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4 **TaxonTableTools - A comprehensive, platform-independent graphical user**
5 **interface software to explore and visualise DNA metabarcoding data**

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13 **Abstract**

14 DNA metabarcoding is increasingly used in research and application to assess biodiversity. Powerful analysis
15 software exists to process raw data. However, when it comes to the translation of sequence read data into
16 biological information many end users with limited bioinformatic expertise struggle with the downstream
17 analysis and explore data only to a minor extent. Thus, there is a growing need for easy-to-use, graphical user
18 interface (GUI) analysis software to analyse and visualise DNA metabarcoding data. We here present
19 TaxonTableTools (TTT), a new platform independent GUI software that aims to fill this gap by providing simple
20 and reproducible analysis and visualisation workflows. TTT uses a so-called "TaXon table" as input. This format
21 can easily be generated within TTT from two input files: a read table and a taxonomy table that can be obtained
22 by various published metabarcoding pipelines. TTT analysis and visualisation modules include e.g. Venn diagrams
23 to compare taxon overlap among replicates, samples or among different analysis methods. It analyses and
24 visualises basic statistics such as read proportion per taxon as well as more sophisticated visualisation such as
25 interactive Krona charts for taxonomic data exploration. Various ecological analyses such as alpha or beta
26 diversity estimates, and rarefaction analysis ordination plots can be produced directly. Data can be explored also
27 in formats required by traditional taxonomy-based analyses of regulatory bioassessment programs. TTT comes
28 with a manual and tutorial, is free and publicly available through GitHub
29 (<https://github.com/TillMacher/TaxonTableTools>) and the Python package index
30 (<https://pypi.org/project/taxontabletools/>).

31

32 **Introduction**

33 DNA metabarcoding is increasingly used to assess biodiversity of marine (Aylagas, Borja, Muxika & Rodríguez-
34 Ezpeleta, 2018; Zaiko, Pochon, Garcia-Vazquez, Olenin & Wood, 2018), limnic (Elbrecht, Peinert & Leese, 2017;
35 Bush et al., 2020) and terrestrial ecosystems (Beng et al., 2016; Porter et al. 2019). It can be applied to a bulk
36 sample containing multiple species (e.g. Elbrecht et al. 2017; Elbrecht & Steinke, 2019) or be applied to
37 environmental DNA (eDNA; Deiner et al., 2016, Zinger et al., 2019) and allows for rapid and cost-efficient
38 assessments of taxonomic composition. While many different DNA metabarcoding laboratory protocols have

39 been established in recent years (see Leese et al., 2018), all DNA metabarcoding approaches are united by the
40 amplification of a genetic marker using primers for the target group. The marker choice depends on the target
41 taxa. Commonly used genetic markers for animals are the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase I (COI; Leray et al.,
42 2013, Macher, Vivancos, Piggott, Centeno, Matthaei & Leese, 2018) and different fragments of the small and
43 large subunits of the nuclear ribosomal RNA, like the 12S (Miya et al., 2015; Hänfling et al., 2016) and 16S marker
44 (Clarke, Soubrier, Weyrich & Cooper, 2014, Elbrecht et al., 2016). Established barcodes for plants are the matK
45 gene (CBOL Plant Working Group et al., 2009), the large subunit of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase-
46 oxygenase gene (rbcL; Hollingsworth, 2011), the internal transcribed marker (ITS; Hollingsworth, 2011, China
47 Plant BOL Group et al., 2011), and the trnL P6 loop marker (Fahner, Shokralla, Baird & Hajibabaei, 2016), while
48 the commonly used gene for fungi is the internal transcribed marker (ITS; Mello, Napoli, Murat, Morin, Marceddu
49 & Bonfante, 2011; Blaalid, Kumar, Nilsson, Abarenkov, Krik & Kausarud, 2013). Following PCRs, amplicons are
50 sequenced on high-throughput sequencer platforms and translated into digital characters. After sequencing, the
51 obtained sequences are bioinformatically processed. For this task a number of programs such as JAMP
52 (<http://github.com/VascoElbrecht/JAMP>), DADA2 (Callahan, McMurdie, Rosen, Han, Johnson & Holmes, 2016)
53 and OBITOOLS (Boyer, Mercier, Bonin, Bras, Taberlet & Coissac, 2015) exist. While these pipelines are solely
54 command-line based, recent efforts have been made to feature graphical user interfaces (GUIs) like for q2studio
55 in QIIME2 (Bolyen et al., 2019) and the web-based applications SLIM (Dufresne, Lejzerowicz, Perret-Gentil,
56 Pawlowski & Cordier, 2019) and mBRAVE (Ratnasingham, 2019). Generally, all these pipelines follow a similar
57 workflow of processing steps, including quality control, primer trimming, quality trimming and clustering. The
58 obtained sequences are compared to a reference database for taxonomic assignment. The largest publicly usable
59 database for COI data is the Barcode of Life Datasystems (BOLD) database. ITS sequences are deposited in the
60 UNITE database (Nilsson et al., 2018), while GenBank (NCBI) holds the largest repository of sequences from
61 various markers and organisms, yet with limited curation and control. Reference sequences from online
62 databases are often downloaded for subsequent local taxonomic assignment e.g. using the blast+ software
63 (Camacho, Coulouris, Avagyan, Ma, Papadopoulos, Bealer & Madden, 2008). Furthermore, several tools have
64 been published to conduct taxonomic assignment of sequences automatically against an online database, for
65 example DADA2, JAMP, ecotag (OBITOOLS pipeline) or BOLDigger (Buchner & Leese, 2020). The resulting
66 taxonomic assignment tables are the final outcome of all bioinformatic pipelines and as that the basis for all

67 downstream analyses in biodiversity research or biomonitoring. For each step in the DNA metabarcoding
68 workflow, various authors have published both laboratory protocols and bioinformatics tools. Nevertheless, until
69 now only a few tools have been published to tackle a comprehensive downstream analysis and visualization of
70 metabarcoding results. QIIME2 and DADA2 both include tools or instructions on how to filter tables and how to
71 calculate and visualize e.g. diversity measurements and ordinations analyses. Another widely distributed tool is
72 the R package ‘vegan’ (Oksanen et al., 2012), a community ecology package for ordination analyses and diversity
73 measurements and dissimilarities. However, for the moment all these applications are mainly command line-
74 based and require basic bioinformatics skills to be used. Methodological advancements open up the possibility
75 of upscaling DNA metabarcoding to hundreds of samples per week and provide comprehensive investigations
76 for large scaled biomonitoring programs. As a direct consequence, analyses of this growing amount of produced
77 data and its translation into biological meaningful results increasingly becomes the bottleneck, which limits the
78 uptake of the methods by non-experts and bioinformatics beginners. However, it is the biologists that need to
79 work with the data and interpret these.

80 To address the clear need of analysing increased amounts of data in a user-friendly way, we developed the
81 software *TaxonTableTools* (TTT in the following). TTT was developed as part of the GeDNA project, which tests
82 the implementation of eDNA metabarcoding as part of regulatory biomonitoring. The program provides easy-to-
83 use tools for biologists and non-bioinformaticians to analyse and visualize their metabarcoding data quickly and
84 reproducibly via a GUI. It unites commonly used data processing steps for metabarcoding data with a set of
85 modules used for taxonomic exploration of the results, ecological analyses as well as options to use the data as
86 part of regulatory biomonitoring applications.

87

88 **Implementation**

89 TaxonTableTools is written in python and available at GitHub (<https://github.com/TillMacher/TaxonTableTools>).
90 Python is currently supported by all three major operating systems Windows, MacOS and Linux-based
91 distributions (e.g. Ubuntu). Program installation only requires minimum user input. When python and pip are
92 properly installed, the required python packages can be easily installed via pip. To improve user-friendliness, TTT

93 comes with a mouse-driven graphical user interface (GUI), which allows the user to easily execute the various
94 modules as well as a detailed manual and a tutorial with a test data set (figure 1).

95 A key advantage of TTT is a comprehensive data management structure. New projects are created within a
96 dedicated project folder. All generated files are stored in the respective project directory, which drastically
97 increases clarity and structure when working with different data sets or projects. When launched TTT will ask to
98 either create a new project folder or load an already existing one. This circumvents the explicit naming of output
99 files. Newly generated files are named according to their input file and the conducted application.

100 A major goal of TTT was to offer a rapid and easy tool to visualize the data for reports or publications. Thus, the
101 standard output format for most plots is the pdf format, which retains the vectors in graphics. This allows post-
102 processing of plots created with TTT with any vector manipulation software.

103

104 **Input formats and data conversion**

105 *Input format requirements*

106 TTT requires two input files, a read table and a taxonomy table. Read tables are generally referred to as a data
107 frame, which contains the read abundances for each OTU (operational taxonomic unit) or ASV (amplicon
108 sequence variant) per sample and its respective sequence. Read tables are generated by various published DNA
109 metabarcoding pipelines and wrappers, e.g. JAMP, DADA2, QIIME2 or OBITOOLS. Since the output layout differs
110 between pipelines, TTT requires a specific input layout. This can easily be created from the various other formats.
111 Mostly only the header requires minor adjustments. Taxonomy tables are defined as a data frame that holds
112 taxonomic information for each OTU of the read table. The layout and informational content often drastically
113 differ, as there is no current consensus on a standard format. Taxonomy tables can for example be created using
114 QIIME2, SLIM, blast+, BOLDigger or even be compiled manually. As the standard input format TTT uses the output
115 format from the BOLDigger tool. As a requirement, the same OTUs have to be present in both the taxonomy
116 table from BOLDigger and the respective read table. Information on phylum, class, order, family, genus and
117 species level are required and intermediate classifications are not allowed. Only one hit per OTU is accepted,

118 which requires a prior filtering step. This can be performed with BOLDigger. The range of accepted input formats
119 regarding the read and taxonomy tables will be subject of change in future versions of TTT to reduce user-based
120 reformatting prior to the import in TTT.

121 *Getting started: Merging of read and taxonomy tables*

122 Initially TTT requires two tables: a) a read table and b) a taxonomy table. Both tables are merged into one table
123 that contains information of both individual formats. Thus, one main table is created, which is referred to as
124 “TaXon table” and is the standard input for all downstream applications in TTT. TaXon tables can also be manually
125 created. The format can automatically be checked to prevent downstream errors. The main advantage of the
126 TaXon table format is the combination of all relevant data for DNA metabarcoding derived taxonomic tables into
127 one file. Thus, for the sake of simplicity, the redundancy of two separate tables is solved, and subsequently data
128 can be more rapidly accessed. For example, read distributions per OTU and sample can be directly investigated,
129 while immediately checking the OTU’s taxonomy and if necessary, also its respective sequence. This is
130 advantageous for both manually investigations and bioinformatic processing.

131

132 **TaXon table processing**

133 *Replicate processing*

134 Most data sets require some processing steps prior to analyses. Here, TTT offers various tools to merge, filter
135 and convert TaXon tables. All processing tools are optional and can be used as separate modules. The processing
136 workflow generally starts with the processing of sample replicates. Replicates are generally recommended in
137 DNA metabarcoding analyses to tackle PCR and sequencing stochasticity (e.g. Weigand & Macher, 2018; Mata,
138 Rebelo, Amori, McCracken, Jarman & Beja, 2018). No specific replicate design is required. Replicates are
139 recognized via the sample names, which have to be marked with a trailing underscore and a user-defined symbol
140 at the end (e.g. commonly used “_rep1”, “_rep2” or “_a”, “_b”). Here, the first module allows to filter OTUs by
141 keeping only OTUs that are present in all replicates of one sample. In detail, this will exclude OTUs that are not
142 present in all replicates of one sample, by setting the OTU read counts to zero. When the research interest is

143 focused on low abundant or rare OTUs, this module is not recommended, since it might lead to exclude real, but
144 rare OTUs. Afterwards replicates can be merged into one representative sample, by calculating the sum of reads
145 for each OTU of the replicates. This will drastically reduce redundancy in the TaXon table and is often useful for
146 downstream analyses that do not require separate replicates.

147 *Adding metadata*

148 Metadata are generally used as criterion to infer differences between samples by assigning specific values
149 according to location, environmental factors (e.g. pH or salinity) or classifications (e.g. European Water
150 Framework Directive ecological status). Sample-specific metadata can then be used for downstream analyses.
151 For example, differences in taxa distributions can be investigated (site occupancy) or statistical analyses can be
152 performed using the metadata to explore the sample set with the principle coordinate analysis (PCoA) or
153 canonical-correlation analysis (CCA). TTT allows the user to create a separate metadata table that is automatically
154 linked with the respective TaXon table. Metadata categories can be manually assigned as columns, where the
155 rows stand for the respective value of the sample. Currently only the inclusion of metadata for samples is
156 implemented. However, the TTT roadmap includes the analyses of metadata for OTUs in a future version.

157 *Conversion to incidence data*

158 The use of read abundances as a proxy for specimen counts or biomass estimates has been subject of discussion
159 with the development of DNA metabarcoding. Due to PCR stochasticity, varying primer binding efficiency and
160 sequencing bias, there is often only a weak correlation between read abundances and specimen counts or
161 biomass (Elbrecht & Leese, 2015; Elbrecht et al., 2017, Bista et al., 2018), although for several cases with
162 improved primer settings exceptions exist (e.g. Schenk, Geisen, Kleinboelting & Traunspurger, 2019). Thus, often
163 it is recommended to convert the read abundance data to incidence data for biodiversity analyses. However, this
164 conversion comes with a downside, since incidence data limits the pool of appropriate diversity estimate
165 analyses.

166

167 **TaXon table analysis**

168 *Getting first insights*

169 To get a first overview of the data set, it is helpful to visualize the number of reads, number of OTUs and OTUs
170 assigned to species level in a plot (figure 2a). This plot allows investigations of the overall quality of the data set.
171 Generally, negative controls should represent only a fraction of the overall reads. Furthermore, samples that
172 have drastically lower read counts and thus often also less OTUs and OTUs on species level, should be considered
173 to be removed from the data set. They are often prone to create outliers in statistical analyses or alter the
174 perspective of between locations or categories comparisons.

175 *Read proportions*

176 Read proportions can be illustrated in a scatter plot. Contrary to the commonly applied illustration in a bar plot,
177 a scatter plot remains readable even for larger data sets (figure 2b). Each taxon is represented by its own entity
178 so that the dependency on colors schemes is no longer required.

179 *Taxonomic richness and resolution*

180 Measuring the taxonomic richness of a sample assemblage is an essential objective in every biodiversity analysis.
181 In classical ecology terms, the species richness is defined as the number of species in an ecological community,
182 landscape or region. The most straightforward computation of species richness is to count the number of OTUs
183 or species in the data set. The species richness can either be calculated for the whole data set or for each sample
184 itself.

185 However, identification to species level is often not possible. Many species remain undescribed and there is a
186 lack of reference sequences for a vast number of species. Still, higher taxonomic levels (i.e. genus or family) can
187 hold information for assessing biodiversity. The overall taxonomic resolution of a data set can be visualized in a
188 bar chart, which plots the number of OTUs assigned to the respective level as lowermost rank. The taxonomic
189 resolution can be used as an indicator for several potential sources of bias, like varying primer binding efficiency
190 or bioinformatics process bias (e.g. remaining primer sequences). These can act as sources for a reduced
191 taxonomic resolution, as OTUs are often not assigned to species level in consequence.

192 *Rarefaction*

193 Sample-based rarefaction is a commonly applied method to infer if the number of samples taken was sufficient
194 to capture the complete species richness. This method computes the number of species when samples are drawn
195 at random without replacement from a set of samples. Replicating the drawing results (e.g. 1000 times)
196 substantially enhances the robustness of rarefaction and allows the calculation of standard deviations. Sample-
197 based rarefaction curves can be calculated using the Rarefaction curve tool. Nevertheless, when interpreting
198 rarefaction curves, the methodical limitations of DNA metabarcoding must be considered.

199 *OTU abundance pie charts and Krona charts*

200 OTU proportions per taxon can be investigated via pie charts. Here, individual pie charts are created for every
201 taxonomic level in the TaXon table. This method is independent from read abundances. It can be used to display
202 the OTU distributions on higher taxonomic levels. Furthermore, potential clustering bias can be inferred by
203 investigating the OTU proportions on lower taxonomic levels, when e.g. looking for cryptic species. On the other
204 hand, Krona tools allows the hierarchical illustration of read proportions (Beermann, Werner, Elbrecht, Zizka &
205 Leese 2020, Ondo, Bergman & Phillippy, 2011). OTUs that have been assigned to the same taxon (e.g. one
206 species) are merged. The data can be explored by zooming through a multi-layered, interactive pie-chart that
207 can be viewed with any modern web browser.

208 *Comparing samples via Venn diagrams*

209 The taxon composition between up to three TaXon tables can be displayed via venn diagrams (figure 2d). The
210 comparison is performed on each taxonomic level in the TaXon table. To allow for more detailed investigations,
211 the groupings are written to a separate excel file, while only the number of taxa in each group of the venn
212 diagram is displayed. It is not recommended to draw venn diagrams of more than three data sets, as the plot
213 quickly becomes confusing.

214 *Diversity analyses and ordination methods*

215 DNA metabarcoding data is often used for diversity analyses. TTT offers calculation of alpha and beta diversity
216 and ordination analyses. The implemented tools are mostly dependent on the python package scikit-bio

217 [\(http://scikit-bio.org/\)](http://scikit-bio.org/). All diversity analyses require an incidence data TaXon table. The alpha diversity
218 calculation is based on the number of OTUs per sample, which are displayed as a scatter plot. Beta diversity is
219 calculated as Jaccard-distances, which are illustrated in a distance matrix. Furthermore, a Jaccard-distance based
220 principle coordinate analysis (PCoA) can be performed (figure 2c). A canonical-correlation analysis (CCA) tool is
221 also implemented. For both ordination analyses, it is possible to choose two axes from all available axes for
222 plotting.

223 *Report and taxa list*

224 A taxa list can be created from the TaXon table. This table includes all found taxa from the input TaXon table and
225 reduces redundant hits. Optionally, for each hit that was identified on species level, a link to the Global
226 Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) website is created. The GBIF database (<https://www.gbif.org/>) is accessed
227 via the application programming interface (API). These links allow for quick investigations of the taxon list,
228 particularly for checking unfamiliar taxa. Furthermore, statistics can be calculated for each taxon. These include
229 the absolute number of reads per taxon and the relative proportion within the data set, the occupancy across all
230 samples, the number of OTUs identified as the respective taxon and the intraspecific distances for taxa with
231 multiple OTUs. In addition to the taxon list, a report file is created. This report file includes many relevant
232 information on how the data was processed from the wet lab to bioinformatics processing. This information can
233 be filled out in the GUI and enhances the data documentation in hindsight.

234 *Conversion to regulatory assessment programs*

235 One additional aim of TTT is to convert metabarcoding data sets into formats required by tools used for
236 regulatory frameworks such as the European Water Framework Directive (WFD, Directive 2000/60/EC).
237 Monitoring activities for the WFD, and for counterparts in other areas and for other ecosystems, aim to provide
238 standardized assessments of the ecological quality of waterbodies derived from biota. In the initial version, we
239 provide the opportunity to convert metabarcoding lists into a format that can be used as input to the German
240 Water Framework Directive analysis tool. This online tool (www.gewaesser-bewertung-berechnung.de) is
241 designed to allow the upload of taxa lists from monitoring activities, from which the ecological quality according
242 to the German river assessment scheme is calculated. In addition, many supporting metrics (such as feeding

243 types or habitat preferences of macroinvertebrates) are calculated. Upload requires a species-station table in an
244 Excel or ASCII format with species in rows and stations in columns, giving the abundance (or alternatively the
245 presence / absence) of the recorded taxa. Each taxon is accompanied by an ID that allows for linking the taxon
246 to its specific autecological characteristics. For comparability reasons, the system standardizes the taxonomy to
247 an operational taxa list, which defines for each taxon the taxonomic level achievable by identification in routine
248 water management. As an alternative to the direct upload, the system offers a batch mode, allowing large data
249 sets to be automatically read from databases of water authorities and the assessment results to be returned.
250 TTT provides species station tables in the format required by this system, including the taxon ID, that can be
251 directly uploaded and used for river assessment.

252

253 **Verification data set**

254 For verification of TaxonTableTools a test data set was chosen, which was generated during the advanced master
255 module “Molecular Ecology” of the University of Duisburg-Essen. Samples were taken in September 2019 in the
256 Rhein-Main-Observatorium (RMO). Kick-net samples of macrozoobenthic invertebrates were taken at five
257 different sites in the RMO. Samples were sorted in the field, collecting up to 300 specimens per site and stored
258 in ethanol. Samples were then laid out over night for drying in petri dishes. Afterwards, samples were transferred
259 into Turrax tubes and pulverized with two IKA Ultra-Turrax devices. DNA was extracted using salt precipitation
260 as described in Weiss and Leese (2016). The amplification was performed using a two-step PCR with the BF2/BR2
261 primer set (see Elbrecht & Leese, 2017 for more details), pooled and sequenced on a MiSeq v2 2x250 bp. The
262 retrieved sequences were demultiplexed and processed using the JAMP pipeline v.067. The taxonomic
263 assignment was performed with BOLDigger (pre-release version).

264

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391

392 **Data Accessibility**

393 Project name: “TaxonTableTools: A versatile, platform independent tool for reproducible analyses and
394 visualization of DNA metabarcoding data”; Project home page: <https://github.com/TillMacher/TaxonTableTools>;
395 Operating system(s): Platform independent; Programming language: Python 3; Other requirements: Krona tools
396 (<https://github.com/marbl/Krona>); License: MIT licence; Any restrictions to use by nonacademics: No
397 restrictions.

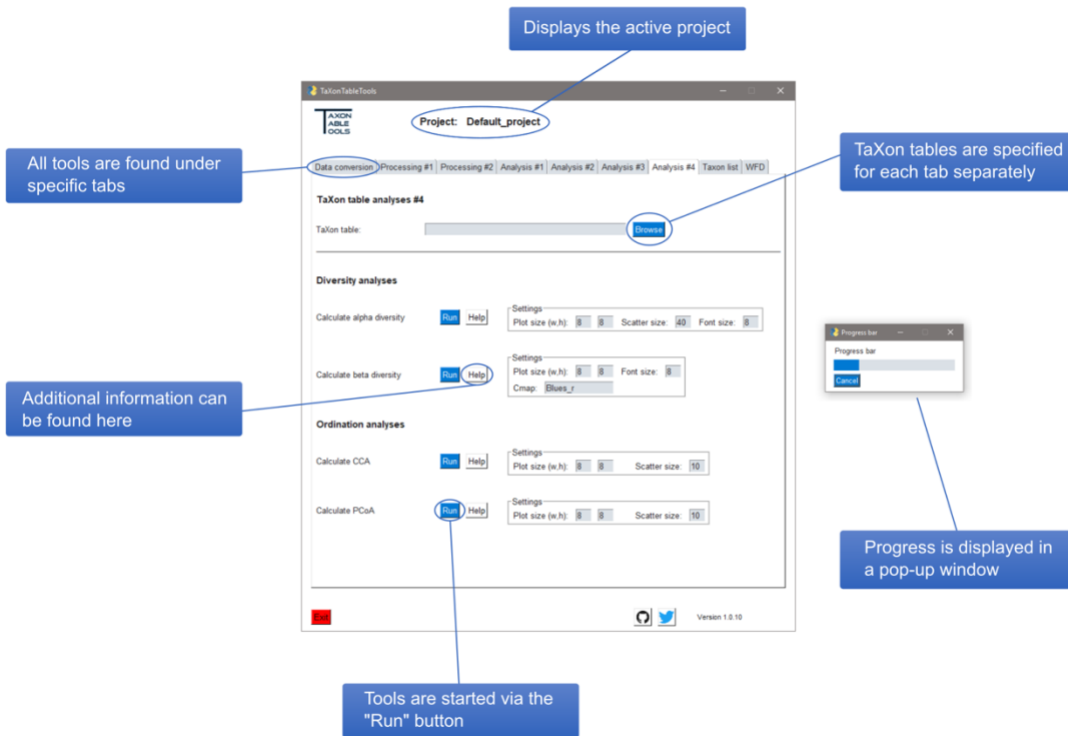
398

399 **Author Contributions**

400 T.M. conceived and designed the study and wrote the Python package. A.B. and F.L. provided input to the
401 package and supervised the project. T.M., F.L. and A.B. wrote the paper. All authors read and approved the final
402 manuscript.

403

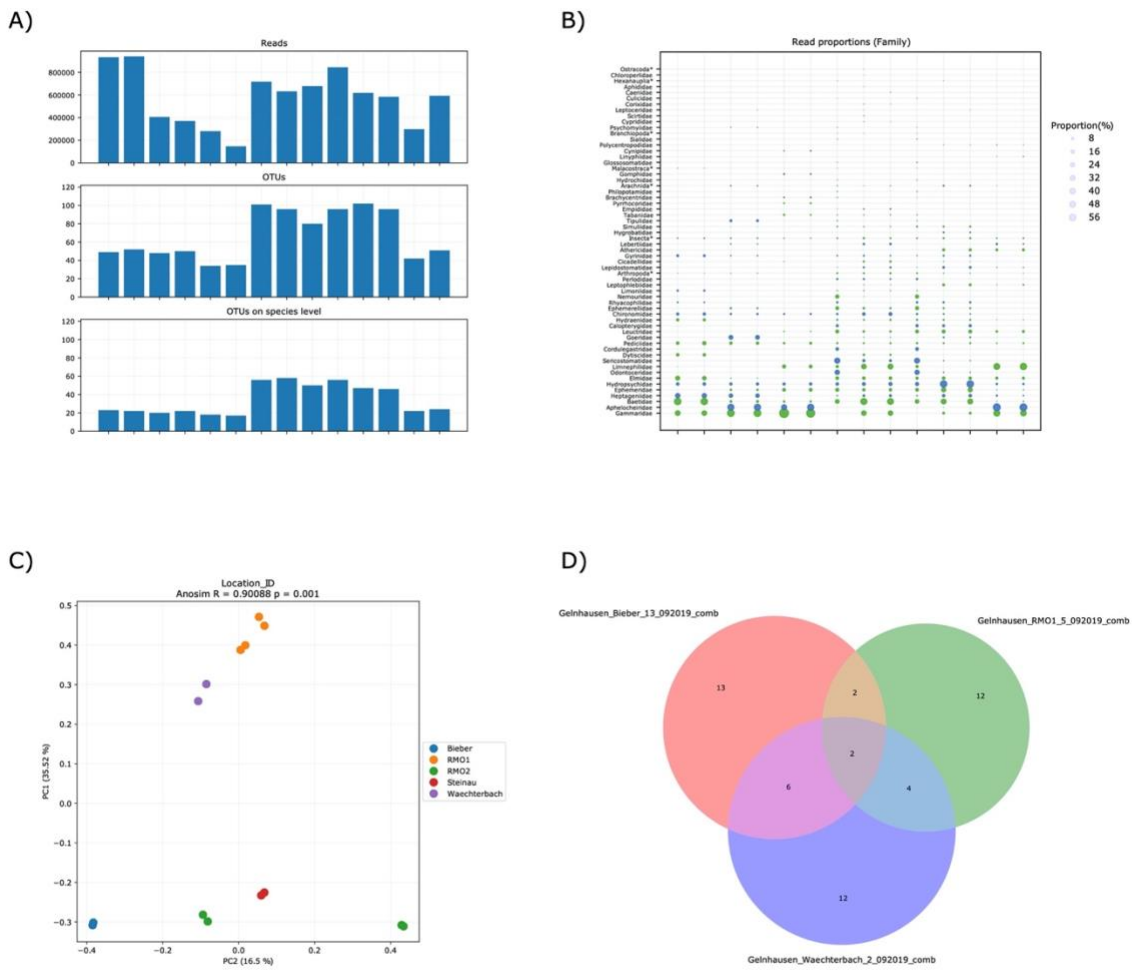
404 **Figures**



405

406 **Figure 1:** Graphical user interface of TaxonTableTools

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408

409 **Figure 2:** Exemplary graphical output produced with TaxonTableTools: Basis statistics give a first overview of the
 410 data set by plotting the number of reads, number of OTUs and number of OTUs on species level for all samples
 411 (A). Read proportions can be plotted in a scatter plot, where the circles size represents the proportion of the
 412 respective taxon in the sample (B). Sample names on the x-axis have been removed for sub-plots A and B.
 413 Correlations between samples can be investigated by performing a principle coordination analysis (PCoA), which
 414 is based on Jaccard distances (C). An analysis of similarities (ANOSIM) and p-test is performed automatically.
 415 Taxa overlaps of up to three samples can be visualized with Venn diagrams (D).