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1	Title: Assessing intraspecific genetic diversity from community DNA metabarcoding data
2	
3	Running Title (45 char max): Extracting haplotypes from metabarcoding data
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13	
14	Abstract:
15	Background. DNA metabarcoding is used to generate species composition data for entire communities. However,
16	sequencing errors in high throughput sequencing instruments are fairly common, usually requiring reads to be clustered into
17	operational taxonomic units (OTU), loosing information on intraspecific diversity in the process.
18	Methods. This study combines sequence denoising strategies, normally applied in microbial research, with additional
19	abundance based filtering to extract haplotypes from freshwater macroinvertebrate metabarcoding data sets. This novel
20	approach is implemented in the R package "JAMP" and can be applied to Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) amplicon
21	datasets. We tested our haplotyping method by sequencing i) a single-species mock community composed of 31 individuals
22	with different haplotypes spanning three orders of magnitude in biomass and ii) 18 monitoring samples each amplified with
23	four different primer sets and two PCR replicates.
24	Results. We detected all 15 haplotypes of the single specimens in the mock community with relaxed filtering and denoising
25	settings. However, up to 480 additional unexpected haplotypes remained in both replicates. Rigorous filtering removes
26	most unexpected haplotypes, but also can discard expected haplotypes mainly from the small specimens. In the monitoring
27	samples, the different primer sets detected 177 - 200 OTUs, each containing an average of 2.40 to 3.30 haplotypes per OTU.
28	Population structures were consistent between replicates, and similar between primer pairs, depending on the primer length.
29	A closer look at abundant taxa in the data set revealed various population genetic patterns, e.g. Taeniopteryx nebulosa and

30 Hydropsyche <u>pellucidula</u> with a difference in north-south haplotype distribution, while *Oulimnius tuberculatus* and *Asellus* 31 aquaticus display no clear population pattern but differ in genetic diversity. 32 **Discussion.** We developed a strategy to infer intraspecific genetic diversity from bulk invertebrate samples using 33 metabarcoding data. It needs to be stressed that at this point metabarcoding-informed haplotyping is not capable to capture 34 the full diversity present in bulk samples, due to variation in specimen size, primer bias and loss of sequence variants with 35 low abundance. Nevertheless, for a high number of species intraspecific diversity is recovered, identifying potentially 36 isolated populations and potential taxa for further more detailed phylogeographic investigation. While we are currently 37 lacking large-scale metabarcoding data sets to fully take advantage our new approach, metabarcoding-informed haplotyping 38 holds great promise for biomonitoring efforts that not only seek information about biological diversity but also underlying 39 genetic diversity.

40

41 **Keywords:** metabarcoding, high-throughput sequencing, haplotyping, population genetics, ecosystem assessment

42

43 Introduction

44 High-throughput analysis of DNA barcodes retrieved from environmental samples, i.e. DNA metabarcoding, allows for the 45 rapid and standardized assessment of community composition without the need for morpho-taxonomy (Taberlet et al., 46 2012a; Creer et al., 2016). This new surge of data enables biodiversity surveys at speeds and scales that were previously 47 inconceivable in ecological and evolutionary studies. While the approach has major strengths and is generally regarded as a 48 game changer for ecological research (Creer et al., 2016), it still has limitations such as the fact that sequences are typically 49 clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs, Fig. S1) thereby ignoring any intraspecific variation (Callahan, 50 McMurdie & Holmes, 2017). However, clustering is a crucial step to reduce the influence of PCR and sequencing errors 51 that can otherwise generate false sequence variation (Edgar, 2013). This inability to detect intraspecific variation hampers 52 our ability to detect impacts at the population level. Simultaneous assessment of inter- and intraspecific diversity, however, 53 would be a milestone forward in ecological research and management because haplotype data are direct proxies to register 54 spatio-temporal dynamics of populations and both parameters can differ substantially (Taberlet et al., 2012b). Especially 55 assessing fragmentation (e.g. Weiss & Leese 2016) or changes in population size in response to environmental impacts are 56 key area in basic and applied ecological research (e.g. Sutherland et al. 2012). Also for management this parameter is 57 important because because genetic variation is typically lost long before complete species or OTUs (Bálint et al., 2011). 58 Unfortunately, methods to extract haplotype information from metabarcoding data sets are generally not widely available

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59 and thus most studies are based on single-specimen analyses. Some of those are based on denoising algorithms capable of 60 distinguishing between true haplotypes and sequencing noise (e.g. Tikhonov, Leach & Wingreen, 2015; Eren et al., 2015; 61 Edgar, 2016; Callahan et al., 2016; Amir et al., 2017) and have been tested for microbial samples (e.g. Eren et al., 2015; Callahan et al., 2016; Needham, Sachdeva & Fuhrman, 2017). Wares & Pappalardo (2016) suggested that haplotype 62 63 information in metazoan datasets can be used to, for instance, improve taxa abundance estimates, which was successfully 64 demonstrated with bat diet samples (Corse et al., 2017). Recent studies were also able to infer haplotypes with metabarcoding for single specimens (Shokralla et al., 2014), arthropod bulk samples (Elbrecht & Leese, 2015; Pedro et al., 65 66 2017) and environmental water samples (Sigsgaard et al., 2016), all highlighting the possibility to extract sequence variant 67 information within OTUs when targeting metazoan taxa. 68 We here further explore bioinformatics strategies in order to unlock the potential of metabarcoding based haplotyping of 69 entire and complex metazoan communities. Therefore, we combined stringent quality filtering of reads with the recently 70 developed *unoise3* denoising strategy (Edgar, 2016) and calibrated this approach using a previously characterized single-71 species mock sample composed of specimens with known haplotypes (Elbrecht & Leese, 2015; Vamos, Elbrecht & Leese,

72 2017). Subsequently, we multi-species metabarcoding data collected from 18 sample sites as part of a governmental

freshwater macroinvertebrates biomonitoring program (Elbrecht et al., 2017). These were denoised with the developed

strategy and we tested the potential to detect intraspecific variation across the broad geographic gradient across multiple
 taxa.

76

77 Materials & Methods

78 We tested our haplotyping strategy on two available DNA metabarcoding datasets, 1) a single-species mock sample 79 containing 31 specimens with known haplotypes (Vamos, Elbrecht & Leese, 2017) and 2) a multi-species macroinvertebrate 80 community dataset from the Finnish governmental stream monitoring program (Elbrecht et al., 2017). The samples were 81 sequenced for a region nested within the classical Folmer COI region (Folmer et al., 1994) with two replicates each. Hereby, 82 the single-species sample (1) was sequenced using a short primer set amplifying 178 bp, while the multi-species monitoring 83 samples were amplified using four different primer sets targeting a region of up to 421 bp (Elbrecht & Leese, 2017). Paired-84 end sequencing (250 bp) was performed on Illumina MiSeq and HiSeq systems with high sequencing depth (on average 85 1.53 million reads per sample, SD = 0.29). 86 To extract individual haplotypes from the metabarcoding datasets, we used strict quality filtering followed by denoising

87 (unoise3 (Edgar, 2016), with additional threshold-based filtering steps (see Fig. 1B). The full metabarcoding and

haplotyping pipelines are available as R package (https://github.com/VascoElbrecht/JAMP), which requires Usearch 88 89 v10.0.240 (Edgar, 2013). All used pipeline commands are also available as supporting information (Fig. S2, Scripts S1, 90 JAMP v0.28). In short, pre-processing of reads involved sample demultiplexing, paired-end merging, primer trimming, 91 generation of reverse complements where needed (to align all reads in the forward direction), max ee filtering = 0.5 (Edgar 92 & Flyvbjerg, 2015), only keeping reads of exact length targeted by the respective primer set, subsampling to 1 and 0.4 93 million reads, respectively, to generate the same sequencing depth for the single species and monitoring bulk samples. To 94 further reduce the amount of sequences affected by sequencing errors we applied read denoising with unoise3 as 95 implemented in Usearch (Edgar, 2016) to all samples of a dataset using only reads with ≥ 10 abundance in each sample 96 after dereplication. Different expected error cutoffs and alpha values were tested, with ee = 0.5 and alpha = 5 being used for 97 the final analysis of the 18 bulk samples. 98 For the single-species mock sample, the denoised and quality filtered reads (prior to denoising) were mapped against the 99 expected 15 haplotype sequences using Vsearch (v2.4.3) (Rognes et al., 2016). The unoise3 implementation into the JAMP 100 package adds additional threshold-based filtering after the denoising step, which we used for the Finnish mulit-species 101 monitoring samples in order to discard low abundant haplotypes and OTUs "Denoise(..., minhaplosize = 0.01, OTUmin = 102 0.1)". Additionally, within each OTU and sample site, only haplotypes with at least 5% abundance per sample were 103 considered for generating haplotype maps and networks, in order to exclude low abundance OTUs which can be difficult to 104 separate from PCR artifacts and sequencing errors.

105

106 **Results**

107 Our approach starts with denoising of quality filtered reads using unoise3 (Edgar, 2016) followed by an additional 108 threshold-based filtering step which includes OTU clustering of denoised reads (Edgar, 2013) and the removal of low 109 abundant OTUs / haplotypes (see Fig. 1B). We validated this approach by using a single species mock community of known 110 haplotype composition (Elbrecht & Leese, 2015), in which we found 943 unexpected haplotypes above 0.003% abundance 111 with no expected error filtering applied (Fig. 1A). Filtering the raw sequence data with different quality thresholds (max ee, 112 Edgar & Flyvbjerg, 2015) reduced the number of unexpected haplotypes by only up to 10.22% (Fig S3). The consistency 113 between the two independent sequencing replicates indicates that a major fraction of the detected haplotypes represent in 114 fact real biological signal (e.g. somatic mutations, numts or heteroplasmy, Bensasson et al., 2001; Shokralla et al., 2014), 115 which is difficult to differentiate from PCR and sequencing errors. Even after using different alpha values for the unoise3 116 algorithm some unexpected sequence variants remained (Fig S4). An error filtering of max ee = 0.5 in combination with an

- alpha of 5 was chosen for subsequent analysis (Fig. 1C), as it offers the best trade-off between expected and unexpected
 haplotypes (9 of 15 expected, 6 unexpected with low abundance), while retaining 67.08% (SD = 17.69%) of the original
 sequence data after quality filtering and before denoising.
- 120 For the denoising of our multi-species environmental biomonitoring samples, additional and more conservative 121 filtering steps were introduced to ensure only true sequence variants are included in the analysis (discarding low abundant 122 OTUs and haplotypes below 0.1% and 0.01%, as well as haplotypes below 5% read abundance within each OTU of the 123 respective sample, Fig. 1C green line). Denoising of metabarcoding data from 18 macroinvertebrate samples of the Finnish routine stream monitoring, recovered 177 - 200 OTUs containing 534 - 646 haplotypes (on average 2.40 - 3.30 haplotypes 124 125 per OTU, SD = 2.13 - 3.26) for the different primer pairs (Table S1). Most OTUs were only present in a few sample 126 locations, allowing for only limited population genetic analysis (Fig. S5, see also Fig. S7 in Elbrecht et al., 2017). Fig. 2 127 depicts some examples of haplotype diversity and geographic distribution for more common and widely distributed taxa in 128 this study. For Taeniopteryx nebulosa (Plecoptera) and Hydropsyche pellucidula (Trichoptera) we found distinct patterns of 129 latitudinal variation in haplotype composition (Fig. 2A, B), while Oulimnius tuberculatus (Coleoptera) showed low genetic 130 variation across all primer combinations (Fig. 2C, Fig. S3C). Asellus aquaticus (Isopoda) on the other hand showed very 131 high genetic diversity for endemic haplotypes (Fig. 2D). Extracted haplotype patterns between replicates were highly reproducible ($R^2 = 0.751$, SD = 0.242), while at the same time 132
- recovering more sequence variants with longer amplicons (Fig. S6). Taxon occurrence for the four taxa analysed in detail matched morphology based identifications (Elbrecht et al., 2017) in most cases (only four false positive detections, Fig. 2). The few inconsistencies between replicates in haplotypes and taxa occurrence are mostly affecting low abundance reads. In the sequence alignments, all four primer sets shared most of the variable positions (Fig. S6).

137

138 **Discussion**

139 In this case study, we developed and demonstrated a bioinformatic strategy to process metabarcoding data first using a

140 controlled single-species approach, in order to extract intraspecific genetic diversity information from complex multi-

- species metazoan environmental samples. While our multi-species dataset was limited to only 18 sampling sites, and many
- 142 taxa were not widely distributed (Elbrecht et al., 2017), we could still infer potential population genetic patterns for some of
- 143 the abundant and more widespread taxa. Where available, observed population genetic patterns were also consistent with
- 144 previous studies, e.g. earlier work reported high genetic diversity for *A. aquaticus* (Sworobowicz et al., 2015). Other

published work, e.g. on *H. pellucidula* (Múrria et al., 2010) and *O. tuberculatus* (Čiampor & Kodada, 2010) was too limited
in sampling size and region for proper comparison.

Deriving haplotypes from metabarcoding data does not require specialized field or laboratory protocols, as existing data is analyzed. And while our dataset is very limited with just 18 sample sites, there are efforts underway to implement DNA metabarcoding based monitoring of stream water quality in Europe, potentially generating HTS data for thousands of sample sites every year (Leese et al., 2016, Leese et al. in press). Such haplotype data, even though limited in resolution and based only on a single gene marker, could be used to formulate hypotheses about taxa dispersal at an unprecedented scale (Hughes, Schmidt & FINN, 2009), which would be highly beneficial for the renaturation and management of aquatic ecosystems.

154 While the detection of haplotypes from bulk samples was demonstrated in this and other studies (Sigsgaard et al., 2016; 155 Corse et al., 2017; Pedro et al., 2017), the limitations of metabarcoding based haplotyping remain relatively unexplored. 156 Metabarcoding data sets can be affected by primer bias (Elbrecht & Leese, 2015), tag switching (Esling, Lejzerowicz & 157 Pawlowski, 2015; Schnell, Bohmann & Gilbert, 2015), as well as PCR and sequencing errors (Nakamura et al., 2011; 158 Tremblay et al., 2015). Such issues can lead to artificial haplotypes, which are usually sufficiently different to distinguish 159 them from actual haplotypes in the samples, especially if they are less abundant and thus likely influenced by stochastic 160 effects (Leray & Knowlton, 2017). We applied very strict quality filtering in our pipeline, and cautiously discarded all 161 haplotypes below 5% abundance within an OTU. This is necessary, as low abundant OTUs can not be separated from 162 sequencing errors, somatic mutations (Shokralla et al., 2014) and other noise in the data, as we have shown for the single 163 species mock samples. Strict filtering will remove rare and low abundant OTUs, but it is necessary to reduce the amount of false positive artificial OTUs that result from the currently rather high error rates of HTS instruments. Even with such strict 164 165 filtering settings, we can not be fully confident that all false haplotypes were excluded e.g. as the result of undetected 166 chimeric sequences (Edgar et al., 2011) or systematic sequencing errors (Nakamura et al., 2011; Schirmer et al., 2015; 167 Schirmer, 2016) that likely persist across replicates. Approaches relying on the comparison of replicate samples could be an 168 appropriate strategy in particular when working with unicellular organisms (Lange et al., 2015). However, as for our 169 metazoan communities many variants occur across both repicates (Fig. 1). Macroinvertebrate communities can vary 170 considerably in biomass, which means rare and small specimens will be underrepresented when extracting DNA from bulk 171 samples (Elbrecht, Peinert & Leese, 2017). Thus, taxa in the sample are sequenced at different sequencing depth, which 172 likely has an influence on the amount of false haplotypes detected within each OTU. Additionally, differences in specimen 173 biomass can skew the detection of haplotypes, as only those of large specimens will be retained in bioinformatics analysis 174 (haplotypes of small specimens are likely below 5% abundance). Such uncertainties need to be considered when doing

175 population genetic analysis, which is usually done at specimen level, with the exact number of specimens and haplotypes 176 known for each sampling site. It has to be emphasized that at this point metabarcoding based haplotyping only provides 177 very limited information of genetic diversity and phylogeography of a given taxon. However, interesting patterns emerging 178 from such studies can be subsequently explored by collecting taxa of interest and using standard population genetic markers 179 with a higher resolution (e.g. microsatellites, ddRAD (Peterson et al., 2012)). Our study demonstrates the feasibility and 180 potential of metabarcoding data for the investigation of population genetic patterns of entire complex environmental 181 communities. The shortcomings and the level of resolution of this novel approach need to be carefully tested. Additionally, more bioinformatics approaches suited for the analysis of metazoan bulk samples need to be developed, especially with 182 183 respect to variation in specimen biomass (Elbrecht, Peinert & Leese, 2017). Furthermore, most software currently used in 184 this field was developed for microbial samples and should therefore be further tested and benchmarked for its feasibility in 185 studies involving eukaryotes. Despite the clear limitations of this haplotyping approach, we are confident that it will be 186 useful in future large-scale studies of genetic diversity. While metabarcoding studies will remain affected by sequencing 187 errors (potentially leading to false haplotypes), we expect that most of these issues can be mitigated by increasing the 188 number of sampling sites to several hundred or even thousands. For large-scale efforts such as routine monitoring using 189 metabarcoding (Baird & Hajibabaei, 2012; Gibson et al., 2015; Elbrecht et al., 2017), this might soon become a feasible 190 option if not standard.

191

192 Conclusions

193 Our study demonstrates that haplotypes can be extracted from complex metazoan metabarcoding datasets. This proof of 194 concept work already shows emerging population genetic patterns for a few species, but more large-scale validation studies 195 are needed to explore the limitations and the potential of metabarcoding based haplotyping. While some shortcomings such 196 as occasional false positive detections and loss of rare and small taxa are difficult to overcome per sample for such complex 197 communities, these can be partly offset by studying comparative patterns of intraspecific variation across many taxa and 198 sites. As metabarcoding becomes more accessible and larger DNA-based biodiversity assessment and monitoring initiatives 199 emerge, sampling and extracting haplotypes from hundreds of sites might become a feasible path of future research. 200 201

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203 Data availability. Unprocessed raw sequence data are available from previous studies on the NCBI SRA archive. Single

- 204 species mock sample: SRR5295658 and SRR5295659 (Vamos, Elbrecht & Leese, 2017), monitoring samples: SRR4112287
- 205 (Elbrecht et al., 2017). The JAMP R package is available on GitHub (github.com/VascoElbrecht/JAMP) with the used R
- scripts (Script S1) and full haplotype tables (Table S1) available as supporting information.

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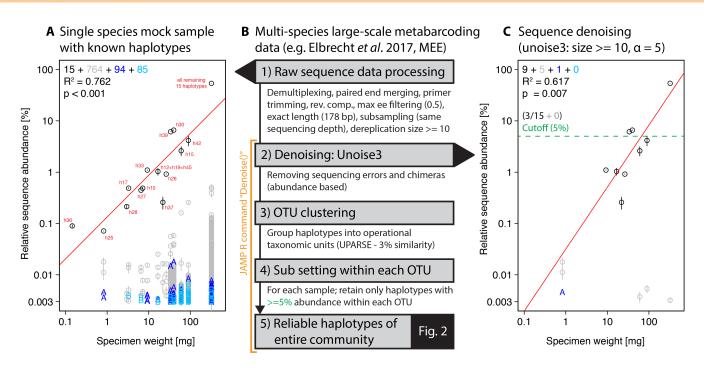


Figure 1: Overview of DNA metabarcoding data of a single-species mock sample containing specimens with 15 distinct haplotypes (black circles). Detected haplotypes (unexpected ones shown in grey and blue) plotted against specimen biomass for the processed data (A) and followed by read denoising using unoise3 (C). Denoising was applied to both replicates individually, with a circle if the read was detected in both samples (error bar = SD) and A or B if the read was found in only one replicate. For processing of large-scale samples (B, Fig. 2), all samples were pooled and jointly denoised, followed by OTU clustering and read mapping then followed by discarding of haplotypes below a 5% threshold within each sample.

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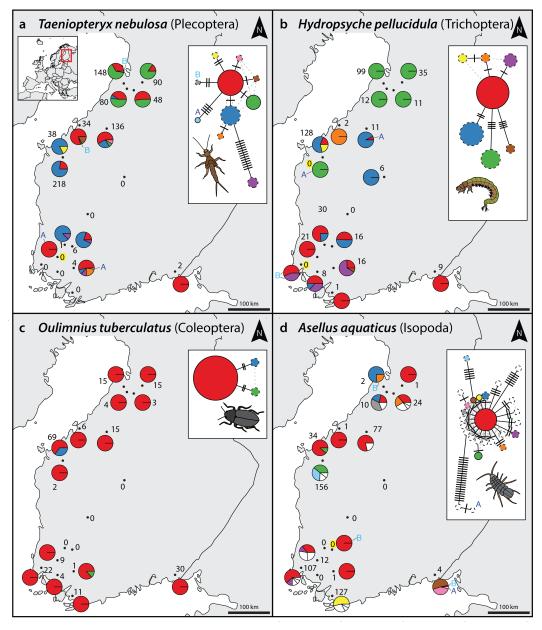




Figure 2: Haplotype maps and networks extracted from multi-species community metabarcoding datasets amplified with the BF2+BR2 primer set for four abundant macroinvertebrate taxa (A = *Taeniopteryx nebulosa*, B = *Hydropsyche*

pellucidula, C = *Oulimnius tuberculatus*, D = *Asellus aquaticus*). Numbers next to each sampling site indicate sample size
of the respective taxa based on morphological identification in a sample (Elbrecht et al., 2017). Conflicts between DNA and
morphology based-detections are highlighted in yellow. Haplotype frequency composition per site is indicated by pie charts.
For *A. aquaticus* only the 10 most common haplotypes are visualised with different colours (remaining ones in white). Each
crossline in a network represents one base pair difference between the respective haplotypes. Dashed lines around a circle
indicate novel haplotypes that were not available in the BOLD reference database. An A or B next to a haplotype in the map
or network indicates the presence of this haplotype in only in one replicate.

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233	
234	Author contributions
235	V.E. developed the haplotyping concept, with contributions from E.E.V. and F.L., V.E. developed the bioinformatics and
236	analysed the data, V.E., E.E.V., D.S., and F.L. wrote and revised the paper.
237	
238	
239	
240	Supporting information
241	Figure S1: Schematic overview of errors affecting metabarcoding data and clustering / denoising strategies to reduce them.
242	Figure S2: Overview of the haplotyping strategy used here and their implementation in the JAMP R package.
243	Figure S3: Effect of different quality filtering (max ee) on reads of the single species mock sample.
244	Figure S4: Effect of different alpha values in read denoising of the single-species mock sample.
245	Figure S5: Bar plots of haplotype distribution within each OTU.
246	Figure S6: Detailed plots of four example taxa from the denoised multi-species monitoring samples, showing haplotype
247	maps & networks, similarity between replicates and sequence alignment for all BF/BR primer sets.
248	Table S1: Finland haplotype table (for all four different primer combinations).
249	Scripts S1: Metabarcoding and denoising pipeline, and additional scripts used to produce the figures.
250	
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