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# 1 Analysis of metagenome-assembled genomes from the mouse gut microbiota reveals

# 2 distinctive strain-level characteristics

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- 20
- 21 Abstract

22 The laboratorial mouse harbors a unique gut microbiota with potential value for human microbiota-

23 associated studies. Mouse gut microbiota has been explored at the genus and species levels, but features

- rarely been showed at the strain level. The identification of 833,051 and 658,438 nonredundant genes of
- 25 faeces and gut content samples from the laboratorial C57/BL mice showed over half of these genes were
- 26 newly found compared to the previous mouse gut microbial gene catalogue. Metagenome-assembled
- 27 genomes (MAGs) was used to reconstruct 46 nonredundant MAGs belonging to uncultured specieses. These
- 28 MAGs included members across all phyla in mouse gut (i.e. Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria,

29 Deferribacteres, Verrucomicrobia, and Tenericutes) and allowed a strain-level delineating of the mouse gut

30 microbiota. Comparison of MAGs with human gut colonies revealed distinctive genomic and functional

31 characteristics of mouse's Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains. Genomic characteristics of rare phyla in

32 mouse gut microbiota were demonstrated by MAG approach, including strains of *Mucispirillum schaedleri*,

33 Parasutterella excrementihominis, Helicobacter typhlonius, and Akkermansia muciniphila.

#### 34 Importance

The identification of nonredundant genes suggested the existence of unknown microbes in the mouse gut samples. The metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) instantiated the specificity of mouse gut species and revealed an intestinal microbial correlation between mouse and human. The cultivation of faeces and gut contents sample validated the existence of MAGs and estimate their accuracy. Full-length 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing enabled taxonomic characterization. This study highlighted a unique ecosystem in the gut of laboratorial mice that obviously differed with the human gut flora at the strain level. The outcomes may be beneficial to researches based on laboratorial mouse models.

42

#### 43 Introduction

44 The gut microbiota is a dense and diverse ecosystem (1). The associations between altered gut microbial 45 composition and various pathogenesis, such as obesity (2, 3), type 2 diabetes (4), rheumatoid arthritis (5), and allergy (6), has become a research hotspot. Murine models, especially mouse, are widely used in 46 47 biomedical study. Many studies have showed that mouse intestinal models also play a pivotal role in human 48 gut microbial research. Some phyla in mouse intestinal flora, such as Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, 49 Proteobacteria, has resemblances with that in human (7, 8). In addition, there are plenty of similarities in 50 anatomy, genetics and physiology between mouse and human (9). These features make the mouse one of the 51 most essential model animals in laboratory. However, mouse gut microbiota could be influenced by many 52 factors, including diet, ambient temperature and cleanliness. Hence, there are still some distinctions between 53 human and mouse gut microbiota. Previous studies have showed that over 50% of genera in mouse gut 54 microbiota are not found in human gut (10, 11). Some human gut-dominant genera, including Faecalibacterium, Prevotella, and Ruminococcus, rarely occurred in the mouse gut microbiota, whereas the 55 56 mouse gut-dominant genera, such as Lactobacillus, Turicibacter, and Alistipes, were underrepresented in human intestinal flora (9). 57

Although there are some recent researches concerning bacterial mutations in laboratory mouse (12), few studies had focused on strain-level characteristics of laboratory mouse gut microbiota. In this study, using a metagenome-assembled genome (MAG) approach, we analyzed the microbial genomes that were obtained from laboratorial mouse gut microbiota, and revealed distinctive genomic and functional features of these genomes at the strain level. Our findings suggested a conceivable unique ecosystem in laboratorial mice gut and might benefit the research fields with applications to such model organisms.

- 64
- 65 **Results**

#### 66 Microbial contents in the mouse intestinal tract

67 To investigate the overall gut microbial composition of laboratorial mouse, we collected the faeces and gut content samples from three male C57/BL mice and generated a total of 33.9 Gbp high-quality data (5.7±0.5 68 Gbp per sample, Table S1) via whole-metagenome shotgun sequencing. De novo assembly and gene 69 70 prediction of these metagenomic data generated two nonredundant protein-coding gene catalogues for the 71 faeces and gut content samples, containing 833,051 (average length, 695bp) and 658,438 (average length, 72 708bp) genes, respectively. Over 50% of genes were shared between two body sites (Figure 1A), in 73 agreement with the previous studies showing an enormous commonality of microbial content of different 74 intestinal tract sites (13). When combined with the most comprehensive nonredundant catalogue 75 (representing ~2.4 million genes) established by 184 mice faecal samples from overall the world (14), the 76 current mouse gut microbial gene catalogue therefore contained ~2.8 million genes (Figure 1A). A high 77 proportion of new genes (52.2%) in this study might be due to more data amounts per sample, improved 78 assembly methods, as well as the population-specific signatures of the mouse intestinal microbiota (14, 15). 79 This combined gene catalogue allowed an average of 73% reads mapping rate for current sequenced 80 samples, and the remaining reads were generally derived from non-coding zone or unassembled sequences. 81 Notably, based on taxonomic annotation via the NCBI-nt database, 63.6% genes in the mouse gut catalogue 82 could be classified at the phylum level, however, only 8.4% genes could be assigned into a genus and only 83 6.0% genes could be assigned into a species (Figure 1B). At the phylum level, the dominant phylum in 84 mouse intestinal samples were Bacteroidetes (average relative abundance = 28.5%), Firmicutes (23.2%), 85 Proteobacteria (18.4%), Deferribacteres (12.3%) and Verrucomicrobia (4.7%), while at the phylum-level 86 unclassified genes consisted an average of 12.3% abundance in all samples. At the genus level, however, an

87 average of 51.8% sequences of the samples were assigned into the genus-level unclassified genes, and the 88 remaining sequences were generally dominated by Parabacteroides (average relative abundance = 10.6%), 89 Helicobacter (7.6%), Lactobacillus (7.5%), Mucispirillum (6.6%) and diverse genera belonging to other 90 phyla (Figure 1B). Taken together, these findings highlight the incomplete coverage of mouse gut microbial 91 genes and taxonomic information in current knowledge. We compared the mouse gut microbial gene 92 catalogue to two comprehensive gene catalogues of the human (9.9 million genes constructed from 1,267 93 individuals (16)) and rat (5.1 million genes constructed from 98 rats (17)). Only 19.2% genes in the mouse 94 gut microbiotawere also observed in the rat catalogue gut, and only 4.6% genes were shared with the human 95 catalogue (Figure 1C). This closer relationship between mouse and rat gut microbiota would be explained 96 by their physiological connections and similar ecological habit, despite that, the low proportion of shared 97 genes between mouse and rat/human gut suggested a unique ecosystem in laboratorial mice.

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#### 99 Strains resolving of the mouse gut microbiota based on metagenomic-assembled genomes

100 Recent development of computational techniques allowed us to identify the draft genomes of a portion of 101 uncultivated species in highly diverse metagenomic samples (18, 19). To characterize the microbial strains in 102 mouse intestinal microbiota, we recovered the MAGs for each sample from their assembled contigs (see 103 Materials and Methods for details), which was represented by a total of 236,108 contigs with minimum length of 1.5 kbp (total length of 1.0 Gbp). A total of 112 MAGs were obtained from all samples under strict 104 105 quality criteria of estimated completeness >70% and contamination <5%. Then, 55 unique MAGs were 106 generated after removing redundancy (Table S2), of which 31 MAGs met the standard of high-quality draft 107 genomes (completion >90% and contamination <5%) (Figure 2A). These MAGs consisted of 265 scaffolds 108 in average (range from 33 to 760) with an average N50 length of 70 kbp (ranging from 4.2 to 348 kbp), and 109 had an average of sequencing coverage of 96.2X (ranging from 8.1X to 604X). Notably, these 55 MAGs 110 showed distinct genomic similarity with pairwise average nucleotide identity (ANI) ranging from 43% to 111 95% (average 48%, Figure 2), and captured approximately 50.6% of sequencing reads in all metagenomic-112 sequenced faecal and gut content samples (**Table S1**), representing a strain-level resolving of the mouse 113 intestinal microbiota.

We applied both marker gene-based and whole genome-based approaches to determinate the taxonomic
placement of these 55 MAGs. Expectedly, the largest number of strains was from Firmicutes (41.8%, 23/55),

Bacteroidetes (40%, 22/55) and Proteobacteria (12.7%, 7/55) (Figure 2A; Table S2). And the other strains
belonged to relatively low abundance phyla Deferribacteres (n =1), Verrucomicrobia (1) and Tenericutes (1).
At the lower taxonomic levels, however, only 9 (16.4%) strains could be robustly assigned to known species,
and the remainsing were novel candidate species that were classified into known bacterial genera, families or
orders (Table S2).

To validate the existence of MAGs and estimate their accuracy, we isolated 13 bacterial colonies via 121 cultivation of a mixed sample from three mice's faeces and gut contents. Full-length 16S ribosomal RNA 122 123 gene sequencing was performed on all colonies to enable taxonomic characterization (Table S3). The 124 majority of the colonies were members of Gammaproteobacteria and Bacilli, including 4 Escherichia spp., 2 125 Streptococcus spp. and 2 Lactococcus spp.; these species were of relatively low abundance in the mouse gut 126 microbiota but high cultivability in the common mediums (20). One isolate, Lactobacillus murinus MS13, 127 also existed in the MAGs (MAG:BG01). Whole-genome shotgun sequencing analysis of L. murinus MS13 128 revealed an almost identical genome (ANI = 99.99%) compared with MAG:BG01 (Figure 2B), confirming 129 that these two genomes were derived from the same strain.

130

#### 131 Distinctive characteristics of mouse's Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains compared to human's

132 To investigate the genomic characteristics of the two phyla, we compared our mouse MAGs with 206 strains

133 cultivated from the gastrointestinal tract of healthy adult humans (21) (Figure 3A; Table S4). In spite of

134 different gene composition, both mouse and human gut microbiota were dominated by two phyla,

Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes (10). The mouse Bacteroidetes strains showed significant reductions of genome
 size and number of genes, and a significant increase of GC content compared to human Bacteroidetes strains

137 (Table 1). In contrast, no significant changes of these parameters were detected between mouse and human138 Firmicutes strains.

To characterize the functional potential of the mouse gut strains, we analyzed the functional profiles of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes of mouse MAGs and compared them with the corresponding strains of human gut. Consistent with the genomic parameters, the composition of KEGG (Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes (22)) orthologs (KOs) of mouse Bacteroidetes strains demonstrates clear separation from human's ( $R^2 = 0.28$ , *adonis P* < 0.001; **Figure 3B**), whereas their Firmicutes strains were largely overlapped in KO profiles ( $R^2 = 0.039$ , *adonis P* = 0.01). The mouse Bacteroidetes strains encoded a higher density of enzymes

145	involving genetic information processing compared to human Bacteroidetes strains (average proportion of
146	genes: 20.7% vs. 16.4%, $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-11}$ ), and the mouse Firmicutes strains encoded a higher density of
147	enzymes involving cellular processes (average proportion of genes: 12.6% vs. 8.3%, $P = 8.5 \times 10^{-10}$ );
148	whereas strains of the two phyla in mouse gut encoded significantly lower numbers of metabolism-
149	associated enzymes than human strains ( $P = 4.5 \times 10^{-7}$ for Bacteroidetes strains and $P = 3.8 \times 10^{-8}$ for
150	Firmicutes strains). Such deviation between mouse and human microbial strains was also observed in the low
151	level KEGG pathways, for which 45% (112/248) pathways in Bacteroidetes strains and 23% (63/278)
152	pathways in Firmicutes strains were significantly differed in occurance rates between mouse and human
153	(Table S5). As a prominent example, the mouse Firmicutes strains were significantly enriched in pathways
154	of flagella assembly and bacterial chemotaxis compared to human Firmicutes strains (Figure 3C).
155	Consistently, comparison of carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes) (23) between mouse MAGs and
156	human strains also revealed significant differences between mouse and human derived Bacteroidetes strains
157	( $R^2 = 0.27$ , <i>adonis P</i> < 0.001), but no significant differences for Firmicutes strains ( $R^2 = 0.013$ , <i>adonis P</i> =
158	0.07). Detailedly, a large proportion (37.5%) of glycoside hydrolases, which were involved hydrolysis and/or
159	rearrangement of glycosidic bonds, were lacked in the mouse Bacteroidetes strains compared to humans'
160	(Table S6).
161	
162	Characteristics of other representative strains in the mouse gut microbiota

163 To study the features of the mouse gut microbes belonging to the other phyla except Bacteroidetes and

164 Firmicutes, we analyzed the genomic characteristics of four MAGs: *Mucispirillum schaedleri* MAG:AF02

165 from Deferribacteres, Parasutterella excrementihominis MAG:CG14 and Helicobacter

166 *typhlonius*MAG:AF12 from Proteobacteria, and *Akkermansia muciniphila* MAG:BG08 from

167 Verrucomicrobia.

168 *Mucispirillum schaedleri* MAG:AF02 consisted of 47 contigs with total length of 2.32 Mbp (N50

length:166 kbp). This MAG was very similar to the genome of *M. schaedleri* ASF457 with 99.1% ANI

170 (Figure 4A), a strain that was isolated from the mucus layer of gastrointestinal tract of laboratory

171 rodents(24).

172 *Helicobacter typhlonius* MAG:AF12 contained 33 contigs with total length of 1.87 Mbp (N50 length:

173 237 kbp). The closest genome of MAG:AF12 was *H. typhlonius* mit97-6810 with ANI of 99% (Figure 4B).

- 174 *Parasutterella excrementihominis* MAG:CG14 contained 397 contigs with total length of 1.59 Mbp.
- 175 The closest genome of MAG:CG14 was *Sutterella* sp. KGMB03119 with ANI of 96.4% (Figure 4C),
- 176 suggesting that *P. excrementihominis* MAG:CG14 was a potential new sub-species of the genus
- 177 Parasutterella.

Akkermansia muciniphila MAG:BG08 contained 216 contigs with total length of 2.55 Mbp. The closest
 genome of MAG:BG08 was *A. muciniphila* ATCC BAA-835 which was isolated from the human intestinal
 mucus layer (25), with ANI of 97.7% (Figure 4D). This result suggested potentially shared *A.muciniphila* species between mouse and human gut microbiota.

182

### 183 Discussion

184 In this study, we compared the mouse gut microbial gene catalogue with that of human and rat, and analyzed 185 the mouse gut microbiota at the strain level based on the metagenome-assembled genome approach. We 186 identified the draft genomes of a portion of uncultivated species from mice faeces and gut content samples. 187 We obtained 55 unique MAGs and 31 of them met the standard of high-quality draft genomes (completion 188 >90% and contamination <5%). Since both mouse and human gut microbiota were dominated by 189 Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes (26, 27), we analyzed these two phyla at the strain level in both, and 190 characterized the potential function of mouse strains through KEGG orthologs and carbohydrate active 191 enzymes. Furthermore, we detected other phyla except Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes, and discovered that 192 some of them have the closest genome with the strains in intestinal mucus layer of laboratory rodents. These 193 outcomes suggested a unique ecosystem in the intestinal tract of laboratorial mice.

194 According to previous studies, Firmicutes was of the highest abundance in mouse gut microbiota 195 accounting for over 50%, followed by Bacteroidetes, and Deferribacteres and Tenericutes(28). The intestinal 196 bacterial community in mice with acute inflammation may alter with reduced abundance of Firmicutes and 197 Bacteroidetes, especially the clusters Clostridium XIVa and IV (29). Compared with healthy controls, 198 however, Enterobacteriaceae and other clustered groups in the Bacteroidetes may have higher abundance 199 (30-32). Compared to gut microbiota in mouse, the community in human intestinal tract is consistently 200 dominated by Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes. 95% of the Firmicutes sequences are clustered to Clostridia 201 class (10), while most of subspecies of Firmicutes related to butyrate-producing are clustered to clostridial 202 groups IV, XIVa, and XVI (33, 34). In addition, it has been reported that in rat gut microbiota, two phyla

Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes have higher abundance, followed by Proteobacteria (17). These outcomes mentioned above are concordant with our findings. Furthermore, we found that 51.8% sequences of our samples belonged to genus-level unclassified genes and the rest of sequences were *Parabacteroides*,

206 Helicobacter, Lactobacillus and Mucispirillum.

207 Although all specieses we found are assigned to known bacterial genera, families or orders, more than 80% species were classified to novel species based on MAG during our resolving procedure, such as 208 209 Acholeplasmatales MAG:AF08 and P. excrementihominis MAG:CG14. It has been reported that 210 uncultivated prokaryotes, such as bacteria, could be obtained by single-amplified genome and MAG 211 approaches (26) and the Genomic Standards Consortium has been completed by minimum information about 212 a MAG, which facilitate robust genomic analyses of bacterial genome (27). However, based on this consequence, the studies on strain-level microbiota in model animals could hardly be found. In addition to 213 214 analysis by MAG approach, in our study, to confirm the existence of MAGs and to evaluate accuracy, we 215 isolated 13 bacterial colonies via conventional cultivation of a mixed sample from three mice's faeces and 216 gut contents and all colonies were treated by full-length 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing to enable 217 taxonomic characterization. One isolate, Lactobacillus murinus MS13, was discovered to have 99.99% 218 average nucleotide identity of its whole genome compared with L. murinus MAG:BG01, confirming that 219 these two genomes were derived from the same strain.

The Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains of mouse gut showed distinctive functional characteristics 220 221 compared to that of human gut. Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes are generally Gram-positive and Gram-222 negative bacteria, respectively. Compared to the single thick and homogeneous layer of Firmicutes, 223 Bacteroidetes has a thinner layered cell wall. The peptidoglycan in the cell walls of Bacteroidetes are less than that in Firmicutes, however, there are lipopolysaccharides, phospholipids, proteins, lipoproteins in the 224 225 wall of Bacteroidetes and lipids could hardly be found in cell wall of Firmicutes. As the only connection in 226 the elements of cell wall in both two phyla, the chemical composition of peptidoglycan in Bacteroidetes is 227 difficult to be effected(35), in contrast, that of peptidoglycan in Firmicutes could be influenced and 228 variable(36). Thus, this characteristic of peptidoglycan might make Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes dominant 229 in gut microbiota, so as in mouse gut. These pathways of two phyla might be altered when they need to adapt 230 to mouse gut environment.

Apart from Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes, some representative strains are worthy of further study, such

232 as Akkermansia muciniphila. A. muciniphila is an anaerobic Gram-negative bacteria (37). In previous 233 studies, it has been discovered in the intestines of mice (38). According to our findings, A. muciniphila in the 234 mouse gut might have similarities with that in human gut. As an important strain in maintaining healthy gut 235 environment, the alterations of the abundance of A. muciniphila may cause many types of diseases, such as type 1 diabetes (39), inflammatory bowel disease(40), autism(41), and cancer(42). 236 This strain-level study based on MAG approach of mouse gut microbiota might facilitate the 237 238 development of animal models with more stable physiological performance, benefit clinic diagnosis and 239 therapy and improve the reliability of mouse models. The idea of this research can be applied to many other model organisms, and is of great significance to the selection of organism models and these findings can 240 241 simulate pathological status of disease more scientifically. 242 **Materials and Methods** 243 244 Experimental models and sample collection

The C57/BL mice were acquired from specific pathogen-free (SPF) Laboratory Animal Center of Dalian Medical University. All mice were housed under a 12:12 light: dark cycle and germ-free conditions in isolators. Animals were fed with autoclaved rodent chow and autoclaved tap water ad libitum. All procedures were performed in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals under an approved animal study proposal.

To harvest intestinal microbial communities from C57/BL mice, after the mice were sacrificed, the abdomen was sterilized by 75% ethanol and was dissected under sterile conditions. The gut contents and fecal samples were collected for cultivation and DNA extraction.

#### 253 Microbial cultivation and identification

231

Both gut contents and fecal sample of 50 mg were added into 1 ml normal saline and the samples were
diluted in BHI liquid medium. The diluents of 20 µl was spread out on solid medium and incubated at 37°C
under aerobic and anaerobic conditions for 48 hours, respectively. Then, single colonies were picked up and
transferred on fresh solid medium for bacterial purification. After being cultivated under the corresponding
conditions for 48 hours, the single colony was inoculated into 8 ml liquid medium and incubated under the

same conditions. The culture of 100 µl was used for amplification of 16S rRNA gene by polymerase chain
reaction (PCR).

The 16S rRNA gene was amplified by using primers: 7F 5'-AGAGTTTGATYMTGGCTCAG-3'and 1510R 5'-ACGGYTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3' and the PCR products of 16S rRNA gene were sequenced. Each 16S rRNA sequence was blasted against nucleotide database of NCBI to identify bacterial strains. The identified aerobic strains were preserved in 50% glycerol and anaerobic strains in 50% glycerol and 0.1% cysteine at -80°C freezer.

#### 266 DNA extraction, whole-metagenome sequencing, and metagenomic analyses

267 The microbial DNA of gut content and fecal samples was extracted using Qiagen DNA extraction kit

268 (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocols. The DNA concentration and purity were

quantified with TBS-380 and NanoDrop2000, respectively. DNA quality was examined with a 1% agarose

270 gel electrophoresis system.

271 Metagenomic DNA was fragmented to an average size of ~300 bp using Covaris M220 (Gene Company

272 Limited, China). Paired-end libraries were prepared by using a TruSeq DNA sample prep kit (Illumina,

273 USA). Adapters containing the full complement of sequencing primer hybridization sites were ligated to

blunt-end fragments. Paired-end sequencing was performed on Illumina HiSeq platform. High-quality reads

were extracted based on the FASTQ (43), with default parameters. After then, sequencing reads with >90%

similarity to the mouse genomic DNA were removed based on Bowtie2 alignment (44).

A gene catalogue was constructed based on the whole-metagenome sequencing data from the mouse gut samples. High-quality reads were used for *de novo* assembly via MEGAHIT (45), using different k-mer sizes

(k = 21, 33, 55, 77). Gene identification was performed for all assembled scaffolds using

280 MetaGeneMark(46). Predicted genes were clustered at the nucleotide level by CD-HIT (47), and genes

sharing greater than 90% overlap and greater than 95% identity were treated as redundancies. Taxonomic

assignment of the genes was generated by blasting against the NCBI-NT database. When alignments with

283 >70% coverage, genes with >90% and sequence similarity >80% were used for species- and genus-level

taxonomical annotation, respectively.

## 285 Metagenome-assembled genome (MAG)

To reconstructed the microbial genome from the metagenomic sequenced samples of mouse gut, we implied 286 287 the methodology of metagenome-assembled genome that was recently developed by recent studies (18, 48). 288 Briefly, sequenced reads were firstly mapped into the assembled contigs (>2,000bp) with Bowtie2 (44) to 289 generate the mean coverage of contigs. Draft metagenome-assembled genomes were then independently 290 recovered from the contigs of each sample using MetaBAT2 (49) under default parameters, based on the coverage and intrinsic information (e.g. GC content, tetranucleotide frequency) of contigs. The completeness 291 292 and contamination of the raw MAGs were estimated using CheckM(50), and only MAGs fit the quality 293 criteria of estimated completeness of >70% and contamination of <5% were kept. The pairwise average nucleotide identity (ANI) of MAGs was calculated using FastANI(51), and two MAGs with >95% of ANI 294 295 were treated as redundancy. Finally, taxonomic assignment of MAGs was performed based on both SpecI 296 (an accurate and universal delineation of prokaryotic species based on marker gene-based algorithm) (52) 297 and whole-genome alignment against the NCBI sequenced bacterial genomes.

# 298 Comparison genomic analyses

299 Phylogenetic analysis of the genomes was carried out using the maximum-likelihood program RAxML(53)

300 with a GTR model of evolution, and visualized on the iTOL web service (54). Robustness of the

301 phylogenetic tree was estimated by bootstrap analysis in 1,000 replicates. The Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes

302 and Genomes (KEGG) and carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes) databases were used for functional

303 annotation of genomes. For each genome, the protein-coding genes were assigned a KEGG orthologue or

304 CAZyme on the basis of the best-hit gene in the databases.

305 Data availability

The raw sequencing data and metagenome-assembled genome sequences reported in this article have been
 deposited in the NCBI BioProjectPRJNA000000.

308

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314 **References** 

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**Table 1.** Summary of genomic characteristics of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains derived from the

481 human and mouse gut microbiota.

	No. of	Genome size	No. of genes*	% GC	No. of KEGG	No. of CAZy
	genomes	(Mbp)*		content	orthologs	proteins
Bacteroidetes						
Human strains	31	5.1±1.1	4,348±908	44.8±4.0	1558±271	357±178
Mouse MAGs	22	2.9±0.8	2,637±795	50.2±3.3	992±176	122±49
<i>P</i> value		1.8 x 10 <sup>-11</sup>	2.6 x 10 <sup>-19</sup>	1.9 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	2.1 x 10 <sup>-12</sup>	3.3 x 10 <sup>-8</sup>
Firmicutes						
Human strains	175	3.7±1.1	3,474±1,110	43.0±8.1	1554±455	111±87
Mouse MAGs	23	3.4±0.8	3,350±702	45.5±6.2	1274±224	104±46
<i>P</i> value		0.122	0.464	0.094	6.7 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.544

489 Note: \* the genome size and number of genes of mouse MAGs were estimated based on their completeness.490

# 491 **Figure legend**

#### 492 Figure 1. Gene catalogue and microbial community composition of the mouse gut microbiota. (A)

493 Comparison of the fecal gene catalogue, the gut content gene catalogue, and the available mouse gut gene

494 catalogue established by 184 mice faeces. (B) Microbial community composition of the mouse gut

495 microbiota at the phylum and genus levels. (C) Gene sharing relationship of the mouse, rat and human gut

496 microbial gene catalogues.

497

#### 498 Figure 2. Detailed information and validation of MAGs reconstructed from the mouse gut. (A)

499 Summary information of 55 nonredundant MAGs. (B) Circular representation of draft genome of a

500 Lactobacillus murinus strain isolated from the mouse gut. The inner two circles represent the GC skew and

501 GC content of the *L. murinus* MS13 genome. The outer two circles show the homologous comparison of *L.* 

502 murinus MS13 with L. murinus MAG:BG01 (reconstructed from the mouse gut) and L. murinus CR141 (the

503 closest strain from the NCBI sequenced genomes).

504

#### 505 Figure 3. Comparison of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains between mouse and human guts. (A)

506 Phylogenetic tree of 55 mouse MAGs and 206 human gut genomes. The outer circle indicates the phylum 507 level taxonomy of the genomes, and the inner circle indicates their host. (B) Principle coordination analysis 508 shows the functional difference of Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes strains between mouse and human guts. 509 Isolates on the first and second principal components are plotted by nodes. Lines connect isolates in the same 510 groups, and colored circles cover the isolates near the center of gravity for each group. (C) Box-plot shows 511 the difference of flagella assembly and bacterial chemotaxis in the mouse Firmicutes strains compared to 512 human strains.

513

Figure 4. Representative strains in the mouse gut microbiota. Circular representation of draft genome of
 four representative strains, including *Mucispirillumschaedleri*MAG:AF02 (A), *Parasutterella*

516 excrementihominis MAG:CG14 (B), Helicobacter typhlonius MAG:AF12 (C), and Akkermansia muciniphila

517 MAG:BG08 (D), in the mouse gut microbiota. The inner two circles represent the GC skew and GC content

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- 518 of the genomes, and the outer circle shows the comparison of the genome with the highest homologous
- 519 strains from NCBI database.







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