Benchmarking of shotgun sequencing depth highlights strain-level limitations

of metagenomic analysis

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Abstract

Shallow metagenomics promises taxonomic and functional insights into samples at an affordable price.

To determine the depth of sequencing required for specific analysis, benchmarking is required using

defined communities. We used complex mixtures of DNA from cultured gut bacteria and analysed

taxonomic composition, strain-level resolution, and functional profiles at nine sequencing depths (0.1-

10.0 Gb). Reference-based analysis provided accurate taxonomic, and strain-level insights at 0.5-

1.0 Gb. In contrast, *de-novo* metagenome-assembled genome (MAG) reconstruction required deep

sequencing (>10 Gb). Furthermore, it was found that even high-quality MAGs were chimeric, with few

(54.5 %) accurately representing the original strains. Functionally, 2 Gb provided reliable insights at the

pathway level, but sufficient proteome coverage was only achieved at 10 Gb. Library preparation and

host-DNA were identified as confounders in shallow metagenomic analysis. This comprehensive

analysis using complex mock communities provides guidance to an increasing community of scientists

interested in using shallow metagenomics, and highlights the limitations of MAGs in capturing strain-

level diversity.

Introduction

Next-generation sequencing is essential for microbiome research, enabling comprehensive analysis of complex microbial communities at an ever-increasing sample size. However, their widespread use contrasts the low number of studies that tested their robustness and accuracy.

The most frequent used method for microbiota analysis is 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing due to its ease of implementation, both experimentally and bioinformatically, and low cost compared to metagenomics. However, it is limited to structural analysis of the microbiota (diversity and composition) and taxonomic resolution is limited to the genus level (strain analysis may be possible for certain taxonomic groups when using amplicon sequence variants). Experimentally it is also prone to amplification bias[1]. Whilst deep metagenomics offers a solution to these shortcomings, it is challenging to perform with low biomass samples or those with a high fraction of non-microbial DNA (e.g., human tissue samples) and is also more cost intensive.

Shallow metagenomics, defined as shotgun sequencing at a depth ≤1 Gb (ca. 3 million reads), has been proposed to overcome the limitations of both, high-throughput 16S rRNA gene amplicon and deep metagenomic sequencing[2–4]. Few studies have attempted to benchmark shallow metagenomics and thereby define which metagenomic information is accessible at what sequencing depth, and also how reliably it can be obtained. A common approach used by most benchmarking studies is to compare sequencing techniques and depths using native samples, such as human stool[3–7]. The main disadvantage of this is that the original composition of the input is unknown, preventing accurate benchmarking. Even fewer studies investigated the impact of sequencing depth using samples with defined microbial composition, hereon referred to as Mock communities[2,8]. Cattonaro et al. used a commercially available Mock community, containing 20 strains, of which the abundance of 5 was below their detection threshold[8]. Xu et al. used Mock communities with two different distributions, including up to 69 human gut bacterial species[2]. However, their analysis relied on a limited set of sequencing depths and focused on comparing shallow metagenomics with 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. Other common practices are to bioinformatically subsample deeply sequenced datasets to mimic different sequencing depths or to generate artificial Mock communities in-silico. However, these approaches do not reflect the impact of real sample processing and sequencing in the laboratory.

Given the urgent need to better define the strengths and limitations of shallow metagenomics, we systematically evaluated the effects of shotgun sequencing depth on the analysis resolution of composition, strain-level diversity, and functional readouts (**Supplementary Fig. S1**). For this, we used two complex mixtures of bacterial DNA: one with an even distribution of DNA from 70 bacterial strains (Mock-even) and one with a staggered distribution of DNA from 24 strains (Mock-stag)

64 (**Supplementary Fig. S2**). As wet-lab factors can cofound results, DNA libraries were prepared in two

65 laboratories and in the presence/absence of background DNA isolated from the gut of germfree mice.

Methods

DNA extraction and preparation of the Mock communities

For creation of the two mock communities (Mock-even and Mock-stag), DNA was obtained from

isolates in our collections of mouse and human gut bacteria [9,10]. DNA was extracted from freshly grown

strains revived from frozen glycerol stocks based on the method of Godon et al. 1997 [11] modified as

described in Afrizal et al [9]. DNA concentration was measured using a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientist). The DNA was pooled in equimolar amounts for all 70 isolates or with a staggered distribution

for 24 selected isolates (**Supplementary Figure S2**).

Non-bacterial background DNA was isolated, as described above, using gut content collected from

germfree mice (LANUV ethical approval 81-02.04.2023.A253) in accordance with the German Animal

Protection Law (TierSchG). All mice were fed a standard chow *ad libitum* (γ-irradiated ssniff

Spezialdiäten ref. V1124-927). The germfree status of the mice was confirmed by microscopic

observation after Gram-staining and by cultivation on both, anaerobic and aerobic agar plates. Mice

were culled and caecal content was collected and stored immediately at -80°C. After DNA extraction,

the background DNA was mixed 1:1 (v/v) with each of the two mock communities.

Library preparation and sequencing

In sequencing facility 1 (UKA), DNA libraries of the Mock communities were prepared using the

NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB, USA) according to the manufacturer's

instructions, using 100 ng of DNA and an automated platform (Beckman Coulter, USA). Enzymatic

shearing to approximate 250 bp was performed for 30 minutes. Adaptor-ligated DNA was enriched

using PCR (5 cycles) and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (NEB, USA) for unique dual barcoding.

AMPure beads (Beckman Coulter, USA) were used for size selection and clean-up of adaptor ligated

DNA.

Sequencing facility 2 (UMC) used the Nextera XT DNA Library preparation kit (Illumina, USA) with

Nextera XT indexes (Illumina, USA) and 1 ng template DNA according to manufacturer's protocol.

Twelve cycles of PCR were used for indexing. AMPure beads (Beckman Coulter, USA) were used for

double-sided selection and clean-up of adaptor ligated DNA. Fragment size of cleaned DNA was

determined on an Agilent D1000 Tapestation (Bioanalyzer System, Agilent Technologies, USA) using

High Sensitivity D1000 screentapes.

Quality check (Bioanalyzer System, Agilent Technologies, USA), DNA quantification (Quantus, Promega,

USA), and sequencing of the resulting libraries were conducted at the IZKF Core Facility Genomics (UKA,

RWTH Aachen University). The libraries were pooled to reflect the nine different sequencing depths

targeted, and sequenced on a NovaSeq6000 (Illumina, USA) with a NovaSeq 6000 S1 Reagent Kit v1.5

(2x150 cycles).

Bioinformatic analysis

An overview of the bioinformatic workflow is provided in **Supplementary Figure S3**. All steps are

described in detail in the following sections.

Reference genomes

The genomes of all strains used in the Mock communities are hereon referred to as "reference

genomes". They have been deposited in a public repository and published previously[9,10]. A

phylogenetic tree was constructed from the genomes of the 70 isolates using PhyloPhlAn[12] v3.0.67

(options: *--diversity medium –f supermatrix_aa.cfg*) (**Supplementary Figure S2**). Genome

characteristics, including size and GC content, were analysed using biobython[13] v.1.79 and bioawk[14]

v1.0 (**Supplementary Table S1**).

Pre-processing of shotgun metagenomic data

Raw reads of samples with the different sequencing depths were further subsampled to the exact

targeted sequencing depth, calculated as:

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$$\frac{Sequencing\ depth\ in\ Gb\ \times\ 1,000,000,000}{150bp\ \times 2}$$

The raw FASTQ files were subsampled using seqtk[15] v1.2 with default settings. The targeted number of

paired-end reads (150 bp) per sequencing depth was as follows: 333,333 reads (0.10 Gb), 833,333 (0.25

Gb), 1,666,667 (0.5 Gb), 2,500,000 (0.75 Gb), 3,333,333 (1.0Gb), 5,000,000 (1,5Gb), 6,666,667 (2.0Gb),

16,666,667 (5.0 Gb), 33,333,333 (10.0Gb). Adapters were removed and subsampled raw reads were

quality-filtered with Trimmomatic[16] v.0.39 (options: *TRAILING:3 LEADING:3 SLIDINGWINDOW:5:20*

MINLEN:50 ILLUMINACLIP:{adapters.fa}:2:30:10). The bbduk command (options: *hdist=1 k=31*) in

BBMap[17] v.38.84 was used for removal of phiX sequences. Quality-filtered reads were assembled into

contigs using MegaHit[18] v1.2.9.

Taxonomic coverage

Coverage of the reference genomes by the quality-filtered metagenomic reads was determined using

coverM[19] v0.6.1 (options: *coverm genome --mapper bwa-mem --methods covered_fraction --min-*

covered-fraction 0 --coupled). The relative abundance profiles were calculated using the read count

option of coverM (options: *coverm genome --methods count --min-covered-fraction 0 --coupled*), which

were converted to relative abundance for each sample.

Average nucleotide identity (ANI) values between the reference genomes of four *Escherichia coli*

strains and four *Phocaeicola vulgatus* strains were calculated using FastANI[20] v1.34.

Functional analysis

Protein-coding genes were predicted in the pooled reference genomes and the assembled contigs of

the Mock samples (individually) using prodigal [21] v2.6.3.

Gene functions were annotated using KEGG Orthology and KofamScan[22] v1.3.0. Pathway completeness

was assessed by KEGG-Decoder[23] v1.3, as percentage of KOs covered, which are included in the

manually curated canonical pathways used by KEGG-Decoder.

To determine the ability of each sequencing depth to capture the protein-encoding potential in the

Mock communities, the genes predicted in the reference genomes were used to create a Diamond[24]

(v2.0.15) protein sequence database, with which the protein sequences predicted in the assemblies

(one assembly for each of the sequencing depths) were compared (options: *diamond blastp –sensitive*

–query-cover 80 –id 90).

Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs)

Contigs <1,000 bp were removed prior to reconstructing MAGs. An index table was built from the size-

filtered contigs using bowtie2[25] v2.5.1 (*bowtie2-build*) with default options. The decontaminated

paired-end reads were aligned to the bowtie index of size-filtered contigs (*bowtie2 –S - --very-sensitive-*

local –no-unal –p 30). Bam files were sorted with samtools[26] v1.17 (*samtools view –bS).* Contigs were

binned using Metabat2[27] v2.12.1 and its algorithm for calculating coverage of each sequence in the

assembly (*jgi_summarize_bam_contig_depths*) before creating the bins (*metabat2 -m 1500 --maxP 95*

--minS 60 --maxEdges 200 --unbinned --seed 0). The quality of the resulting bins was evaluated with

checkM[28] v1.1.3 using the lineage workflow. Accordingly, the MAGs were categorised as being of high

quality (>90% completeness, <5% contamination), medium quality (>70% completeness, <10%

contamination), or low quality (all that did not fulfil the previous criteria). They were then

taxonomically classified using GTDB-Tk[29] v2.3.2 (*gtdbtk classify_wf*) with the Genome Taxonomy

Database r207. The coverage of the reference genomes by the different MAGs was determined using

coverM[19] v0.6.1 (*coverm genome --mapper bwa-mem --methods covered_fraction --min-covered-*

fraction 0 --single). Reference genomes were aligned to MAGs by blastn v2.13.0 *(-evalue 1e-10 -*

perc_identity 90.0) and circular alignments plotted using shinyCircos[30].

Statistics and Plotting

167 All statistical tests were performed in R[31] v4.4.1. using RStudio v2023.03.0+386 and the packages

168 vegan[32] , reshape[33], tidyverse[34] and dplyr[35]. For creation of the graphs, the R package ggplot2[36] v3.5.1,

169 ggpubr[37] v0.6.0, and ggfortify[38] v0.4.17 were used. The specific statistical tests used in each analysis

170 are stated in the results.

Results

Shallow metagenomics enables reliable reference-based taxonomic composition

To investigate the impact of sequencing depth on taxonomic composition, recovery of the reference

genomes in the metagenomic data of the Mock communities was determined.

For the two types of Mock communities (even and staggered), reads were detected for all reference

genomes (N = 70 and 24, respectively) at 0.1 Gb sequencing depth. For Mock-even, the lowest

coverage at 0.1 Gb was 3.34 % for *Phocaeicola sartorii* CLA-AV-12 and the highest 58.7 % for

Bacteroides uniformis CLA-AV-11 (**Fig. 1A**). The threshold of 99 % coverage was first reached at 0.75 Gb

for *B. uniformis* CLA-AV-11. At the highest sequencing depth, all reference genomes reached >98 %

coverage. Full reference genome coverage (100 %) was only achieved at 10 Gb for V*eillonella*

intestinalis CLA-AV-13.

For Mock-stag, there was a clear trend of higher coverage with increasing DNA concentration of the

reference genomes at low sequencing depths (**Fig. 1B**). The reference genomes with lowest

concentration (0.01 %, 0.04 ng) had a minimum coverage of 0.53 % at 0.1 Gb and a maximum coverage

of 34.21 % at 10 Gb sequencing depth. At 10 Gb, three genomes reached 100% coverage: *Thomasclavelia ramosa* CLA-JM-H52 and *Enterocloster clostridioformis* CLA-JM-H51, which were added to the Mock with highest DNA concentration (17.2 %; 40 ng), and *V. intestinalis* CLA-AV-13, added at a low concentration (0.86 %, 2 ng).

To obtain an overview of genome coverage, completeness categories were compared between the sequencing depths (**Fig. 1C**). At 0.1 Gb, 91 % of the genomes in Mock-even and 63 % in Mock-stag had the lowest coverage (0-25 %). At 2 Gb, coverage in Mock-even was >50 % for 69 of the reference genomes (99 %). All reference genomes reached >75 % coverage at 5 Gb and >90 % at 10 Gb. In Mock-stag, four genomes (17 %), which were added at low concentrations (0.04 and 0.4 ng), did not reach >50 %, even with the highest sequencing depth of 10 Gb. All remaining genomes reached >50 % coverage already at 5 Gb.

We then compared relative abundance profiles for the two Mock community types. For Mock-even, relative abundances oscillated around the expected value of 1.43 % for most of the 70 species, without any significant effects of the sequencing depth on the overall abundance profile (p = 0.78; Kruskall-Wallis test) (**Supplementary Fig. S4A**). Six species showed values >2.5 % for several sequencing depths, with highest values of 10-15 % for *B. uniformis* CLA-AV-11. In addition, marked differences due to sequencing depth were detected in the case of *Collinsella* sp. CLA-ER-H5. Sequencing depth had also no influence on the overall relative abundance profile in the case of Mock-stag (p = 1; Kruskall-Wallis test) (**Supplementary Fig. S4B**). The relative abundances generally followed the expected trend. The experimental values deviated from theoretical relative abundances to a higher extent with increasing amount of DNA.

In summary, reference-based detection of strains is possible with sequencing as little as 0.5 Gb, but high coverage of reference genomes needs more data (>5 Gb). Relative abundance profiles were not substantially affected by sequencing depths for most of the strains.

***De-novo* MAG reconstruction for strain-level analysis requires deep sequencing and generates chimeras**

The ability of shallow metagenomics to resolve strain-level variation was investigated using four strains of *E. coli* and *P. vulgatus* within the Mock-even dataset (Supplementary **Fig. S2**). Coverage of their reference genomes per sequencing depth, as determined during assignment of all reference genomes, revealed that all strains were detected already at 0.1 Gb (**Fig. 2A**). All four reference genomes of both species reached >75 % coverage at 5 Gb and >98 % at 10 Gb. All *P. vulgatus* strains showed a similar increase in coverage with increasing sequencing depth, mirroring ANI values between the strains that

were all close to one another (**Fig. 2B**). In contrast, for the *E. coli* strains, the reference genomes sharing the highest ANI value (*E. coli* Ec8850 and CR B11; ANI = 99.97 %) showed a congruent coverage increase (**Fig. 2B**, curves overlay), whilst *E. coli* CLA-AD-1, characterized by an ANI value more distant to the other strains (< 97 %), reached >99 % reference genome coverage already at the 2 Gb sequencing depth (**Fig. 2B**).

Reference datasets are rarely available during metagenomic analysis, hence *de-novo* reconstruction of genomes is widely used to facilitate strain-level analysis. MAGs were thus assembled separately for each metagenomic samples. Overall, the number of bins increased with higher sequencing depth for both Mock types (**Fig. 2C**, **left panels**). For Mock-even (N = 70 strains), only a low number of bins per sequencing depth (≤10) was obtained below 5 Gb. For both, Mock-even and Mock-stag, more MAGs than the actual number of reference genomes (dashed line) were formed at 10 Gb. This means several reference genomes were represented by multiple fragmented MAGs, whilst not all reference genomes were represented by MAGs (**Fig. 2C, right panels)**. The number of MAGs formed per reference genome increased with the amount of data sequenced, with ≥2 MAGs observed for 22 and 12 reference genomes across all sequencing depths in Mock-even and Mock-stag, respectively (**Supplementary Fig. S5**). This suggests MAGs become increasingly fragmented with greater sequencing depth, rather than coalescing into a single high-quality MAG.

Given that fragmented MAGs were obtained even at high depth of sequencing, we aimed to determine the frequency of misassembly. MAGs were grouped by quality and their contigs were assigned to the reference genomes to determine which isolates they were reconstructed from. In Mock-even, at 10 Gb, 10 of the 23 high-quality MAGs (hqMAGs; completeness >90 %, contamination <5 %) were assigned to multiple reference genomes (red bars) with a threshold of >0.25 % coverage of a reference genome (**Fig. 2D, top**). The proportion of MAGs assigned to only one (blue) vs. more (red) reference genomes decreased further with decreasing quality of the MAGs. Taxonomic assignment of hqMAGs to GTDB showed a result congruent with the assignment to our own reference genomes (**Supplementary Tables S3**). Although four *E. coli* strains were included in Mock-even only one MAG assigned to *E. coli* was reconstructed from each sequencing dataset > 1Gb, except 2 Gb. At 2 Gb, a second *E. coli* MAG of very low completeness and quality occurred. All *E. coli* MAGs were predominantly assigned to *E. coli* CLA-AD-1. In the case of *P. vulgatus* (also represented by four strains), one MAG was found at 5 Gb and one at 10 Gb, both primarily assigned to *P. vulgatus* HDF, indicating strain delineation was not possible with the method used (**Supplementary Table S3**).

For Mock-stag, a single hqMAG was assembled at 0.75 and 1 Gb (**Fig. 2D, bottom**). At both sequencing depths, most sequences of this MAG were assigned to a reference genome with highest DNA concentration (40ng, *T. ramosa* CLA-JM-H52, ≥95 % reference genome coverage). With increasing

sequencing depth, some hqMAGs assigned to reference genomes that were added with lower concentrations started to be reconstructed **(Supplementary Table S3)**. Surprisingly, a higher proportion of single-origin MAGs occurred with decreasing quality, while at 10 Gb half of the hqMAGs in Mock-stag were misassembled. To illustrate the misassembly of MAGs, three exemplary hqMAGs (Mock-even, 10 Gb) were aligned to the reference genomes they covered >0.25 % using blastn (**Fig 2E**). MAG 54 was a best-case scenario with only one reference genome (*V. intestinalis* CLA–AV–13) matched with >98 % coverage. MAG 16 showed fragments of a second reference genome. MAG 40 represented a highly chimeric hqMAG, including 12 reference genomes (of which 10 are shown, ranked by decreasing coverage from outer to inner circle). The mean/maximum number of reference genomes per hqMAG at 10 Gb was 2.3/12 and 1.5/2 for Mock-even and Mock-stag, respectively (**Supplementary Tables S2**).

In summary, when high-quality reference datasets are available, read mapping facilitates strain-level analysis of shallow metagenomic data. However, *de-novo* analysis based on MAG reconstruction leads to contaminated genomes, even at supposed high-quality. Together with the creation of multiple MAGs for individual strains, these findings suggest that strain-level diversity within MAG catalogues is artificially inflated.

Functional coverage is limited by shallow sequencing

Analysing the functional potential of bacterial communities is a common reason to prefer metagenomics instead of 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. Therefore, we investigated the sequencing depth required for functional analyses at the level of both, pathways and genes.

First, we investigated the impact of sequencing depth on pathway completeness, measured as percentage of detected KOs involved in a pathway. Only those pathways occurring in the reference genomes of the respective Mock were considered (**Fig. 3A**). Of the 178 pathways included in the analysis by KEEG-Decoder[23], predicted proteins for 121 and 118 pathways were found in the reference genomes for the Mock-even and Mock-stag, respectively. Pathway completeness increased with sequencing depth, with a maximum of 80 pathways being complete at 10 Gb for Mock-even and 77 for Mock-stag (**Fig. 3A**). For both types of community, 40 pathways remained incomplete and one was not detected despite being present in the reference genomes. The average KEEG pathway completeness increased with sequencing depth (**Fig. 3B**). At 5 Gb, pathway completeness reached >80 % for both types of Mocks, and only a slight increase was observed after sequencing twice as deep (even, +7.79 %; log, +3.69 %).

To account for functionally unassigned proteins, the protein sequences detected at each sequencing

depth were compared to the reference genomes protein repertoire (even, 227,543 protein sequences;

stag, 82,992). The number of protein sequences detected within a metagenome continued to increase

up to 94.67 % for Mock-even (+ 22.9 % between 5 and 10 Gb), but started to plateau at 5 Gb sequencing

depth for the less diverse Mock-stag (+ 12.9 % between 5 and 10 Gb) (**Fig. 3C**).

In summary, while a moderate sequencing depth of 5 Gb was sufficient for functional analysis at the

pathway level for both mock communities, analysis at the level of single protein sequences requires

greater sequencing depth depending on the diversity of the microbial community under investigation.

Sample processing protocol and background DNA impact shallow sequencing results

To account for the influence of wet-lab factors on shallow metagenomics results, the DNA libraries

were prepared in two facilities using different protocols (see methods). In addition, the two community

types (Mock-even and Mock-stag) were spiked or not with background DNA isolated from the gut

content of germfree mice to simulate host DNA.

PCA plots based on relative abundance profiles showed distinct clustering due to both factors

(background DNA, facility), with more pronounced effects along PC1 linked to differences in library

preparation protocols between facilities (**Fig. 4A**). Within a condition (background DNA /facility pair),

the extreme sequencing depths (0.1 and 10 Gb) tended to be most distant from each other. The

relative abundance profiles of Mock-stag prepared in facility 1, which used more template DNA (100

vs. 1 ng) and a lower number of PCR cycles (5 vs. 12), were less sensitive to the effects of sequencing

depth when background DNA was present (**Fig. 4A, lower panel**).

The effect of wet-lab factors on reference genome coverage was then assessed by calculating delta-

values between the two facilities or the presence/absence of background DNA. For Mock-even,

consistent profiles were observed across nearly all species at the 5 and 10 Gb sequencing depths,

regardless of facility or background DNA (**Fig. 4B**). In contrast, variations in reference genome coverage

of up to 39 % for facilities, and up to 13 % for background DNA were observed at sequencing depths

≤2 Gb. For Mock-stag, the variation between samples from the two facilities was additionally

influenced by the initial DNA amount indicated as coloured boxes in **Fig. 4C.** With a reference genome

input >1 ng and a sequencing depth >1 Gb, the total variance in reference genome coverage between

the two facilities dropped below 3.69%. A similar trend was observed for the impact of background

DNA on the coverage of reference genomes in Mock-stag, but with a more pronounced influence of

the amount of DNA. The effect of background DNA was negligible (total variance 1.33 %) with ≥10 ng

template DNA and a sequencing depth ≥1.5 Gb. For a DNA amount >1 ng per strain in Mock-stag, a

sequencing depth of 5 Gb or higher was necessary (total variance 3.23 %).

Analysed per strain, the relative abundance profiles in Mock-even were consistent between the two

library preparation strategies, except for marked differences for *Collinsella* sp. CLA-ER-H5 due to

sequencing depth in facility 1 (**Supplementary Fig. S4A**). This indicates that the differences shown in

Figure 4A are due to changes in the relative abundance of a few strains. For Mock-stag, deviation from

the theoretical relative abundance values was different between the two facilities (**Supplementary Fig.**

S4B). The relative abundance of *E. clostridioformis*, for example, matched the expected relative

abundance in facility 1, while it had the highest relative abundance in facility 2. The most abundant

species in facility 1 was *T. ramosa*. This indicates that library preparation (specifically the amount of

template DNA and number of PCR cycles) influenced relative abundance profiles. (**Supplementary Fig.**

S4B)

We further analysed the effects of the wet-lab factors on the predicted protein profiles. Overall, facility

1 provided a more complete functional profile for both mock communities (**Supplementary Fig. S6**).

The addition of background DNA was associated with a decrease in coverage, which was attenuated

at high sequencing depths in both mock communities prepared in facility 1. In general, the influence

of background DNA was more pronounced with the protocol used in facility 2.

In summary, library preparation with higher amount of template DNA and less PCR cycles is

recommended for more robust taxonomic and functional profiles. If necessary, a higher sequencing

depth can compensate the effects of lower DNA amount or environmental DNA.

Discussion

In this work we investigated the potential and limitations of shallow metagenomic sequencing using

complex Mock communities and sequencing depths from 0.1 Gb (0.3 million reads) to 10 Gb (33 million

reads), with a specific focus on strain-level and functional analysis.

Previous studies reported that taxonomic profiles based on shallow shotgun sequencing (0.5-4 million

reads) can reflect those obtained at a higher sequencing depths[2,3,6,8]. Most of those studies relied on

deep sequencing of native samples then subsampled *in-silico*. Using defined input, we have confirmed

these results, showing that shallow metagenomics is suitable for reference-based taxonomic analysis:

reads for all strains were detected already at 0.1 Gb (0.3 million reads), even for low abundant taxa in

the staggered community, enabling prevalence and relative abundance analyses despite overall low

genome coverage. This is in line with the study of Hillmann et al. and Xu et al. who reported that 0.5

million sequences (= 0.15 Gb) and 0.5Gb, respectively, was sufficient for taxonomic analysis of the

human gut microbiome [2,3]. As most of the metagenomic costs is due to sequencing, being able to pool

more samples on the same run reduces the expenses, making shallow metagenomics at 0.5 Gb/sample

attractive for diversity and composition profiling in studies with large number of samples. However,

accurate analysis necessitates a high-quality, reference database of individual genomes.

Metagenomics is useful for high resolution taxonomic analysis, which is limited with 16S rRNA gene

amplicon sequencing. In a previous study using reference-based analysis, species profiles at 0.5 million

reads (0.15 Gb) showed an average correlation of 0.99 with ultra-deep sequencing (750 Gb)[3]. Using

mock communities, Xu et al. recovered only 62 % of the 62 species at 1 Gb/sample using MetaPhlan 2

and the Refseq database[2]. In contrast, we detected reads for all 70 and 24 strains in the Mock

communities at the lowest sequencing depth of 0.1 Gb, possibly due to enhanced reference databases.

Reference-based detection and discrimination of different strains with an ANI of up to 99.66% was

possible in our study. However, sequencing depths >5 Gb are required to obtain nearly full genome

coverage, which must be adjusted depending on the expected abundance of the targeted strains in

complex samples.

A high sequencing depth was required for high-quality MAG reconstruction, which agrees with

previous findings[3,6]. Importantly, at high sequencing depth (10 Gb), more MAGs were created than

input strains, yet not all strains were represented by a MAG. Inspecting this further revealed a

substantial number of hqMAGs that were chimeric due to containing fragments assigned to more than

one reference genome. This was despite excluding contigs smaller than 1,500 bp during binning to

prevent false inflation of chimerism. These results echo previous reports that ~5 % of genes within

MAGs differ from the dominant reconstructed taxa[39].

Our study demonstrates chimeric MAGs occur independent of sequencing depth, and deeper

sequencing does not guarantee more complete MAG reconstruction. Data from the staggered Mock

community indicates that having more reads for a reference genome does not increase its coverage

by a MAG and does not prevent the risk of multiple alignments. Instead, we observed that the creation

of several MAGs for the same reference genome was common. The use of multiple samples with

varying occurrence of taxa has been shown to limit the risk of creating spurious MAGs by enhancing

co-occurrence analysis[40]. In addition, consensus binning may help refining the MAGs by using multiple

binning algorithms and combining their output (e.g. metawrap[41]). Nevertheless, the data presented

raises concerns about the prevalence of spurious sequences in ever-growing MAG catalogues, as we

used a common bioinformatic workflow to create the MAGs.

To quantify the functional information lost with decreasing sequencing depth, we calculated the

average KEGG pathway completeness, showing that >2 Gb is required to reach >50 % completeness.

In contrast, one study with a Mock community of 62 human gut bacteria reported that the functional

description of shallow metagenomic samples (1 Gb) was "quite similar" to the one obtained from the

reference genomes at KEGG level 1 and 2[2]. Another study based on in-silico subsampling of an ultra-

deep metagenome (2.5 billion reads; 750 Gb) to 0.5 million reads (0.15 Gb) showed a nearly full

recovery of KEGG Orthology groups[3]. This result might be influenced by the subsampling process being

rarefied repeatedly and therefore creating a higher chance of recovering functions. At the level of

predicted protein sequences, our data suggests that shallow metagenomics is not advisable, as a

recovery of <75 % predicted proteins was reached at sequencing depths ≤5 Gb. This concords with a

previous study of antimicrobial resistance genes at different sequencing depths, in which at least 80

million reads (24 Gb) was needed to recover the full richness of AMR gene families[42].

Regarding the influence of wet-lab factors, the performance of library preparation procedures has

previously been compared for traditional metagenomic sequencing of native samples and Mock

communities, revealing that the community diversity, amount of input DNA, and the sequencing

platform alter the results[43–45]. When analysing the effects of library preparation in two facilities and

the addition of background DNA from the gut content of germfree mice, both factors impacted

taxonomic and functional results at the sequencing depths <5 Gb. Strains with a higher relative

abundance were less sensitive to these effects, even at lower sequencing depths. If the use of different

protocols in large studies cannot be avoided (e.g., when handling low biomass samples), or a high

amount of background DNA is to be expected, higher sequencing depth may improve the robustness

of results.

In summary, due to the lack of studies benchmarking shallow metagenomics using complex mock

communities, potential users may not be aware of the pitfalls of this approach. The sequencing depth

needs to match the main aims of a study. Factors to be considered include the expected microbial

diversity in the target samples, the evenness of distribution within the communities, and the amount

of DNA available. One limitation of this work is the focus on bacterial members of microbiomes,

although this is also the focus of most studies in the literature. Shallow metagenomics is a valid choice

for a large study aiming at database-guided taxonomic profiles. However, it is not appropriate for high-

resolution functional analysis and *de-novo* strain resolution. Even at high depths of sequencing, MAG-

based approaches require careful planning and execution to avoid the generation and spread of

artificial bacterial diversity.

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Material and data availability

The raw metagenomic sequencing data was deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive/NCBI and

is accessible under Project no. PRJEB83573.

The code used for bioinformatic analyses is available on GitHub:

https://github.com/ClavelLab/Benchmarking-shallow-Metagenomics

All strains (and their DNA) used in this study are available at the Leibniz Institute DSMZ (German

Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures): www.dsmz.de/miBC; https://hibc.rwth-aachen.de/.

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Ethics

436 All mice experiments were performed under Ethical Approval (LANUV no. 81-02.04.2023.A253) in

437 accordance with the German Animal Protection Law (TierSchG).

 Figure Legends

Figure 1: Reference-based taxonomic profiles

A Heatmap showing the coverage of all reference genomes in Mock-even by metagenomic reads at

nine different sequencing depths (x-axis). The grey boxes indicate the multiple *E. coli* and *P. vulgatus*

strains. **B** Same as in panel A for Mock-stag. The reference genomes were ranked (from top to bottom)

according to increasing DNA amount in the mixture, as indicated by the colour gradient (from blue to

red; 0.04, 0.4, 1, 2, 4, 10, 20, 40 ng). **C** Number of reference genomes per coverage category (colour

gradients).

Figure 2: Strain analysis

A Reference genome coverage (y-axis) for the four strains of *E. coli* and *P. vulgatus* at the nine different

sequencing depths (x-axis). **B** ANI values between the strains within each species. **C** Strain analysis

based on the MAGs assembled in Mock-even (top) and Mock-stag (bottom) at each sequencing depth

individually. The left panels (dark blue) depict the number of bins assembled from the shotgun data;

the right panels (lighter blue) show the number of reference genomes matching MAGs (coverM),

indicating that multiple MAGs were reconstructed for some Mock species. The reference genome with

the highest coverage by MAG reads was chosen as representative of that MAG. The average coverage

of representative genomes is shown in Supplementary Table S2. **D** Number of high-, medium- and low-

quality MAGs assigned to either one (blue) or several (red) reference genomes (with coverM using a

cut-off of > 0.25% coverage of reference genomes). **E** Three exemplary high-quality (> 90 %

completeness, < 5% contamination) MAGs (dark grey, outer circle) reconstructed from Mock-even at

the 10 Gb sequencing depth. They were aligned to the reference genomes they covered by more than

0.25% to illustrate different categories of misassembly. The predominantly covered reference genome

is depicted in blue, while chimeric sequences of further reference genomes (inner circles) are shown

in red.

Figure 3: Functional coverage

A Completeness of all KEGG pathways present in the reference genomes in Mock-even (left) and Mock-

stag (right) at the nine different sequencing depths (columns). **B** Average KEGG pathway completeness.

C Fraction of predicted proteins from the reference genomes covered by the metagenomic assemblies

at the respective sequencing depths.

Figure 4: Effects of background DNA (bgDNA) and library preparation in two facilities

A PCA plot of relative abundance profiles in Mock-even (top) and Mock-stag (bottom). **B** Difference in

coverage of reference genomes between facility 1 and facility 2 (left) and samples with or without

background DNA (right) for Mock-even. **C** Same as in panel B for Mock-stag. The reference genomes

were ranked (from top to bottom) according to increasing DNA amount in the mixture, as indicated by

the colour gradient (from blue to red; 0.04, 0.4, 1, 2, 4, 10, 20, 40 ng).

Supplementary Figure S1: Experimental design

The genomic DNA of 70 bacterial isolates (www.dsmz.de/miBC; https://www.hibc.rwth-aachen.de/)

was used as input to create a mock community with all members evenly distributed (Mock-even) or a

community with a subset of 24 isolates with staggered distribution (Mock-stag). A second version of

each Mock community was created by spiking DNA isolated from the gut content of germfree mice.

Libraries for all four mock communities were prepared in two different sequencing facilities. The

libraries were all sequenced in Facility 1, including the nine sequencing depths shown in the figure.

Bioinformatic analyses included: (i) number and relative abundance of strains; (ii) coverage of

reference genomes; (iii) number and diversity of predicted proteins and completeness of functional

pathways; (iv) strain-level resolution using both, a reference-based and metagenome-assembled

genome (MAG) approach.

Supplementary Figure S2: Phylogenetic tree of bacterial strains in the mock communities

A phylogenetic tree of high-quality, draft genomes of the 70 isolates was created using PhyloPhlAn

v3.0.67. The phyla to which the strains belong are represented by coloured boxes at the end of the

branches. The strains used for Mock-stag are highlighted with colours indicating their respective DNA

concentration in the mixture.

Supplementary Figure S3: Schematics of the bioinformatics workflow

The details of each analysis are described in the methods section.

Supplementary Figure S4: Relative abundance of reads per reference genome

Relative abundances of each strain in (**A**) Mock-even, and (**B**) Mock-stag. Metagenomic reads were

assigned to the reference genomes using coverM. Sequencing depths are indicated with the coloured

dots. The theoretical relative abundances are indicated by vertical dashed lines. For Mock-stag in panel

B, the reference genomes are ranked from top to bottom by increasing DNA amount in the mixture as

indicated by coloured boxes (from blue to red; 0.04, 0.4, 1, 2, 4, 10, 20, 40 ng).

Supplementary Figure S5: Reference genomes per MAG for Mock-stag and Mock-even.

Stacked bar charts of the number of MAGs per sequencing depth. Each box represents one reference

genome. The size of the box indicates the number of MAGs that were assigned to this reference

genome. The colours in the graph for Mock-stag (top) indicate the amount of input DNA for a given

strain in the pool. The colour of the graph for Mock-even (bottom) indicate the reference genomes.

Supplementary Figure S6: Bar charts of protein sequences recovered.

Protein sequenced predicted in the metagenomic datasets as percentage of the protein sequences

present in the reference genomes (y-axis). The colour gradient indicates the facility where the library

was prepared and the addition of background DNA (bgDNA) from the caecum of germfree mice.

Supplementary Tabel S1: Characteristics of the reference genomes

Supplementary Tabel S2: Assignment of MAGs to reference genomes and GTDB

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