**). Compared to

the FMT cases for rCDI at a similar time point (8 weeks), we observed lower PEDS and higher

PPRS in the FMT cases for IBD, which is consistent with the expectation that the gut

microbiome of IBD patients is more diverse and resilient upon FMT introduction of donor strains[8].

We observed 19 and 20 coexisting strains (from donors and pre-FMT recipients) in the two IBD

post-FMT recipients (**Fig. 4F-G**). Notably, while nearly all strains from the pre-FMT recipients

remained stable for 16-week post-FMT, some donor strains were not detectable, suggesting

endogenous strains in IBD patients are more resilient in the same host after FMT.

Long-read sequencing of post-FMT samples uncovered genomic structural variations

within engrafted strains

It is crucial to understand how donor strains adapt to the recipient's microbiome environment,

which can drive genomic variations - that not been extensively studied[69–71]. Long-read

sequencing has great advantages in complex SV detection and direct detection of DNA

methylation[43–47,72], enabling to assess the stability and dynamics of SVs and DNA methylation in

individual strains across donor and post-FMT

A systematic analysis of long-read sequencing data of the post-FMT recipients across

various time points identified 38 SVs, including 6 deletions, 20 insertions, and 12 inversions, as

determined by stringent filtering criteria (**Methods**). Comparison of read alignments of SV

regions showed that both long-read sequencing methods provided clear and consistent flanking

sequence alignments (**Fig. 5A**), illustrating they were from the same strain, whereas short-read

sequencing plots displayed several mismatches, making it challenging to reliably attribute the

sequences to the same strain (**Fig. 5A**). Out of the 38 SVs, 12 were identified in four strains

that we were able to isolate from both donor and post-FMT recipient samples, allowing us to

validate these SVs. Long-read sequencing of these newly cultured isolates confirmed paired

donor and post-FMT recipient isolates are indeed the same strain, with high genome-wide ANI

(>99.9%). Among the 12 SVs, 11 alternative SV genotypes (91.67%) indeed exist in the same

strain as validated by long-read sequencing of the isolates from donor and post-FMT samples,

demonstrating the high reliability of SV detection within the same strain using long-read

sequencing (**Fig. 5B, Supp Fig. S4**).

Notably, five SVs were identified in TonB-dependent receptor genes or their upstream

regions (**Fig. 5B**). which are crucial for iron transport in Gram-negative[73]. The deletions in these

genes might be associated with immune-mediated selective pressures[74]. *Bacteroides stercoris*

D1 exhibited a high-frequency inversion exclusively in susC genes in late-stage post-FMT,

potentially linked to immune adaptation within new host environment (**Fig. 5C**). *A. putredinis* D1,

a deletion in IS110 family transposase gene (ISCaa7) was observed with a high prevalence in

post-FMT (**Fig. 5C**), and may affect genetic diversity, evolution, and antibiotic resistance

propagation, highlighting the impact on microbial adaptability[75,76]. Moreover, in *Gemmiger*

formicilis D2, an insertion proximal to yesO gene (**Fig. 5C**), encoding an ABC transporter

substrate-binding protein, which likely plays a significant role in nutrient uptake and metabolic

processes[77].

We also observed some more complex SVs that involve bacterial restriction-modification

systems (RMS), which safeguard bacterial genomes by cleaving unmethylated foreign DNA

while methylating self DNA[45,78–82]. These SVs can alter the activity or specificity of DNA

methyltransferases (MTases), driving genome-wide methylation changes that regulate gene

expression and enhance phenotypic diversity[83–85], promoting bacterial adaptation to stresses

such as antibiotics and host immune responses[86,87]. Long-read sequencing facilitates

simultaneous detection of SVs and DNA methylation patterns at single-molecule resolution,

enabling linkage of RMS genotypes to methylation motifs, revealing the epigenomic impact of

SVs. For example, we detected a complex SV spanning a Type I RMS S subunits of *P. merdae.*

The nested inverted repeats create a complex genomic shuffling among six different genotypes

(**Fig. 5D**). Notably, genotype 5, predominantly observed in the donor, had a drastic reduction in

post-FMT, while genotype 6 was absent in the donor but significantly increased in post-FMT.

Because the specificity unit, S, of the Type I RMS system determines the sequence recognition

motif of the MTases, the genotype switches of this RMS locus can create genome-wide

methylation changes[41]. To test this hypothesis, we used PacBio sequencing data, which offers

advantages in detecting 6-methyladenine (6mA) at single molecule resolution[46,72,80], and indeed

observed a DNA methylation motif CA6mAYNNNNNNRTC exclusively in post-FMT samples

(**Fig. 5E**). This observation suggests some SVs can influence genome-wide changes in

methylation and potentially help *P. merdae* adapt to the recipient's gut environment. In addition,

we examined 11 unique Type II methylation motifs across ten single strains with high-coverage

Nanopore long-read data (**Fig. 5F**), including one 5-methylcytosine (5mC) motif, two as 4-

methylcytosine (4mC) motifs, and eight 6mA motifs. These motifs demonstrate consistency and

stability in both donors and recipients over various time points.

Discussion

In this study, we present a novel approach, LongTrack, that uses long-read sequencing and

tailored informatics for precision FMT strain tracking, addressing a critical gap in the high-

resolution tracking of microbial strains.

A key methodological innovation of LongTrack is the rigorous selection of strain-unique

k-mers from long-read MAGs that are compatible with the high-purity yet sometime incomplete

long-read MAGs (for low-abundance strains), which are different from separately assembled

bacterial isolate genomes[20]. LongTrack includes a critical step that retains only those unique k-

mers originating from assembled genomic regions shared across the conspecific strains both

within and between FMT donor and recipient samples. Once reliable strain-unique k-mers are

selected by LongTrack from long-read MAGs, subsequent strain tracking can then be reliably

performed using short-read microbiome sequencing data. This LongTrack framework was

validated against ground truth methods based on Strainer with isolate genomes from large-scale

bacterial culture[20].

The previous isolate-based method served as valuable controls for methods evaluation,

although standard culture-based approaches often miss certain bacterial taxa due to the

selective nature of culture media. For instance, strains like *A. muciniphila* and *F. prausnitzii*

were missed under standard culture conditions, despite being culturable from stool samples

under more stringent conditions[88,89]. Nonetheless, the inclusion of isolate genomes in our study

was primarily intended to evaluate LongTrack with long-read MAGs against Strainer with short-

read MAGs, particularly in resolving co-existing strains. Importantly, the use of isolate strains

with pure and complete genome assemblies provides a solid approach to evaluate strain

tracking[20]. A noteworthy observation from our analysis is that several MAGs with low

completeness (<50%) still exhibit high ANI (>99.6%) and k-mer similarity (>92%) to their

corresponding cultured isolates. These MAGs, though incomplete, such as *Bacteroides caccae*

with MAG size of 499 kb, which is well above the typical size of mobile genetic elements (1–200

kb), contained sufficient unique k-mers to enable accurate strain tracking in post-FMT samples

(**Fig. 3C**), and did not impact on the reliability of LongTrack's results. Application of LongTrack to

FMT cases for both rCDI and IBD patients demonstrated the method's applicability across

diverse microbiome complexities. Notably, the application of LongTrack allowed the

identification of a large number of strains across diverse taxonomy, including many strains not

cultured by standard conditions[20], and revealed more complete insights into their long-term

engraftment in rCDI patients up to five years post-FMT. In IBD FMT, LongTrack demonstrated its

effectiveness in more complex microbiomes with greater strain diversity, and the FMT from

multiple donors to IBD patients. Due to the relatively small sample size, the study of rCDI and

IBD FMT samples were mostly for methods evaluation and demonstration of broad applicability,

instead of generalized findings on strain engraftment. Future studies on large cohorts could

further explore the influence of strain richness on engraftment dynamics and its therapeutic

implications[68].

The required sequencing depth for effective strain tracking using LongTrack appears to

be flexible and influenced by microbial complexity and strain abundance. For donor D1, we

generated 23 Gb of long-read data to maximize recovery of strains shared with cultured isolates

and enable a robust comparison. However, donors D2 and D3 yielded consistent and accurate

reliable tracking results with only 18 Gb and 15 Gb of data, respectively. Notably, in the two IBD

FMT cases (D4 and D5), sequencing depths of just 10 Gb and 6 Gb enabled the successful

reliable tracking of 52 and 39 strains. These results highlight that moderate sequencing efforts

can still yield highly informative outcomes.

Beyond identifying strains that are stably engrafted post-FMT, this study made the first

attempt to assess the genomic dynamics of donor strains as they adapt to new microbial and

host environments in recipients. This adaptation process, which may select for certain genomic

changes in the engrafted strains, remained a relatively unexplored area in FMT research. A

number of recent studies highlighted the importance of SVs, in addition to SNVs, in microbiome

adaptation[66,81,82]. However, reliable detection of strain-level SVs, across the longitudinal

samples poses a challenge to short-read sequencing but can be better approached by long-

read sequencing[83]. Long reads have the advantages in detecting complex SVs like shufflons,

dynamic DNA inversion systems known to influence bacterial adaptation by generating

structural diversity[81,92,93]. Building on longitudinal samples collected over five years following

FMT, we identified 38 SVs using stringent filtering criteria (requiring >5 coverage depth for high-

confidence mapping) and note that the SV analysis is dependent on sequencing depth and

additional SVs may be detected with deeper sequencing data.

We employed two long-read sequencing technologies: Oxford Nanopore and PacBio

sequencing. Oxford Nanopore technology produces ultra-long reads that are highly effective for

de novo assembling high-quality MAGs and detecting SVs. PacBio sequencing offers the

advantage of high-accuracy long read and quantitative detection of 6mA and 4mC at single-

molecule resolution[72]. By leveraging the complementary strengths of these technologies, we

suggest a new dimension to characterize how donor strains adapt in post-FMT recipients over

time.

While LongTrack offers novel insights, it does inherently face limitations in recovering

super low abundance strains. To mitigate this, we propose two complementary strategies. First,

integrating long-read sequencing and culture-based methods to provide a more complete view

of the FMT strain engraftment. Second, applying targeted enrichment methods, such as flow

cytometry[84] or bacterial methylome patterns[85], to selectively sequence and analyze low-

abundance taxa, thereby improving their recovery and tracking.

As the cost of long-read sequencing platforms continue to decrease, we expect

LongTrack to be broadly used for high-resolution strain tracking in FMT studies, paving the way

towards better understanding FMT and the development of more effective defined

biotherapeutics. More broadly, LongTrack can also help precise strain tracking in other

biomedical studies to enhance our understanding of strain transmission, genomic and

epigenomic variation, and their roles in health and diseases[95–98].

Figure legend

Figure 1. Description of FMT samples, matched bacteria isolates and the core design of LongTrack for reliable FMT strain tracking and detecting intra-strain structural variations in engrafted strains.

A, Stool samples were collected from three FMT donors and four FMT recipients at multiple time points over five years. Extensive bacterial culture, isolate genome assemblies, and short read-metagenomic sequencing have been performed in the previous study by Aggarwala et al and shown along with FMT samples. Long-read metagenomic sequencing data were newly generated for this study. **B**, Long-read data from donors' and recipients' samples before FMT were used to construct *de novo* metagenome-assembled genomes (long-read MAGs). The overlapping isolate genomes enable a systematic evaluation of the reliability of long-read MAGs, which serves as the foundation of LongTrack. **C**, Schematics of the core design of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking based on strain-level long-read (LR) MAGs. Strain-unique k-mers (k=31) were identified for each strain-level LR MAG from donor or pre-FMT recipient as the markers by eliminating common k-mers present in public database, or the other MAGs in the same FMT donor and recipient (**Methods**). To ensure specificity, strain-unique k-mers are only selected from shared regions across multiple strain-level LR MAGs within the same species. The presence of these final unique k-mers of a specific MAG (above a confidence score, **Methods**) in a post-FMT recipient's short-read metagenomic data indicates that the corresponding MAG is present (green color) in the post-FMT recipient sample. **D**, Long-read metagenomic sequencing data were also utilized for strain-specific detection of structure variations (SVs) that differ between donor and post-FMT samples. The references for putative genotypes were created and used to map and quantify specific SVs in each sample, allowing tracking of SV changes between hosts and/or along time. The long-read approach has unique advantage in strain-level

read mapping that allows reliably detection of intra-strain variations, which are challenging for

short reads due to their limitations in accurately mapping reads to specific strains.

Figure 2. High-purity, strain-level long-read MAGs serve as a solid foundation for

LongTrack.

A, The Venn diagram displays the number of strains that were recovered by long-read (LR)

MAGs (yellow color) or isolate genomes from bacterial culture (red color) from 3 donors and 4

recipients, with the left bar plot illustrating examples of species with MAGs with modest-to-high

relative abundance but were missed by culture, and with right bar plot illustrating examples of

isolates that were cultured but not recovered by long-read sequencing because of their very low

abundances. **B**, The Venn diagram displays the number of strains that can be recovered by LR

MAGs (yellow color), short-read (SR) MAGs (blue) or isolate genomes (red) in Donor 1 (D1). LR

MAGs include all the 23 strains recovered by SR MAGs, along with 8 additional strains not

assembled by short reads. **C**, Contamination levels of 460 LR MAGs (from Donor 1-3 and

Recipient 1-4) and 135 SR MAGs (from Donor 1, D1, for which we generated ultra-deep data)

assessed using CheckM, showing significantly lower contamination in LR MAGs ($p < 0.01$, **,

Wilcoxon test). **D**, Distributions of relative abundance (log scale) and contig N50 (kb) for LR

MAGs (from Donor 1-3 and Recipient 1-4) and SR MAGs (from D1). **E,** Order-level taxonomic

comparison of LR MAGs, SR MAGs, and isolate genomes from D1. **F**, Contamination level for

60 LR MAGs (from Donor 1-3 and Recipient 1-4) and 23 SR MAGs (from D1), evaluated across

various species with a single strain or multiple strains. LR MAGs consistently show lower

contamination ($p < 0.01$, **, Permutation test). Contamination levels were assessed by mapping

long-read and short-read MAGs to their corresponding isolate genomes and calculating the

percentage of unaligned bases as a measure of contamination. **G**, LR sequencing have a

unique advantage to resolve multiple co-existing strains from the same species than SR

sequencing.

Figure 3. Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking.

A, Numbers of unique k-mers used for strain tracking in cases of multiple co-existing strains by

the original Strainer method (with complete genomes assembled for isolates) and the LongTrack

method (with long-read MAGs). Although some k-mers from shared regions are filtered out by

LongTrack, enough unique k-mers remain for reliable strain tracking in post-FMT samples. **B**,

Precision and specificity of strain tracking using LongTrack with long-read MAGs (Donor 1-3 and

Recipient 1-4) versus Strainer with short-read MAGs (Donor 1). Across 3 donors and 4

recipients with multiple fecal sampling time points (326 unique strain presence/absence events),

LongTrack with long-read MAGs achieved high precision (1.00) and specificity (1.00). In

contrast, Strainer with short-read MAGs (n = 186) showed lower precision (0.96) and specificity

(0.33). **C**, Presence (green) or absence (gray) of strains in post-FMT recipients determined by

strain-specific unique k-mers selected from the ground truth (Strainer with isolate genomes),

LongTrack with long-read MAGs, or Strainer with short-read MAGs. Discrepancies with the

ground truth are indicated by an "X" marker. **(C-E).** The evaluation of strain tracking was

performed for four FMT cases of rCDI: D1->R1 (**C**), D1->R2 (**C**), D2->R3 (**D**), and D3->R4 (**E**). **F**,

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking using *in silico* spike-in data that represent the

co-existence of multiple strains of the same species in the donor sample. Specifically, we

spiked-in three strains of *Phocaeicola massiliensis* (Str 1-3) to D1, and a fourth strain of *P.*

massiliensis (Str 4) to R1 pre-FMT. All four strains were added to post-FMT recipient R1. **G**,

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking using *in silico* spike-in data that represent cases

when there are high-similarity strains present in between the donor and pre-FMT

samples. Specifically, we spiked-in ten pairs of strains, each with high similarity (ANI>99.5%),

from ten different species, one strain to D1 and the other to pre-FMT recipient R1, similarly for

all the ten pairs. All twenty strains were added to post-FMT recipient R1.

Figure 4. LongTrack uncovered hundreds of engrafted strains across six FMT cases of

rCDI and IBD patients.

A, Diverse taxonomy distribution of long-read MAGs that are not cultured in the previous study

by Aggarwala *et al*. **B**, Proportional engraftment of donor strains (PEDS) in individual post-FMT

recipients at various time points of the 5-year follow up. **C**, Proportional persistence of recipient

strains (PPRS) in individual post-FMT recipients at various time points of the 5-year follow up. **D**

& **E**, PEDS and PPRS analysis for the two FMT cases for IBD patients R5 (**D**) and R6 (**E**),

where three colors are used to represent the strains from the two Donors (D4 and D5) or the

recipient. (**F** & **G**) The presence and absence of co-existing strains in the two IBD patients (R5,

F, R6, **G**) after FMT that originated from the two Donors (D4 and D5) or the recipient.

Figure 5. Long reads uncovered complex structural variations in engrafted strains during

the 5-year follow-up after rCDI FMT.

A, IGV plots illustrating the advantage of long reads in the detection of intra-strain structural

variation (SV) detection, including a 43 bp deletion in *Parabacteroides merdae* and a 1250 bp

insertion in *Alistipes putredinis*, over short-read sequencing. Flanking sequences of SVs show

clear and consistent alignments in all long-read IGV plots, supporting that they are from the

same strain. In contrast, short-read plots display several mismatches, making it difficult to

reliably determine whether the sequences belong to the same strain. **B**, Heatmap summarizing

SVs detected in donors and post-FMT recipients at early (E) and late (L) time points after FMT

including inversions (INV), deletions (DEL), and insertions (INS). Samples with insufficient

coverage over a specific SV region are marked by an asterisk (*). SVs confirmed in isolates

from both donor and recipient are marked with a blue cross (+). SVs are also categorized by

their location: intergenic regions (IR) and genic regions (GR). **C**, Examples of SVs with changing

genotype frequencies across donor and post-FMT recipient over time. (1) inversion in

Bacteroides stercoris; (2) deletion in *Alistipes putredinis* changes in genotype frequency both in

the early and late stage post-FMT; (3) insertion in *Gemmiger formicilis* with frequency changes

only at late stage post-FMT. Pie charts demonstrate the genotype frequencies for donor (D1 or

D2) and post-FMT recipient (R1 or R3) at early and late time points after FMT. **D**, A complex

inversion (shufflon) involving six genotypes is located on restriction endonuclease subunit S of

the RMS system in *Parabacteroides merdae.* Genotype frequencies vary with major changes

observed for Genotype 6 *i.e.* absence in donor and increases after FMT. **E**, DNA adenine

methylation (6mA) motifs in the *P. merdae* strain detected across donor and post-FMT recipient

with different time points; CA6mAYNNNNNNRTC corresponds to Genotype 6 of this RMS phase

variant, which is only detectable after FMT. **F**, DNA methylation motifs detected across several

single strains demonstrating epigenomic stability in the donor (D1) and post-FMT recipient (R1)

over time.

Extended data figure legend

Extended Data Fig. 1 Description of sample collection and FMT study design for CDI patients.

Stool samples were collected from three donors and four recipients at multiple time points. For the illustration of LongTrack, strain tracking was performed for long-read MAGs assembled from donors and recipients using short-read metagenomic data generated across all the samples shown in the figure (please refer to **Methods** for details). The Venn diagram displays the number of strains that were recovered by long-read (LR) MAGs (yellow color) or isolate genomes from bacterial culture (red color) from 3 donors and 2 recipients

Extended Data Fig. 2 Illustration of LongTrack workflow's implementation in this study for generating strain-level long-read MAGs

Initially, the raw long reads from donor and pre-FMT recipient underwent metagenomic assembly using the metaFlye (v2.9). The resulting Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) were then partitioned into individual bins corresponding to the species level using MaxBin (v2.0). Strainberry (v1.1) was used to separate the contigs into strain level based on haplotype phasing for each species-level bin. Subsequently, metaWRAP (v1.3.2) was employed to bin the separated contigs into strain level. Finally, the strain-level long-read MAGs with completeness of more than 10% were chosen for FMT strain tracking in post-FMT recipients (Please see **Methods** for details).

Extended Data Fig. 3 Comparative evaluation of long-read MAGs and short-read MAGs from Donor 1

A. Completeness levels of 124 long-read MAGs (LR MAGs) and 135 short-read MAGs (SR

MAGs) from Donor 1 reveal no significant differences. **B**. Contamination levels of 124 LR MAGs

and 135 SR MAGs from Donor 1 assessed using CheckM, showing significantly lower

contamination in LR MAGs (p < 0.01, **, Wilcoxon test). **C**. Contig N50 (kb) comparison for 124

LR MAGs and 135 SR MAGs Donor 1.

Extended Data Fig. 4 Assessment of contamination level in long-read/short-read MAGs

A. Schematic of contamination level by mapping long-read and short-read MAG to its

corresponding isolate genome, calculated as the percentage of unaligned bases contamination;

B. Comparative analysis of contamination levels determined by comparing to the isolate

genome and by using the CheckM tool. A total of 60 long-read (LR) MAGs from Donors 1–3 and

Recipients 1–4, and 23 short-read (SR) MAGs from Donor 1 (D1) were analyzed. (**C–D**)

Comparison of contamination levels in corresponding strains between LR MAGs and SR MAGs

from D1. (**C**) Bar plots illustrating contamination levels in corresponding strains between LR

MAGs and SR MAGs for species with multiple co-existing strains and species with a single

strain, emphasizing the consistently lower contamination observed in LR MAGs. **D.**

Contamination levels for 31 LR MAGs and 23 SR MAGs from D1, categorized by species with

either a single strain or multiple co-existing strains. LR MAGs consistently demonstrated lower

contamination levels (p < 0.01, permutation test). **E.** Genomic similarity of shared strains

between the long-read (LR) MAGs/short-read (SR) MAGs and their corresponding isolate

genomes determined by k-mer similarity (**Methods**). The result indicates long-read MAGs

exhibit a significantly higher similarity (*p-value* < 0.05, *).

Extended Data Fig. 5 Evaluation of FMT strain tracking between LongTrack and StrainFinder as a representative of SNP-based inference approach

A. For the donor sample D1, *in silico* spike-in dataset was designed with 3% *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* and 2% *Turicibacter sanguinis* added to the microbiome dataset. For the post-FMT recipient R1, the spike-in data set A (low abundance) had a composition of 0.25% *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* and 0.1% *Turicibacter sanguinis*, while the spike-in data set B (high abundance) had a composition of 2.5% *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* and 1% *Turicibacter sanguinis* **(Methods)**. **B**. The strain tracking results indicate that the SNP-based approach, StrainFinder, works well for strains with relatively modest-to-high abundance (data set B), but tends to miss strains with modest-to-low abundance (data set A). The chart represents the presence (green) or absence (gray) of strains in post-FMT recipients based on spike-in design (considering ground truth), LongTrack with long-read MAGs, or StrainFinder. Discrepancies with the ground truth are indicated by an "X" marker.

Extended Data Fig. 6 Sensitivity evaluation of LongTrack and culture-based approach (Strainer)

The sensitivity evaluation of LongTrack and the culture-based approach (Strainer) was performed using the union of all strains detected either through isolate genomes or MAGs as the reference set. To evaluate sensitivity across different microbial abundance levels, the reference set was stratified by relative abundance thresholds, which provides a comprehensive benchmark that encompasses the diversity of detectable strains, including those uniquely identified by each method.

Extended Data Fig. 7 LongTrack uncovered engraftment of cultured strains across FMT

cases in rCDI patients

A, Proportional engraftment of donor strains (PEDS) for shared cultured strains is shown across

individual post-FMT recipients at various time points of the 5-year follow up. **B**, Proportional

persistence of recipient strains (PPRS) for shared cultured strains is shown across individual

post-FMT recipients at various time points of the 5-year follow up.

Extended Data Fig. 8 LongTrack uncovered hundreds of engrafted strains of rCDI

The long-read MAGs uncultured by the previous study were utilized for strain tracking to

determine if they were present in the post-FMT recipients for FMT cases of CDI: The results of

tracking across three FMT cases D1->R1 (**A**), D2->R3 (**B**), and D3->R4 (**C**), which describe the

presence (green) or absence (gray) of strains based on LongTrack.

Extended Data Fig 9. **Reverse strain tracking of earlier samples based on long-read**

MAGs assembled from post-FMT recipients using LongTrack

The long-read MAGs assembled from post-FMT recipient samples were utilized for strain

tracking to determine if they were also present in the donor and pre-FMT recipient metagenomic

data using LongTrack (Reverse tracking). The results of reverse tracking across three FMT

cases: D1 -> R1, D2 -> R3 and D3 -> R4 are shown in **A-C**, which describe the presence (green)

or absence (gray) of strains based on LongTrack. **(D-F)** Illustration of bacterial strains that may

have been acquired from environmental sources, as determined by long-read MAGs assembled

from the five-year post-FMT recipients' samples but absent in all the earlier samples. The

results across three FMT cases: D1 -> R1, D2 -> R3 and D3 -> R4 are shown in **D-F**, which

describe the presence (green) or absence (gray) of strains based on LongTrack.

Extended Data Fig 10. Description of samples collection and FMT study design for two

IBD patients.

Stool samples were collected from six donors and two recipients at multiple time points. The two

recipients (IBD R5 and IBD R6; orange) had received FMT from six donors (IBD D4 - D9; gray).

For the illustration of LongTrack, strain tracking was performed for long-read MAGs assembled

from two donors (IBD D4 and D5; purple) using short-read metagenomic data generated across

all the samples shown in the figure (please refer to **Methods** for details)

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Competing interests

S.P. has served as a consultant / steering committee member for Vedanta Biosciences and has received speaker / advisory board fees from AbbVie, Dr Falk Pharma, Ferring, Janssen and Takeda. J.F. is a consultant for Vedanta Biosciences and Genfit. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

Author contributions

Initiated study: G.F. and J.F. Developed methodology: Y.F. and G.F. Data analysis: Y.F., J.F. and G.F. Data interpretation: Y.F., M.N., V.A., E.A.M., M.K., L.C., J.F. and G.F. Collection and interpretation of clinical data: M.A.K., T.J.B., S.P., N.O.K. and A.G. Supervised research: G.F. Wrote first draft of paper: Y.F. and G.F. Approved paper: all authors.

Data availability

All sequencing data generated for this study have been uploaded to the Sequence Read Archive under the BioProject PRJNA1101882.

Code Availability

Customized scripts of LongTrack and a tutorial with supporting data are available at
https://github.com/fanglab/LongTrack

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Materials and Methods

Fecal sample collection and DNA extraction

The adult fecal samples were from a previous study[1] with Institutional Review Board approval (rCDI: HS# 11-01669, IBD: HREC/13/SVH/69). Fecal DNA was extracted with a QIAamp PowerFecal Pro DNA Kit (Qiagen, 51804) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 64 - 436 (average is 181) mg of fecal sample, and 800 µl of Solution CD1 were added to the Bead Tube (provided). After gentle vortexing, the sample was homogenized with the TissueLyser II machine (Qiagen, 85300) for 10 min at 25 Hz speed (5 min each side). The homogenized samples were centrifuged to collect the supernatant at 15,000 x g for 1 min. The subsequent column-based extraction steps were performed as described in the QIAamp PowerFecal Pro DNA Kit protocol.

Library preparation and sequencing

Nanopore long-read sequencing

Native libraries were prepared using the Oxford Nanopore Technology Inc. (New York, NY, USA) Native barcoding kit (EXP-NBD104 and 114 for R9.4.1 flow cells, and SQK-NBD114.24 for R10.4.1 flow cells), Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK109 for R9, and SQK-LSK114 for R10.4.1). Prior to library preparation, genomic DNA (gDNA) was sheared using Covaris g-tubes (Covaris, Woburn, MA, USA 520079) at 6000 RPM in an Eppendorf 5424R centrifuge (Eppendorf, Enfield, CT, USA, 5406000640) and cleaned up with AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN, USA, A63882) at 0.8 x concentration. Whole genome amplification (WGA) samples were prepared using REPLI-g Mini Kits (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany, 150023) according to the protocol with 12.5 ng of input DNA per sample and 16 h incubation at 30 °C, followed by denaturation at 65 °C for 3 minutes. Next, WGA samples were treated with T7

endonuclease I (NEB M0302S) to maximize nanopore sequencing yield according to ONT

documentation, then cleaned up with AMPure XP beads as above. Subsequently, samples were

processed the same as above native libraries. Samples were sequenced on R9.4.1 and R10.4.1

MinION flow cells and post-run basecalled using Guppy (v5.0.7 for R9.4.1 data and 6.3.4 for

R10.4.1 data)[2] with the SUP model dna_r9.4.1_450bps_sup.cfg and

dna_r10.4.1_e8.2_400bps_sup.cfg, respectively.

Illumina short-read sequencing

Library construction for Illumina sequencing was executed utilizing the seqWell Plexwell 384 kit.

DNA was systematically barcoded, and ligation products underwent purification. Size selection

and PCR amplification of the DNA fragments followed. The prepared library was then

sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq platform, generating paired-end reads of 150 base pairs (bp)

each.

PacBio long-read sequencing

DNA SMRTbell libraries were prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions for the

SMRTbell Express Template Prep Kit 2.0, then each library was annealed to sequencing primer

together with the Sequel 2.1 polymerase, followed by loading to the a 8M Sequel II sequencing

chip (for Sequel II) and 25M Revio sequencing chip.

Metagenomic assembly, strain-level separation and taxonomic annotation

Long-read metagenomic assembly

Initially, the raw long reads were subjected to a metagenomic assembly for long-read MAGs

process using the metaFlye tool (v2.9)[3] with "---nano-raw --meta --keep-haplotypes --iterations

2". The resulting metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) were partitioned into individual bins

corresponding to the species level using the MaxBin (v2.0) software[4]. To annotate the species-

level bins, we applied the Genome Taxonomy Database Toolkit (GTDB-tk v1.6.0)[5]. For each

species-level bin, we utilized Strainberry (v1.1)[6] to separate the contigs into the strain level

based on haplotype phasing. Subsequently, these separated contigs were binned to strain level

using the "binning" module of metaWRAP (v1.3.2)[7], which could combine the results from three

metagenomic binning software - MaxBin2[4], metaBAT2[8], and CONCOCT[9]. The quality of the

reconstructed long-read MAGs was evaluated using the "bin_refinement" module in metaWRAP

(v1.3.2)[7], which combines the results of multiple binning algorithms and selects high-quality bins

based on completeness and contamination estimates, as well as estimated by CheckM

(v.1.1.3)[10]. The strain-level long-read MAGs with completeness of more than 10% were selected

for further analysis. We used viralVerify (v1.1)[11] and PLASMe (v1.1)[12] to identify plasmids in

each assembly. For viralVerify, only contigs shorter than 500 kbp with prediction scores greater

than five were considered. Annotations labeled as 'Plasmid' or 'Uncertain - plasmid or

chromosomal' were classified as plasmids. For PLASMe, only results with high precision were

included. Overlapping plasmids identified by both methods were treated as the final results.

Short-read metagenomic assembly

We conducted a metagenomic assembly of the short reads using metaSPAdes (v3.15.2)[13] and

MEGAHIT (v1.1.3)[14] with default settings to construct short-read MAGs, which show similar

completeness and contamination levels (**Supp Figs. S1A and S1B).** However, MEGAHIT[14]

identified a smaller number of shared strains with isolate genomes (**Fig 2B**, **Supp Fig. S1C).**

Based on these results, we used MAGs from metaSPAdes[13] for subsequent analyses.

Subsequently, we utilized metaWRAP (v1.3.2)[7] to bin and refine the reconstructed short-read

MAGs. The completeness and contamination level for the short-read MAGs were estimated

using CheckM (v.1.1.3)[10], and only those with completeness of more than 10% were selected for

further analysis. Taxonomic assignment of the reconstructed short-read MAGs was performed

using GTDB-tk (v1.6.0)[5].

Evaluation of long-read MAGs

The previous study identified a total of 184 unique strains, which were from 184 different

bacterial isolates previously isolated from three distinct donors and recipients[1]. Specifically, 136

bacterial isolates were from Donor 1 (D1), 20 were from Donor 2 (D2), 8 were from Donor 3

(D3), 2 were from Recipient 1 pre (R1), 7 were from Recipient 4 pre (R3), and 11 were from

Recipient 4 pre (R4). The resulting assemblies for each isolate serve as reference individual

genomes. To detect shared strains between long-read MAGs/short-read MAGs and genomes of

bacterial isolates, we utilized fastANI (1.32)[15] for average nucleotide identity (ANI) calculation,

applying a 99.4 % cut-off[3]. We assessed the contamination level by mapping long-read and

short-read MAG to its corresponding isolate genome, calculated as the percentage of unaligned

bases. Mummer (v4.0.0b)[17] was employed to identify the mapping regions between long-read

MAG/short-read MAG and its corresponding genome of isolate. Additionally, permutation tests

were performed to evaluate statistical differences in contamination levels between long-read

and short-read MAGs. We also assessed the genomic similarity of shared strains between the

long-read MAGs/short-read MAGs and their corresponding isolate genomes determined by k-

mer similarity as in the previous study[1], with the following formula:

$$\text{Kmer Similarity} = \frac{Number\ of\ shared\ kmer\ between\ Genome\ A\ and\ Genome\ B}{Lesser\ total\ kmer\ count\ of\ either\ Genome\ A\ and\ Genome\ B}$$

Where:

K-mer size is set to 31.

Shared k-mers are those that appear in both Genome A and B.

Total k-mer count is the count of all distinct 31-mers in a genome.

The k-mer similarity between two genomes A and B was determined by generating a

hash for genomes with k-mer size 31 and quantifying the proportion of k-mers shared in both

genomes A and B divided by the lesser total k-mer count of either

The proportion of reads associated with each strain/MAG

We analyzed long-read and short-read metagenomic sequencing data from D1 by mapping to a

merged set of genomes, which included genomes from bacterial isolates and uncultured long-

read MAGs or short-read MAGs. For the long-read data, we used 136 genomes from bacterial

isolates and 105 uncultured long-read MAGs. The proportion of reads associated with each

strain/MAG was determined by calculating the percentage of metagenomic reads that were

successfully mapped to each genome/MAG in this merged set. Similarly, the short-read data

were aligned to the same 136 genomes of bacterial isolates, supplemented with 120 uncultured

short-read MAGs, to quantify the proportion of reads associated with each strain/MAG.

LongTrack framework designation for FMT strain tracking based on strain-unique k-mers

The LongTrack framework for FMT strain tracking follows a three-step algorithmic process (**Fig.**

1C). LongTrack strain tracking relies on strain-unique k-mers, built on previous methods[1], and

incorporates important methodological adaptations compared to previous studies to ensure the

reliable selection of unique k-mers and to minimize false positives.

Step 1: Identification of strain-unique k-mers from each long-read MAG

a. Extract strain-unique k-mers from each long-read MAG

Following established methods[1], the LongTrack framework extracts k-mers (k=31) for each

strain-level long-read MAG from the donor or pre-FMT recipient using KMC (version 3.0.0)[18].

Strain-unique k-mers are then identified by eliminating common k-mers shared in 100,000

bacterial genomes in the NCBI database (as of 2018-11-20), 116 unrelated metagenomic

samples from a previous study[1], and other long-read MAGs within the same FMT case.

b. Obtain strain-unique k-mers in co-existing strains

Relying solely on strain-unique k-mers identified in Step 1a can lead to false strain-tracking

results due to the varying completeness of long-read MAGs, especially for similar co-existing

strains. For instance, as shown in **Fig. 1C**, Strains A1 and A2 both belong to Species A and are

co-existing strains from the same donor. If the k-mers identified for Strain A1 in Step 1a

correspond to genomic regions missing in Strain A2 due to incomplete assembly, these k-mers

may also appear in Strain A2 simply because of the high genomic similarity between the two

strains. In such cases, the k-mers are not truly unique to Strain A1 but are instead masked in

Strain A2 by assembly gaps, leading to unreliable results.

To address this issue, LongTrack introduces methodological adaptations to ensure the reliable

selection of strain-unique k-mers and to minimize false positives. Specifically, for similar co-

existing strains within a single fecal sample or closely related strains found separately in the

donor and pre-FMT recipient samples, LongTrack applies a filter to retain only those unique k-

mers originating from genomic regions shared among multiple co-existing strains in same FMT

case. Mummer (v4.0.0b)[17] is used to identify these common genomic regions.

This approach prevents the erroneous selection of k-mers that might seem strain-specific but

are unreliable due to MAG incompleteness—a critical distinction between high-purity long-read

MAGs and complete genomes from bacterial isolates. The resulting retained strain-unique k-

mers serve as markers for each long-read MAG, enabling reliable strain tracking in subsequent

steps.

Step 2: Assign short reads with final strain-unique k-mers to metagenomic samples

In the second step, the final strain-unique k-mers identified in Step 1b were utilized to assign

short reads from post-FMT recipient microbiome data to their corresponding long-read MAGs.

Short reads containing strain-unique k-mers were mapped back to their respective long-read

MAGs using Bowtie 2.4.1[19], with parameters optimized for accuracy ('very-sensitive,' 'no-mixed,'

and 'no-discordant'). The successful alignment of short reads to genomic regions containing

strain-unique k-mers confirmed the presence of the corresponding MAG in the post-FMT

recipient, facilitating accurate strain tracking.

Step 3: Discard results with low confidence score

To ensure the reliability of strain tracking, we calculated a confidence score by comparing read

enrichment in five unrelated metagenomic samples (negative controls) as done in the previous

study[1]. Results with low confidence scores (< 95% confidence) were discarded to maintain the

accuracy of strain tracking.

1030

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking

Sensitivity evaluation of LongTrack and culture-based approach (Strainer)

To evaluate the sensitivity of LongTrack and the culture-based approach (Strainer), we used the

union of all strains detected either through isolate genomes or MAGs as the reference set. This

method offers a comprehensive benchmark that captures the diversity of detectable strains,

including those uniquely identified by each technique. The analysis was stratified by relative

abundance thresholds to assess detection performance across varying microbial abundance

levels, yielding valuable insights into the sensitivity of LongTrack. Sensitivity was determined as

the ratio of True Positives (TP) to the sum of True Positives (TP) and False Negatives (FN).

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking through comparison with ground truth

For a systematic assessment of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking, we utilized the shared

strains between long-read MAGs/short-read MAGs and genomes of bacterial isolates in four

FMT cases of rCDI. This evaluation was conducted by comparing tracking results in the post-

FMT recipients at different time points based on Strainer with genomes of bacterial isolates

(considered the ground truth) and LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs. We applied two

key metrics:

1. Precision: Precision quantifies the proportion of correct tracking results (True Positives,

TP) relative to all tracking results predicted by the LongTrack/Strainer with short-read

MAGs. It is calculated as TP divided by the sum of True Positives (TP) and False

Positives (FP).

2. Specificity: Specificity evaluates the effectiveness of LongTrack/Strainer with short-read

MAGs in accurate strain tracking. It is determined by the ratio of True Negative (TN) to

the total number of True Negative (TN) and False Positives (FP).

The accuracy of strain tracking based on LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs was

evaluated using the formula: the number of consistent tracking results between ground truth and

LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs divided by the total number of tracking results,

expressed as a percentage. The tracking results were presented as a heatmap using the R

package "pheatmap v1.0.12".

Evaluation of FMT strain tracking between LongTrack and StrainFinder, which serves as a

representative methods of SNP-based tracking

To evaluate FMT strain tracking between LongTrack and StrainFinder[20], we utilized *in*

silico spike-in datasets (**Extended Data Fig. 5**). For donor D1, we spiked in 3% *Clostridium*

tyrobutyricum at 60x depth and 2% *Turicibacter sanguinis* at 40x depth into long-read

microbiome dataset. The simulated Nanopore long reads were generated using nanosim (v

3.0.0)[21] for metagenomic assembly. The error profile was trained using real sequencing data

from a large number of nanopore sequencing reads, and the read length distribution was

modeled to match that of the actual Donor 1 sequencing data. Similarly, we produced simulated

short-read data with identical abundances of these strains for donor D1 in the short-read

microbiome datasets. For the post-FMT recipient R1, we spiked in short reads to the short-read

metagenomic sequencing data, which was used for strain tracking. We designed two distinct

spike-in datasets: A) The first dataset A (low abundance) featured a composition of 0.25% (5x

depth) *Clostridium tyrobutyricum*, along with paired short reads, each having a length of 150 bp.

Furthermore, this dataset included 0.1% (2x depth) *Turicibacter sanguinis*, with paired short

reads, also 150 bp in length. B) The second dataset B (high abundance) presented a

composition of 2.5% (50x depth) *Clostridium tyrobutyricum*, accompanied by paired short reads,

each measuring 150 bp in length. Additionally, this dataset contained 1% (20x depth)

Turicibacter sanguinis, once again with paired short reads, each 150 bp in length. We simulated

paired short reads with a length of 150 bp using randomreads.sh from the bbmap package

(v38.86)[22]. Subsequently, LongTrack and StrainFinder[20] were performed for strain tracking

analysis.

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking when there are high-similarity strains present in

between the donor and pre-FMT samples.

To evaluate LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs for FMT strain tracking when

there are high-similarity strains present in between the donor and pre-FMT samples, we spiked-

in ten pairs of strains, each with high similarity (ANI>99.5%), from ten different species, one

strain to D1 and the other to R1 pre-FMT, similarly for all the ten pairs **(Fig. 3F)**. All twenty

strains were added to R1 post-FMT. To facilitate metagenomic assembly, we generated

simulated long-read data/short-read data for D1 and R1 pre-FMT into their long-read/short-read

microbiome datasets. Furthermore, we simulated short-read paired reads, each with a length of

150 bp, to R1 post-FMT short-read microbiome datasets. The simulated Nanopore long reads

were generated using the nanosim (v 3.0.0)[21]. The short reads were generated using the

randomreads.sh from the bbmap package (v38.86)[22]. LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs

was performed for strain tracking analysis.

Evaluation of LongTrack for FMT strain tracking when there are co-existing strains of the same

species in one donor sample.

1096   To evaluate LongTrack/Strainer with short-read MAGs for FMT strain tracking when

there are co-existing strains of the same species in one donor sample, we spiked-in three

strains of *Phocaeicola massiliensis* (Strains 1-3) to D1 and a fourth strain of *P. massiliensis*

(Strain 4) to R1 pre-FMT **(Fig. 3H)**. For metagenomic assembly, long-read data/short-read data

were generated for these strains in D1 and R1 pre-FMT microbiome datasets. Furthermore, we

simulated short-read paired reads of 4 strains (Strains 1-4), each with a length of 150 bp, to R1

post-FMT short-read microbiome datasets. The simulated Nanopore long reads with an average

length of 5 kb, were generated using the nanosim (v 3.0.0)[21]. The short reads were generated

using the randomreads.sh from the bbmap package (v38.86)[22]. LongTrack/Strainer with short-

read MAGs was performed for strain tracking analysis.

1106

Application of LongTrack: strain tracking in rCDI and IBD cases, reverse tracking and

identification of novel strains

Application of LongTrack in strain tracking of rCDI cases

We initially retrieved long-read MAGs from 3 donors and 4 pre-FMT recipients. Using

LongTrack, we examined whether these MAGs were present in the metagenomic sequencing

data of the corresponding post-FMT recipients across multiple time points.

Application of LongTrack in strain tracking of IBD cases

In the IBD cases, the recipients (R5 and R6) had received fecal microbiota

transplantation from six donors (D4 - D9), and strain tracking was performed for long-read

MAGs from two donors (D4 and D5). To avoid the influence of common k-mers from the

remaining four donors, we further excluded the k-mers that were present in the short-read

metagenomic sequencing data of the other four donors. Subsequently, we assessed whether

these MAGs were present in the metagenomic sequencing data of the corresponding post-FMT

recipients across multiple time points using LongTrack.

LongTrack-based reverse tracking and novel strain identification

We initially retrieved 402 uncultured long-read MAGs from post-FMT recipients (R1-R4). We

then identified long-read MAGs shared between the post-FMT recipient and the respective

donor or pre-FMT recipient using an ANI exceeding 99.4% in the same FMT cases. We

confirmed that 39 long-read MAGs are unique to the post-FMT recipients and investigated

whether they were present in the metagenomic sequencing data of the corresponding donor

and pre-FMT recipient using LongTrack. If the long-read MAGs were not tracked in microbiome

data of donor, pre-FMT or any earlier time points of post-FMT, we considered them to be novel

strains.

1130

Detection of structural variation in engrafted strains using long-read sequencing

We utilized NGMLR (v 0.2.7)[23] to perform the alignment of long-read microbiome data of post-

FMT recipients (R1-R4) across various time points to the uncultured long-read MAGs and

isolated genomes from the respective rCDI donors (D1-D3). Following the alignment process,

we employed Sniffles (v1.0.12)[24] for the detection of structural variations (SVs) within the long-

read microbiome data. To ensure the reliability of our SV detection, we applied several filtering

criteria: 1) We excluded SVs involving multiple strains within the same species, as these are

more prone to mismatches and may not accurately represent structural variations. 2) For

mapping quality control, we retained aligned reads with identity greater than 98%, length more

than 1000 bp, and MAPQ (Mapping Quality) score greater than 60. 3) We kept SVs that had a

coverage depth of greater than 5 in long-read metagenomic sequencing data of donor and at

least one post-FMT, ensuring that the detected structural variations were well-supported by

sequencing data.

1144

Validation of structural variations using isolate long-read sequencing

We collected 18 isolates for SV validation, including:

o 2 *Alistipes onderdonkii* isolates: 1 from the donor and 1 from 8 weeks post-FMT.

o 4 *Bacteroides stercoris* isolates: 2 from the donor, 1 from 8 weeks post-FMT, and 1 from

6 months post-FMT.

o 5 *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* isolates: 2 from the donor, 1 from 8 weeks post-FMT, and

2 from 6 months post-FMT.

o 7 *Parabacteroides merdae* isolates: 3 from the donor, 2 from 8 weeks post-FMT, and 2

from 6 months post-FMT.

Native libraries were prepared using the Oxford Nanopore Technologies Native Barcoding Kit

(SQK-NBD114.24) for R10.4.1 flow cells and the Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK114).

Samples were sequenced on R10.4.1 MinION flow cells, and basecalling was performed post-

run using Guppy (v6.3.4)[2] with the SUP model dna_r10.4.1_e8.2_400bps_sup.cfg.

For alignment, we utilized NGMLR (v0.2.7)[23] to map the single isolate long-read sequencing

data to the corresponding long-read MAGs. SVs were detected using Sniffles (v1.0.12)[24]. We

then cross-validated the detected SVs from metagenomic sequencing data to determine if they

could also be identified in the single isolate long-read sequencing data.

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Methylation analysis using long read sequencing

De novo methylation motif discovery using Nanopore long-read sequencing

We utilized Nanodisco (v1.0.2)[25] to identify *de novo* methylation motifs in long-read MAGs from

the D1 . First, raw fast5 reads from both native and WGA metagenomic sequencing data of D1

were aligned to the long-read MAGs with "nanodisco preprocess". The alignments for each

long-read MAG were then segregated. Only long-read MAGs exhibiting a coverage above 20 x

were retained to following analysis. We then computed current differences (PA) between the

native (retaining methylation) and WGA (methylation-free) data for each genomic position using

"nanodisco difference". To conclude, "nanodisco motif and refine" was employed for *de novo*

methylation motif discovery based on these current differences. For D1 5-year, R1 post-FMT 8-

week, and R1 post-FMT 5-year, the raw fast5 reads from native microbiome data were aligned

to the retained long-read MAGs from D1 with "nanodisco preprocess" and separated the

alignments into each MAG. Subsequently, we computed the current differences by comparing

the native data with the WGA data from D1 for each MAG using "nanodisco difference".

"Nanodisco refine" was employed to verify the presence of D1 detected methylation motifs in the

samples of D1 5-year, R1 post-FMT 8-week, and R1 post-FMT 5-year based on the current

differences.

De novo methylation motif discovery using PacBio long-read sequencing

For PacBio long-read data of D1 (generated by the Sequel II platform), the raw reads pre-

processing was performed with SMRTlink (v8.0). Raw multiplexed files were first de-multiplexed

with lima. We mapped the subreads to long-read MAGs using pbalign (v0.4.1) with default

parameters and separated the alignments into each MAG. The IPD ratio was calculated with

ipdSummary (v2.4.1) from the alignments for each MAG. The *de novo* methylation motifs were

detected by using motifMaker (in SMRTlink v8.0 package) with default parameters. For PacBio

long-read data of D1 5-year, R1 8-week and R1 5-year (generated by the Revio platform), the

raw reads pre-processing was performed with SMRTlink (v13.0), and methylation motif

detection was performed by our in-house scripts.

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Fig.1

A FMT samples with cultured isolates

PreFMT (Day 0) Week 1 Year 5

Donors

Recipients

🍲 Isolate culture for genome assembly

★ Long-read sequencing for MAGs

▲ Short-read sequencing for strain tracking

B High purity, strain level long-read MAGs

Isolate genomes

Long-read MAGs

Method validation

LongTrack

C LongTrack enables reliable FMT strain tracking

Species A
Strain A1 Strain A2

Species B
Strain B1 Strain B2

Step 1a. Extract strain-unique k-mers from each LR MAG

Step 1b. Obtain strain-unique k-mers in co-existing strains by retaining the k-mers from shared genome regions

Donor PreFMT PostFMT
Week 1 Year 5

Step 2. Assign short reads with strain-unique k-mers to each metagenomic sample

	Donor	PreFMT	PostFMT Week 1	Year 5
Strain A1				
Strain A2				
Strain B1				
Strain B2				

Step 3. Discard results with low confidence score and obtain Presence/absence Table

Strain can be detected ▇ Yes ▇ No

D LongTrack resolves intra-strain structural variations in engrafted strains

Long reads

Genotype 1 (G1)

Genotype 2 (G2)

Donor G1

PostFMT Week 1 G2 G1

PostFMT Year 5 G2 G1

Fig.2

A Long-read MAGs — Donors & Recipients — Isolate genomes

Long-read MAGs (Abundance): *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, *Fusicatenibacter saccharivorans*, *Gemmiger qucibialis*, *Ruminococcus E bromii*, *Lachnospira eligens*, *Anaerobutyricum hallii*, *Akkermansia muciniphila*, *Agathobaculum butyriciproducens*, *Bilophila wadsworthia*, *Evtepia gabavorous*

Donors & Recipients Venn: 400 — 60 — 122

Isolate genomes (Abundance): *Escherichia coli*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Citrobacter koseri*, *Lactobacillus plantarum*, *Lactobacillus gasseri*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Enterococcus mundtii*, *Weissella strain*, *Weissella cibaria*, *Pediococcus acidilactici*

B Donor 1 Venn diagram: Isolate genomes 105; Long-read MAGs 34; Short-read MAGs 53; overlaps 8, 0, 23, 59

C Contamination % from CheckM: LR MAGs N=460, SR MAGs N=155 **

D Abundance of MAGs (log₁₀) vs N50 (kb): LR MAGs, SR MAGs

E Donor 1 Order taxon — Isolate, LR, SR — Presence / Absence
Actinomycetales, Bacteroidales, Clostridiales, Coriobacteriales, Erysipelotrichales, Lachnospirales, Lactobacillales, Oscillospirales, Peptostreptococcales, Acidaminococcales, Burkholderiales, Christensenellales, Desulfovibrionales, Eubacteriales, Monoglobales, Veillonellales, Verrucomicrobiales, Bacillales, Enterobacterales, Haloplasmatales, Staphylococcales, Tissierellales

F Contamination % compared to isolate genomes — Species with single strain (LR MAGs N=50, SR MAGs N=19) **; Species with multiple strains (LR MAGs N=10, SR MAGs N=4) **

G Strain can be recovered correctly — Yes / No — LR SR
B. ovatus Str1/Str2; *B. vulgatus* Str1/Str2; *B. longum* Str1/Str2; *B. pseudocatenulatum* Str1/Str2; *C. comes* Str1/Str2

Fig.3

Fig.4

A — Taxonomic Family

Acidaminococcaceae
Acutalibacteraceae
Akkermansiaceae
Anaerotignaceae
Anaerovoracaceae
Bacteroidaceae
Bifidobacteriaceae
Borkfalkiaceae
Burkholderiaceae
Butyricicoccaceae
Clostridiaceae
Coriobacteriaceae
Desulfovibrionaceae
Dialisteraceae
Eggerthellaceae
Enterobacteriaceae
Enterococcaceae
Erysipelatoclostridiaceae
Erysipelotrichaceae
Lachnospiraceae
Lactobacillaceae
Megasphaeraceae
Monoglobaceae
Oscillospiraceae
Pasteurellaceae
Peptostreptococcaceae
Ruminococcaceae
Streptococcaceae

B — Proportional engraftment of donor strains; Recipient R1, R3, R4; Before, Week 1, Week 4, Week 8, Month 6, Year 1, Year 5

C — Proportional persistence of recipient strains; Before, Week 1, Week 4, Week 8, Month 6, Year 1, Year 5

D — D4, D5 → R5

Number of strains from IBD donor: 39 (Donor 5: 52, Donor 4), 64%, 24 Post-FMT (34)
Number of strains from IBD pre-FMT: Pre-FMT 45, 80%, 16-week 36
Number of strains from IBD postFMT

E — D4, D5 → R6

Number of strains from IBD donor: 39 (Donor 5: 52, Donor 4), 35%, 10 Post-FMT (22)
Number of strains from IBD pre-FMT: Pre-FMT 52, 96%, 16-week 49
Number of strains from IBD postFMT

F — D4, D5 → R5

Species | Donor 4 | Donor 5 | Pre-FMT | Week 8 | Week 16

Agathobaculum butyriciproducens
Anaerostipes hadrus
Fusicatenibacter saccharivorans
Lachnospira rogosae A
Phascolarctobacterium faecium
Roseburia intestinalis
Adlercreutzia celatus A
Blautia A faecis
Evtepia gabavorous
Roseburia sp900552665
Acetatifactor sp900066565
Alistipes putredinis
Anaerobutyricum hallii
Faecalibacillus intestinalis
Coprococcus A catus
Gemmiger formicilis
Gemmiger qucibialis
KLE1615 sp900066985
Ruminococcus A sp003011855

G — D4, D5 → R6

Species | Donor 4 | Donor 5 | Pre-FMT | Week 8 | Week 16

Agathobaculum butyriciproducens
Gemmiger qucibialis
Roseburia intestinalis
Ruminococcus A sp003011855
Dorea A longicatena
Evtepia gabavorous
Faecalibacillus faecis
Anaerobutyricum hallii
Blautia A massiliensis
Blautia A wexlerae
Eubacterium G ventriosum
Faecalibacterium prausnitzii C
Holdemanella sp002299315
Ruminococcus D bicirculans
Anaerostipes hadrus
Coprococcus A catus
Fusicatenibacter saccharivorans
Gemmiger formicilis
Lachnospira rogosae A
Phascolarctobacterium faecium

Strain can be detected based on: D4 MAGs, D5 MAGs, Pre-FMT MAGs

Fig.5

A

Parabacteroides merdae

Short-read Alignment

Nanopore Long-read Alignment

PacBio Long-read Alignment

43bp Deletion

Alistipes putredinis

Short-read Alignment

Nanopore Long-read Alignment

PacBio Long-read Alignment

1250bp Insertion

B

Strain	Type	Donor	Early	Late	Gene/downstream gene
Agathobacter rectalis D1	INV			*	IR: DNA/RNA helicase
	INS			*	IR: Type II toxin-antitoxin system prevent-host-death family
	DEL			*	IR: Nucleotidyltransferase domain-containing protein
	INS			*	IR: Transcriptional regulator
✦ ***Alistipes onderdonkii* D1**	INV				GR: Restriction endonuclease subunit S
	INV				IR: Transcription antitermination protein RfaH
	INS				IR: Hypothetical protein
	INV				IR: Hypothetical protein
Alistipes putredinis D1	DEL				GR: IS110 family transposase ISCaa7
	INS				IR: Hypothetical protein
	INV				GR: Type-1 restriction enzyme EcoKI specificity protein
	INS				GR: OmpA family protein
	DEL				IR: DUF4836 family protein
	INS				IR: Hypothetical protein
	INV				IR: Site-specific integrase
	INS				GR: Hypothetical protein
	INS				IR: Lysine 2,3-aminomutase
	INS				IR: Peptide chain release factor RF2
✦ ***Bacteroides stercoris* D1**	INV				GR: TonB-dependent receptor SusC
Bacteroides uniformis D1	INV				IR: UpxY family transcription antiterminator
	INS				GR: Alkaline phosphatase
✦ ***Bifidobacterium adolescentis* D1**	INS			*	GR: H(+)/Cl(-) exchange transporter ClcA
✦ ***Parabacteroides merdae* D1**	INV				GR: Restriction endonuclease subunit S
	INS			*	IR: TonB-dependent receptor
	INV			*	GR: Hypothetical protein
	INS			*	GR: TonB-dependent receptor SusC
	INV			*	IR: Hypothetical protein
	DEL				GR: TonB-dependent receptor SusC
Gemmiger formicilis D2	DEL				IR: Hypothetical protein
	INV				GR: Restriction endonuclease subunit S
	INS				IR: ABC transporter substrate-binding protein YesO
	INS				IR: Type II secretion system protein
	INS		*		IR: tRNA-Ala(tgc)
	DEL		*		IR: Protein VirD4
	INS		*		IR: Hypothetical protein
	INS		*		GR: DUF87 domain-containing protein
Phocaeicola plebeius D2	INS				GR: TonB-dependent receptor P26

SV frequency
0 — 1

* Low/No coverage; IR: Intergenic region; GR: Genic region

The SVs in ✦ strain can be detected in the isolate genomes from fecal of donor and recipient

C

Bacteroides stercoris

SusC SusC
Genotype 1
Genotype 2

D1 → R1 E → R1 L

Alistipes putredinis

Soj ISCaa7
Genotype 1
Genotype 2

D1 → R1 E → R1 L

Gemmiger formicilis

YesO
Genotype 1
Genotype 2

D2 → R3 E → R3 L

Genotype 1 (green)
Genotype 2 (blue)
E: Early Stage
L: Late Stage

D

Parabacteroides merdae Type I MTases

R M S1 S2 S3
Genotype 1
Genotype 2
Genotype 3
Genotype 4
Genotype 5
Genotype 6

D1 → R1 E → R1 L

Genotype 1 Genotype 3 Genotype 5
Genotype 2 Genotype 4 Genotype 6
E: Early Stage
L: Late Stage

E

Species	Motifs	Donor 1		Post-FMT R1		Methylation detection
		Day 0	Year 5	Week 8	Year 5	
Parabacteroides merdae	TCCGG6mA	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	CA6mAGNNNNNNNTTC	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	GRNT6mAYNNNNNNRTTA	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
	CA6mAYNNNNNNRTC			Yes	Yes	← Only in Genotype 6

F

		Day 0	Year 5	Week 8	Year 5
Agathobacter faecis	GGW4mCC				
Akkermansia muciniphila	RA6mATTY				
Anaerobutyricum hallii	GGNC5mC				
Anaerostipes hadrus	CTS6mAG				
Bacteroides uniformis	AC6mAGG				
	AGT6mACT				
Mediterraneibacter faecis	GGW4mCC				
Ruminococcus D bicirculans	CTGC6mAG				
Bifidobacterium bifidum	CTGC6mAG				
Dorea longicatena	GC6mATC				
Eubacterium R sp000434995	A4mCGGC				
	GCC6mAT				
	C6mATG				