

Optimal sequence similarity thresholds for clustering of molecular operational taxonomic units in DNA metabarcoding studies

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2	taxonomic units in DNA metabarcoding studies
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13 Abstract

14

Clustering approaches are pivotal to handle the many sequence variants obtained in DNA 15 metabarcoding datasets, therefore they have become a key step of metabarcoding analysis 16 17 pipelines. Clustering often relies on a sequence similarity threshold to gather sequences in Molecular Operational Taxonomic Units (MOTUs) that ideally each represent a homogeneous 18 taxonomic entity, e.g. a species or a genus. However, the choice of the clustering threshold is 19 20 rarely justified, and its impact on MOTU over-splitting or over-merging even less tested. Here, we evaluated clustering threshold values for several metabarcoding markers under 21 different criteria: limitation of MOTU over-merging, limitation of MOTU over-splitting, and 22 23 trade-off between over-merging and over-splitting. We extracted sequences from a public 24 database for eight markers, ranging from generalist markers targeting Bacteria or Eukaryota, 25 to more specific markers targeting a class or a subclass (e.g. Insecta, Oligochaeta). Based on the distributions of pairwise sequence similarities within species and within genera and on the 26 rates of over-splitting and over-merging across different clustering thresholds, we were able 27 28 to propose threshold values minimizing the risk of over-splitting, that of over-merging, or offering a trade-off between the two risks. For generalist markers, high similarity thresholds 29 30 (0.96-0.99) are generally appropriate, while more specific markers require lower values (0.85-31 0.96). These results do not support the use of a fixed clustering threshold (e.g. 0.97). Instead, we advocate a careful examination of the most appropriate threshold based on the research 32 objectives, the potential costs of over-splitting and over-merging, and the features of the 33 34 studied markers.

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37 Keywords

- 38 metabarcoding marker; sequence variant; analysis parameter; MOTU over-splitting, MOTU
- 39 over-merging; alpha diversity

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41 Introduction

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DNA metabarcoding studies are typically based on a succession of experimental steps 43 governed by important methodological choices (Zinger et al. 2019). These include a) the 44 45 definition of sampling design and selection of sampling sites (Dickie et al. 2018), b) the approach used for the preservation of the starting material (Tatangelo et al. 2014, Guerrieri et 46 47 al. 2021), c) the protocol used for DNA extraction (Taberlet et al. 2012, Eichmiller et al. 48 2016, Zinger et al. 2016, Lear et al. 2018, Capo et al. 2021), d) the selection of appropriate primers to amplify a taxonomically-informative genomic region (Elbrecht et al. 2016, Fahner 49 50 et al. 2016, Ficetola et al. 2021), e) the strategy adopted for DNA amplification and highthroughput sequencing of amplicons (Nichols et al. 2018, Taberlet et al. 2018, Bohmann et al. 51 52 2022), f) the pipeline selected for bioinformatics analyses (Boyer et al. 2016, Calderón-Sanou 53 et al. 2020, Capo et al. 2021, Couton et al. 2021, Macher et al. 2021, Mächler et al. 2021), and g) the statistical approach used to translate metabarcoding data into ecological information 54 55 (Paliy and Shankar 2016, Chen and Ficetola 2020). Each of these methodological choices can 56 heavily influence the reliability and interpretation of results (Alberdi et al. 2018, Zinger et al. 2019), and there is thus a critical need for the development, proper assessment and 57 optimization of methods specially dedicated to DNA metabarcoding. 58 59 When analyzing metabarcoding data, bioinformatic pipelines generally produce a list

of detected sequences, that can be assigned to a given taxon with a more or less precise
taxonomic resolution. However, the number of unique sequences obtained after bioinformatic
treatment is generally much higher than the number of taxa actually present in the sample
(Calderón-Sanou et al. 2020, Mächler et al. 2021). This stems from multiple reasons including
genuine intraspecific diversity of the selected markers and errors occurring during the

65 amplification or sequencing steps. Consequently, sequence clustering approaches are often 66 used to collapse very similar sequences into one single Molecular Operational Taxonomic Unit (MOTU), which does not necessarily correspond to a species in the traditional sense 67 (Kopylova et al. 2016, Froslev et al. 2017, Bhat et al. 2019, Antich et al. 2021). Sequence 68 69 clustering can be performed using similarity thresholds, Bayesian approaches, or through single-linkage (Antich et al. 2021). Approaches based on similarity thresholds can have 70 71 excellent performance and they display several advantages such as flexibility and easy 72 implementation (Kopylova et al. 2016, Wei et al. 2021). However, two key parameters have to be determined *a priori* when performing clustering based on sequence similarity. The first 73 one is the sequence to be selected as representative of the cluster. In the case of 74 metabarcoding studies, keeping the most abundant sequence of the cluster as the cluster 75 representative is a convenient way of merging sequence variants generated during the PCR or 76 77 sequencing steps with the original sequence they derive from (Mercier et al. 2013). The second parameter is the similarity threshold (clustering threshold) used to build MOTUS 78 (Clare et al. 2016, Calderón-Sanou et al. 2020, Wei et al. 2021). Choosing this threshold is 79 80 delicate without prior knowledge of the maker and its intrinsic level of diversity. A too low threshold can collapse different taxa into the same MOTU (over-merging), while a too high 81 82 threshold can create too many MOTUs (over-splitting) compared to the actual diversity levels (Clare et al. 2016, Roy et al. 2019, Schloss 2021). 83

Some works suggest that the ecological interpretation of metabarcoding data can be
relatively robust to the threshold selected for sequence clustering. For instance, Botnen et al.
(2018) used thresholds ranging from 0.87 to 0.99 of sequence similarity to analyze multiple
microbial communities, and they obtained community structures highly coherent across
thresholds. Nevertheless, levels of alpha diversity can be heavily impacted by the threshold

89 selection. Ideally, the threshold used for clustering would depend on a trade-off between MOTU over-splitting and MOTU over-merging. A growing number of markers are currently 90 being used in metabarcoding studies (Taberlet et al. 2018), with some allowing broad-scale 91 biodiversity assessment but having limited taxonomic resolution (e.g. 18S rDNA primers 92 93 amplifying all eukaryotes; Guardiola et al. 2015) and others being highly specific to one 94 single class or even family (e.g. Baamrane et al. 2012, Ficetola et al. 2021). Biodiversity 95 surveys generally aim to generate a set of MOTUs that are each associated with a unique 96 taxon, and with all taxa situated at the same level in the taxonomic tree, to facilitate 97 comparisons. In these conditions, optimal clustering thresholds probably strongly differ across 98 markers. One can for example expect high similarity thresholds for highly conserved markers, 99 and lower clustering thresholds for markers showing high intraspecific variability (Kunin et 100 al. 2010, Brown et al. 2015). However, there is limited quantitative assessment of how 101 optimal clustering thresholds vary across markers (but see Alberdi et al. 2018). 102 In this study, we analyzed sequences from a public database (EMBL) to identify 103 clustering thresholds for different markers and under different criteria. We considered eight 104 metabarcoding markers (Table 1), ranging from generalist ones (e.g. a 16S rDNA-based 105 marker targeting Bacteria and a 18S rDNA-based marker targeting Eukaryota) to more 106 specific markers (e.g. markers specific of earthworms, insects or springtails). We evaluated 107 how clustering thresholds can change for each taxonomic group, depending on the criterion 108 adopted to set the threshold. We used two alternative strategies to identify thresholds, each 109 time with different objectives in mind. First, following a procedure similar to the one adopted in barcoding studies (Meyer and Paulay 2005), we compared the distribution probabilities of 110 111 sequence similarities among different individuals of the same species and among different 112 species of the same genus to identify thresholds: i) minimizing the risk that different

sequences of the same species are split in different MOTUs (i.e. risk of over-splitting); *ii*) 113 minimizing the risk that distinct but related species are clustered in the same MOTU (i.e. risk 114 115 of over-merging); *iii*) balancing the risk of over-splitting and over-merging (Figure 1A). Second, we calculated the over-splitting and over-merging rates of the studied markers for a 116 117 range of clustering thresholds, to identify values that minimize the two error rates (Figure 118 1B). We expect that, if researchers want to minimize over-splitting, they should select lower 119 clustering thresholds than if they want to minimize over-merging. Furthermore, we expect 120 higher clustering threshold values for generalist markers compared to markers targeting one class or more restricted taxonomic groups, because of the lower taxonomic resolution and 121 slower evolutionary rate of the former. 122 evie 123 124 Methods 125 Markers examined and construction of sequence datasets 126 We focused on a set of eight DNA metabarcoding markers (Bact02, Euka02, Fung02, Sper01, 127 128 Arth02, Coll01, Inse01, Olig01) targeting different taxonomic groups (Table 1). Four of these markers can be considered as generalist, i.e. targeting entire superkingdoms or kingdoms: 129 130 Bact02 targeting Bacteria; Euka02 targeting Eukaryota; Fung02 targeting Fungi; Sper01 131 targeting Spermatophyta (vascular plants). One marker was intermediate (Arth02; targeting 132 arthropods, i.e. the most species-rich phylum on Earth). Finally, three were more specific, i.e. targeting groups from classes to subclasses: Coll01 targeting Collembola (springtails); Inse01 133 134 targeting Insecta; Olig01 targeting Oligochaeta (earthworms). 135 For each of these markers, a sequence database was built from EMBL release 140 as

follows. An *in silico* PCR was first carried out by running the program *ecoPCR* (Ficetola et al.

2010) using the corresponding primers (Table S1). Three mismatches per primer were 137 138 allowed (-e option), and the amplified amplicon length without primers was restricted (-l and -139 L options) to the expected length interval (Table S1). The amplified sequences were further filtered by keeping only those belonging to the target taxonomic group, showing a taxonomic 140 141 assignment (i.e. taxid) at the species and genus levels and having no ambiguous nucleotides. 142 This allowed assembling a working dataset, from which we extracted two sub-datasets. The 143 "within-species" dataset was built by keeping only species for which at least two sequences 144 (identical or not) were available; if >2 sequences were available for a given species, we randomly selected two sequences for that species. The "within-genus" dataset was built by 145 146 keeping only genera for which at least two sequences were available; if >2 sequences were 147 available for a given genus, we randomly selected two sequences for that genus. For some 148 markers (Bact02, Euka02, Fung02, Inse01, Sper01), the within-species dataset and sometimes 149 the within-genus dataset still contained a very large number of sequences (>10,000). To limit 150 computation time for these markers, we randomly selected a subset of 5000 different taxa, to reach a final number of sequences equal to 10,000. Table S2 summarizes the number of 151 152 sequences in the different datasets.

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154 Calculation of sequence similarities and probability distributions

As a measure of sequence similarity, we computed the pairwise LCS (Longest Common Subsequence) scores between pairs of sequences in the within-species and within-genus datasets using the *sumatra* program (Mercier et al. 2013). Methodological comparisons showed that this algorithm provides an excellent balance between performance and computation efficiency (Jackson et al. 2016, Kopylova et al. 2016, Bhat et al. 2019). As *sumatra* provides pairwise scores for all possible pairs of sequences, the similarity scores

161	resulting from the within-species dataset were filtered in R (R Core Team 2020) to keep only
162	those representing similarities between sequences of the same species, while the scores
163	resulting from the within-genus dataset were filtered to keep only those representing
164	similarities between different species of the same genus.
165	
166	Approaches to identify clustering thresholds on the basis of within-species and within-
167	genus sequence similarities
168	We first examined within-species and within-genus sequence similarities to evaluate four
169	different strategies and determine the corresponding appropriate clustering threshold (Figure
170	1A) that: <i>i</i>) avoid over-splitting; <i>ii</i>) avoid over-merging; <i>iii</i>) find a balance between over-
171	splitting and over-merging, with two distinct procedures based on the intersection (iii-a) or on
172	modes (iii-b) of the density probability distributions. These strategies are analogous to those
173	adopted in traditional barcoding studies to set the limit between intra-specific and inter-
174	specific diversity (Meyer and Paulay 2005).
175	i) Avoid over-splitting
176	In this case, the aim is to avoid distributing different sequences belonging to the same species
177	in different clusters (i.e. limiting the probability of generating additional spurious MOTUs).
178	For this approach, we selected as clustering threshold the 10% quantile of the distribution of
179	similarities between sequences from the same species (within-species dataset). With this
180	approach, the sequences belonging to the same species according to EMBL are gathered in
181	the same cluster in 90% of the cases.
182	<i>ii)</i> Avoid over-merging
183	In this case, the aim is to avoid gathering sequences attributed to different species of the same

184 genus in the same cluster (i.e. limiting the probability of merging related species in the same

MOTU). For this approach, we selected as clustering threshold the 90% quantile of the
distribution of similarities between different species belonging to the same genus. With this
approach, the sequences attributed to different species belonging to the same genus are
assigned to different clusters in 90% of the cases.

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iii) Find a balance between over-splitting and over-merging

In this case, the aim was to minimize both over-splitting and over-merging. We considered 190 191 two distinct approaches. First, we obtained the probability distribution of within-species and 192 within-genus sequence pairwise similarities using the *density* function from R, with biased 193 cross-validation (bw="bcv") as smoothing bandwidth selector and a Gaussian smoothing kernel (kernel="gaussian"; Venables and Ripley 2002). Other possible smoothing bandwidth 194 195 selectors were tested, but biased cross-validation was the approach best fitting the score 196 histograms for all markers and all datasets (data not shown). The balance threshold *iii*-a was 197 then identified as the intersection between the probability distributions of the within-species and within-genus similarities. As an alternative approach to balance over-merging and over-198 199 splitting (iii-b), we calculated the midpoint between the modes of the within-species and 200 within-genus probability distributions.

201

202 Rates of over-merging and over-splitting

For each marker, over-merging and over-splitting rates were evaluated at different clustering
thresholds using the within-species dataset described in the paragraph "Markers examined and
construction of sequences datasets". This dataset contains two sequences at random, identical
or not, for a number of species belonging to the taxonomic group of interest.
For each within-species dataset, clustering was performed using the *sumaclust*

208 program (Mercier et al. 2013) with the *-n* option (normalization by alignment length) based

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209 on the sequence similarities first calculated using the *sumatra* program (see above: Mercier et 210 al. 2013). Threshold values (-*t* option) ranging from 0.90 to 1 at 0.01 steps were tested for all 211 markers except Coll01 and Olig01 for which wider ranges ([0.70 - 1]) and [0.80 - 1]. respectively) were selected based on the within-genus and within-species sequence similarity 212 213 probability distributions determined previously (see Figure 2). Clustered datasets were then explored to calculate five different variables at each clustering threshold: 1) the number of 214 215 clusters; 2) the percentage of MOTUs containing one single species; 3) the percentage of 216 MOTUs containing one single genus; 4) the percentage of species gathered in one single 217 MOTU; 5) the percentage of genera gathered in one single MOTU. Variables 2 and 3 are 218 indicative of appropriate MOTU merging of sequences at the species and genus levels, 219 respectively, while variables 4 and 5 are indicative of appropriate MOTU splitting at the species and genus levels, respectively. 220 221 These values were also used to calculate three measures of error. We defined the overmerging rate as 1 - the percentage of MOTUs containing one single species; and the over-222 splitting rate as 1 - the percentage of species gathered in one single MOTU. The summed 223 224 error rate was then calculated as the sum of the over-merging and over-splitting rates. It should be noted that for this estimate, we assigned the same weight to over-splitting and over-225 226 merging. 227

228 Results

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Our *in-silico* PCRs amplified between 17,000 (Coll01) and 3,2000,000 (Bact02) sequences
per marker (Table S2). After data filtering, we retained between 510 (Coll01) and 708,000
(Bact02) sequences per marker. The within-species dataset comprised between 118 (Coll01)

and 10,000 (Bact02, Euka02, Fung02, Sper01, Inse01) sequences, while the within-genus
dataset comprised between 74 (Coll01) and 10,000 (Euka02 and Sper01) sequences per
marker.

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237 Clustering thresholds determined from probability distributions of within-species and

238 within-genus sequence similarities

239 The probability distributions of within-species and within-genus sequence similarities 240 showed very contrasting patterns between the generalist and the specific markers (Figure 2). For the five markers targeting a phylum or broader taxonomic groups (Bact02, Euka02, 241 242 Fung02, Sper01, and Arth02), the distributions of within-species and within-genus similarities 243 were rather similar, both showing a mode at very high similarity values (Figure 2). Fung02 244 showed a slightly different pattern, as the within-genus similarities had a very broad 245 distribution. Conversely, for the more specific markers, the distributions of sequence similarities were very different, with two clearly distinct peaks. Within-species similarities 246 remained very high (mostly above 0.95), while within-genus similarities generally showed 247 248 lower values (mode around 0.90 for Inse01, and below 0.80 for Olig01 and Coll01). For all markers, criterion *i* (avoid over-splitting) yielded the lowest thresholds (Figure 249 250 3, Table S3), with very low levels for Coll01 and Olig01. Conversely, criterion *ii* (avoid over-251 merging) yielded extremely high values, except for Coll01. For all generalist markers, 252 avoiding over-merging would require setting clustering thresholds at 0.99 or higher. For 253 Coll01, criterion *ii* resulted in a rather low threshold (0.765), because many within-genus

comparisons showed very low similarity values.

255 Criteria *iii*-a and *iii*-b searching a balance between over-merging and over-splitting
256 yielded somehow contrasting results across markers. For the three specific markers (Coll01,

Inse01, and Olig01), the within-genus and within-species similarities showed clearly distinct 257 258 peaks (Figure 2). As a consequence, the intersection between the two curves could effectively 259 represent the point minimizing both over-merging and over-splitting (see discussion), and the midpoint between the modes also identified rather similar threshold values. On the contrary, 260 261 for the generalist markers, the within-species and within-genus similarities showed very high overlap and similar modes, and the density distributions actually intersected at values lower 262 263 than both modes. The midpoint between the modes continued to identify threshold values 264 intermediate between the peaks of within-species and within-genus similarities.

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266 Rates of over-splitting and over-merging

267 For all markers, whatever the clustering threshold examined (values ≥ 0.70 for Coll01, ≥ 0.80 for Olig01 and ≥ 0.90 for the other markers), the percentage of MOTUs containing one single 268 269 species was higher than 50%, and that of MOTUs containing one single genus was higher or close to 70% (Figure 4). Overall, for the generalist and intermediate markers, these two 270 percentages showed a regular increase with the clustering threshold, and for the specific 271 272 markers, they tended to values close to 100% for high thresholds. Unsurprisingly, the two percentages tended to be lower for the generalist markers than for the specific markers at a 273 274 given threshold, indicating that the former are more sensitive to over-merging. Fung02 was a 275 notable exception, since about 87% and 97% of MOTUs contained one single species and one 276 single genus, respectively, at the 0.97 threshold, which is a frequently adopted clustering 277 threshold for fungal ITS sequences. These values were comparable to those observed for the specific markers, for which > 85% and > 98% of MOTUs contained one single species or one 278 279 single genus, respectively, for thresholds ≥ 0.95 .

280	For all markers, the percentages of species and genera gathered in one single MOTU
281	decrease both at a similar rate with the clustering threshold, with generally a sharp drop at
282	high thresholds (≥ 0.98 ; Figure 4). However, the pattern of MOTU splitting was less
283	characteristic of generalist vs. specific markers. For some markers (Euka02, Sper01, Arth02,
284	Inse01), the percentage of species or genera gathered in a single MOTU remained higher or
285	close to 50% up to high thresholds (0.98). On the contrary, for Bact02, Fung02, Coll01,
286	Olig01, these percentages dropped quickly when the clustering threshold increased, indicating
287	that these markers are susceptible to over-splitting.
288	For all markers, the number of clusters generally increased regularly with the clustering
289	threshold up to 0.97-0.98 (Figure 4), followed by a sharp rise up to 1 (which was however less
290	obvious for Euka02 and Olig01). For example, for Bact02, the number of clusters more than
291	doubled between 0.97 (2862 clusters) and 1 (6461 clusters).
292	Our results showed clear patterns for over-merging and over-splitting rates, with over-
293	splitting quickly increasing and over-merging quickly decreasing at high clustering thresholds
294	(Figure 5). For several markers, the summed error showed a relatively clear minimum at
295	specific clustering thresholds (Figure 5): 0.96-0.99 for Bact02 and Euka02, 0.97-0.99 for
296	Arth02, 0.94-0.96 for Inse01, and 0.96-0.98 for Sper01. The minimum was much less evident
297	for Fung02, Coll01 and Oligo01, these markers showing relatively similar summed error rates
298	over a broad range of clustering thresholds (Fung02: 0.91-0.98; Coll01: 0.82-0.96, with
299	multiple minima; Oligo01: 0.84-0.96, with multiple minima).
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301	
302	DISCUSSION
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Sequence clustering approaches are routinely used for the identification of MOTUs in 304 305 metabarcoding studies, and they often resort to methods based on similarity values. Still, 306 selecting a clustering threshold for a given marker more than often relies on common practices and rules of thumb rather than on proper scientific argument. By analyzing extensive 307 308 sequence data deposited in public databases for a range of generalist and specialist markers, 309 we showed that different threshold values can be selected depending on the marker and on the 310 criterion favored by researchers. All the markers we examined are situated in non-protein 311 coding genes (Table S1), and this has an influence on levels of sequence intraspecific diversity. The 10% quantile of the within-species similarity probability distribution was 312 almost always lower than the 0.97 clustering threshold traditionally used in barcoding for 313 314 markers targeting protein-coding genes like COI (Hebert et al. 2003), or for microbial MOTU delimitation (Bálint et al. 2016), indicating that some level of over-splitting can occur at this 315 316 threshold.

Although for all the markers the within-genus similarity values were generally lower 317 than the within-species similarities, the overlap between the two distributions was dependent 318 319 on the generalist vs. specific nature of the marker. For some specific markers (e.g. Coll01 and Olig01), distinct peaks were visible for the two similarity metrics (Figure 2). Within-species 320 321 similarities generally were >0.90, while within-genus values were lower, frequently below 322 0.80. Such a pattern is not unexpected for markers with an excellent taxonomic resolution and 323 designed to identify taxa at the species level. Conversely for the generalist markers, withinspecies and within-genus similarity probability distributions largely overlapped and the 324 differences between the peaks were minimal. Nevertheless, even for these markers, the 325 326 density of within-species similarity was consistently higher than that of within-genus 327 similarity at high clustering thresholds, indicating that the probability of observing the

corresponding similarity value is higher within species than within genera. In other words, at
high clustering thresholds, a MOTU is more likely to represent a species than a genus. This
result is confirmed by the fact that the percentage of MOTUs containing a single species is
always higher than 50%, whatever the clustering threshold or the marker considered (Figure
4).

The sequences used as a primary source of information in this study were downloaded 333 334 from EMBL, and our results are thus highly dependent on the quality of the data deposited in 335 this public database. Even though broad-scale analyses suggest that these data are generally reliable (Leray et al. 2019), errors in the sequence itself (e.g. wrong nucleotide, or more 336 337 complex errors like insertions, deletions, inversions, duplications or pseudogene sequences) 338 and taxonomic mislabeling can occur in public sequence databases, especially for organisms 339 which are difficult to identify based on morphology (Bridge et al. 2003, Bidartondo 2008, 340 Valkiūnas et al. 2008, Mioduchowska et al. 2018). While the first type of error will affect within-species sequence similarity negatively, sometimes substantially, the effect of the 341 second type is more diffuse. For example, in a group like springtails where species 342 343 delimitation is tricky (Porco et al. 2012), the existence of cryptic species will decrease withinspecies sequence similarity while increasing over-splitting rates. In a group like Bacteria, type 344 345 strains are sometimes entered at the species level in the NCBI (EMBL) taxonomy (Federhen 346 2015), leading to an inflation of within-genus similarity and over-merging rates. In every case 347 though, database errors will make within-species and within-genus similarities distributions 348 more difficult to distinguish and clustering thresholds trickier to identify, thus the over-349 splitting or over-merging rates reported here could be artificially higher than in reality. 350 In this work, we came up with a global measure of the error associated with a given 351 clustering threshold, that we called the "summed error". We calculate it by summing over-

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splitting and over-merging rates, assuming both have the same cost for biodiversity studies. 352 However, it is possible to assign a differential weight to over-splitting and over-merging. For 353 354 instance, if the aim is to reach conservative estimated of alpha diversity (i.e. avoid oversplitting), more weight can be assigned to over-splitting rate. Conversely, if the aim is to tease 355 356 apart closely related species, that differ in their sensitivity to environmental stressors or in threat levels, one may prefer to avoid over-merging, particularly when extensive reference 357 358 databases are available (Roy et al. 2019, Lopes et al. 2021). 359 For most of the markers we examined, the summed error approach provided relatively 360 clear results, and identified a range of threshold values that minimized the summed error. For instance, for Euka02, the summed error was relatively low at thresholds between 0.96 and 361 0.99 (Figure 5), indicating a good trade-off between over-merging and over-splitting. 362 363 Interestingly, this range of values was also highlighted by the analysis of probability 364 distributions (Figure 3, Table S3). Indeed, 0.96 is the threshold minimizing over-splitting for Euka02 while 0.99 is the balance (midpoint) threshold. The consistency of values obtained 365 366 with very different approaches supports the robustness of our conclusions. 367 However, for a few markers, the threshold values minimizing summed error yielded somewhat less clear patterns. For Fung02, the summed error rate was rather constant (36-368 369 37%) at all the thresholds between 0.91 and 0.98, while it quickly increased for higher 370 clustering thresholds. For Coll01 and Oligo01, the summed error rate showed multiple 371 minima, some of which at very low clustering thresholds (Figure 5). In principle, increasing 372 the threshold value should determine a monotone decrease of over-merging, and a monotone increase of over-splitting (Figure 1B). However, at low similarity values this was not always 373 the case (Figure 5). This probably occurs because a very large number of sequences have 374 375 pairwise similarities of 0.80-0.85 for these markers (Figure 2), and this might affect the

identification of clusters, with some sequences clustering together e.g. at 0.85 but not at 0.86
similarity values. We also note that these similarity values match the ones corresponding to
the intersection between the within-genus and within-species similarities for these markers
(Figure 3). It is also possible that, at this level of sequence similarity, there is strong
uncertainty between MOTUs representing different hierarchical levels of taxonomy.

381 Our results provide quantitative data that can help researchers set their optimal 382 clustering thresholds, and understand the consequences of choosing low or high threshold 383 values. If a clear minimum exists for the summed error rate, it probably represents an 384 excellent trade-off between over-merging and over-splitting. In this sense, a threshold value ranging from 0.96 to 0.99 is probably appropriate for both Bact02 and Euka02, while Arth02 385 386 should accommodate a slightly higher range (0.98-0.99) and a fixed threshold of 0.97 seems 387 to be more suitable for Sper01. For Inse01, lower threshold values (0.94-0.96) are more 388 judicious. All these values match with those obtained on the basis of within-species and within-genus similarities (Figure 3). However, for Coll01, Oligo01 and Fung02, the summed 389 error rate does not provide clear indications, and within-species and within-genus similarity 390 391 distributions (e.g. midpoint between modes) might be more informative to set the threshold 392 value (Figures 2 and 3).

The selection of clustering thresholds can have strong effect in the estimates of MOTUs richness (Figure 4), still it is important to remember that it often does not have a tremendous effect on the ecological message conveyed by metabarcoding data. For instance, Clare et al. (2016) examined different clustering thresholds to analyze dietary overlap between skinks and shrews in Mauritius. Although high clustering thresholds yielded a larger number of MOTUs, ecological conclusions remained rather consistent overall. Therefore, provided that appropriate parameters are considered (e.g. alpha diversity measured using

- 400 Hill's numbers with q > 0 instead of richness, beta diversity estimates), the interpretation of
- 401 data can be relatively robust (Clare et al. 2016, Roy et al. 2019, Calderón-Sanou et al. 2020,
- 402 Mächler et al. 2021). Nevertheless, we discourage the blind application of one single
- 403 clustering threshold like the classical 0.97, as it can have very different meaning across
- 404 markers, and can inflate MOTU richness for fast-evolving markers. Instead, we advocate the
- 405 ad-hoc definition of the most appropriate thresholds, on the basis of research aims, on the
- 406 potential costs of over-splitting and over-merging, and on the features of the studied markers.
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575 **Data Accessibility**

- 576 Raw data obtained from EMBL r140 (ecopcr files) and example scripts run to perform the
- 577 analyses are available on Dryad: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.crjdfn353.

578

Authors Contribution 579

- All authors conceived the idea for the manuscript, AB and GFF designed the study, AB 580
- 581 performed the analyses, AB and GFF generated the figures and drafted the manuscript, and all

582 authors contributed with discussions and edits.

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Marker	Target group	Taxonomic level	Taxonomic resolution *				Reference(s)
			Species	Genus	Family	Order	
			level	level	level	level	
Bact02	Bacteria	Superkingdom	19.6%	55.7%	55.1%	60.2%	Taberlet et al. (2018)
Euka02	Eukaryota	Superkingdom	47.0%	59.5%	68.3%	67.1%	Guardiola et al. (2015)
Fung02	Fungi	Kingdom	72.5%	90.2%	87.7%	85.5%	Epp et al. (2012),
							Taberlet et al. (2018)
Sper01	Spermatophyta	Clade < kingdom	21.5%	36.9%	77.4%	89.6%	Taberlet et al. (2007)
Arth02	Arthropoda	Phylum	68.6%	89.6%	97.5%	100.0%	Taberlet et al. (2018)
Coll01	Collembola	Class	80.5%	87.2%	75.0%	NA	Janssen et al. (2018)
Inse01	Insecta	Class	87.8%	96.8%	95.4%	79.3%	Taberlet et al. (2018)
Olig01	Oligochaeta	Subclass	89.3%	95.7%	100.0%	100.0%	Bienert et al. (2012),
							Taberlet et al. (2018)

584 Table 1. Target groups and taxonomic resolution of the eight studied markers.

585

* Estimated as the percentage of discriminated taxa among amplified taxa; reported from

587 Taberlet et al. (2018).

589 Figure captions

590

591	Figure 1. Different approaches to identify the most appropriate clustering thresholds. A):
592	approaches based on similarities between sequences belonging to different individuals from
593	the same species (blue curve), and similarities between sequences belonging to different
594	species from the same genus (red curve). One can choose to minimize the risk that different
595	sequences from the same species are split in different MOTUs (over-splitting risk; e.g. 10%
596	quantile of the distribution of within-species similarities), the risk that sequences from
597	different species belonging to the same genus are clustered in the same MOTU (over-merging
598	risk; e.g. 90% quantile of within-genus similarities), or one can try to find a balance between
599	the risks of over-splitting and over-merging (e.g. with the intersection between probability
600	distributions, or the midpoint between the modes of both distributions). B) Approaches based
601	on rates of over-splitting and over-merging. One can compare the over-splitting (blue) and the
602	over-merging (red) rates, and/or one can identify the thresholds minimizing the sum of these
603	rates (violet).

604

Figure 2. Density probability distributions of sequence pairwise similarities within species
(blue lines) and within genera (red lines) for the eight studied markers. For each marker,
dotted lines represent the 10% quantile of the within-species probability distribution (blue;
threshold limiting over-splitting), the 90% quantile of the within-genus probability
distribution (red; threshold limiting over-merging), the intersection of the within-species and
within-genus probability distributions (green, balance-a) and the midpoint between modes
(black, balance-b)

613 Figure 3. Different possible clustering thresholds for the eight studied markers, depending on 614 the selected criterion. 615

Figure 4. Evolution of over-splitting and over-merging rates for a range of clustering 616

617 thresholds, for the eight studied markers. The left y-axes report percentage values; the right y-

618 axes indicate the number of obtained clusters.

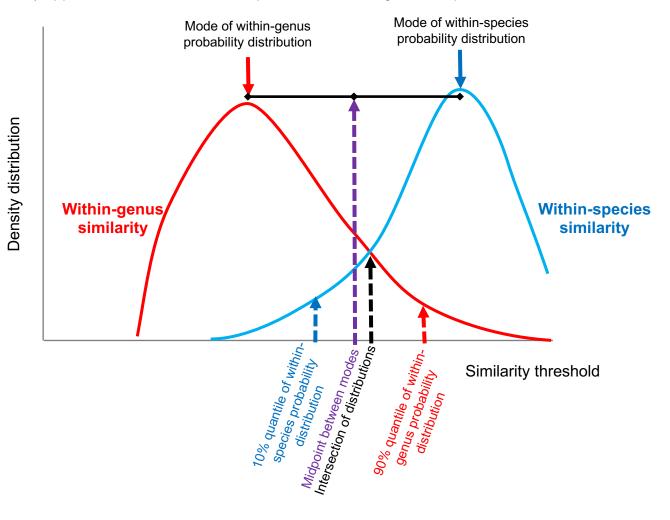
619

620 Figure 5. Over-splitting (blue) and over-merging (red) rates, as well as the summed error rate

621 (i.e. over-splitting rate + over-merging rate; violet), for the eight studied markers across a

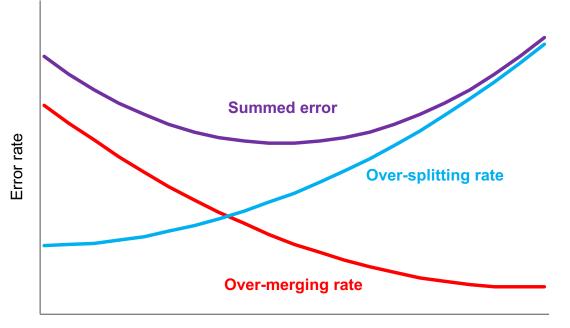
range of clustering thresholds. 622

623

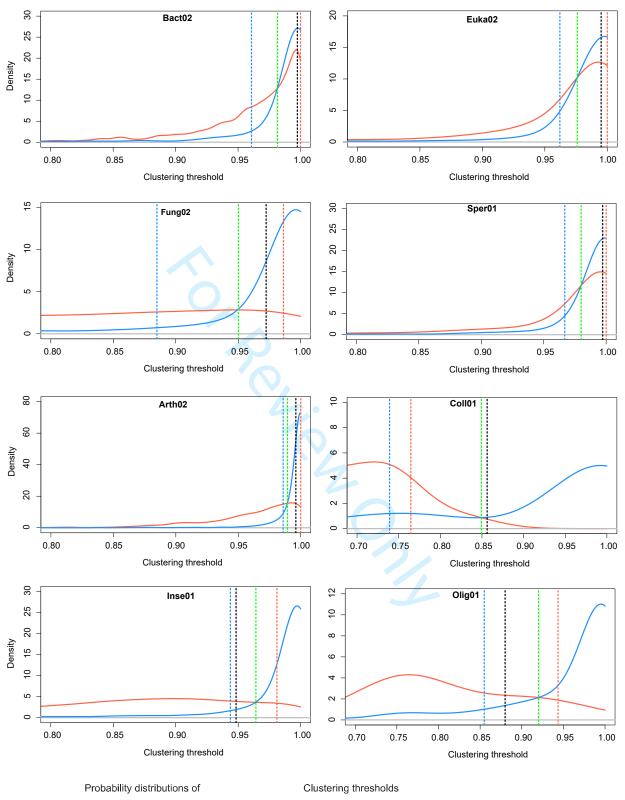


A) Approaches based on within-species and within-genus sequence similarities

B) Approaches based on over-splitting and over-merging rates



Similarity threshold



sequence pairwise similarities within species
 sequence pairwise similarities within genera

--- Intersection

Species 10% quantile

Genus 90% quantile ---- Midpoint between modes

