SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION for

Integration of short reads from multiple 16S rRNA regions generates high resolution microbial community reconstruction, by Amir et al.

SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS

SM.1 A short overview of theoretical results for COMPASS

We shortly describe the mathematical formulation of COMPASS and two theoretical results, that are described in detail and proven in (1).

Probabilistic setting: The probabilistic formulation of the problem is given by first normalizing the entries in each column of A by the corresponding sequence length. We denote the resulting matrix by \hat{A} hence \hat{A}_{ij} represents the probability of observing k-mer *i* in sequence *j*. We then provide a probabilistic generative model for the distribution of the measurement vector **y**. This read sampling distribution, which we note by $p_{\hat{A}}(\mathbf{x})$, is a function of \hat{A} and of the mixture's true vector **x**. The equivalence between the probabilistic setting and the one provided in this manuscript is straightforward.

Reconstruction Guarantees: A fundamental question is to what extent does the information provided by sampled short reads allows one to correctly reconstruct the species identities and frequencies. We first defined and studied species '*identifiability*', namely the ability to correctly identify the species present in a mixture and estimate their frequencies when the number of reads and our computational power are unlimited. Understanding the conditions for identifiability is important, since when identifiability does not hold, profiling will always be ambiguous having some species' frequencies undetermined, regardless of the data analysis method used even for an infinite number of errorless reads. Mathematically, the condition for identifiability is that each mixture frequency vector **x** has a unique fingerprint, *i.e.* the distribution $p_{\hat{A}}(\mathbf{x})$ is uniquely determined by the vector **x**. This is achieved if the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$ is of full rank.

Identifiability is determined by both the similarity between sequences in the database and by the read length. The longer and more diverse are the sequenced regions, the more information they provide on the DNA sequence of different species in the mixture. We show that when the read length is long enough, the problem is identifiable. For realistic read lengths (e.g. 100nt), and for the Greengenes database used, it turns out that identifiability does not hold, *i.e.* there are certain species whose frequencies cannot be uniquely recovered. However, this has no severe consequences. We defined and analysed 'partial identifiability' for the Greengenes database. Even if the entire frequency vector **x** cannot be uniquely determined from the read sampling distribution $p_{\bar{A}}(\mathbf{x})$, we can still recover correctly the frequencies (see (1)). It turns out that for the Greengenes database and realistic read lengths, the vast majority of species frequencies can be identified uniquely and profiling is ambiguous only for a

small minority. For example, about 98.5% of the sequences in the Greengenes database used are uniquely identifiable for a read length of 100nt, and only the remaining 1.5% sequences would need longer read lengths in order to be distinguishable.

We next studied the reconstruction error as a function of the number of reads available. More specifically we proved upper-bounds on the difference between the correct vector \mathbf{x} and the solution of Eq. 1 in the main text. The bounds depend on the similarity between sequences and the read length, manifested by the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$, and on the number of reads. Intuitively, we would expect reconstruction error to be lower as the number of reads increased, and as the similarity between the database sequences is decreased. Similar database sequences are expected to be harder to distinguish and lead to higher reconstruction error. We formulated this intuition mathematically, by proving an upper-bound on the mean squared error between the true and reconstructed vectors which is inversely proportional to the number of reads R, and to the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{A}}^{T}\hat{\mathbf{A}}$. For sequences showing high similarity, the eigenvalue will be small, hence more reads are needed for accurate reconstruction (at the extreme case, when the problem is not identifiable, the smallest eigenvalue is zero and the bound is meaningless).

More details, including additional results for other error measures, are available in (1).

SM.2 Performance exploration using extensive simulations

Simulating a mixture: Each simulation is characterized by the mixture parameters, the database specifications and by 'sequencing' parameters. A mixture is characterized by the number of bacteria n, and their frequency distribution, while the database S was either taken as the full 16S rRNA gene or the specific 750bp region that was actually amplified in our experiments. The 'sequencing' parameters were given by the number of reads R and their length k.

A simulation was performed by randomly selecting n bacteria from S and assigning their frequencies according to the chosen distribution. Reads were then simulated by selecting one bacterium from the mixture according to its frequency and then randomly selecting a read of length k from its sequence in S using a uniform distribution. This read is then subject to read errors according to a model described below. The COMPASS algorithm receives this set of reads together with S and outputs the reconstructed vector stating the estimated frequency of each bacteria in S. Unless mentioned otherwise, the algorithm used the read correction procedure described in the main text.

Error model for Illumina reads: To introduce read errors in simulated Illumina reads we used the error models in (2,3), which take into account position-dependent base substitutions errors with error probability exponentially increasing along the read. More specifically, the following confusion matrix is defined:

	A	С	G	Т
A	1-p	0.3*p	0.22*p	0.18*p
С	0.5*p	1-p	0.22*p	0.6*p
G	0.35*p	0.15*p	1-р	0.22*p
Т	0.15*p	0.55*p	0.56*p	1-p

where p depends on the location / along a read of length k using the following formula:

$$p(l) = E_0 e^{\alpha(l-1)}, \ \alpha = \log(E_k / E_1) / (k-1)$$

And E_1 and E_k correspond to the error probability in the first base and last positions, respectively. The values used were $E_1 = 0.5\%$ and $E_k = 3\%$.

SM.3 Phylogenetic tree building

Phylogenetic trees presented in Figures 5, S3 and S6 were calculated and plotted using standard MATLAB functions. Sequence pairwise distances were calculated using the Jukes-Cantor algorithm allowing pairwise alignment (seqpdist.m function). A tree was then constructed from these pairwise distances using single linkage method (seqlinkage.m function).

SUPPLEMENTARY RESULTS

SR.1 Profiling low frequency bacteria

We performed two sets of simulations where we replaced the 0.1% minimal frequency threshold value by 0.025% and used blocks of 4000 bacteria instead of 1000 bacteria in the divide and conquer step. The first set of simulations repeated the case of n=1000 bacteria (Figure 3 panel C). In the second scenario we simulated 500 bacteria having a power law distribution (1/x), in which case the frequency of more than 350 bacteria falls below 0.1% and the minimal frequency is about 0.03%. Results are significantly better than for using the former parameters. Changing the parameters increased simulation run times of each divide and conquer block by a factor of about 4 (see Materials and Methods). This presents a trade-off between run time and the minimal detection frequency, which can be 'tuned' depending on the specific experimental application.

	mixture of 500 bacteria frequency: power law		mixture of 1000 bacteria		
			frequency: uniform		
	MM 0%	MM 2%	MM 0%	MM 2%	
Weighted Precision	89%±3%	99%±1%	88%±2%	99%±1%	
Weighted Recall	92%±2%	97%±1%	91%±1%	97%±1%	

Table S1: Simulating cases of lower frequency bacteria using COMPASS. A lower threshold and a larger block size were applied.

SR.2 Experimental profiling of Fly samples: COMPASS vs. MG-RAST

Results of the Drosophila experiments are presented in Figure S3 in the same format described for 454-BLAST in the main text (Figure 5), hence its description is omitted.

Concordance between COMPASS and SRF at the MG-RAST finest resolution: The comparison shows a high agreement between the two methods, as evident from the matrix, detecting the same 4 main clusters of bacteria (*Wolbachia, Lactobacillus, Acetobacter* and 'Other' which comprised mostly *Pseudomonas*). A closer look into the matrix shows that all 23 sequences found by COMPASS had counterparts found by MG-RAST. 12 out of the 23 sequences found by COMPASS had identical counterparts by MG-RAST, while the other 11 sequences differed by up to 4nt. MG-RAST found 57 bacteria, many of which were later found to be false positives. Out of the 8 sequences found by MG-RAST, that differed from the COMPASS sequences by 7-16nt, 3 sequences from the Pseudomonas cluster had frequency of about 0.1-0.2% in MG-RAST and also appear in only one of the four samples. The other 5 cases occurred in the Wolbachia cluster – 2 of these were validated as false positives and the correctness of others could not be resolved (see next section).

COMPASS displays increased phylogenetic resolution: Each black entry in the matrix in Figure S3 which corresponds to a complete match between the methods, also manifests COMPASS's increased phylogenetic resolution compared to SRF. In all 12 complete matches between COMPASS and MG-RAST, COMPASS achieved higher resolution.

COMPASS displays less false positive detections than MG-RAST: See next section

SR.3 Validation via Sanger sequencing - comparison with MG-RAST results

Summary of results displays reduction in false-positively detected bacteria: Results for sample L2 are summarized in Figure S4 in the same format as Figure 6, thus we refer here only to MG-RAST. The COMPASS column is the same as in Figure 6. Results are also summarized in Table 3.

Wolbachia (Figure S4 left): The dominant high abundance group of sequences (W1) was selected by MG-RAST although it contained 11 bacteria, where only 3 bacteria which were the found by COMPASS were 'Sanger validated', displaying the improved phylogenetic resolution. MG-RAST predicted the existence of 4 additional bacteria, W3-W6 (total frequency of 5.4%), which were all false positives. Two more groups (AB025965.1 and EU137480.1) were not amplified by the Sanger primers, thus can not be deciphered.

Acetobacter (Figure S4 right): MG-RAST predicted the same 4 groups that were predicted by COMPASS and were all validated. However, group A1 contained 25 bacteria out of which the 18 bacteria shared by the COMPASS method were validated and other bacteria were found to be incorrect, which is another manifestation of increased resolution provided. The additional MG-RAST predicted group A5 having frequency of 4.9% contained 10 bacteria that were false positives.

SR.4 Computational resources

Table S2 A-C displays time and memory usage of COMPASS and EMIRGE. Experiments were performed using a virtual Linux (64 bit Ubuntu 12.04.2 LTS) machine with 6 cores and 37GByte of RAM. This virtual machine was hosted on a Dell PowerEdge R610 running VMware vSphere ESXi 5.0 with 48Gbytes of RAM and 2 Intel Xeon X5550 running at 2.659Ghz..The machine was solely dedicated to COMPASS and EMIRGE, running a single case at a time allowing usage of all 6 CPUs. We measured the time of each run and the peak memory usage (namely of all 6 cores). Results are presented when varying the number of reads, the read length and the number of bacteria in exactly the same settings as in Figure 3 and Figures S1 and S2. Each scenario was tested once, hence some variability in time estimates may occur.

EMIRGE results: Running times increase dramatically with increasing the number of reads and the number of bacteria, and also when decreasing the read length (memory exceeded the machine's memory for read lengths 35nt and 50nt). EMIRGE was applied while enabling parallel usage of bowtie in all 6 cores, which reduced its running times.

COMPASS results: Memory was independent of number of reads, read length and number of bacteria, either with or without correcting for read errors - each of the 6 CPUs used about 3.5 Gigabytes of RAM. In contrast, time-wise there were significant differences when applying read error correction in COMPASS.

Run time in COMPASS without read error correction seems to be independent of the number of reads, it slightly increases with the number of bacteria. In most cases time was in the order of 1-2 hours (in the case of a short read length of 35nt the running time was 3.5 hours). Time seems to be significantly shorter than of EMIRGE when number of reads is larger than a few hundreds of thousands and for read lengths shorter than 200nt and for any number of bacteria.

Running times of COMPASS with read error correction are significantly longer than EMIRGE in almost all scenarios. When the number of reads is 500,000 or 10⁶ COMPASS takes around 11 hours. Also, a longer read length contains more errors that need to be corrected for, hence time increases with the read length, as opposed to EMIRGE and to COMPASS without read error correction for which time decreased with read length. When increasing the number of bacteria running times reach about 35 hours for 1000 bacteria.

Summary: Given the limited effect of read errors, read error correction may be ignored, without significant loss in performance (see e.g. Figure S8). This would dramatically reduce running times, to a regime well below the EMIRGE run times. However, in case sequencing results contain a large number of read errors and correction is required, one can simply employ a larger number of cores to reduce run time.

Remark regarding SRF using BLAST: Run times of 16S-V4 depend on the specific BLAST implementation, and are proportional to the number of unique reads. It is completely parallelizable since reads may be split among the cores. For example, processing a 1000 unique reads of 16S-V4 takes about 15 minutes using the MATLAB based BLAST over the 6 cores. Hence an experiment with 10,000 reads would take about 2.5 hours to analyse on our Linux machine.

Tables S2

	Time (Hours)			Memory (Gigabytes)	
	COMPASS	COMPASS			
Number of reads	with correcting for read errors	without correcting for read errors	EMIRGE	COMPASS	EMIRGE
10,000	0.85	1	0.03	19	0.24
20,000	1	1	0.08	19.7	0.24
50,000	1	0.7	0.16	19.1	0.4
100,000	1.3	0.7	0.35	19.4	0.7
500,000	7.3	1.23	3.5	20.1	4
1,000,000	11	0.83	8	20.5	9.6

Table S2-A, Run times and memory usage as a function of the number of reads. Simulations were performed using 200 bacteria, and read length of 100nt.

	Time (Hours)			Memory (Gigabytes)	
	COMPASS	COMPASS			
Read length	with correcting for read errors	without correcting for read errors	EMIRGE	COMPASS	EMIRGE
35	7	3.5	-	20.1	-
50	5.7	2.1	-	20.1	-
75	8.8	1.3	14	20.3	13.4
100	11	0.83	8	20.5	9.6
150	18	0.75	2.8	20.7	2.8
200	24	0.7	1.75	21.3	2.4

Table S2-B, Run times and memory usage as a function of the read length. Simulations were performed using 200 bacteria, and 10^6 reads. EMIRGE runs for read lengths 35nt and 50nt failed due to memory demands.

	Time (Hours)			Memory (Gigabytes)	
	COMPASS	COMPASS			
number of bacteria	with correcting for read errors	without correcting for read errors	EMIRGE	COMPASS	EMIRGE
10	8.7	0.75	0.8	20.6	4.6
100	22	1.23	6.2	20.5	6.3
200	25.5	1.3	10	20.3	12.4
400	32	1.6	12	20.3	11.6
600	29.5h	1.5	17.7	21	12.3
1000	34.7	1.8	19.5	20.5	15

Table S2-C, Run times and memory usage as a function of the number of bacteria. Simulations were performed using 10⁶ reads of length of 100nt.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1: Extensive simulations – EMIRGE performance as a function of several parameters

Panels (A)-(C) present weighted recall and precision as a function of different variables. Unless stated otherwise, parameters are as follows: each simulation contained 200 bacteria, randomly selected from the (full length) 16S database, with relative frequencies following a power law distribution (1/x). The read length was 100nt, and 10⁶ reads were simulated. The simulated mixtures were exactly those simulated in Figure 3, although reads were not subject to errors. The blue and red lines denote weighted recall and precision respectively; a solid line refers to the case in which complete sequence identity is required, while a dashed line refers to the case where up to 2% differences in sequence are acceptable.

(A.) Effect of number of reads, with read number changed from 10^6 down to 10^4 , and other parameters as above.

(B.) Effect of read length, with read length varying between 75 and 200, and other parameters as above. Due to memory limitations read lengths 35 and 50 were not tested.

(C.) Effect of number of bacteria in the original mixture. Here for each number of bacteria n, all bacterial frequencies are set to 1/n. Other parameters are as above



FIGURE S1

Figure S2: Extensive simulations – EMIRGE performance as a function of several parameters when frequency criterion is not enforced

The same as Figure S1, apart from the fact that the frequency criterion was not enforced.



FIGURE S2

Figure S3: Reconstruction of Drosophila samples – COMPASS and MG-RAST

Results comparing MG-RAST SRF based on Roche 454 and Illumina-based COMPASS framework on four Drosophila samples, L1, L2, E1 and E2. Results are presented in the same format as in Figure 5 hence its description is omitted.



Figure S4: Validation via Sanger sequencing – MG-RAST and COMPASS

The left and right sides in the upper part of the figure display a zoom in to the *Wolbachia* and *Acetobacter* regions of Figure S3 for samples L2, stating the predicted groups by MG-RAST and COMPASS. Results are presented in the same format as in Figure 6, hence its description is omitted. Bacteria are grouped according to Figure S3, for both COMPASS and MG-RAST predictions.







Figure S5: Comparison Roche 454 and Illumina - human saliva

Experimental results comparing 454-BLAST SRF and Illumina based COMPASS on four human saliva samples. The format is identical to that of Figure 4. On the left a phylogenetic tree based on sequences inferred by COMPASS (with frequency higher than 1%), where a similar tree based on the 454-BLAST is shown on top (with frequency higher than 0.5%). Database accession names are shown on the left and below respectively (further details appear in Supplementary Datasets 4-5). The matrix in the center displays the similarity between sequences found by 454-BLAST and COMPASS, calculated over the mutual 350bp long sequence. Complete identity in shown in black, while 7 or more mismatches appear as white. The block structure displays the high similarity between the results of the two methods. 58 out of 82 COMPASS inferred bacteria are identical to 454-BLAST inferred bacteria. As opposed to the Drosophila samples, a rather large portion of 454-BLAST inferred bacteria were not found by COMPASS (see rightmost part of the matrix). The same phenomenon occurs, although to a smaller extent, for bacteria found by COMPASS. Both these effects are due to bacteria that were amplified by the relevant primer pair of one method but not with the primer pair of the other method, thus not allowing for correct comparison between methods.

The figure is better viewed on screen.



Figure S6: Validation via Sanger sequencing - cartoon

Cartoon of validation process and chromatogram analysis. Family specific primer pair is applied to amplify the sample, resulting in a multi-peak chromatogram at specific locations. All nucleotides whose amplitude was at least 3% of the maximum were called present at each location. Example of two Sanger-validated sequences (1 and 2) and a sequence that was ruled out (3) is shown.

FIGURE S6

Chromatogram analysis for major and minor peaks



Major Η >0.03×H G G G G G G G G G

Figure S7: Sanger sequencing results - Drosophila samples

(A). Sanger sequencing of sample L2 using *Wolbachia*-related primer pair. Results for forward (panels A,C) and reverse (panels B,D) reactions. Each row corresponds to a bacterium potentially amplified by the Sanger primer pair (see Supplementary figure S5), presenting potential mismatches with the analyzed chromatogram. Gray corresponds to a match between the major chromatogram peak and the relevant bacteria, while white corresponds to the case where a match exists with a minor peak. We mark by black all positions where both major and minor chromatogram peaks differ from the bacteria's nucleotide. The rows are ordered in ascending number of errors. For example, the first 22 bacteria in panel A share the same sequence which matched the major peaks of the Sanger sequence. The 23rd bacterium ('4421') had two mismatches with the major peaks but matched the minor peaks in those locations. The 29th bacterium (`224775`), on the other hand, did not match the major or minor peaks at one location and was not 'Sanger-validated'.

To the left of each figure appears a summary of results for each sequence. We present 3 types of information - regarding the whole Sanger sequence, the overlap between the Sanger sequences and the COMPASS Illumina amplicon (750) and regarding the overlap with the 454-BLAST ampilcon (350). For each of these we present (from left to right) the bacteria accession number, the length of the overlapping region with the Sanger sequence, the number of mismatches between the bacterium and the major and minor peaks in the chromatogram. The accession numbers for the 750 and 350 cases are given by the relevant representative bacterium in Figure 3.

The lengths of the forward and reverse reactions were 456nt and 656nt, respectively, and 705nt in total.

(B) The same for *Acetobacter*. The lengths of the forward and reverse reactions were 411nt and 511nt, respectively, and 511nt in total.

The figure is better viewed on screen.





C

Α



В

D

[244093 65

[9129 [579340 65 [170818 65

Wolbachia Reverse (L2)



Figure S8: Correcting for read errors

A. Distribution of the difference between *weighted precision* when incorporating read error correction and without correcting for read errors. *Weighted precision* was calculated for the MM 0% case. The histogram is positively skewed displaying an advantage of applying read error correction in COMPASS. The red dashed line corresponds to the median difference.

B. The same for *weighed recall*. C-D the same as A-B using MM 2%. The effect of read error correction is less pronounced in these cases.







FIGURE S8

Figure S9: Illumina and Roche 454 Primers

Figure S5: Primers used for Illumina and Roche 454 sequencing. Histograms show the distribution of product length for all potentially amplified 16S sequences out of the 455,055 sequence database.

(A) Histogram for the primers used for Roche 454 sequencing. These primers potentially amplify a product of approximately 450bp.

(B) same as (A) for primers used for Illumina sequencing, resulting in a product of approximately 750bp.

The table below summarizes the properties of these primers, presenting the median product length, the number of amplified sequences and the number of unique sequences. Although the number of amplified bacteria is quite similar, the number of unique sequences is about 30% higher in the 750bp primers. This indicates potential improvement in resolution achieved using the larger region.

FIGURE S9



	Forward	Reverse	Median length	# of amplified sequences	# of unique sequences
Illumina	CTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG	GGGTTGCGCTCGTTGCG	759	327,716	231,299
Roche-454	CTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG	GGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCC	463	343,455	176,647

Figure S10: Gel of sonicated samples

Agarose gel of DNA samples following sonication. This figure presents length distribution of DNA prior to library preparation for Illumina sequencing. Following PCR amplification using primers producing an amplicon of 750bp (See Figure S5), samples were sonicated (Bioruptor Diagenode) between 80 and 100 cycles (30/30 second on/off), such that length distribution is on the range of 100-300bp. Panel A shows Drosophila larvae samples L1,L2, and eggs samples E1 and E2, and panel B shows human saliva samples H3, H4, H1 and H2.





В



Figure S11: Experimental non uniform coverage and normalization

(A) Read distribution for sample L1 shows short and long-range bias. The number of 100-mers starting at each position is shown. In case a 100-mer appears in more than one bacterium in the 16S database, its average position was used. For clarity, data is shown for forward reads only. Unequal coverage is manifested both in short range bias (*i.e.* variability between neighboring nucleotides) and in long range bias (*i.e.* different average coverage for different regions).

(B) Global bias profile following 90-mer averaging. The coverage based on a running average over 20 bases is shown for forward (red) and reverse (cyan) reads of sample L1 following short-range bias normalization via representing each 100-mer as 11 sliding 90-mers. The running average ignored the first 10 nucleotides due to the large discontinuity in case of very short sonication. Pattern similarity between forward and reverse reads indicates that this bias originates from sonication effects.

(C) Read distribution for sample L1 following short and long-range bias corrections (as described in Methods section). The number of reads of each 90-mer was normalized according to the global bias profile value at the 90-mer position (averaged over all database sequences containing the 90-mer). The process was independently performed for forward and reverse reads, which were then combined.

FIGURE S11



Table S3: Bacteria in simulated toy example

Sequence	Frequency
Eubacterium rectale ATCC 33656 [Eubacterium rectale;]	14.17%
Collinsella aerofaciens ATCC 25986 [470145 NZ_AAVN02000007.1]	11.71%
Blautia hydrogenotrophica DSM 10507 [469888 NZ_ACBZ01000217.1]	11.58%
Desulfovibrio piger GOR1 [51535 AF192152.1]	10.21%
Clostridium symbiosum ATCC 14940 [Clostridium symbiosum]	9.44%
Escherichia coli str. K-12 substr. MG1655 [9659 U18997.1]	8.14%
Marvinbryantia formatexigens DSM 14469 [94718 AJ318527.2]	7.88%
Bacteroides ovatus ATCC 8483 [469818 NZ_AAXF02000050.1]	7.88%
Bacteroides ovatus ATCC 8483 [469818 NZ_AAXF02000050.1]	7.88%
Bacteroides caccae ATCC 43185 [248140 AAVM02000008.1]	6.35%
Bacteroides sp. str. D1 [469729 ACAB01000173.1]	5.90%

Sequences also appear in Dataset 10 (see supplementary datasets)

SUPPLEMENTARY DATASETS

Supplementary Dataset 1: 454-BLAST bacteria of Drosophila samples: 454BLAST_results_L1_L2_E1_E2.fa

Supplementary Dataset 2: COMPASS bacteria of Drosophila samples: COMPASS_results_L1_L2_E1_E2.fa

Supplementary Dataset 3: MG-RAST bacteria of Drosophila samples: MGRAST_results_L1_L2_E1_E2.fa

Supplementary Dataset 4: 454-BLAST bacteria of human saliva samples: 454BLAST_results_H1_H2_H3_H4.fa

Supplementary Dataset 5: COMPASS bacteria of human saliva samples: COMPASS_results_H1_H2_H3_H4.fa

The above FASTA files include the header and sequence of bacteria that appear in Figures 6, S3 and S5. Note that in cases that several bacteria share the same sequence over the amplicon (a 'group' in our notation), the FASTA file contains the representative that appears in the figure.

Supplementary Datasets 6-9:

Supplementary Datasets 6: MG-RAST read classification file of sample L1: 4526879.3_MGRAST_results_sample_L1_sequences_annotated_by_Greengenes.fna

Supplementary Datasets 7: MG-RAST read classification file of sample L2: 4526880.3_MGRAST_results_sample_L2_sequences_annotated_by_Greengenes.fna

Supplementary Datasets 8: MG-RAST read classification file of sample E1:

4526878.3_MGRAST_results_sample_E1_sequences_annotated_by_Greengenes.fna

Supplementary Datasets 9: MG-RAST read classification file of sample E2:

4526877.3_MGRAST_results_sample_E2_sequences_annotated_by_Greengenes.fna

An example for the header's format in these MG-RAST files is the following:

>4526879.3|102|Greengenes|550951 16S ribosomal RNA [Lactobacillus plantarum]

Where:

4526879.3 is the project ID

102 is the original read number that appears in the reads' fasta file

550951 is the Greengenes number of the classified bacterium

[Lactobacillus plantarum] is the MG-RAST classification

Supplementary Dataset 10: Sequences for bacteria in the toy mixture as a dataset

bacteria_toy_mixture.fa

REFERENCES

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- 2. Kao, W.-C., Stevens, K. and Song, Y.S. (2009) BayesCall: A model-based base-calling algorithm for high-throughput short-read sequencing. *Genome Res*, **19**, 1884-1895.
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