A replication-centered phylogeny illuminates the evolutionary

landscape of bacterial plasmids

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SUMMARY

Plasmids are the most influential engines of bacterial evolution and horizontal gene transfer, fueling the global spread of traits such as antimicrobial resistance. Their deep evolutionary relationships, however, remain difficult to resolve because current classification schemes are constrained by host range and nucleotide similarity. Replication initiation proteins (RIPs), which govern plasmid persistence and diversification, also remain poorly annotated across public databases. Here we establish PInc, a curated and experimentally grounded replicon classification framework anchored in historically defined incompatibility groups of *Pseudomonas* plasmids. Homology searches beyond PInc revealed that most replication initiators analyzed here share a conserved winged-helix (WH) domain, defining a broad WH RIP superfamily. Using the conserved WH region, we reconstructed a large-scale phylogeny that linked WH RIPs to over 100,000 plasmids, representing approximately half of those analyzed across public databases. This phylogeny resolved eight major clades and the deep split between the single- and double-winged-helix superclades, while revealing clade-specific host and environmental distributions and substantial RIP diversity not captured by current typing tools or annotation schemes. Together, these results overcome the historical host bias of plasmid typing and provide a replication-centered view of plasmid diversification across bacterial lineages and environments.

INTRODUCTION

Plasmids are among the most influential mobile genetic elements in bacteria, driving rapid evolutionary innovation through horizontal gene transfer[1,2]. They are also major vehicles for the global spread of antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs), representing a critical threat to public health[3–5]. Recent large-scale sequencing efforts have revealed an unexpectedly vast and heterogeneous collection of plasmids[6,7],underscoring the need for a systematic framework to organize this diversity and interpret plasmid evolution coherently.

A historical scheme known as incompatibility (Inc) groups provided the conceptual foundation for plasmid classification by exploiting phenotypic traits, defined by the inability of plasmids with similar replication systems to stably coexist in the same host[8]. More recently, sequence-based approaches have incorporated Inc group names into their classification schemes, improving classification coverage, but still falling short of delivering a macroevolutionary perspective. Replicon typing[9] and plasmid taxonomic units (PTUs)[10,11] rely on nucleotide similarity of rep genes or whole plasmid sequences, respectively, which obscures remote homology among deeply divergent plasmids. Relaxase-based approaches[10,12–14] have expanded classification based on detectable relaxase homology, but exclude more than half of plasmids that lack relaxase genes[8], and therefore cannot provide a universal backbone for plasmid classification. Consequently, current schemes do not fully resolve how plasmids are related across deep evolutionary time. By contrast, in virology, higher-order classification has increasingly been anchored by conserved hallmark genes, enabling molecular evolutionary analysis to be incorporated directly into large-scale taxonomic frameworks[15,16]. This contrast highlights the absence of an equivalent organizing principle for plasmid classification.

Pseudomonas plasmids provide an ideal starting point because this genus spans an exceptionally wide ecological and clinical range from soils and aquatic environments to hospital settings, and its plasmids serve as major vectors connecting environmental and clinical antimicrobial-resistance (AMR) reservoirs[17]. Phenotype-based 14 Inc groups (IncP-1 through IncP-14) have been designated for *Pseudomonas* plasmids and include some of the most clinically significant resistance plasmids identified in *P. aeruginosa* [18,19]. However, despite their importance, some are not only under-characterized but also lack nucleotide sequence information, relying solely on their original incompatibility phenotypes.

Here, we establish a curated and experimentally validated replicon classification system, termed PInc (*Pseudomonas* Incompatibility-informed replicon

classification), which provides a sequence-based framework anchored in
historical Inc groups. This framework is grounded in the experimental
identification of RIPs from representative *Pseudomonas* plasmids. Focusing on
RIPs, we identified a conserved but distantly homologous winged-helix (WH)
domain in most PInc groups and many additional plasmids, pointing to a shared
evolutionary origin. Building on this observation, we reconstructed an extended
phylogeny of WH-containing RIPs and used it to place many previously
unclassified plasmids into a unified evolutionary framework. In this way, our
study provides a replication-centered basis for higher-order plasmid
classification and reveals the diversification and macroevolutionary trajectories
of plasmids through their replication systems.

Results and Discussion

Sequencing and molecular characterization of *Pseudomonas* plasmids

We determined the complete nucleotide sequences of six *Pseudomonas*
plasmids: Rms139 (IncP-2)[20], Rms163 (IncP-5)[21,22], Rsu2 (IncP-9)[23,24], RP1-1
(IncP-11)[25], R716 (IncP-12)[26], and pMG26 (IncP-13)[27,28]. Although these
plasmids represent the archetype members of their respective Inc groups in
Pseudomonas, no full-length reference sequences had been available, leaving
the replication systems of historically important plasmids unresolved (Table 1).
For IncP-10 plasmids, because only a partial plasmid sequence of the
representative plasmid R91-5[29,30] is available, we selected pPAB546 as a
representative (Supplemental Text S1). Sequencing of pMG26, previously
assigned as IncP-13 plasmid[31], yielded no circular contigs after removal of
reads mapping to the *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 chromosome. Detailed molecular
characterization indicated that pMG26 is not a plasmid but an integrative and
conjugative element (ICE), and therefore IncP-13 plasmids should be regarded
as ICEs (Supplemental Text S1). The other five (Rms139, Rms163, Rsu2, RP1-
1, and R716) are shown to be self-transmissible plasmids (Supplemental Text
S1). The RIPs and origin of vegetative replication (*oriV*) of these plasmids
(Table 1) were identified by sequence- and structure-based searches, and their
functions were experimentally validated using mini-replicon constructs (see
Methods, Figure S1, S2, S3, and Supplemental Text S1).

PInc classify unclassified plasmids in PLSDB

To provide a biologically grounded and sequence-based framework for
Pseudomonas plasmids, we constructed a novel replicon-typing scheme named
PInc, using experimentally validated RIPs as reference sequences (Table 1).
This scheme follows the traditional Inc group numbering and its subgroup
lettering (in Greek character) —for instance, PInc-1α corresponds to IncP-1α,

and PInc-2 to IncP-2. Because the original Inc were defined on the basis of
phenotypic incompatibility in different host lineages such as *Pseudomonas* and
Enterobacterales, their names often overlap each other. For example,
Pseudomonas IncP-1 is equivalent to Enterobacterales IncP (Table 1).
Introducing the PInc scheme allows us to retain meaningful correspondence
with the original Inc names while eliminating confusion caused by the
overlapped or inconsistent Inc labels[32].

Some Inc groups were excluded from PInc, because IncP-8[33] and IncP-13 (this
study) were identified as ICEs, or due to material unavailability for IncP-14[34].
Additionally, certain *Pseudomonas* plasmid groups that are not included in the
traditional Inc grouping were incorporated into the PInc system, as they are
widely distributed and known to disseminate antimicrobial resistance. These
include PInc-15 (PromA group[35,36]), PInc-16 (pSN1216-29-like group[37]), PInc-17
(pQBR103-like group[38]), and PInc-18 (pSTY-like group[39]) (Table 1,
Supplemental Text S1). PInc subgroups were defined according to subgroups
of the Inc groups or newly defined if a group contains a large nucleotide
diversity of the RIP genes.

Plasmid sequences were collected and the RIP genes in the plasmids were
identified based on sequence and structural homology to known RIPs (Figures
S1, S2). Reference plasmids (n=87), including those newly sequenced in this
study, were selected to cover the 15 original Inc groups and 22 subgroups
(Table S1) and their RIP genes were extracted and compiled into the repP
database (n = 87, https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883911). Each PInc
group and its subgroups were defined as follows: a plasmid was assigned to a
group if its RIP gene showed nucleotide similarity to a reference RIP (BLASTn;
≥90% identity and ≥60% length coverage), considering only the best hit.
Plasmids harboring multiple distinct RIPs were recognized as multi-replicons
(e.g., PInc-10 and PInc-11).

Accordingly, we assigned 2,351 plasmids in PLSDB (59,895 plasmids) to PInc
based on RIP genes detected using the repP database (Tables S2) and curated
into the PseudomonasRepDB database after redundancy removal (Table 2, n =
404, https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778175), including 530 plasmids
unclassified by the existing tools, PlasmidFinder and 1,514 unclassified by
MOB-suite. Thus, PInc substantially expands the coverage of replicon-based
classification for *Pseudomonas*-associated plasmids, increasing the number of
classifiable plasmids by 29.1 % for PlasmidFinder and 181% for MOB-suite.
Notably, PInc-classified plasmids span not only *Pseudomonas* but also diverse
Enterobacterales hosts, reflecting the broad host range of several PInc
plasmids (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768173). Overall, PInc provides

a systematic sequence-based framework that improves classification depth and
coverage across plasmids in PLSDB.

Comparative genomics analysis highlights PInc group characteristics

To characterize the genomic and evolutionary diversity of plasmids classified by
PInc, we conducted a comprehensive pangenomic analysis across the PInc
groups (Tables S2, S3-1~S3-14). Three key patterns emerged. First, several
PInc groups (notably PInc-2, PInc-17, and PInc-18) exhibited exceptionally
large genome sizes (Figure 1A). Second, specific groups including PInc-4, PInc-
10 and PInc-11, displayed distinctive multi-replicon coupling patterns,
suggesting long-term modular evolution of their replication systems. Third, PInc-
1 stood out for its broad genomic diversity consistent with its presence across
diverse environments and host lineages.

Plasmid size distribution across PInc groups (Figure 1A) revealed that PInc-2,
PInc-17, and PInc-18 harbor markedly larger plasmids than other groups,
indicating expanded accessory gene content and potential ecological
specialization. %GC content (Figure 1B) varied widely in PInc-1 and PInc-4,
suggesting flexible amelioration in multiple hosts[40–42], whereas other groups
showed narrow %GC distributions consistent with more specialized ecological
niches. Core-genome analysis (Figure 1C) showed that PInc-2, PInc-12, and
PInc-17 maintain unusually rich core sets compared with other groups, implying
conserved functional backbones within these groups. In contrast, the low core-
gene proportion in PInc-1 reflects its high genomic and ecological
heterogeneity.

Multi-replicon analysis (Figure 1D, Table S2) revealed substantial variation
among PInc groups. More than half of PInc-4 (70.9%), PInc-11 (65.2%), PInc-6
(60.5%), and PInc-10 (51.0%) plasmids are multi-replicons, whereas more than
90% of PInc-1, PInc-5, PInc-7, PInc-9, and PInc-15 plasmids are single-
replicon. These rates indicate a distinct evolutionary history of the replicon
acquisition and coevolution. Specifically, PInc-4 plasmids are coupled to many
types of replicons (Figure 1D, Table S2). In contrast, most multi-replicons of
PInc-10 and PInc-11 were coupled to each other or to only a few types of
replicons (IncU or rep_cluster_2025, Table S2). Importantly, more than 60% of
the PInc-2, PInc-3, PInc-4, PInc-6, PInc-10, and PInc-17 plasmids harbored
ARGs, with several of these groups, PInc-2, PInc-6, PInc-10, and PInc-17
plasmids, particularly containing clinically important ARGs, such as
carbapenem, tigecycline, and colistin resistance genes (Figure 1D). More
detailed pangenomic characterization for each PInc was provided in
Supplemental Text S1.

Homology-guided collection of RIP sequences expands the diversity of plasmid initiators

To investigate the evolutionary relationships of RIPs, we first assessed protein sequence homology among 251 non-redundant RIP sequences from PInc plasmids using BLASTp (Figure S3). Several PInc groups contained substantial sequence diversity, including PInc-1, PInc-4, and PInc-15, in which the most divergent RIP pairs shared only 34.05%, 28.81%, 56.14% identity, respectively. By contrast, RIPs in the remaining groups were less diverse, with >73% identity within each PInc group (Table S4). Sequence homology between RIPs from different groups was also detected for specific combinations, including PInc-2/PInc-3/PInc-17, PInc-1/PInc-12, and PInc-10/PInc-11, suggesting evolutionary relatedness among these plasmid groups (Figures S3 and S4).

To extend the analysis beyond the sensitivity of BLASTp, we next performed iterative sequence searches using RIPs from the PInc groups as queries to collect more diverse homologs from PLSDB and the UniProt Archive (UniParc). To improve coverage of RIP sequence diversity, we also included nine additional RIPs outside the PInc groups as additional queries (Table S5). The detailed procedures are described in Supplemental Text S1 and Figure S4. In total, this approach retrieved 195,236 sequences, which were classified into 14 homologous groups. This expanded sequence set provided the basis for resolving deeper relationships among plasmid RIPs.

Remote homology analysis reveals evolutionary divergence among plasmid RIPs

Remote homology among RIPs from the 14 homologous groups was assessed using HHblits[43], which performs sensitive sequence-based homology detection through HMM-HMM comparison. With the exception of G-PInc-6, which comprises sequences collected using PInc-6 RIPs as queries, RIPs from the remaining 13 groups shared a homologous region (Figure S5). Based on the significance of homology among groups, these 13 groups could be further divided into two supergroups. One supergroup, comprising seven groups, showed homology with >95% probability in 20 of 21 possible pairwise group comparisons, whereas the other, comprising six groups, did so in all 15 possible comparisons (Figure S5).

Considering available experimental structures and AlphaFold3[44] predictions of RIPs (Figure S6), we classified these two supergroups as single winged-helix (sWH) and double winged-helix (dWH) according to their domain architecture. The sWH supergroup comprises seven groups with a single WH domain, whereas the dWH supergroup comprises six groups with two WH domains. In

dWH RIPs, available structures of RepE (plasmid F; PDB: 2Z9O), Pi (R6K; PDB: 2NRA), RepA (pPS10; PDB: 1HKQ), and TrfA (RK2/RP4)[45] all contain two conserved winged-helix domains, here termed WH1 and WH2. By contrast, only two crystal structures are available for sWH RIPs[46] (pSK41, PDB: 5KBJ; pTZ2162, PDB: 4PT7), although AlphaFold3 predicts that the remaining members also adopt a single-WH-domain architecture. HHblits detected significant homology (>80% probability) between the sWH and dWH supergroups in 18 of 42 possible pairwise group comparisons (6 × 7). In all cases, the homologous region mapped to the WH domain of sWH RIPs and to WH2, the C-terminal WH domain, of dWH RIPs.

By contrast, RIPs of G-PInc-6 showed no detectable homology to any other groups by HHblits, with probabilities of less than 1% in all comparisons. We therefore examined their evolutionary origin separately by searching against the Pfam database using HHblits. G-PInc-6 RIPs matched PF03090, corresponding to the replicase family, with 98.4% probability. This domain is present in the ColE2 RIP[47], a member of the archaeo-eukaryotic primases (AEPs)[48] superfamily. Consistent with this assignment, G-PInc-6 RIPs[49,50] also contain a PriCT domain implicated in DNA unwinding[47]. Together, these observations identify G-PInc-6 RIPs as AEP-superfamily initiators and therefore as evolutionarily distinct from the WH-containing RIPs.

On the basis of this shared homologous domain across the sWH and dWH supergroups, we define these proteins as a WH RIPs superfamily. This framework also provides a basis for interpreting their deeper evolutionary relationships. A previous structure-based study reported deep evolutionary relationships among helix-turn-helix (HTH) domains, including WH domains[51], although plasmid RIPs were not examined in this context. Moreover, the N-terminal WH1 domain of dWH RIPs has been proposed to be evolutionarily related to the WH domain of archaeal Orc1/Cdc6 and eukaryotic Orc proteins[52], both of which function in origin recognition for the chromosomal replication[53]. By contrast, the evolutionary origin of WH2 has remained unresolved. Our analysis identifies homology between WH2 and the WH domain of sWH RIPs, uncovering an unexpected evolutionary link within plasmid replication initiators. Notably, the WH2 domain of pPS10 RepA binds the 3′ end of the iteron and is the major determinant of sequence specificity[45], suggesting that this conserved WH module represents a core origin-recognition element across the WH RIP superfamily. More broadly, the coexistence of such divergent RIPs lineages, including both WH RIPs and AEP-superfamily initiators, within the traditional Inc framework exposes the limitations of historical phenotypic classification and supports the need for a sequence-based PInc system. The conserved WH

module across the 13 homologous groups then provided a common anchor for large-scale phylogenetic reconstruction.

WH RIP phylogeny reveals replication initiator diversity in over 100,000 plasmids

We reconstructed a phylogeny of WH RIPs from the 13 homologous groups using HHblits-defined homologous regions spanning the conserved WH domain and its flanking sequences. The maximum-likelihood tree was built from 4,769 representative sequences clustered at 50% identity (Figure 2A, Figure S4B). On the basis of branch support, we defined eight clades (A to H) and 42 subclades using high-confidence thresholds (UFBoot2: ≥95% or SH-aLRT: ≥80%) (Figure 2B). At the deepest level, sWH and dWH RIPs formed two superclades separated by a major split in the tree, supported by both UFBoot2 (89.4%) and SH-aLRT (88%). This split was also consistently identified as a phylogenetic root by minimal ancestor deviation analysis[54]. These results define a deeply structured WH RIP phylogeny and suggest an early evolutionary transition involving either gain of an additional WH domain or loss of one ancestral WH domain.

We next placed this phylogeny in the context of plasmid diversity by surveying associated plasmids in the public databases PLSDB and IMG/PR. PLSDB is enriched in plasmids from cultivated isolates, whereas IMG/PR is largely composed of metagenome-derived plasmids. Protein sequences predicted from 214,575 presumably complete plasmids (59,895 from PLSDB and 154,680 from IMG/PR) were mapped to the closest leaves in the WH RIP tree (Figure 2C). This analysis identified 122,369 phylogeny-linked RIPs associated with 102,879 plasmids (47.9% of all analyzed plasmids), with linked plasmids represented in all subclades. Linked plasmids were distributed broadly across the tree, but their abundance varied markedly among leaves. A total of 2,137 leaves (44.8% of all 4,769 leaves) were linked to plasmids, and 162 of these leaves (3.4%) were each associated with more than 100 plasmids (Figure 2D). Together, these leaves accounted for 82,735 unique plasmids (80.4% of phylogeny-linked plasmids). Of the linked plasmids, 15,131 (14.7% of phylogeny-linked plasmids) were multi-replicons carrying multiple WH RIPs (Figure 2E). Most of these multi-replicons were derived from Gammaproteobacteria, although other taxa, including Bacillota, Actinomycetota, Bacteroidota, and Campylobacterota, were also represented. Overall, these observations show that the WH RIP phylogeny captures broad plasmid diversity across all subclades.

We then asked how much of this diversity is captured by existing annotation frameworks. Of the 122,369 phylogeny-linked RIPs, 60,202 (49.2%) from

57,087 plasmids were newly identified and were not detected by existing
replicon typing tools, including PlasmidFinder, MOB-suite, and
AcinetobacterPlasmidTyping[55], or by the PInc framework defined here. When
mapped onto the WH RIP phylogeny, replicon types were broadly distributed
across clades (Figure 2B). In particular, RIPs from 2,768 PInc-assigned
plasmids were distributed across 16 leaves spanning seven of the eight clades,
except for clade D. Likewise, 44, 33, and 33 leaves were associated with Gram-
positive, Enterobacterales, and *Acinetobacter* replicon types, respectively. In
total, only 125 leaves (2.5% of all 4,769 leaves) were linked to current typing
schemes, indicating that much of the RIP diversity remains uncaptured by
existing plasmid typing frameworks. Furthermore, 29,600 RIPs (24.2%) from
26,133 plasmids lacked any Pfam domain annotation (Figure 2F), and in clades
A, B, and F, more than half of the RIPs were unannotated. Together, these
results indicate that a substantial fraction of RIP diversity remains uncaptured
by both nucleotide-level replicon typing and protein-level domain annotation.

Structural and sequence diversification across WH RIP clades

We examined the structural diversity of representative WH RIPs from PInc
plasmids, focusing on domain organization and predicted three-dimensional
structures (Figure 3 and Figure S7). Pfam-based domain annotation, together
with WH1/WH2 assignments based on previous studies[45,56] (see Methods),
identified WH domains linked to conserved replication-associated domains,
including RepA_N/C, Rep3_N/C, and IncFII_repA. The Bac_RepA_C domain,
which does not overlap the WH region, has been implicated in interactions with
DnaG primase[46]. On the basis of available crystal structures, we inferred that
sWH RIPs bind DNA as monomers, whereas dWH RIPs bind DNA as dimers.
These observations indicate that WH RIPs combine a conserved WH core with
distinct replication-associated domain architecture across clades.

Sequence features derived from the multiple alignment used for phylogenetic
reconstruction further distinguished clades A–H (Figure S8). In particular, both
gap patterns in the alignment and the lengths of the N- and C-terminal regions
flanking the conserved WH domain showed clade-specific features, while still
exhibiting substantial variation within individual clades, such as clades C and E.
Overall, these results highlight structural diversification of WH RIPs across
clades, reflecting the diversification of replication systems underlying plasmid
evolution.

WH RIP phylogeny reveals host and environmental constraints on plasmid
dispersal

We examined the taxonomic distribution of WH RIP clades using metadata from PLSDB and IMG/PR. PLSDB follows NCBI taxonomy, whereas IMG/PR follows GTDB taxonomy (Figure 4A). Despite differences in the taxonomic systems and data sources, several clade–taxonomy associations were consistent across both datasets. Clades B and D were strongly associated with Bacillota, clades C and F with Gammaproteobacteria, and clade E with Alphaproteobacteria. Clade H showed the broadest taxonomic distribution and, in IMG/PR, accounted for most Bacteroidota and large fractions of Campylobacterota and Fusobacteriota. This was particularly evident in IMG/PR, which contained 22,390 Bacteroidota plasmids, most of which were assigned to clades A and H. At the subclade level, however, clade H was partitioned into groups with distinct taxonomic associations, indicating that its broad host range is composed of multiple more restricted evolutionary units (Figure S8). Clade G also showed a broad host range, with strong representation in Actinomycetota. These patterns indicate that WH RIP evolution is structured by host lineage, while some clades have undergone broader host transitions than others.

For environmental distribution, we analyzed IMG/PR-linked plasmids, for which environmental metadata were available from metagenomic and metatranscriptomic datasets. Environmental distributions also showed clear clade specificity (Figure 4B). Clade H was broadly distributed and accounted for a major fraction of RIPs across most environments, whereas clade composition varied substantially among habitat categories. This broad distribution also masked substantial heterogeneity within clade H, as individual subclades showed more specific ecological associations (Figures 2A, S8). Host-associated environments, including human, other mammals, and insects, as well as the built environment, were dominated primarily by clades H and A. By contrast, marine, freshwater, soil, saline and alkaline environments, as well as plant-associated and bioreactor samples, showed more diverse clade mixtures, with increased contributions from clades C, E, F and G. Among these, clade E was more prominent in marine-associated plasmids, whereas clades C and F contributed more strongly to freshwater- and plant-associated environments, and clade G was more strongly associated with soil. These observations suggest that plasmid ecological distributions reflect clade-specific constraints on dispersal and environmental association. We therefore asked whether the same clades also differed in broader architectural, compositional and functional properties.

Distinct architectural and functional profiles of the eight WH RIP clades

The eight WH RIP clades differed markedly in plasmid size, RIP length, GC composition and isoelectric point (pI) (Figure 4C–E). Clades A and H occupied

the lower end of the plasmid size range but differed substantially in RIP length. Clade A was associated with the smallest plasmids and the shortest RIPs (median plasmid length 3.2 kb; median RIP length 185 aa), whereas clade H also tended to occur in relatively small plasmids (median 6.8 kb) but carried substantially longer RIPs (median 325 aa). By contrast, the remaining clades were associated with progressively larger plasmids, with median lengths ranging from 19.4 kb to 144 kb, indicating that plasmid size is itself a characteristic feature of WH RIP clades. GC composition was likewise strongly structured by clade identity. Clades B and D were associated with the lowest-GC plasmids (median 33.4% and 33.6%, respectively), which may reflect their taxonomic bias towards Bacillota, whereas clades E and G showed the highest plasmid GC values. RIP GC content broadly tracked plasmid-wide GC content, but clade C was distinctive in showing higher GC in RIPs than in their plasmid backgrounds, with a similar but weaker tendency in clades E, F and G. Differences in pI were even more pronounced. Clade C showed a marked positive shift relative to the plasmid proteome, clade D showed the opposite trend, and clades E, F and G were more moderately shifted towards higher pI. The elevated pI of clade C RIPs is likely explained by enrichment of positively charged residues, particularly lysine and arginine, and may reflect compositional adaptation related to DNA binding (Figure S9). Together, these patterns indicate that each WH RIP clade is associated with a distinct combination of plasmid architecture, sequence composition and RIP biochemical properties. We then asked whether this clade specificity extended to transfer-related and accessory functions.

Mobility and accessory functions also varied sharply across WH RIP clades. MOBP and MOBQ were detected across most clades, whereas other MOB classes showed much stronger clade specificity (Figure 4F). Notably, clade A was enriched in MOBV despite its association with small plasmids, suggesting retained mobilization capacity. By contrast, clades C, F and G were enriched in MOBF, whereas clades E and H showed relatively stronger contributions from MOBQ. MPF repertoires also differed among clades. MPF modules were nearly absent from clade A, whereas clades C and F were dominated by MPF_F and clade D by MPF_FATA. AMR and defense systems showed similarly uneven distributions across clades (Figure 4G). Clades C, D and F were relatively enriched in ARG-rich plasmids, whereas clades A, B, G and H were dominated by plasmids with few ARGs (Figure 4H). Defense system content showed a partly overlapping but distinct pattern, with clades B, C, D and F more frequently carrying multiple defense systems, whereas clades A and H showed low defense systems content (Figure 4I). Metal resistance genes also showed strong clade specificity (Figure 4J). Clades C and F were enriched in plasmids

carrying multiple metal resistance determinants, with tellurite resistance being
especially prominent in clade F. Clade E was distinctive in its association with
cadmium resistance, whereas clade D showed a more selective pattern
dominated by cadmium and arsenic resistance. These patterns indicate that
WH RIP clades differ in the functional modules that shape plasmid transmission
and adaptation.

Integrated evolutionary landscape of the eight WH RIP clades

To summarize the major features associated with each lineage, we integrated
the structural, compositional, taxonomic and ecological characteristics of the
eight WH RIP clades (Figure 5). This comparison shows that the major split
between the sWH and dWH superclades is accompanied by broad differences
in domain organization and plasmid architecture, whereas individual clades are
further distinguished by characteristic combinations of plasmid size, RIP length,
GC composition, biochemical properties, host distribution, environmental
association and accessory functional traits. Notably, clades G and H, as well as
clades B, C and D, form well-supported higher-level assemblages, with UFBoot
support values of 99 and 92, respectively, suggesting that these sets of clades
represent coherent evolutionary subdivisions within the WH RIP phylogeny.
Together, these patterns support the view that the eight WH RIP clades
represent distinct evolutionary trajectories of plasmid replication systems.
Extending this replication-centred framework to additional initiator classes,
including AEP-type and rolling-circle replication proteins, should further broaden
the evolutionary map of plasmids.

Resources for WH RIP identification and plasmid classification

We provide a software package for identification and classification of WH RIPs
based on the protein homology relationships defined in this study
(https://github.com/yosuken/WHTreeMapper). In addition, although the analyses
described above relied on amino acid-level detection of WH domains, practical
application to sequence-based identification requires extending detection to the
nucleotide level. To this end, total of 48,743 nucleotide sequences
corresponding to the conserved WH region of RIP genes
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31969347), including clades A to H and
their subclades, were extracted from PLSDB plasmids and curated into the
WHRepDB database after redundancy removal (Table 2, n = 12,923,
https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883887). This database enables high-
resolution detection and typing of plasmids, even from complex metagenomic
data, thereby facilitating comprehensive characterization of plasmid diversity,
host range, and transmission dynamics across diverse environments. As such,
it represents a valuable resource for advancing plasmid surveillance and

improving our understanding of the ecological and epidemiological roles of
plasmids in the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance.

Conclusion

In this study, we establish PInc, a curated and experimentally grounded replicon
classification framework anchored in historically defined incompatibility groups
of *Pseudomonas* plasmids. By coupling experimental identification of replication
initiation proteins (RIPs) with sequence-based classification, PInc expands the
repertoire of identifiable plasmid replicons and provides a framework for
classifying plasmids through their replication systems.

Homology searches beyond PInc plasmids revealed that most replication
initiators analysed here share a conserved winged-helix (WH) domain, defining
a WH RIP superfamily that unifies a broad range of plasmid replication systems.
Remote homology analysis further resolved this superfamily into single- and
double-winged-helix superclades and uncovered homology between the WH
domain of single-WH RIPs and the WH2 domain of double-WH RIPs,
suggesting a shared origin-recognition module across diverse plasmids. By
contrast, PInc-6 RIPs were assigned to the AEP superfamily, showing that
plasmids grouped historically by incompatibility can encode fundamentally
distinct classes of replication initiators.

Using the conserved WH region, we reconstructed a large-scale phylogeny that
linked WH RIPs to over 100,000 plasmids across public databases. This
phylogeny resolved eight major clades, revealed clade-specific host and
environmental distributions, and captured substantial RIP diversity not
represented in current typing tools or annotation schemes. It also placed
several lineages that are poorly covered by existing plasmid typing systems,
including Bacteroidota, Campylobacterota, Thermodesulfobacterota and
Fusobacteriota, within a unified WH RIP phylogeny, while bringing together
plasmids from cultivated isolates and metagenomic datasets within a single
evolutionary framework. More broadly, our results suggest that RIP-based
phylogeny can provide the long-missing evolutionary backbone for higher-order
plasmid classification and begin to do for plasmids what hallmark gene-based
phylogenies have enabled in virology. At present, this framework is limited to
plasmids carrying WH RIPs. Expanding comparable phylogenetic frameworks
across additional initiator classes will be an important next step towards a more
comprehensive evolutionary map of bacterial mobile DNA.

Methods

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and culture conditions

The bacterial strains and plasmids used are listed in Table S6. *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* strains were cultured in Luria broth (LB) or M9 broth[57] at 30°C (*P. putida* KT2440) or 37°C (*P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and its derivatives). LB plates containing 1.5% agar were used for filter mating. Ampicillin (Ap, 50 μg/mL), piperacillin (Pip, 16 μg/mL), rifampicin (Rif, 50 μg/mL), streptomycin (Sm 150 μg/mL), and tetracycline (Tc, 50 μg/mL for the others) were added to the medium.

DNA manipulation

Total DNA from the bacterial strains was extracted using a NucleoSpin Tissue Kit (TAKARA BIO, Japan). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed on a T100 thermal cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA) using the KOD One PCR Master Mix (TOYOBO, Japan). The primers used in this study are listed in Table S7. The following amplification conditions were used: 30 cycles at 98°C for 10 s, 67°C for 5 s, and 68°C for 1 s. The pUC-GW plasmid with DNA fragments including putative RIP genes and *oriV*s of each plasmid, except those for RP1-1 and pMG26, was synthesised by the custom service of Azenta Life Science, USA. Restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs, USA or TAKARA BIO), the HiYieldTM Gel/PCR DNA fragments Extraction kit (RBC Bioscience, Taiwan), NEBuilder Hifi DNA Assembly system (New England Biolabs), and competent *E. coli* JM109 and DH5α cells (RBC Bioscience) were used for cloning the DNA fragments. Plasmid DNA from the bacterial strains was extracted using the NucleoSpin Plasmid EasyPure Kit (TAKARA BIO). Electroporation to introduce the plasmids into different bacterial strains was performed using a MicroPulser electroporator (Bio-Rad Laboratories). All other procedures were performed according to standard methods[57].

Complete sequencing of the plasmids by next-generation sequencing

The nucleotide sequences of the plasmid DNAs were determined as follows: whole genomic DNA extracted from their host (*P. aeruginosa* PAO1808, a derivative strain of PAO1[58]) was sequenced using the HiSeq2500 platform (Illumina, USA). Trimmed high-quality short reads (read length >140 bp and quality score >15) were assembled using SPAdes v3.14.0 using the plasmid option[59]. If circular contig(s) could not be found, the host chromosomal DNA was removed by mapping the resultant contigs on the host genome sequences [their deposited sequences, that is, NCBI RefSeq accession number NC_002516 (*P. aeruginosa* PAO1)] using Geneious Prime software v2020.01[60]. Subsequently, the plasmid reads were extracted from the remaining contigs using SAMtools v1.7[61] and SeqKit v0.8.0[62] and reassembled using SPAdes[63]. For RP1-1 and pMG26, gaps in plasmids were closed by PCR with the

559 designed primer sets based on the ends of contigs and Sanger sequencing of
560 the PCR products.

Gene annotation of plasmids

Gene annotations of the plasmids were performed using DFAST-core v1.2.5[64]
with an in-house database of plasmid sequences collected from NCBI RefSeq
and then corrected manually. Synteny analyses of plasmids were performed
using Easyfig v2.2.2[65]. Other *in silico* analyses were performed using Geneious
Prime v2020.01. The annotated plasmid sequences were deposited under the
following GenBank accession numbers: LC685025, LC685026, LC685027,
LC685593, and LC700336.

Detection and phenotype identification of ARGs

ARG sequences were detected using Staramr v0.10.0 and ResFinder database
v2.2.1 updated on 2023-10-27
(https://bitbucket.org/genomicepidemiology/resfinder_db)[59,60] with the following
criteria: ≥ 90% identity and ≥ 60% coverage. Clinically important ARGs,
including genes conferring resistance to carbapenem, colistin, or tigecycline, in
Gram-negative bacteria were further detected based on the phenotype
information of ARGs in AMRFinderPlus v3.11.26 updated on 2023-11-16
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pathogens/antimicrobial-
resistance/AMRFinder/)[61].

Prediction of RIP genes and *oriV*s of each plasmid

To identify the genes encoding the RIP and origin of vegetative replication (*oriV*)
regions of Rms139, Rms163, RP1-1, and R716, two prediction approaches
were used; after coding sequence (CDS) annotations using DFAST-core,
protein.faa files generated by DFAST-core were used for the following: (i)
nucleotide sequence-based searches were performed using BLASTn; (ii) amino
acid sequence-based protein structure prediction and the structure-based
searches were performed as described later. The GC-skew value, which has
been commonly used to measure the asymmetry in the composition of two
nucleotides, guanine (G) and cytosine (C), along a DNA strand and is defined
as (G-C)/(G+C), of the plasmids was used by Webskew
(https://genskew.csb.univie.ac.at/webskew) to detect the changes in the GC
skew, which indicates the DNA replication origins or termini[66,67]. Subsequently,
the nucleotide or amino acid sequences of putative CDSs around the above
GC-skew shift point(s) were subjected to methods (i) or (ii). The putative
promoter region of the RIP gene was predicted using BPROM
(http://www.softberry.com/berry.phtml?topic=bprom&group=help&subgroup=gfi

ndb) [68]. Subsequently, the predicted RIP and *oriV* sequences of each PInc
groups were cloned into the pUC-GW-Amp vector (Azenta Life Science).
Transformation of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1808 was performed with each of the
resultant plasmids (at most 472 ng/μL), and the cultures were spread onto
LB+Pip plates. After incubation at 37ºC overnight, colonies on the plates were
isolated. Next, the presence of the mini-plasmid was confirmed by PCR with
specific primers after extraction of total DNA of transformants.

Protein structure prediction of RIPs

AlphaFold3-mediated protein structure prediction was performed using the
amino acid sequences of the RIP gene products in representative
Pseudomonas plasmids (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778898) on the
AlphaFold server[44]. A structure-based protein homology search using the
predicted structural models was performed for the PDB100 database on the
FoldSeek server in 3Di/AA mode[69]. The predicted and experimental structures
were visualised and compared using PyMOL v3.1.3.1. The predicted structures
were coloured based on the root mean square deviation (RMSD) from the
reference experimental structures, i.e., the Pi or Rep19A[46,70] proteins, which are
RIPs of the R6K and pCA-347 plasmids, respectively, using the ColorByRMSD
script (https://pymolwiki.org/index.php/ColorByRMSD). The distances between
aligned C-alpha atom pairs were stored as B-factors of these residues, which
are coloured using a colour spectrum, with blue specifying the minimum
pairwise RMSD and red indicating the maximum. Unaligned residues were
coloured gray.

Identification, retrieval, and re-annotation of plasmids from public databases

Complete plasmid sequences were downloaded in FASTA format using the
Entrez Programming Utilities (E-utilities;
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK25501/) from a public database
(PLSDB 2023_11_23_v2) (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768173)[7,71].
To classify the plasmids in the PLSDB based on their rep sequence similarity,
the RIP gene sequences were detected using Staramr v0.10.0
(https://github.com/phac-nml/staramr) and rep databases of MOB-suite v3.1.8
updated on 2023-12-12 (https://github.com/phac-nml/mob-suite)
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768170)[72], PlasmidFinder v2.1 updated
on 2023-12-04 (https://bitbucket.org/genomicepidemiology/plasmidfinder_db)
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778199)[73], our custom-made
Pseudomonas plasmid RIP gene database (termed repP and
PseudomonasRepDB database, https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883911
and https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778175), and our custom-made

plasmid RIP WH database (termed WHRepDB database,
https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883887) with the following criteria: ≥90%
identity and ≥60% coverage (Table 2). The Tus protein, known for binding to
DNA replication terminus (*ter*) sites of replicons, encoded by rep_cluster_1115
in the MOB-suite database, is not included in our custom-made RIP reference
sequences. The repP database was constructed using experimentally identified
RIP genes from the 87 reference *Pseudomonas* plasmids shown in Table S1.
Furthermore, duplicated RIP sequences between the MOB-suite and repP
databases (Table S6) and incorrect RIP sequences, including uncertain IncP
and rep_cluster_1115, were manually removed from the MOB-suite database.
The modified MOB-suite database
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768167) was used to detect multi-
replicon *Pseudomonas* plasmids, which are single plasmids that can belong to
more than one group other than the PInc groups. Among the candidate PInc-1
(IncP-1) plasmid sequences based on the similarity to the RIP sequences,
artificially constructed sequences not explicitly labelled as such ("other
entries;other sequences;artificial sequences") in the NCBI taxonomy database
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/taxonomy) were also present. We identified six
PInc-1 plasmids (PD584_L3, PD689_delTT1, pJM105, pJM50, pRK2013, and
pUZ8002) as artificially constructed sequences based on a literature survey and
removed them from the putative PInc-1 plasmid set.

For the final dataset, the sequence length (bp) and GC content (%, %GC) were
calculated using SeqKit v2.3.0 (https://bioinf.shenwei.me/seqkit/)[62]. Plasmid
sequences belonging to each PInc groups were re-annotated using DFAST-
core, with a reference genome from each group to ensure consistency in the
functional annotations.

Comparative genomics of plasmids

Comparative genomics of all the plasmids of the PInc groups were performed
using PIRATE[74] (https://github.com/SionBayliss/PIRATE). Here, we used
DIAMOND[75] v0.9.14 rather than BLAST[76] to identify homologous genes (protein
families) in PIRATE. PIRATE was run on default parameters with a high-scoring
segment pair (HSP) query length threshold of 0.5, a sequence similarity step
range of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 95, and 98%, and an inflation value
of 2 in MCL (v14.137), a Markov cluster algorithm (https://micans.org/mcl/). The
core genes in each PInc group were those that were present in more than 95%
of the plasmids included in the pangenome analysis. Statistical computing and
result visualisation were performed using R v4.1.3 (https://www.r-project.org/).
The output of SeqKit and PIRATE are available in Figshare
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26789416).

Homolog collection and phylogenetic analysis of RIPs

Detailed methods are provided in Supplemental Text S1 and illustrated in Figure S6. In brief, to analyse the evolutionary relationships of RIPs, we identified 2,374 RIPs that originated from 2,332 PInc plasmids. Subsequently, 251 non-redundant proteins at 100% identity were extracted using MMseqs[77] cluster v15-6f452. Sequence homology between the non-redundant proteins was assessed using BLASTp[76], and the resultant hits were visualised via CPAP (https://github.com/yosuken/CPAP). To detect remote homology between PInc groups and collect comprehensive RIP sequences, we extended the sequence diversity through a multistep homology search process. First, we searched ORFs of PLSDB plasmids predicted using orfM[78] (n = 20,331,985) for homologous RIPs using hmmsearch in HMMER[79] v3.3.2. In addition, 8 additional RIPs sequences that are distant from RIPs were manually picked up and homology searches using diamond blastp against the ORFs of PLSDB plasmids were performed. This process generated 19 homologous groups of RIPs. Second, UniParc proteins (downloaded in Feb 2024; n = 607,912,929) were searched with hmmsearch using 19 HMMs generated from the homologous groups. We merged the UniParc sequences into 19 homologous groups, and filtered out potential contamination of other functional proteins, including various transcription factors, using hmmsearch against the Pfam database. After merging the 19 homologous groups into 14 based on the UniParc sequence overlapping, we selected 5,488 representative sequences for the 14 homologous groups. To investigate whether these groups exhibit homology with each other, a sensitive hidden Markov model HMM–HMM comparison was performed using HHblits[80] v3.3.0. We extracted the homologous regions of the alignments of the 13 groups (containing 6,793 sequences in total). These regions were aligned using MAFFT[81] v7.455.

After removing gappy sequences in the alignment, a maximum-likelihood phylogeny of WH RIPs was reconstructed from the resulting 150-position alignment using IQ-TREE[82] v2.2.2.6. We used the parameters "--perturb 0.2 --nstop 500", following the software manual recommendation for datasets containing many short sequences. The best fit model (Q.pfam+F+R10) was selected using ModelFinder[83]. Branch support was assessed with UFBoot2[84] and SH-aLRT[85] in IQ-TREE. We discarded the abnormally long branches using TreeShrink[86]. To evaluate the root of the WH RIP phylogeny independently of domain-based interpretation, we applied minimal ancestor deviation (MAD) rooting to the unrooted maximum-likelihood tree using MAD[54] v2.2 with default settings. The MAD-inferred root was then compared with the major split separating the sWH and dWH superclades. The final tree was rooted at the sWH-dWH split using gotree[87] v0.4.0.

Recruitment of associated plasmids onto the WH RIP phylogeny

The tree-associated plasmids from PLSDB[7] (version 2023_11_23_v2) and IMG/PR[6] (version 2023-08-08_1) were identified as follows. Open reading frames (ORFs) were predicted using Prodigal[88]. Following the developer's recommendations, plasmids longer than 100 kb were processed in the default mode, whereas plasmids of 100 kb or shorter were processed in metagenomic mode "--meta". The predicted ORFs were then searched against HMM profiles representing the 42 WH RIP subclades using PiPP v0.3.0 (https://github.com/yosuken/PiPP), which runs hmmsearch in HMMER v3.3.2[79], with the options "--evalue 1e-5 --evaluedom 1e-2 --minhmmcovdom 0.2 --minhmmcov 0.8 --only-detect". For each best hit, the region of the ORF covered by the HMM match was extracted. These extracted regions were then assigned to the aligned representative WH RIP sequences used for phylogenetic reconstruction (n = 4,769) using diamond[75] blastp (v2.1.9) with the options "--ultra-sensitive --id 40 --subject-cover 80 --max-target-seqs 1 --dbsize 1e+9 --evalue 1e-5". The extracted regions mapped to the tree were then organized at both the ORF and plasmid levels. For plasmid-level analyses, mapped WH RIP-containing ORFs were grouped according to their source plasmids, and plasmids carrying two or more such ORFs were classified as multi-replicons. For summaries at the clade, subclade, or individual RIP level, plasmids were deduplicated within each category, so that multiple ORFs from the same plasmid assigned to the same category were counted once. The number of WH replicons per plasmid, however, was defined by the total number of mapped WH RIP-containing ORFs detected in that plasmid.

Plasmid metadata and functional annotation associated with the WH RIP phylogeny

Taxonomic metadata for tree-associated plasmids were obtained from the source databases: NCBI taxonomy for PLSDB and GTDB taxonomy for IMG/PR. Taxonomic distributions were summarized using the manually curated higher-rank host categories shown in Figure 4A, with class-level categories used for the phylum Pseudomonadota and phylum-level categories used for several other bacterial lineages. Because nomenclature differs between the two databases, original names were retained for each source but interpreted as corresponding higher-level lineages when appropriate (e.g., Bacillota in PLSDB versus Firmicutes in IMG/PR, Actinomycetota versus Actinobacteriota, and Thermodesulfobacteriota versus Desulfobacterota). Low-frequency taxa were grouped into an "others" category for visualization.

Environmental analyses were performed using IMG/PR-linked plasmids only, because environmental metadata was available for these plasmids. Habitat categories shown in Figure 4B were defined based on the original metadata labels, including host-associated environments, aquatic environments (marine, freshwater, and non-marine saline and alkaline), terrestrial soil, engineered environments (bioreactor, built environment, and wastewater/WWTP), and "others". Records annotated as "Engineered; Modeled; Simulated communities" were treated as lacking environmental information and excluded from this analysis, because they do not specify a source habitat.

Replicon typing was performed using PlasmidFinder[9] v2.1 updated on 2023-12-04, AcinetobacterPlasmidTyping with database version feb2025_v3, and PseudomonasRepDB for PInc assignment. For all three databases, hits were identified using PlasmidFinder with a minimum nucleotide identity threshold of 90% "--threshold 90" and a minimum coverage of 60% "--mincov 60". Additional replicon typing was performed using MOB-typer in MOB-suite v3.1.8 with the equivalent options "--min_rep_ident 90 --min_rep_cov 60". Pfam annotations of tree-associated RIPs were identified using hmmsearch in HMMER v3.3.2 against the Pfam v38.1 database and parsed using parse_hmmsearch.rb (https://github.com/yosuken/parse_hmmsearch) with the thresholds "--gene-evalue 1e-5 --evalue 1e-2 --min-ali-cov-dom 0.2 --min-ali-cov 0.5". For visualization of the annotation rings in Figure 2A, taxonomic, environmental, and replicon-typing information associated with mapped plasmids was summarized as stacked-bar compositions for each tree-linked leaf. The WH RIP phylogeny and its annotation rings in Figure 2A were visualized using iTOL v7[89].

MOB and MPF classes were identified using MacSyFinder[90] v2.1.4 with the CONJScan/Plasmids models[91] under default settings. For MOB classification, hits with gene_name annotated as T4SS_MOB(X) and model_fqn annotated as CONJScan/Plasmids/MOB were used. For MPF classification, hits with model_fqn annotated as CONJScan/Plasmids/T4SS_type(X) were used. For Figures 4F and 4G, MOB and MPF annotations were summarized at the plasmid level for clade-associated plasmids. Plasmids carrying two or more MOB classes or MPF classes were assigned to the category "multiple". Plasmids without detectable MOB or MPF annotations were retained in the calculations of clade-wise proportions but were not displayed as separate categories. Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes were identified using AMRFinderPlus v3.12.8 with database version 2024-07-22.1 under default settings. Hits annotated with Element subtype = AMR were retained. Metal resistance genes were identified in the same manner as AMR genes, except that hits annotated with Element subtype = METAL were retained. For Figure 4J, metal resistance was summarized at the plasmid level for clade-associated

plasmids. The number of resistant metals per plasmid was defined as the number of distinct metal resistance classes detected in each plasmid, irrespective of the number of genes assigned to each class. Defense systems were identified using DefenseFinder[92] v1.3.0 with default settings. For Figure 4I, defense systems were summarized at the plasmid level for clade-associated plasmids, and the number of defense systems per plasmid was defined on a system basis. Anti-defense systems were excluded from these counts. Plasmids were grouped into the bins shown in Figure 4I.

For Figures 4C–E, analyses were performed at the level of clade-associated RIPs. Plasmid length was defined as the total nucleotide length of the source plasmid, and RIP length as the amino-acid length of the corresponding RIP. RIP GC content was calculated from the nucleotide sequence of the RIP-encoding CDS, whereas plasmid GC content was calculated from the full plasmid nucleotide sequence. The RIP–plasmid GC difference was defined as RIP %GC minus plasmid %GC. The isoelectric point (pI) of RIPs and plasmid-encoded proteins was calculated using pepstats in EMBOSS v6.6.0 with default settings. Plasmid proteome pI was defined as the median pI of all predicted proteins encoded by each plasmid, and the RIP–plasmid proteome pI difference was defined as RIP pI minus plasmid proteome pI. Unless otherwise noted, analyses were performed either at the plasmid level or at the RIP level, depending on the panel. Figures 2C–E and 4F–J summarize plasmid-level properties, whereas Figure 2F and Figures 4C–E summarize RIP-level properties. Figures 2A and 2B are based on the representative WH RIP sequences used for phylogenetic reconstruction.

Data visualization for Figures 2 and 4 was performed in R v4.1.2 using the ggplot2 package, except that phylogenetic tree visualization was carried out using iTOL. Figures 2, 4, and 5 were subsequently assembled and finalized in Adobe Illustrator based on the resulting plots. The phylogenetic tree, multiple sequence alignment, associated plasmid metadata, and iTOL visualization files are available in Figshare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28837559).

Data Availability

All datasets generated and analyzed during this study have been deposited in publicly accessible repositories and are freely available to reviewers as follows:

Replicon reference database (repP database): Experimentally validated replication initiation protein (RIP) sequences from representative *Pseudomonas* plasmids used for PInc classification are available at Figshare: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883911 (nucleotides), https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778898 (amino acids).

Pseudomonas plasmid dataset with PInc classification (PseudomonasRepDB):

Curated plasmid dataset derived from PLSDB, including PInc classification

results and associated annotations:

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778175.

WH RIP database (WHRepDB): Database of winged-helix (WH) domain-

containing replication initiation proteins used for large-scale homology search

and classification: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31883887.

WH-domain sequence dataset: A total of 48,743 WH-domain sequences

identified from RIP genes and used for downstream phylogenetic and structural

analyses: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.31969347.

Phylogenetic datasets and tree files: Multiple sequence alignment, maximum-

likelihood phylogenetic tree, associated plasmid metadata, and iTOL

visualization files: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28837559.

PLSDB-derived plasmid dataset (version 2023_11_23_v2):

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768173.

Original and modified MOB-suite database used for replicon detection:

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768170 (original),

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26768167 (modified)

PlasmidFinder database used in this study:

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778199.

Representative rep

Additional analysis outputs (pangenome analysis, sequence statistics, etc.):

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26789416.

The annotated plasmid sequences have been deposited in the

GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ under accession numbers LC685025, LC685026,

LC685027, LC685593, and LC700336.

Supplementary Data Statement

Supplementary Data (Supplemental Text S1, Supplemental Figures: Figs. S1-

S13, and Supplemental Tables S1-S9) are available online.

Contributions

YN, HS, MS, MS conceived, designed, and supervised the study. KK, TK, MT,

HX, YT, AH, RM, HD, MS, HS, MS performed the experiments and data

analysis. YN, RM, HD, KK, HN, MS, HS, MS wrote, reviewed, and edited the

manuscript. All authors contributed to manuscript revision, read and approved

the submitted version.

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Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the manuscript preparation process.

During the preparation of this work, the authors used ChatGPT (OpenAI) for language editing and improving the clarity of English expression. The authors also used GitHub Copilot (GitHub/Microsoft) and Claude Code (Anthropic) to assist in the development of parts of the code. All generated code and final outputs were reviewed and verified by the authors, who take full responsibility for them. These tools were not used to generate scientific content or interpret

899   data. All content was critically reviewed and edited by the authors, who take full
900   responsibility for the final manuscript.

Table 1. Lists of representative plasmids in the PInc groups.

PInc(s) (classical Inc name[a])	Representative plasmid[b] [accession no.]	MOB MPF[c]	No. of plasmids in PLSDB	Numbers of WH	Clade	References
PInc-1 (IncP-1, IncP)	RK2/RP4 [BN000925]	MOB_P MPF_T	321	2	F	[93]
PInc-2 (IncP-2)	Rms139* [LC653116]	MOB_P MPF_I	87	2	E	[20,94]
PInc-3 (IncP-3, IncA/C)	pRA1 (IncA) [FJ705807] pR55 (IncC) [JQ010984]	MOB_H MPF_F	921	2	E	[95,96]
PInc-4 (IncP-4, IncQ)	RSF1010 [M28829]	MOB_Q -	695	2	F	[97]

PInc-5 (IncP-5)	Rms163* [LC685027]	NA NA	2	1	B	[21]
PInc-6 (IncP-6, IncG)	Rms149 [AJ877225]	MOB_P -	119	NA	-	[49]
PInc-7 (IncP-7)	pCAR1 [AB088420]	MOB_H MPF_F	23	2	H	[98–100]
PInc-9 (IncP-9)	pWW0 [AJ344068] NAH7 [AB237655] Rsu2* [LC685593]	MOB_F MPF_T	34	2	A	[24,101,102]
PInc-10 (IncP-10)	R91-5 [X54695d] pPAB546 [MN433456]	NA NA	49	1	C	[29,30]
PInc-11	RP1-1* [LC700336]	MOB_c	23	1	C	[25]

(IncP-11)		NA				
PInc-12 **(IncP-12)**	R716* [LC685026]	NA NA	9	2	F	[26]
- **(IncP-13)**	pMG26*e [LC685025]	MOB$_F$ MPF$_G$	NA	NA	-	[27,28]
PInc-15 **(PromA)**	pSN1104-11 [AP018707]	MOB$_P$ MPF$_T$	42	2	G	[103]
PInc-16	pSN1216-29 [AP018710]	MOB$_P$ MPF$_T$	24	2	E	[37]
PInc-17	pQBR103 [AM235768]	NA NA MOB$_F$ MPF$_F$	11	2	E	[38]
PInc-18 **(Inc$_{pSTY}$)**	pSTY [CP003962]	MOB$_F$ MPF$_F$	15	2	H	[39]

pPT23-C1_1
[AP040308]

Table 2. Representative plasmid replicon databases and their sequence features.

Host bacteria	Database	Latest version	Sequence	Coding region	Reference
Enterococcus spp. *Staphylococcus spp.* *Enterobacterales*	PlasmidFinder	v2.1 (Apr 19, 2025)	488	Full-length, partial, or not included	[9]
Enterococcus spp. *Staphylococcus spp.* *Enterobacterales*	MOB-typer*	v3.1.9 (Jun 4, 2024)	2,685	Full-length, partial, or not included	[72,104]
Acinetobacter spp.	AcinetobacterPlasmidTyping	v3.0 (Feb 12, 2025)	555	Full-length	[55]
Pseudomonas spp.	PseudomonasRepDB	v1.0 (This study)	404	Full-length, or partial	This study
All bacteria	WHRepDB	v1.0 (This study)	12,923	Partial (WH domain)	This study

911 *The "IncP" labels by the MOB-typer database should be interpreted with caution. In some cases, sequences are reported
912 as "IncP", although they do not correspond to the correct incompatibility group classification[32].

Figure legend

Figure 1. Features of plasmids of PInc groups in the PLSDB.

Distribution of (A) plasmid sizes (kb) and (B) GC contents (%), and (C) ratio of core and accessory genes of each PInc plasmids in the PLSDB. (D) Relationship of each PInc plasmids to other plasmid replicons (left) and ARGs (right) in the PLSDB. "rep_cluster" contains different types of replicons identified by MOB-typer. 'N.D.' indicates not detected. A sankey diagram was generated using the SankeyWidget library in Python through in-house programming.

Figure 2. Large-scale phylogeny of WH RIPs and its links to plasmid diversity across public databases.

(A) Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of WH RIPs reconstructed from HHblits-defined homologous regions spanning the conserved WH domain and its flanking sequences. The tree was built from 4,769 representative sequences clustered at 50% identity. Annotation rings show clade and subclade assignments together with stacked-bar summaries of Pfam annotation, taxonomy, environment, and replicon-typing information associated with linked plasmids. Curved lines drawn in the centre connect WH RIPs co-occurring in the same multi-replicon plasmids; line colours indicate the taxonomy of the corresponding plasmid hosts. Links for plasmids without taxonomic assignment were omitted from this visualization. (B) Summary of the eight clades (A–H) and 42 subclades, with SH-aLRT and UFBoot2 support values shown for major nodes. Representative PInc groups and other known replicon types associated with each clade are indicated. (C) Numbers and proportions of plasmids in PLSDB and IMG/PR linked to leaves in the WH RIP phylogeny. (D) Rank-abundance distribution of linked plasmids per tree leaf. (E) Taxonomic composition of multi-replicon plasmids carrying multiple WH RIPs in PLSDB and IMG/PR, stratified by the number of WH replicons per plasmid. Gray indicates plasmids without taxonomic assignment; in IMG/PR, all gray fractions correspond to taxonomy-undefined plasmids. (F) Pfam annotation profiles of phylogeny-linked RIPs across clades (left) and clade composition within each Pfam category (right). Sample sizes are indicated next to the bars.

Figure 3. Domain architecture and predicted structural features of representative Rep proteins from PInc plasmids.

(A) Domain organization of representative Rep proteins from PInc plasmids, including Rep pSN2, Rep p14035, Rep pOXA-48, Rep pSK41, RepP-16A, RepP-4A, RepP-15A, and RepP-7A. N- and C-termini are indicated. Winged-helix (WH)

domains (WH1, WH2) and conserved replication-associated domains (e.g., RepL [PF05732], Bac_RepA_C [PF18008], IncFII_repA [PF02387], RepA_N [PF06970], RPA [PF10134], RepC [PF06504], RepA_C [PF04796], Rep3_N [PF01051], Rep3_C [PF21205]) are shown. Predicted oligomeric states (dimer or monomer) are indicated. (B) Pairwise protein sequence identity among representative Rep proteins. (C) Predicted three-dimensional structures of representative Rep proteins and their DNA-binding modes. Structural models highlight the arrangement of WH domains and predicted interactions with DNA, illustrating diversity in oligomeric state and DNA recognition mechanisms among PInc replicons.

Figure 4. Taxonomic, ecological, compositional and functional diversification across the eight WH RIP clades.

(A) Taxonomic distribution of WH RIP clades among linked plasmids in PLSDB and IMG/PR. Upper panels show the percentage distribution of taxa across clades; lower panels show clade composition within each taxon. PLSDB follows NCBI taxonomy and IMG/PR follows GTDB taxonomy. (B) Environmental distribution of WH RIP clades among IMG/PR-linked plasmids derived from metagenomic and metatranscriptomic datasets. Upper panel shows the percentage distribution of environments across clades; lower panel shows clade composition within each environment. (C) RIP amino-acid length versus plasmid length across clades. Scatter plots show RIP length versus plasmid length, and boxplots summarize clade-wise distributions. (D) RIP GC content versus RIP–plasmid GC difference across clades. Scatter plots show RIP GC content versus the difference between RIP and plasmid GC content, and boxplots summarize clade-wise distributions. (E) RIP isoelectric point (pI) versus RIP–plasmid proteome pI difference across clades. Scatter plots show RIP pI versus the difference between RIP and plasmid proteome pI, and boxplots summarize clade-wise distributions. (F) Distribution of MOB classes across clades. Upper panel shows the proportions within each clade; lower panel shows clade composition within each MOB class. (G) Distribution of MPF classes across clades. Upper panel shows the proportions within each clade; lower panel shows clade composition within each MPF class. (H) Distribution of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes across clades, shown as the proportions of plasmids carrying different numbers of ARGs per plasmid. (I) Distribution of defense systems across clades, shown as the proportions of plasmids carrying different numbers of defense systems per plasmid. (J) Distribution of metal resistance genes across clades. Upper panel shows the proportions of plasmids carrying different numbers of metal resistance determinants per plasmid; lower panels show the proportions of individual metal resistance classes within each clade and clade composition within each metal resistance class. Sample sizes are indicated next to the bars.

Figure 5. Integrated overview of the eight WH RIP clades.

The tree is partitioned into the sWH and dWH superclades, corresponding to single- and double-winged-helix replication initiation proteins, with branch support values

shown at the major internal nodes. For each clade, the figure summarizes domain arrangement, representative Pfam domains, characteristic plasmid and RIP features, compositional properties, predominant host taxonomic distribution, environmental association, and major accessory functional traits. Feature labels were assigned as an integrated summary of the dominant structural, compositional, taxonomic, ecological, and functional patterns observed across Figures 2–4; terms such as "enriched," "poor," and "associated" summarize the predominant tendencies within each clade rather than fixed categorical thresholds. Branch support values were derived from the WH RIP phylogeny shown in Figure 2.

Contributions

YN, HS, MS, MS conceived, designed, and supervised the study. KK, TK, NI, MT, HX, YT, AH, RM, HD, MS, HS, MS performed the experiments and data analysis. YN, RM, HD, KK, HN, MS, HS, MS wrote, reviewed, and edited the manuscript. All authors contributed to manuscript revision, read and approved the submitted version.

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H
- Pfam: Rep3
- small-plasmid enriched
- largest clade
- broad taxonomy
- many Bacteroidota
- ARG-poor

G
- Pfam: RepA_C
- broad size range / high GC
- Actinomycetota-enriched
- soil-associated / MOBF-biased

F
- Pfam: TrfA, RepC, Rep3
- largest plasmids
- freshwater / plant-associated
- MOBF, MPF_F
- ARG-, defense-, metal-resistance-rich

E
- Pfam: RPA
- relatively high GC
- Alphaproteobacteria-enriched
- marine-associated / MOBQ-enriched

domain arrangement

dWH RIP
WH1 | WH2

sWH RIP
WH

aLRT: 99

aLRT: 88

aLRT: 92

A
- Pfam: RepL, HTH_36
- host-associated
- broad taxonomy
- short RIPs / small plasmids
- MOBV-enriched

B
- Pfam: HTH_36, DUF6017
- low-GC plasmids
- host-associated
- Bacillota-enriched
- defense-rich

C
- Pfam: IncFII_repA
- high GC / high pI
- Gammaproteobacteria-enriched
- MOBF, MPF_F, ARG-rich
- metal-resistance-rich

D (RepA_N box)
- Pfam: RepA_N
- low GC / low pI
- Bacillota-enriched
- MPF_FATA-enriched
- ARG- and defense-rich
- Cd/As-resistance-rich