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, yet their deep evolutionary relationships 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 that interacts with DNA, defining a broad WH RIP superfamily. Using the conserved WH region, we reconstructed a large-scale phylogeny that linked WH RIPs to nearly one hundred thousand plasmids, representing approximately half of all plasmids, across public databases and resolved deep evolutionary structure, clade-specific host and environmental distributions, and substantial RIP diversity not captured by current typing tools or annotation schemes. This framework overcomes the historical host bias of plasmid typing and provides 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]. Plasmids are recognized as major vehicles for the global spread of antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs), representing a critical threat to public health[3–5]. As recent large-scale sequencing efforts have revealed an unexpectedly vast and heterogeneous collection of plasmids[6,7], a systematic framework is essential for organizing this complexity and for interpreting plasmid evolution in a coherent manner. Therefore, a standardized plasmid classification framework is urgently required.

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 been developed that incorporate Inc group names into their classification schemes. Although sequence-based methods have improved classification coverage, they still fall short of delivering a macroevolutionary perspective. For example, replicon typing[9] assigns plasmids to groups based on nucleotide sequence homology of characteristic *rep* genes encoding replication initiation proteins (RIPs). Plasmid taxonomic units (PTUs)[10,11] cluster plasmids into taxon-like groups using whole-plasmid nucleotide similarity. Relaxase-based

approaches[10,12,13] have also expanded classification by grouping plasmids according to the phylogeny of their relaxase proteins, which serve as key markers of conjugative and mobilizable plasmids. Limitations arise because replicon- and whole-sequence-based approaches rely solely on nucleotide similarity, which obscures remote homology among deeply divergent plasmids. In contrast, the relaxase-based schemes exclude more than half of plasmids, which lack a relaxase gene[8], and thus cannot serve as a universal backbone for plasmid classification. Consequently, current classification schemes do not fully resolve how plasmids are related across deep evolutionary time.

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[14]. 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* [15,16]. However, despite their importance, some are not only under-characterized but also lack nucleotide sequence information, relying solely on their original incompatibility phenotypes.

We here constructed 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 plasmids hosted by *Pseudomonas*. Keeping focus on RIPs, we identified conserved but distantly homologous winged-helix (WH) domain within RIPs in most PInc groups and other many plasmids, suggesting a common evolutionary origin of the RIPs. Building on this observation, we reconstructed extended phylogeny of RIPs with the conserved WH domain. The phylogeny classifies many yet unclassified plasmids and uncovers the diversification and macroevolutionary trajectory of plasmids based on the replication system.

Results and Discussion

Sequencing and molecular characterization of *Pseudomonas* plasmids

We determined the complete nucleotide sequences of six *Pseudomonas* plasmids: Rms139 (IncP-2)[17], Rms163 (IncP-5)[18,19], Rsu2 (IncP-9)[20,21], RP1-1 (IncP-11)[22], R716 (IncP-12)[23], and pMG26 (IncP-13)[24]. 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[26,27] is available, we selected pPAB546 as

a representative (Supplemental Text S1). Sequencing of pMG26, previously assigned as

IncP-13 plasmid[28], 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[29].

Some Inc groups were excluded from PInc, because IncP-8[30] and IncP-13 (this study)

were identified as ICEs, or due to material unavailability for IncP-14[31]. 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[32,33]), PInc-16 (pSN1216-29-like group[34]), PInc-17 (pQBR103-like group[35]), and

PInc-18 (pSTY-like group[36]) (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). 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 RIPs of 2,351 plasmids in the PLSDB (59,895 plasmids) to PInc

(Tables S2), 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 [37–

39], 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.

Remote homology analysis reveals evolutionary divergence among plasmid RIPs

Remote homology among RIPs from the 14 homologous groups was assessed using HHblits[40], 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[41] 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)[42] all contain two conserved winged-helix domains, here termed WH1 and WH2. By contrast, only two crystal structures are available for sWH RIPs[43] (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. To determine their evolutionary origin, we next searched against 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[44], a member of the archaeo-eukaryotic primases (AEPs)[45] superfamily. Consistent with this assignment, G-PInc-6 RIPs[46,47] also contain a PriCT domain implicated in DNA unwinding[44]. Together, these observations identify G-PInc-6 RIPs as AEP-superfamily initiators and therefore as evolutionarily distinct from the WH-containing RIPs.

Based on this shared homologous domain across the sWH and dWH supergroups, we define these proteins as a WH RIPs superfamily. A previous structure-based study reported deep evolutionary relationships among helix-turn-helix (HTH) domains, including WH domains[48], 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[49], both of which function in origin recognition for the chromosomal replication[50]. 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.

WH RIP phylogeny resolves RIP diversity across from nearly 100K plasmids

A phylogeny of WH RIPs from the 13 homologous groups was reconstructed using the shared homologous region identified by HHblits (Figure 2A). The maximum likelihood tree was built from 4,769 representative sequences clustered at 50% identity, selected from RIPs identified in 34,724 PLSDB plasmids and 95,057 UniParc proteins (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[51]. Together, these results suggest an early evolutionary transition in WH RIPs, involving either acquisition of an additional WH domain or loss of one ancestral WH domain (i.e. WH1 of dWH RIPs).

To place this phylogeny in the context of plasmid diversity, we surveyed associated plasmids in the public plasmid databases PLSDB and IMG/PR. PLSDB is enriched in plasmids from cultivated isolates, whereas IMG/PR contains many 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 118,302 phylogeny-linked RIPs associated with 99,395 plasmids. These included 14,745 plasmids (14.8% of phylogeny-linked plasmids) identified as multi-replicons carrying multiple WH RIPs (Figure 2A). Most of these were derived from Gammaproteobacteria, although other taxa, including Bacillota, Actinomycetota, Bacteroidota, and Campylobacterota, were also represented (Figure 2D). Of the 118,302 phylogeny-linked RIPs, 62,046 (52.4%) from 58,878 plasmids were newly identified and were not detected by existing replicon typing tools, including PlasmidFinder, MOB-suite, and AcinetobacterPlasmidTyping[52], or by the PInc framework defined here. Furthermore, 28,951 RIPs (24.5%) from 25,675 plasmids lacked any Pfam domain annotation (Figure 2E), 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 current annotation frameworks.

The distribution of plasmids across the tree was highly uneven. Only 2,081 leaves
(43.6%) were linked to plasmids, and just 26 leaves were associated with more than
1,000 plasmids each. Together, these accounted for 61,767 plasmids (62.1% of
phylogeny-linked plasmids). Mapping of PInc and other replicon types using
PlasmidFinder and AcinetobacterPlasmidTyping further showed that annotated replicon
types were broadly distributed across clades (Figure 2B). RIPs from 2,205 PInc plasmids
mapped to 17 leaves spanning seven clades except for clade D. In addition, 38, 32, and
32 leaves were associated with gram-positive, Enterobacterales, and *Acinetobacter*
replicon types, respectively. In total, only 118 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.

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[42,53] (see Methods), identified WH domains linked to
conserved replication-associated domains, including RepA_N/C, Rep3_N/C, IncFII_repA.
The Bac_RepA_C domain, which does not overlap the WH region, has been implicated
in interactions with DnaG primase[43]. Based on 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
the structural diversification of Rep proteins underlying plasmid evolution.

WH RIP phylogeny highlights evolutionary constraints for plasmid dispersion.

We analyzed 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, clade C 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 22,359 Bacteroidota plasmids, most of which were assigned to clades A and H. 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 analysed IMG/PR-linked plasmids, for which environmental metadata were available from metagenomic and metatranscriptomic datasets. Environmental distributions were non-random across WH RIP clades and were not fully explained by host taxonomy alone (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. Host-associated environments, including human, mammals and built environment, were dominated primarily by clades H and A. By contrast, plants, soil, freshwater and bioreactor samples showed more diverse clade mixtures, with increased contributions from clades C, E, F and G. These observations indicate that plasmid ecological distribution is shaped not only by host lineage, but also by clade-specific constraints on dispersal.

Further evolutionary insights into the eight clades.

The eight WH RIP clades also differed markedly in plasmid size, RIP length and GC composition. Clade A was associated with the smallest plasmids and the shortest RIPs, with median plasmid length and RIP length of 3.2 kb and 185 aa, respectively (Figure 4C). Clade H also tended to occur in relatively small plasmids (median 6.8 kb), although its RIPs were substantially longer than those of clade A (median 325 aa). By contrast, clades C, E and F were enriched in larger plasmids, with median lengths of 98.5, 112.6 and 143.9 kb, respectively, whereas clade B was also associated with relatively large plasmids despite its limited taxonomic range. Clade G showed particularly broad size variation, spanning both small and very large plasmids, indicating substantial architectural diversity within this clade.

Clear clade-specific differences were also observed in GC composition. Clades B and D were associated with the lowest-GC plasmids, which may partly reflect their taxonomic bias towards Bacillota, whereas clades E and G showed the highest plasmid GC values, with medians of 52.6% and 60.6% (Figure 4D). RIP GC content broadly tracked plasmid-wide GC content, but clade C was distinctive in showing substantially higher GC in RIPs than in their plasmid backgrounds (median 57.0% versus 51.5%). A similar but weaker tendency was also evident in clades E and G. In addition, N-ARSC, defined here as the mean number of nitrogen atoms in amino acid side chains, was markedly elevated in clade C RIPs relative to the plasmid proteome as a whole (median 0.565 versus 0.396)

(Figure 4E). This difference is likely explained by enrichment of positively charged
residues, particularly lysine and arginine, and may reflect compositional adaptation
related to DNA binding (Figure S8). Together, these patterns indicate that the eight
clades occupy distinct regions of plasmid architectural and compositional space,
reflecting long-term divergence in both replication systems and their genomic contexts.

Accessory functions also differed sharply among WH RIP clades. MOBP and MOBQ were
detected across most clades, but other MOB classes were much more clade-specific
(Figure 4F). Notably, clade A showed a remarkably high prevalence of MOBV despite
being associated with relatively small plasmids, suggesting that compact plasmid
architecture does not preclude efficient mobilization potential. MPF repertoires also
varied among clades: some MPF types were broadly distributed, whereas others showed
clear clade bias, and MPF modules were nearly absent from clade A. AMR and defense
systems were similarly unevenly distributed, showing marked clade-to-clade variation
both in the proportion of plasmids carrying these functions and in the number of genes
encoded per plasmid (Figure 4G).

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 RIP length, GC composition, host distribution and environmental
association. Notably, clades G and H, as well as clades B, C and D, form well-supported
higher-level assemblages, 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.

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 RIPs with sequence-
based classification, PInc expands the repertoire of identifiable plasmid replicons and
provides a framework for plasmid classification through their replication systems.

Homology searches beyond PInc plasmids revealed that most replication initiators
analyzed here share a conserved WH domain, defining a WH RIP superfamily. Further

remote homology analysis resolved this superfamily into sWH and dWH superclades and uncovered homology between the WH domain of sWH RIPs and the WH2 domain of dWH RIPs, suggesting a shared origin-recognition module across a broad range of plasmids. By contrast, G-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 this conserved WH region, we reconstructed a large-scale phylogeny that linked WH RIPs to nearly 100,000 plasmids across public databases. This phylogeny resolved deep evolutionary structure, revealed clade-specific host and environmental distributions, and captured a substantial fraction of RIP diversity not detected by existing typing tools or current annotation schemes. Notably, several lineages not covered by current plasmid typing systems, including Bacteroidota, Campylobacterota, Thermodesulfobacterota and Fusobacterota, could be placed within the WH RIP phylogeny. In this way, our approach overcomes the historical host bias of plasmid classification and connects plasmids from both well-studied and environmental bacteria within a single phylogenetic framework. More broadly, this phylogeny illuminates relationships among WH RIPs beyond lineage-restricted typing systems and provides a basis for understanding the evolutionary trajectories of host transitions and replication-system diversification in plasmids.

At present, this evolutionary landscape is limited to plasmids carrying WH RIPs. Extending the same framework to additional initiator classes, including AEP-type and rolling-circle replication proteins, should further broaden the phylogenetic landscape of plasmids and provide a route 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[54] 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 synthesized 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[54].

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[55]) 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[56]. 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[57]. Subsequently, the plasmid reads were extracted from the remaining contigs using SAMtools v1.7[58] and SeqKit v0.8.0[59] and reassembled using SPAdes[60]. For RP1-1 and pMG26, gaps in plasmids were closed by PCR with the designed primer sets based on the ends of contigs and Sanger sequencing of the PCR products.

Gene annotation of plasmids

Gene annotations of the plasmids were performed using DFAST-core v1.2.5[61] 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[62]. 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[63,64]. 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=gfindb)
[65]. 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 37°C 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[41]. 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[66]. 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[43,67] 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 grey.

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)[7,68]. 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)[69], PlasmidFinder v2.1 updated on

2023-12-04 (https://bitbucket.org/genomicepidemiology/plasmidfinder_db)

(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26778199)[70], 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. 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[71].

For the final dataset, the sequence length (bp) and GC content (%, %GC) were calculated
using SeqKit v2.3.0 (https://bioinf.shenwei.me/seqkit/)[59]. 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.

Pangenome analysis of plasmids

A pangenome, i.e., the entire set of protein genes from all members of a defined group
(all the plasmids of the PInc groups), was analyzed using PIRATE[72]
(https://github.com/SionBayliss/PIRATE). Here, we used DIAMOND v0.9.14[73] rather
than BLAST[74] 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 visualization 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 analyze 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 cluster v15-6f452[75]. Sequence homology
between the non-redundant proteins was assessed using BLASTp[74], and the resultant
hits were visualized 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 (n = 20,331,985)[76] for homologous RIPs
using hmmsearch of HMMER v3.3.2[77]. 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 on 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

transcriptional 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 v3.3.0[78]. We extracted the homologous regions of the alignments of the 13 groups (containing 6,793 sequences in total). These regions were aligned using MAFFT v7.455[79]. After removing the gappy sequences in the alignment, a maximum-likelihood phylogeny of WH RIPs was reconstructed using the alignment and IQ-TREE v2.2.2.6[80]. We used the parameters "--perturb 0.2 --nstop 500", following the recommendation of the reference manual of the software, in case that many short sequences are included. The best fit model (Q.pfam+F+R10) was selected using ModelFinder[81]. We evaluated the supporting values of the best tree with UFBoot2[82] and SH-aLRT[83] via IQ-TREE. We discarded the abnormally long branches using treeshrink[84]. Overall, the tree structure of sWH RIPs and dWH RIPS exhibits a single, highly supported split (UFBoot2: 89.4%, SH-aLRT: 88%). Since our assumption is that this split represents the root of the tree and corresponds to an ancestral event that led to either the acquisition or the loss of a WH domain, the resultant tree was provisionally rooted by the sWH-dWH split using gotree v0.4.0[85]. The tree-associated PLSDB plasmids, UniParc proteins, and IMG/PR[6] plasmids were identified based on sequence homology search results. Taxonomic affiliation was assigned based on PLSDB plasmids and UniParc proteins, and environmental affiliation was based on IMG/PR plasmids. A detailed information related to the phylogenetic tree is available in Figshare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28837559).

Data Availability

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 is available online.

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.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Prof. Dr. S. Iyobe of the Gumma University School of Medicine and Prof. Dr. M. Tsuda of Tohoku University for providing Rms139, Rms163, RP1-1, R716, and pMG26. Computation time was provided by the Super Computer System, Institute for Chemical Research, Kyoto University.

Funding

This work was supported by grants (JP24wm0225029 to Y. Tsuda; JP24gm1610007 to A. Hirabayashi; JP24fk0108665, JP24fk0108683, JP24fk0108712, JP24fk0108642, JP24gm1610003, JP24wm0225029, and JP24wm0225022 to M. Suzuki; JP22wm0325022 and JP22wm0225008 to M. Shintani) from the Japan Agency for Medical Research and Development (AMED), grants (JPMJAX21BK to Y. Nishimura; 19H02869 and 19H05679 to H. Nojiri; 20K10436 and JPMJCR20H1 to H. Suzuki; 22KK0058 and 23K06556 to M. Suzuki; 16H06279, 19H02869, 19H05686, and JP23H02124 to M. Shintani) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), Japan, grants to Y. Nishimura, M. Tokuda, X. Hui, C. Suzuki-Minakuchi, H. Nojiri, H. Suzuki, M. Suzuki, and M. Shintani from Consortium for the Exploration of Microbial Functions of Ohsumi Frontier Science Foundation, Japan, a grant from Asahi Glass Foundation to M. Shintani, a grant to M. Shintani from Institute of Fermentation Osaka (L-2023-1-002), National University Corporation Shizuoka University, Japan, and a grant to M. Shintani from the Research Institute of Green Science and Technology Fund for Research Project Support (2023-RIGST-23104), National University Corporation Shizuoka University, Japan.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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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	[86]
PInc-2 (IncP-2)	Rms139* [LC653116]	MOB_P MPF_I	87	2	E	[17,87]
PInc-3 (IncP-3, IncA/C)	pRA1 (IncA) [FJ705807] pR55 (IncC) [JQ010984]	MOB_H MPF_F	921	2	E	[88,89]
PInc-4 (IncP-4, IncQ)	RSF1010 [M28829]	MOB_Q -	695	2	F	[90]
PInc-5 (IncP-5)	Rms163* [LC685027]	NA NA	2	1	B	[18]

PInc class	Plasmid [accession]	MOB / MPF				Ref
PInc-6 **(IncP-6, IncG)**	Rms149 [AJ877225]	MOB_P -	119	NA	-	46
PInc-7 **(IncP-7)**	pCAR1 [AB088420]	MOB_H MPF_F	23	2	H	91–93
PInc-9 **(IncP-9)**	pWW0 [AJ344068] NAH7 [AB237655] Rsu2* [LC685593]	MOB_F MPF_T	34	2	A	21,94,95
PInc-10 **(IncP-10)**	R91-5 [X54695[d]] pPAB546 [MN433456]	NA NA	49	1	C	26,27
PInc-11 **(IncP-11)**	RP1-1* [LC700336]	MOB_c NA	23	1	C	22

PInc-12 (IncP-12)	R716* [LC685026]	NA NA	9	2	F	23
- (IncP-13)	pMG26*e [LC685025]	MOBF MPFG	NA	NA	-	24,25
PInc-15 (PromA)	pSN1104-11 [AP018707]	MOBP MPFT	42	2	G	96
PInc-16	pSN1216-29 [AP018710]	MOBP MPFT	24	2	E	34
PInc-17	pQBR103 [AM235768]	NA NA MOBF MPFF	11	2	E	35
PInc-18 (IncpSTY)	pSTY [CP003962] pPT23-C1_1 [AP040308]	MOBF MPFF	15	2	H	36

[a]Names of plasmid Inc groups originating from Pseudomonas and/or Enterobacterales are shown in parentheses. Some Inc groups

have been historically given different names depending on their host, *Pseudomonas* or *Enterobacterales*, but they represent the same

plasmid group (e.g., IncP-1 in *Pseudomonas* corresponds to IncP in *Enterobacterales*). For PInc-18, the name "Inc$_{pSTY}$" was adopted

from a previous study by another research group[36]. [b]Representative plasmid name [GenBank accession number]. Asterisks (*) indicate

plasmids whose complete nucleotide sequences were determined in this study (Rms139, Rms163, Rsu2, RP1-1, R716, and pMG26).

[c]Classification of relaxase-based MOB classes and MPF types was identified by the MOB-suite with criteria of >=90% identity and

>=60% coverage. "-" indicates that the genes involved in conjugation have not been detected, whereas "NA" indicates that the classes

and types of MOB or MPF were not identified although the plasmid was self-transmissible. [d]Partial DNA sequences are available.

[e]pMG26 was shown to be not a plasmid but an integrative and conjugative element in this study.

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 the conserved homologous region shared across 13 RIP groups. The tree was built from 4,769 representative sequences clustered at 50% identity. Outer annotations indicate clade and subclade assignment, Pfam annotation, taxonomy of linked plasmids in PLSDB and IMG/PR, environmental category of linked IMG/PR plasmids, and replicon typing information. The major split separates the sWH and dWH superclades, corresponding to RIPs with one or two winged-helix domains, respectively. Curved lines in the center indicate co-occurrence of WH RIPs in the same multi-replicon plasmids, colored by host taxonomy. (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) Taxonomic composition of multi-replicon plasmids carrying multiple WH RIPs in PLSDB and IMG/PR, stratified by the number of WH replicons per plasmid. (E) Distribution of Pfam annotations 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, percentage distribution of environments across clades; lower panel, clade composition within each environment. (C) RIP amino-acid length versus plasmid length across clades, with violin plots summarizing clade-wise distributions. (D) RIP GC content versus the difference between RIP and plasmid GC content, with violin plots summarizing clade-wise distributions. (E) RIP N-ARSC (nitrogen atoms per residue side chain) versus their differences from the corresponding plasmid proteomes, with violin plots summarizing clade-wise distributions. (F) Distribution of MOB classes, MPF classes and Pfam domain annotations across clades. Upper panels show the proportions within each clade; lower panels show clade composition within each category. (G) Distribution of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes and defense systems across clades, shown as the proportions of plasmids carrying different numbers of AMR or defense genes. Sample sizes are indicated next to the bars.

Figure 5. Integrated evolutionary landscape of the eight WH RIP clades.

Summary of the major features distinguishing 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 size, GC composition, predominant host taxonomic distribution and environmental association. This integrated view illustrates that the major split between sWH and dWH RIPs is accompanied by broad differences in domain organization and plasmid architecture, whereas the individual clades are further distinguished by characteristic combinations of compositional, taxonomic and ecological features.

H
pfam: Rep3_N, Rep3_C
largest clade
diverse size, %GC

taxonomy: widely distributed,
including many Bacteroidota
environment: ubiquitous

G
pfam: RepA_C
long and high %GC and plasmids

many Actinomycetota and
Acidobacteriota plasmids
enriched in: soil

F
pfam: TrfA, RepC
long plasmids

taxonomy: enriched in Betaproteobacteria
enriched in: aquatic and
plant-associated environments

E
pfam: RPA

long and high %GC plasmids

taxonomy: many Actinomycetota and Acidobacteriota plasmids
enriched in: aquatic (especially) marine environments

domain arrangement

dWH RIP
WH1 | WH2

sWH RIP
WH

UFBoot: 99
aLRT: 89.4
UFBoot: 92

A
pfam: RepL

short RIPs, short plasmids

taxonomy: widely distributed,
including Pseudomonadota, Bacteroidota, Gram-positives
environment: host-associated

B
pfam: HTH_36, DUF6017

low %GC plasmids

taxonomy: enriched in Bacillota
environment: host-associated

C
pfam: IncFII_repA

taxonomy: enriched in Gammaproteobacteria
environment: aquatic and plant-associated

D
pfam: RepA_N, DUF6017

low %GC plasmids

taxonomy: enriched in Bacillota
environment: mammal-associated