1   **Megaplasmids associate with *Escherichia coli* and other *Enterobacteriaceae***
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Summary

Humans and animals are ubiquitously colonized by *Enterobacteriaceae*, a bacterial family that

contains both commensals and clinically significant pathogens. Here, we report

Enterobacteriaceae megaplasmids of up to 1.58 Mbp in length in infant and adult guts, and other

microbiomes. Of 19 complete plasmid genomes, one was reconstructed from an *E. coli* isolate;

others were linked to species of *Citrobacter* and *Enterobacter* via analysis of genome modification

patterns. The detection of related plasmids in different *Enterobacteriaceae*, conjugation

machinery, and more diverse modified motifs in certain plasmids compared to hosts suggests that

these elements are self-transmissible, with a broad host range. The plasmids encode multi-drug

efflux systems and potential secreted effectors. Up to 208 tRNAs are encoded and include

sequence variants that may counter tRNA-centric defense mechanisms. Overall, the vast

megaplasmid coding capacity may broaden host range, increase competitiveness, control invasion

by other elements, and counter programmed cell death.

Keywords: Plasmids, megaplasmids, *Enterobacteriaceae*, human gut microbiome, *Escherichia*

coli, antibiotic resistance, secretion systems, methylation, preterm infants, *Salmonella enterica*,

virulence

Introduction

Plasmids are extrachromosomal elements that generally do not encapsulate and often can move between hosts. They are interesting from the perspective of lateral gene transfer, including medically relevant capacities such as antibiotic resistance and pathogenicity[1]. They may also encode host-relevant genes and hold high technological significance, for example, as genetic tools[2]. More broadly, they are integral and often overlooked components of microbial communities and evolution[3,4].

The sizes of plasmid genomes can range from a few thousand base pairs to well over a million base pairs (i.e., megaplasmids - generally defined as plasmids >350 kb)[5]. Larger plasmids tend to have low copy numbers (PCNs), often a 1:1 ratio with the chromosome, and more metabolic capacities as compared to their smaller, higher copy-number counterparts[6–8]. Chromids and secondary chromosomes are large replicons with essential core genes. Secondary replicons in *Burkholderiales* with genomes of 2.1 - 3.36 Mbp were first suggested as megaplasmids, although an alternative classification as chromids or secondary chromosomes is now preferred[9–12]. Chromids, common in species of *Burkholderia*, *Brucella*, *Agrobacterium*, and *Vibrio*, tend to have plasmid-like replication and partitioning systems indicative of their origins from megaplasmids[5,13–16]. Secondary chromosomes are believed to have evolved from fragments of ancestral chromosomes[5,15]. Chromids and secondary chromosomes are often distinguished from megaplasmids by their essentiality and compositional signatures (e.g., GC content, codon usage) shared with the host's primary chromosome[5,14,15].

The best known megaplasmids are from *Rhizobium* (*Alphaproteobacteria*), with genomes up to 2.83 Mbp[17], and 1.8 Mb plasmids of *Streptomyces clavuligerus* (*Actinomycetes*) with linear

genomes[18]. In groundwater samples, the largest plasmids reported were circular and 2.96 and

1.74 Mb in length[19]. Surveys of plasmids from NCBI RefSeq and plasmid-specific databases

representing diverse environments suggest a generally low prevalence of plasmids-like entities >1

Mb (0.03% - 1.17%) that mostly associate with *Alphaproteobacteria*[20–24]. Here, we report

Enterobacteriaceae megaplasmids, including some that associate with *E. coli*. *E. coli* plasmids

have been studied intensively, but the sizes of the best researched examples range from ~5.8 kb

(ColE1) to ~100 kb (F (fertility) plasmid)[25,26]. In a collection of ~4,500 circular *E. coli* plasmid

genomes, the average size was 50 kb, although some clinically relevant IncF plasmids have ~150

kb genomes[27].

We show that *Enterobacteriaceae* megaplasmids are widely detected in human and animal

microbiomes, and notably, that they can be present in the microbiomes of preterm infants, which

are especially prone to colonization by *E. coli, Klebsiella, Enterobacter* and *Citrobacter*[28–30].

Previous detection of these sometimes highly abundant megaplasmids was likely prevented by

assembly fragmentation and general focus on bacterial host genomes. Our analyses employed

long-read and short-read sequencing along with manual curation to generate 20 confident,

circularized genomes, of which 19 are fully validated and complete. *In silico* protein structure

prediction was used to improve functional assignments, and methylation pattern analysis

uncovered plasmid-host associations. Overall, we report new aspects of *Enterobacteriaceae*

plasmid biology, with implications for the understanding of host bacteria that are especially

relevant in human microbiomes.

Results

Large extrachromosomal elements in human infant gut metagenomic data

Long-read sequencing of a stool metagenomic sample from a preterm infant (INF1340011) identified an unusual large linear contig that was curated using Illumina reads into a circular genome of 1,583,849 bp in length (pMEGA1 - **Table 1**). As the genome does not encode rRNAs, ribosomal proteins, or core bacterial metabolic functions, we inferred that pMEGA1 is an extrachromosomal element (ECE).

Using long-read sequencing, we detected pMEGA1 in three other samples for infant 1340011 and found a different (MASH distance 0.24) large ECE from infant 1330004, for which manual curation generated a circular, complete genome of 1,334,733 bp (pMEGA2) (**Tables 1, S2**). Subsequently, we identified another PacBio sequence for a circular 1.37 Mb element (pMEGA3) in INF1340011, which did not have sufficient Illumina reads for curation to confirm all base calls (**Table 1**). The genome shares 98.3% ANI (88.6% aligned fraction) with pMEGA2 (**Table S2**). Interestingly, throughout the first 8 weeks of life, the gut microbiome of INF1340011 harbored pMEGA1 and pMEGA3 concurrently (**Figure S1**). In both infants, these elements appeared as the gut microbiome shifted towards a community dominated by bacterial strains of the family *Enterobacteriaceae* (**Figures 1A, S1**). The maximum percentage of reads mapped to these ECEs in their respective infant gut samples was 15.74% for pMEGA1, 3.73% for pMEGA2, and 1.30% for pMEGA3 (**Figures 1A, S1; Tables S3, S4**).

Large extrachromosomal elements in bacterial isolates and various host-associated microbiomes

Through BlastP searches against NCBI, we identified an *Escherichia coli* isolate (strain G269_1R) from a rectal swab of a chicken from Bangkok, Thailand, with assembled fragments similar to pMEGA1[31]. After extensive manual curation of Oxford Nanopore long-read data with high-quality Illumina reads, we reconstructed a complete circular 1,415,043 bp genome (pMEGA4) that shares 95.8% ANI with pMEGA1 (85.0% aligned fraction) (**Tables 1, S2**). The host *E. coli* strain is a ST10 clone with a complete and polished 4,800,525 Mb genome and, in addition to pMEGA4, contains a 104 kb circular plasmid that we classified based on the presence of plasmid markers (i.e., *oriT*, *oriV*, relaxase, replication initiation protein, and partitioning proteins ParAB), and high similarity to other *E. coli* plasmids (NZ_CP070916.1, NZ_CP050045.1)[31].

We surveyed > 400 metagenomic and bacterial isolate sequencing projects and found compelling evidence for almost 100 high-quality ECEs related to pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 from diverse sample types across multiple continents (**Figures 1BCD, S2; Table S5**). We detected elements in 10 infants for which we had time series data; in three infants, these elements persisted within the gut microbiome for months (**Tables S6**). Interestingly, these ECEs were also found in at least 23 *Escherichia coli* and 12 *Salmonella spp.* isolates (**Figure S2**). We predicted the PCN to range between 0.17 and 7.06, with *Salmonella spp.* showing a higher average PCN (2.79) than *E. coli* isolates (0.59) (**Table S5**). On average, the pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 sequences represent 0.69% and 2.98% of reads in samples, respectively.

We manually curated and confirmed the circularity of an additional 16 elements (**Table**

S7). Given differences in size and GC content as well as ANI and MASH distance, we predict

there are two distinct clades: Clade 1 represented by pMEGA1 and 4, and Clade 2 by pMEGA2

and 3 (**Figure S3AB; Table S2**). There is some synteny across the elements, but there is also

evidence of extensive rearrangements (**Figure S3C**).

Identification of pMEGA elements as megaplasmids

Given that ECEs are dominated by relatively novel proteins, we used *in silico* protein

structure prediction in addition to other annotation tools to predict functional annotations for

pMEGAs 1-4 (**Methods**). We did not identify proteins that would suggest classification as

bacteriophages. Only a few genes encode proteins directly related to core bacterial metabolism,

suggesting that these elements are not secondary chromosomes/chromids (**Table S8**). Further

support against classification as a chromid or secondary chromosome is the difference in GC

content between pMEGA4 (25.98%) and its *E. coli* host genome (50.83%).

Consistent with the identification as megaplasmids, we identified genes for the partitioning

proteins (ParC,E (pMEGA4_1,2) components of Topoisomerase IV) and ParF (pMEGA4_1239),

a ParA family NTPase of the Type-Ib partitioning system typically co-located with ParG in low

copy number plasmids[32]. Although a ParG homolog was not identified, we identified PadC, a

protein with a ParB-like nuclease domain (pMEGA4_1030) known to interact with ParA.

We also identified most components of a Type IV secretion system within the first 80 kb

of the genome (e.g., (Vir/Dot/Icm proteins), two relaxases (pMEGA4_58, 1394), and two

subfamilies of replication initiation (Rep) proteins (**Figure S4AB; Tables S8, S9**). The putative

relaxases are most similar to the MOB_F family, which includes many large and conjugative

plasmids, and clade with plasmids from diverse bacterial hosts (**Figure S4B**)[33]. An intergenic AT-

rich region adjacent to a relaxase (pMEGA4_1394) could serve as an origin of transfer (OriT), but

this was not identified as such by oriTFinder2[34]. The predicted Rep proteins (pMEGA4_629, 1423)

share <31% amino acid identity with bacterial sequences and the predicted structures are similar

to those of RepC from an IncQ plasmid in *Salmonella enteritidis* and TrfA from an IncP plasmid

in *Escherichia coli* (**Figure S4C**). However, the Rep proteins form distinct phylogenetic clades,

and thus these plasmids are only distantly related to IncQ and IncP plasmids (**Figure S4A**). One

origin of replication (OriV) with five 18 bp direct repeats was detected upstream of

pMEGA4_1423, and another possible iteron-containing locus with less conserved repeats occurs

downstream of pMEGA4_629 (**Figure S4D**)[35]. These features, and a type IV coupling protein

(T4CP pMEGA4_20), indicate that these are self-transmissible conjugative megaplasmids[33,36].

***Enterobacteriaceae* host these megaplasmids**

pMEGA4 was reconstructed from an *E. coli* isolate, and pMEGA17 and near-identical

pMEGA18 were reconstructed from two impure *E. coli* isolates (**Table S7**). Incomplete

megaplasmid genomes were reconstructed from isolates of *Salmonella enterica* and *E. coli*. We

attempted to identify the pMEGA1, 2, and 3 hosts using DNA crosslinking applied to stool samples

from two infants, but the results were inconclusive. While most proteins (>66%) in pMEGA1-3

have an unknown taxonomic classification, ~8% have sequence similarity to members of the order

Enterobacterales (**Table S7**).

To further identify the pMEGA1-3 hosts, we used abundance-based correlation analysis.

The strongest correlation in abundance for pMEGA1 was with *Enterobacter cloacae* 1 (0.92), for

pMEGA2, *Citrobacter freundii* 1 (0.88), and for pMEGA3, *Klebsiella michiganensis* 1 (0.9)

(**Table S10**). We also investigated DNA modification patterns using PacBio HiFi reads and

compared potentially modified motifs shared between pMEGAs, coexisting bacterial genomes,

phage, and plasmids (**Figures 2, S5**). Strong overlap in modified motifs between pMEGA2 and

the *Citrobacter freundii* 1 genome supports the correlation-based host prediction. For pMEGA1,

which only shares motif patterns with pMEGA3, the results are inconclusive (**Figure S5**).

pMEGA3 has overlapping motifs with a *Citrobacter freundii* and an *Enterobacter cloacae* strain.

The pMEGAs have a greater number and diversity of modified motifs compared to bacterial

genomes within the same microbiome sample. Paralleling this, pMEGA4 encodes 21

methyltransferases (MTs), whereas the host *E. coli* genome encodes only 6 (**Table S11**).

pMEGA4 encodes a type-I-Fv CRISPR-Cas system with a complete Cas1-Cas2 integrase,

a Cas3 helicase-nuclease effector, and a compact Cascade surveillance complex likely encoding

only five subunits (**Figure S6A-D**)[37]. Components of these systems are not completely conserved

in all pMEGAs. Consistent with active adaptive immune activity, all pMEGAs contain CRISPR

arrays with between 27 and 220 spacers (**Table S7**). No CRISPR spacers from the pMEGAs

targeted coexisting bacterial genomes, and vice versa. However, pMEGAs share some CRISPR

spacer sequences with other pMEGAs from the same clade (but not between clades), and a subset

of plasmid CRISPR spacers target Cas genes of other pMEGAs (**Figure S6E**). Many spacers of

pMEGAs target plasmids from *Enterobacteriaceae*, consistent with the role of plasmid CRISPR

loci in plasmid-plasmid competition (**Figure S6E**).

We used CRISPR spacers from databases and metagenomes to search for targeting of

pMEGAs that may be indicative of megaplasmid host associations[38,39]. We identified 12 non-

redundant spacers (100% match) from 33 metagenomes and an isolate of *Proteus cibarius*

(*Enterobacteriaceae*) that target regions in at least one pMEGA (expectation for random match of

~e^{-11}) (**Table S12**). The *Proteus* isolate spacer targets a tRNA_Met locus that is conserved in

pMEGA1, 4, and 20[40]. Five of the 11 metagenome-derived spacers also target tRNAs. Overall,

based on isolate source, protein similarity, co-occurrence patterns, CRISPR targeting and

methylation analysis, we conclude that various *Enterobacteriaceae* host the megaplasmids.

To put these megabase-scale plasmids into context, we analyzed the PLSDB[21] and

IMG/PR[22] databases and estimated that of the >770,000 plasmids, there are 667 non-redundant >1

Mb genomes, all but four of which are from isolates. Only 30 were detected in

Gammaproteobacteria **(Figure S7).** In addition, nine circular and five linear >1 Mb secondary

replicons of *Enterobacteriaceae* genomes are listed in NCBI[23,41]. Given similar GC content

compared to the primary chromosome and genes for many core functions (including multiple

rRNAs in some cases), we suspected that they are not megaplasmids (**Supplementary**

information; Table S13). We assayed hypothetical gene content of the public putative

Enterobacteriaceae megaplasmids and found essentially no differences compared to the main

chromosome (24.9% vs 23.2%) (**Table S13**). This is in stark contrast to the pMEGAs which

feature ~ 80% hypothetical genes, compared to 21.1% for the *E. coli* host of pMEGA4 (**Table**

S13). We conclude that these *Enterobacteriaceae* sequences are secondary chromosomes or parts

of the main chromosomes.

Clades 1 and 2 differ in their multi-copy protein sets

Of 2,162 protein subfamilies (SF), 438 occur in all of the 20 pMEGAs (**Table S9; Figure**

3A). These conserved proteins are involved in transcription, translation, replication, protein

folding, defense, pilus formation, and secretion systems. Many are annotated as proteases,

phosphatases, transport-related, methyltransferases, chemotaxis proteins and proteins involved in

NAD metabolism and acetylation/deacetylation (**Table S9; Figure 3A**). 336 of the 438 ubiquitous

proteins occur only once per genome, typically in similar genomic locations within clades (but

organization differs between clades; **Figure 3C**).

Predicated on the idea that multicopy proteins (here defined as 3 or more copies/genome)

may be important to the functioning of megaplasmids, we counted the instances of each subfamily

in the pMEGA1-4 genomes (**Table S14**; **Figure 3B**). Of the 10 subfamilies that are multicopy in

all four megaplasmids, the most prevalent are beta-solenoid structures (SF0950: 10 - 16 per

genome), possible bacterial shufflons/pilin proteins (SF2096: 7 - 16 per genome), TnpB proteins

(SF1483: up to 11 per genome), and protein phosphatases (SF1635). pMEGA1 and 4, and to a

lesser extent, pMEGA2 and 3, have numerous proteins from many subfamilies with predicted

alpha-solenoid structures. The alpha-solenoids are of varying lengths and are encoded by >300

genes (~20% of the proteome) of pMEGA4 (**Figure 3BC**). Many had very low-scoring hits to

structures in the PDB, and those with higher-scoring matches were mostly to Designed Ankyrin

Repeat Proteins (DARPins) that are of interest as protein-based therapeutics[42]. Multicopy proteins

that are only highly prevalent in pMEGA1 and 4 are serine recombinases (SF2001: TnpA - up to

23 copies) and their accompanying endonucleases, and DNA methyltransferases (SF0095),

whereas novel proteins, possible immunity-related proteins, and three distinct RNAse H1

subfamilies are only highly prevalent in pMEGA2 and 3 (**Figure 3B**).

Some multi-copy protein subfamilies are clustered in the genomes (**Table S14**). Two to

four copies of proteins in the same subfamily occur sequentially in 58 and 33 instances in pMEGA1

and 4, respectively. In pMEGA2 and 3, two to eleven genes of the same subfamily occur

sequentially 92 and 110 times, and there are eight RNAse H1 subfamily proteins encoded almost

consecutively. In addition to the conserved RNAse H domain, these proteins have diverse

additional regions/domains, sometimes positively charged (possibly involved in DNA binding),

but for which functions could not be assigned.

Copies of SF0552, proteins similar to a toxin immunity protein, are clustered in pMEGA1,

2 and 3 (**Figure S8A**). Encoded immediately upstream is a protein with an AHH domain (SF1803),

commonly found in secreted nuclease toxin effectors (**Figure S8BDE**)[43]. When folded together,

the putative immunity protein is confidently predicted (chain_pair_iptm values 0.91-0.92) to

interact with the AHH domain (**Figure S8C**). The cluster is reminiscent of poly-immunity loci

associated with polymorphic toxins[44–46]. pMEGA2 and 3 have an additional region with the

putative toxin SF1803 encoded upstream of a cluster of possibly immunity proteins SF0823. To

screen for other toxin/poly-immunity loci, we analyzed proteins directly upstream of multicopy

clustered proteins to identify toxin domains. We found SF0417 as a possible ADP-

ribosyltransferase upstream of 3 and 5 copies of SF0062 in pMEGA2 and 3, and a possible protease

(SF0355) upstream of 3 copies of SF0744 in pMEGA2. Poly-immunity appears more common in

pMEGA2 and 3 as compared to pMEGA1 and 4.

Functional overlap and differences between pMEGA4 and *E. coli* host

Given that pMEGA4 originated from an *E. coli* isolate, we compared the predicted genetic

repertoires and proteomes of this megaplasmid to its host in detail (**Table S15**). Of note, only 9

proteins shared >70% amino acid identity to host proteins (**Table S16**). pMEGA4 encodes

numerous proteins involved in nucleic acid manipulation, including polymerases, helicases,

nucleases, proteins involved in recombination and nucleotide interconversion (e.g., GMP->GDP)

and over 20 translation-related proteins (**Table S8**). These functions are also encoded on the *E.*

coli genome.

Possibly involved in homeostasis and quality control, the pMEGA4 genome encodes the

protease ClpP (pMEGA4_187) and associated proteins[47–50](**Figure S9AB**). The genome encodes

three copies of proteins with high structural similarity to FtsH (pMEGA4_57, 182, 1364) and three

proteins similar to HflK/C that multimerize into functional microdomains (**Figure S9CD**)[51,52]. The

E. coli genome encodes ClpP and associated proteins, HflK/C, as well as one copy of FtsH.

In addition to a role in conjugation, T4SSs may be involved in effector protein delivery

and virulence (similar regions occur in pMEGAs1,2 and 3)[53]. The *E. coli* host genome encodes

components of Type II and Type VI secretion systems, including VgrG and Hcp, neither of which

are identified in pMEGA4[54]. Most interesting, and seemingly not found in the *E. coli* host, is a

protein with structural homology to InvG[55] (**Figure 4ABC**).

Also encoded in the pMEGA4 genome are at least four proteins (pMEGA4_1281, 90, 966,

977) with a von Willebrand factor A–like domain (vWA), which is commonly associated with

adhesins. The *E. coli* genome encodes two proteins with vWA domains. Another protein seemingly

redundant with the host *E. coli* repertoire, pMEGA4_299 encoded *fliC,* multimerized nicely into a

typical flagellin structure. This appendage is involved in adhesion, motility, virulence, and immune

stimulation[56,57] (**Figure 4DEFG**).

pMEGA4 encodes 105 verified tRNAs, including at least one for each canonical amino

acid with 91 unique tRNA sequence types (87%), whereas the *E. coli* genome encodes 86 of which

49 are unique (57%) (**Table S17**). The tRNAs are mostly arrayed in blocks, generally with ~6 to

~25 nucleotide (nt) gaps between them (**Figure 5A**). Only two blocks (with 7 and 4 tRNAs) occur

in the *E. coli* genome. Within the set of complete pMEGA genomes, there are up to 208 tRNAs,

with statistically significant enrichment in Clade 2 (average 199 ± 9) compared to Clade 1 (average

113 ± 8).

For the tRNAs for the most highly represented amino acids (Leu, Lys, (Met)), almost all

have the same codon. For Lys, 9/10 are encoded in one block and all have the same codon (AAA)

despite being quite divergent in the rest of their sequences (**Figure 5B**). In contrast, the six *E. coli*

tRNA Lys are all identical (**Figure 5C**). For 11 other amino acids, all tRNAs for that amino acid

are in a single block. In contrast, in the *E. coli* host genome, there is only one tRNA (Gln) where

all instances occur within a block (two codon types). In some cases, different tRNA types alternate

pseudo-regularly (sometimes with three or more different tRNAs per cluster).

A commonly proposed explanation for mobile element tRNAs is compensation for

differences in their codon usage compared to that of their host. We find that some codons much

preferred by pMEGA4 compared to the host *E. coli* have more highly represented tRNAs (e.g.,

AAA, TTA), but this is not the rule (**Figure 5D; Table S18**). Some less commonly used tRNA

codons (e.g., ATG, AAC) are highly represented, and some much more highly used codons (e.g.,

AAT, ATA) are not represented in pMEGA4. Notably, there is high sequence diversity associated

with all highly used codons (**Figure 5D**).

pMEGA4 may confer stress protection, aid in host competition and antibiotic resistance

pMEGA4 encodes a protein that forms a ferritin-like cage for DNA protection during

starvation (pMEGA4_661; also identified in *E. coli*) and two small alarmone hydrolases that

regulate the stringent response in a similar way to *gppA* found in the *E. coli*[58,59]. Further supporting

defense against external challenges are genes for redox homeostasis, nucleic acid repair, oxidative

stress, heat shock, and genes that form, maintain and repair disulfide bonds. Again, these functions

appear redundant with those encoded in the *E. coli* genome. pMEGA4 encodes the outer membrane protein SlyB (also encoded in the host genome), which is a lipoprotein that forms a 13-mer pore (**Figure S6C**). The PhoPQ regulon is responsible for the expression of SlyB in response to external stress[60]. We also identified three near-consecutive genes for tellurium resistance (TerD, not identified in *E. coli*).

Possibly in response to bacterial competition, pMEGA4 encodes a protein implicated in immunity to effectors (pMEGA4_953)[61], an amidase antitoxin (pMEGA4_699), and a hydrolase against ADP-ribosylating toxins (pMEGA4_1469[62]). These antitoxins appear without their toxin counterparts. Conversely, there are at least two proteins annotated as the lipoprotein toxin entericidin B that are separate on the plasmid and do not appear co-localized with an antitoxin (SF1615)[63]. The *E. coli* host genome encodes multiple Type II toxin/antitoxin systems (ie. MazEF, HipAB) and many possible secreted effectors/toxins [64–66].

In addition to the CRISPR-Cas system described earlier, pMEGA4 encodes putative defense system proteins structurally similar to the Upf1 family of RNA helicases (pMEGA4_338,520; detected by PADLOC as Mokosh TypeII systems), and a Ser/Thr kinase annotated as a PD-T4-6 system (pMEGA4_91)[67–69]. The *E. coli* genome encodes 7 single-gene phage defense candidate systems, 2 Hma (Helicase, Methylase, ATPase) defense systems, HEC, hhe, and a CRISPR array[70].

The *E. coli* host of pMEGA4 encodes the extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) *bla*CTX-M-55 on the abovementioned 104 kb plasmid, along with genes for quinolone (*qnrS1*), chloramphenicol (*catII*), and tetracycline resistance (*tetR* and *tetA*)[31] (**Table S19**). Few antibiotic resistance mechanisms were detected in pMEGA4 (**Table S19**). However, this function may be

conferred by 10 genes for transporters, including MacAB- and AcrAB-TolC efflux systems that were identified based on sequences and predicted structures[71]. Possibly relating to antibiotic resistance, pMEGA4 contains an outer membrane protein/porin implicated in carbapenem import (pMEGA4_670), and a methyltransferase that may activate a peptide antibiotic (pMEGA4_515).

Panda gut metatranscriptomic data reveals broad gene expression

We identified a public metatranscriptomic dataset from a panda gut microbiome with both a clade 1 and a clade 2 megaplasmid (SRR10902853). As there was no DNA data, we mapped the reads to pMEGAs 1 - 4 competitively and detected extensive read recruitment to all four genomes. By far the highest recruitment was to pMEGA4 with almost one million reads, but over 128,000 reads were recruited to pMEGA3. From the transcripts, we assembled 1,613 contigs > 5 kb in length, with a maximum length of 145 kb (4 of the 5 longest scaffolds were from *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* phages), and a 109 kb scaffold with similarity to pMEGA4. 75 contigs > 5 kb mapped uniquely to either clade 1 (pMEGA4) or clade 2 (pMEGA4) genomes with no overlap of contigs between clades. For the clade 1-like plasmid, we recovered 940,590 bp with ANI of 99.52% across 63.81% of pMEGA4. We used the transcripts to curate the 109 kb sequence from the clade 1 genome, primarily closing two scaffolding gaps (**Figure 6A**). For the clade 2-like plasmid, we recovered 563,270 bp with ANI of 98.70% across 37.93% of pMEGA3.

Most genes are expressed at relatively even levels across both clade representatives. The most extreme peaks in RNA abundance are all associated with intergenic regions, two of which in the clade 2 genome are > 1 kb in length. Many of the highly expressed protein-coding genes lack functional assignments (49% and 55% of highly expressed proteins in clades 1 and 2, respectively), and some are very small (<100 amino acids; 23% in both; **Tables S20, S21**). However, proteins

predicted to be involved with the T4SS and pilus are highly expressed in the clade 1-like genome,

including two copies of a major pilin subunit (**Figure 6AB**). A region of pMEGA3 (**Figure 6C**)

that features a large cluster of proteins with RNAse H1 (as well as other) domains (**Figure 6D**)

includes a highly expressed protein annotated in part as TPP1, a possible Cas1-Cas4 fusion protein,

and SlyB (**Figure 6E**). Also expressed but at lower levels are two Clp proteases and a L,D-

transpeptidase YcbB, possibly involved in resistance to β-lactams due to alternative cross-linking

of peptidoglycan[72].

Members from 10 protein subfamilies are highly expressed by megaplasmids of both

Clades, including SlyB, a protein involved in lipid biosynthesis, the ribosome hibernation factor

YhbH, IcmD/DotP, tellurium resistance protein TerD, oxygen damage protein YfiD, TPP1, a Type

IV pilin subunit, and two unknown proteins (**Tables S20, S21**). Of the 170 tRNAs in pMEGA3

and 108 in pMEGA4, virtually all recruited transcripts.

From the assembled transcripts, ribosomal protein S3 diversity revealed a highly abundant

E. coli (~1615X), another potential *E. coli* with lower coverage (~33X), as well as multiple

Bacillota (ie. *Clostridiales* and *Bacillales*) and a potential *Bacteroidota* member. Binning of

transcript-assembled contigs to the *E. coli* OP50 genome (CP059137.1) resulted in 525 contigs

representing 4.02 Mb, with 99.15% ANI over 79.04% of the OP50 genome. Given the presence of

two megaplasmids and two members of *Enterobacteriaceae*, the high coverage Clade 1-like

plasmid is likely hosted by the highly abundant *E. coli*, while the Clade 2-like plasmid may

associate with the less abundant *E. coli* in the panda gut community.

Discussion

We report the discovery and bioinformatic analysis of two clades of megaplasmids. The megaplasmids are clearly distinguished from bacteriophages by the absence of structural genes and from chromids/chromosomes by their low fraction of metabolic genes, protein novelty, plasmid-associated genes, replication style, and differences in GC content compared to host genomes. Members of both pMEGA clades whose genomes were reconstructed from isolates are confidently linked to *E. coli* and *Salmonella spp.* hosts. More broadly, analyses of protein similarity, co-occurrence, and DNA modification patterns indicate that the hosts are likely all *Enterobacteriaceae*. With genomes of up to 1.58 Mb, these are, by far, the largest megaplasmids in bacteria of this family.

While initially identified in preterm infant gut microbiomes, the megaplasmids occur in microbiomes of the human adult gut, animal gut, and other environments, suggesting they are widespread. All but one of the 20 genomes is "complete", rather than bins or putatively circularized sequences. The exception is pMEGA3, which was reconstructed from PacBio reads but was too low in abundance to very 100% of the bases using Illumina reads. Complete genomes ensured accurate determination of genome lengths, provided information about genome organization and replication style, and facilitated accurate gene and proteome predictions. *In silico* structure prediction and analysis helped identify proteins implicated in virulence, components of the T4SS, proteins involved in host-cell adhesion, antibiotic resistance, and phage defense. Overall, the findings suggest that these megaplasmids are self-transmissible. Extensive methylation motifs to protect from diverse host restriction systems suggest that the pMEGAs may be able to replicate in multiple hosts.

Plasmids must ensure that the burden of their existence does not compromise the host

organism's viability[73]. The degree to which plasmids must offset the cost of their carriage is

probably size-dependent and may drive plasmid acquisition of genes that increase the host's

fitness. Presumably, pMEGA genomes became large partly via the acquisition of gene variants

from prior hosts. This likely occurred in an ancestral plasmid, as all pMEGAs have very low GC

content compared to *Enterobacteriaceae* hosts (i.e., the GC content of host-derived genes has been

ameliorated).

Presumably reflecting the acquisition of host functions, there is substantial overlap in gene

content of pMEGA4 and its *E. coli* host. Some plasmid-borne variants may confer advantages by

different specificity or enzyme kinetics, by supplying genes for stress protection, or by extending

growth over a wider range of conditions. For example, plasmid-borne Clp and FtsH proteases

exhibit different thermotolerance[74–77] or specificities[48,49,78–80] that may expand substrate range.

Associated membrane microdomains (HflK/C) may result in compartmentalization of specific

proteins involved in signal transduction, membrane trafficking, and regulation of proteases,

including FtsH[51,52,81]. Other plasmid-derived benefits include expanding defense against invading

bacteriophages and other plasmids (e.g., by provision of additional CRISPR-Cas systems).

Plasmids may also increase antibiotic resistance by supplying efflux pumps with different

specificities, remodelling the cell wall, and expressing variants of thymidylate synthase, LpxC,

and ClpP that are insensitive to antibiotics[72,82–84].

Megaplasmids may acquire functions to counter host defenses. They encode genes for

NAD production, probably to offset decreased availability of NAD when the host depletes its NAD

pool in response to infection[85]. Host tRNA degradation in response to invasion by ECEs may be

countered by megaplasmid tRNA ligases, as has been shown for phages[86]. The pMEGAs encode

upwards of 100 tRNAs. Although some certainly offset differences in codon use between the

pMEGA and its host (**Figure 5**), structural diversity in tRNAs with the same anticodon may confer

a spectrum of resistances to host tRNA nucleases. This counter-defense is well established in

phages[87]. There is apparently strong selective pressure to preserve the codon and for sequence

divergence outside of the codon.

Megaplasmids encode functions that do not duplicate those of their hosts. Of potential

medical importance in the pMEGA4 plasmid in the ST10 *E. coli* strain is InvG. This protein forms

the outer membrane (OM) basal body in the Type III secretion system injectisome that delivers

effector proteins into host cells, but is also found in Type II secretion systems, Type IV pili

structures, and phage assembly complexes[55,88,89] (**Figure 4**). Putative toxin and poly-immunity

arrays may enhance inter-bacterial competition and protect from diverse toxins, whereas diverse

adhesion factors (ie. vWA domains) may contribute to motility and virulence[90,91]. Highly prevalent

multicopy proteins have alpha- and beta-solenoid structures, which are often found in secreted

effectors[92]. Effectors containing ankyrin repeats from intracellular pathogens such as *Legionella*

pneumophila and *Coxiella burnetii* are involved in the invasion of eukaryotic cells[93]. Alpha-

solenoid folds are more common in proteins of obligate intracellular pathogens as compared to

other bacterial genomes[94]. Ankyrin repeat proteins (a form of alpha-solenoids) often mediate

protein-protein interactions and may have functions analogous to those of DARPins, which are

alpha-solenoids that are engineered to bind to target molecules with high affinity and specificity

for functions such as antibodies and as anti-viral agents[95]. It is also possible that the megaplasmids

accumulate ankyrin proteins to modulate their bacterial host proteome, or modulate eukaryotic

immune response, as has been demonstrated in phage[96,97].

Some megaplasmids associate with bacteria that cause gastroenteritis (i.e., *S. enterica*) and

sepsis (i.e., *E. coli*)[98,99]. The pMEGA4 host *E. coli* is an ESBL-producing ST10 clone. ESBL-

producing ST10 clones of *E. coli* have been increasing in prevalence globally[100] and are common

in animals, including chickens, associated food products, and humans[101–104]. Some other

megaplasmid-bearing *E. coli* and *S.* Enteriditis isolates originate from human samples and one *E.*

coli isolate of serotype O157:H7 was associated with an outbreak due to contaminated lettuce

(Biosample: SAMN14113693)[105,106]. These observations motivate the investigation of the medical

significance of megaplasmids.

Conclusions

We identified the first megabase-scale plasmids in *Enterobacteriaceae*. They were detected

in infants, adults and animals, as well as in hospital sinks where they likely serve as a reservoir for

human transmission[107]. The megaplasmid genomes encode many solenoid proteins that may bind

selectively to proteins or other molecules. We also identified mechanisms to extend host and

habitat ranges, increase competitiveness in microbiomes, counter host defense, and protect from

antibiotics. Much remains to be learned about their large and incompletely defined functional

potential, but there are many indications that they hold medical significance. From the perspective

of future work, it is important that they occur in genetically tractable *Enterobacteriaceae*,

including *E. coli*.

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Author Contributions:

AKG and JFB were responsible for conceptualization and design of this study. Assembly was

performed by AKG, and genome curation was performed by AKG and JFB. AKG, JFB, OTT, L-

XC performed metagenome and metatranscriptome data analysis. SW and RS analysed the DNA

modification patterns. OTT performed CRISPR analyses. NM and MH generated the nanopore

sequencing of the *E. coli* isolate. AD, SB, VTD, AM, JC and AK provided data for megaplasmid

detection. BF coordinated and submitted infant stool samples for sequencing. RS provided

computational support. AJ, LS, and MM provided input regarding clinical relevance. Figures were

generated by AKG, SW, OTT, and JFB. The manuscript was written by JFB and AKG, with input

from OTT. JFB and MJM provided most of the funding support. All authors read and approved

the manuscript prior to submission.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies

No generative AI and AI-assisted technologies were used in the writing process.

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Data and code availability

Prior to publication, the genome sequences described in this study can be accessed and downloaded

from ggKbase: https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu/project_groups/Megaplasmids_public. Raw

sequencing data will be made available on NCBI upon publication. Other data reported in this

study can be accessed at: 10.5281/zenodo.1723140.

Methods

DNA extraction, metagenomic sequencing, and binning

Stool samples from two preterm infants enrolled in the NICU Antibiotics and Outcomes

(NANO) trial (Clinical Trial ID: NCT03997266) were collected over the first eight weeks of life

after obtaining informed parental consent[108]. DNA was extracted from samples using the

ZymoBIOMICS™ DNA Miniprep Kit. Libraries prepared with the Illumina DNA prep kit were

sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (2 x 151 bp reads). Reads were trimmed using sickle

v1.33, and mapped against the human T2T reference using bowtie2 v2.5.4, resulting in an average

of 4.09 gigabases per sample (**Table S1**)[109,110]. Metagenomic assembly was performed using

metaSPAdes v4.0.0[111]. Scaffolds greater than 1000 bp were annotated using Prodigal v2.6.3, and

searched against KEGG, UniProt, and UniRef using USearch v10.0.240 (-ublast)[112–116]. Ribosomal

RNA sequences were predicted as previously described, and tRNA sequences were identified

using tRNAscan-SE v1.3.1[117–119].

For a subset of samples (**Table S1**), either the same DNA extract used for Illumina

sequencing, or a new DNA extract prepared as above but with a modified lysis step was sequenced

on a PacBio Revio. HiFi reads were trimmed using BBDuk v39.10 and assembled using hifiasm-

meta v0.3-r073, resulting in, on average, 6.99 gigabases per sample[120,121]. Binning of Illumina

short-read data to generate metagenomic-assembled genomes (MAGs) was accomplished using a

combination of CONCOCT v1.1.0, MaxBin2 v2.2.7, MetaBAT2 v2.15 and Vamb v3.0.2, and the

best bins were selected using DAS Tool v1.1.6[122] with default settings[122–126]. The PacBio HiFi-

MAG-Pipeline v3.3.2 was used with slight modifications to detect putative complete circular

genomes (93% completeness) and bin other scaffolds into MAGs with less than 100 contigs[127].

Other settings included: a score threshold of 0.2 for DAS Tool, a minimum completeness of 70%,

and a maximum contamination of 10%. Metagenomic assemblies were visualized and binned

manually through an in-house platform ggKbase (https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu/). MAGs from both

Illumina and PacBio assemblies for each infant were dereplicated using dRep v.3.4.5[128] (with

completeness (-comp) 75, contamination (-con) 10, secondary cluster ANI (-sa) 0.98, and coverage

threshold (-nc) 0.25). This resulted in 27 MAGs for INF134001 (total 110) and 16 MAGs for

1330004 (total 72). The taxonomy of each MAG was determined using PhyloPhlAn v3.0.36[129].

Identification and manual curation of megaplasmids in the preterm infant gut

Examination of a PacBio assembly of one infant sample (INF1340011_TP8) identified a 1.58 Mb (pMEGA1) contig of unknown origin, with 3 bacterial single-copy genes, no ribosomal rRNA sequences, and many gene annotations characteristic of a plasmid. Two additional putatively complete plasmids were identified in other PacBio assemblies; a 1.33 Mb plasmid (pMEGA2) in INF1330004 at TP4 and a 1.37 Mb plasmid (pMEGA3) in INF1340011 at 4 weeks. Trimmed and filtered reads were mapped against the putative complete megaplasmids with BBMap v39.10[120] (default settings with ambiguous=random). The alignment file was imported into Geneious Prime v2025.1.1, and reads were re-mapped to allow 0% mismatches to identify regions of possible variation or error. Reads were mapped again to allow 4% mismatches to the reference to correct possible single-nucleotide polymorphisms, insertions, deletions, or assembly errors. This process was repeated until no errors were visible in the plasmid genome. Reads that surpassed the ends of the sequence were used to extend the plasmid until a repeated sequence was present at the beginning and end of the plasmid, suggesting circularity. Paired reads that mapped at both ends of the sequence were also used as an indication of a circular plasmid, as described previously[130,131]. CoverM v0.7.0 was used along with Illumina reads to determine the depth and percentage of reads mapped to pMEGAs and the dereplicated bacterial MAGs for each infant across all available timepoints[132].

Identification and manual curation of a megaplasmid in *Escherichia coli*

To further assess the diversity and distribution of these megaplasmids in other datasets, we used the bacterial single-copy gene histidyl-tRNA synthetase (hisS) as a marker. A BlastP search against NCBI non-redundant protein sequences (executed December 16th, 2024) resulted in 1 highly similar hit for pMEGA1 (*Escherichia coli* – 93% cov, 97.63% aa ID, BioSample:

SAMN18191027, Assembly: GCA_024673755.1)[133–135]. The top BlastP match for pMEGA2 is

from a *Serratia sp.* with 98% coverage and 63.84% amino acid similarity (WP_282994782.1). The

E. coli sequence is from a genomic assembly of an isolate (G269_1R) from Bangkok,

Thailand[31,136]. We assembled the Illumina sequencing reads from this accession using the same

methods as described above. Scaffolds that were distinct in GC content from the host genome

(<30% for pMEGA vs ~51% for *E. coli*), similar in read coverage, and that had no consensus for

taxonomy based on the taxonomy of predicted gene sequences were binned. We also mapped

scaffolds from the assembly to the complete pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 sequences from above using

minimap2 v.2.28-r1209 (with the flag -x map-hifi)[137]. From these two approaches, we manually

selected 23 scaffolds encompassing ~1.39 Mb to represent a putative megaplasmid. Through this

approach, and to the best of our ability and knowledge, we believe these scaffolds do not belong

to *E. coli* or other easily identified mobile genetic elements such as other plasmids or phages.

Extensive manual curation and read mapping did not result in a complete circular element,

so Nanopore long-read sequencing was performed on the *E. coli* isolate. Briefly, genomic DNA

from the isolate was prepared with the Rapid sequencing DNA kit (SQK-RBK114.24) and

sequenced on a GridION MKI R10 flow cell. Reads were basecalled with the high-accuracy model

using Dorado v7.2.13[138]. Long-read sequencing resulted in very low coverage of the putative

megaplasmid, but a complete 4.8 Mb genome for *E. coli* and a 104 kbp plasmid. The few Nanopore

long-reads that were recovered against the 1.39 Mb plasmid were used to scaffold the contigs

derived from Illumina sequencing. Through many iterative rounds of read mapping and extension

from the ends of Illumina contigs and into divergent gaps where no direct read recruitment was

possible, we reconstructed a complete 1.41 Mb plasmid (pMEGA4).

Identification and manual curation of megaplasmids in other public datasets

We employed two tools to search for similar sequences across read data deposited in NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and other collections. First, PebbleScout was used to search against all available databases with the complete reference sequences of pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 elements[139]. This resulted in 55 hits with a PB score >60 for pMEGA1, and 319 hits with a PB score >60 for pMEGA2. Next, we searched all available assembled data in Logan (11-20-2024) using the *hisS* gene sequence (813 bp) from pMEGA1 and 1000 bp from the start of the *hisS* gene sequence from pMEGA2[140]. This resulted in 61 hits for pMEGA1 and almost 500 hits for pMEGA2 with a kmer coverage >=0.70. Many of the hits overlapped with the PebbleScout search results, therefore, we selected a few studies and any bacterial isolate hits only for additional investigation (**Table S5**). The bioprojects PRJEB36775 and PRJNA938144 relate to hospital sink metagenomes and infant gut metagenomes, respectively, and were selected given their high number of hits and relevance to human health[141,142].

For all selected hits, reads from the SRA or European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) were downloaded and processed as described above for trimming and human read removal, if needed. Each read accession was treated as a separate sample regardless of whether more than one hit originated from the same BioSample (eg. hits from PRJEB21259 and PRJEB36775). Trimmed reads were mapped using bowtie2 and samtools to the pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 reference sequences to determine the percent length coverage, depth of coverage and percentage of reads mapped to the pMEGA in each sample[110,143]. We proceeded to assemble the hits using metaSPAdes v4.0.0 as described above and assessed to what extent complete sequences could be recovered by mapping scaffolds to pMEGA1 and pMEGA2 as references using minimap2[111,137]. Samples were considered a high-quality hit for a pMEGA if 10 or fewer scaffolds provided coverage of >=85%

of the reference pMEGA. Samples were considered medium-quality hits if 11 to 50 scaffolds

provided coverage of >=85% of a pMEGA, and all other hits were considered low-quality. From

the high-quality hits, a selection of samples was chosen for manual curation as described above to

attempt to complete the plasmid sequences and confirm circularity.

From the PebbleScout hits, SRR10902853 is listed as an RNA-seq dataset. To the best of

our knowledge, this sample and its corresponding Bioproject (PRJNA601687) are not affiliated

with a publication. We were unable to find an associated metagenomic dataset for this sample. We

mapped the trimmed reads to a concatenated reference of pMEGA1,2,3 and 4 using bowtie2 v2.5.4

and visualized the alignments in Geneious Prime v2025.1.1 to assess regions with high coverage.

For the clade 1-like plasmid, we assembled and manually curated a 109 kb fragment with >98%

nucleotide identity to pMEGA4. A cut-off of 100X coverage was chosen to classify ORFs with

high coverage for the clade 1-like genome, based on transcripts mapping to pMEGA3, and 500X

coverage was chosen as a comparable level of high expression in the clade 2-like genome, based

on transcripts mapping to pMEGA4 and the curated fragments. The clade 1-like plasmid had

approximately 5X as many transcripts mapped as the clade 2-like plasmid. From the assembly, we

detected ribosomal protein S3 sequences using hmmsearch with PF00189[144]. Contigs were mapped

to the *E. coli* OP50 genome (CP059137.1) with minimap2, and ANI was calculated with

skani[137,145].

618   Comparing the protein repertoire across 20 confident and circular megaplasmids

After curation, we recovered 20 circular megaplasmid sequences (**Table S7**). These

sequences were re-oriented to start at a highly conserved protein sequence (ParE) and aligned using

Mauve v1.1.3 in Geneious Prime[146]. Skani v0.2.1 and MASH v2.2 dist were used to assess the

average nucleotide identity and distance between entire plasmid sequences[145,147]. The taxonomy

of predicted proteins within these plasmid genomes was summarized using Uniprot annotations

and tRep (https://github.com/MrOlm/tRep/tree/master/bin). All proteins across the 20

megaplasmids were clustered into protein subfamilies using MMseqs2 and an all-vs-all search

(cluster workflow with E-value 0.001, sensitivity: 7.5, fraction of covered residues across target

and query: 0.5, and the Set-Cover (greedy) cluster mode)[148]. A multiple sequence alignment was

generated for subfamilies with at least 2 members using (mmseqs result2msa) and HMM profiles

were generated using hhmake from HH-suite3[149]. A HH-Suite database was generated from these

protein subfamilies and subfamilies were compared against each other using their respective

HMMs and HHblits (with parameters -v 0 -p 50 -E 0.001 -z 1 -Z 32000 -B 0 -b 0 -n 2). Protein

families were generated from subfamilies with probability scores of at least 95% and coverage of

at least 0.70 using a Markov clustering algorithm[150]. Protein subfamilies were annotated based on

HMM-HMM comparisons against PFAM using HHsearch v.3.0.3 (parameters -p 50 -E 0.001 -z 1

-Z 32000 -b 0 -B 0 -n 1)[151,152].

Additional annotation of megaplasmid features and protein structure prediction

Mobile genetic element prediction with geNomad v1.7.4 does not recognize the pMEGAs

as plasmids but predicts proviruses within the genome[153]. More extensive annotation was

performed for the pMEGA1-4 sequences including prediction of secretion systems and

conjugation machinery using hmmscan against the CONJScan and TXSS hmm databases with an

E value cut-off of 1e-10[154,155]. Origins of transfer (*oriT*) and vegetative replication (*oriV*) were

predicted by oriTFinder2, oriTDB[34] and OriV-Finder[156]. Repeats were identified manually in

Geneious Prime using RepeatFinder. Virulence factors and toxins were predicted for pMEGA4

and the *E. coli* genome using PathoFact v.2.0[157]. We used PADLOC v2.0.0 and structural

comparisons to identify antiviral defense systems and CRISPRCasFinder v.4.2.18 to detect CRISPR spacers[158,159]. Antibiotic resistance mechanisms in pMEGA4 were predicted from protein sequences using the *main* function of the Resistance Gene Identifier (RGI) v.6.0.3 with CARD v4.0.0 (settings: --include_loose, --include_nudge, --low_quality and reporting hits with a bitscore >100 regardless of ARO cutoff)[160]. For the *E. coli* genome and its 104 kb plasmid, RGI was used in the default mode with the --low_quality flag. Codon usage was calculated using coRdon v 1.26.0 in R v 4.4.3[161].

For pMEGAs 1-4, AlphaFold2 was used to predict the protein structure of all open reading frames and compared to a database of folded proteins from PDB (retrieved 2023-04-20) using FoldSeek (v427df8a6b5d0ef78bee0f98cd3e6faaca18f172d)[162,163]. Some structures, as well as multimers, were predicted using AlphaFold3[162]. Multimer confidence was evaluated by consideration of ipTM scores. The top-scoring hits to PDB structures (generally >200 bit score) were manually visualized in ChimeraX (v1.9) and position-resolved pLDDT values were used to evaluate confidence. Alignment was performed using matchmaker or TM-align to confirm structural similarity[164,165]. Foldseek matches to structures in the AlphaFold database were also considered.

Multi-copy protein subfamilies were defined as subfamilies with greater than three members within at least one genome of pMEGA1-4. Multi-copy proteins and clusters of two or more proteins of the same subfamily were identified in Microsoft Excel and with custom scripts in R v 4.4.3. The predicted structures of members within a multi-copy protein subfamily were visualized to confirm their predicted function and to identify structures that contain alpha solenoid-like folds/domains. Alpha-solenoid domains were identified by visual inspection, in some cases

667 flagged by best matches to DARPINs[42]. These proteins often had very low bit scores for best

668 matches to proteins in PDB.

Phylogeny of plasmid relaxase and replication initiation proteins

To generate a phylogeny of known MOB$_F$ relaxase proteins, sequences were gathered from

two comprehensive studies of conjugative plasmids and through an hmmscan for MOB$_F$ sequences

in PLSDB and IMG/PR, resulting in 1854 hits[33,155,166,167]. These were clustered at 99% identity

using vsearch v2.13.3 (--cluster_fast) and combined with the predicted MOB$_F$ relaxase sequences

from pMEGA1-4 (SF1156 and SF0489), resulting in 881 sequences[168]. These sequences were

aligned using MAFFT v7.505, then a phylogenetic tree was generated using FastTree v2.1.11,

rooted at the mid-point, and visualized using iTOL. A representative structure of SF0489

(pMEGA4_1394 - median pLDDT 90.19) and SF1156 (pMEGA4_58 - median pLDDT 90.5) was

aligned to RecD2 bound to ssDNA (PDB:3GP8)[169]. The TM alignment scores are 0.73 and 0.98,

respectively. Similarly, a phylogeny of 105 replication initiation proteins from plasmids of known

incompatibility groups (n=65)[170] was generated with predicted Rep sequences from pMEGAs

(SF1471 and SF0640) after clustering at 90% identity. Rep sequences from megaplasmids

identified in this study were collapsed as clades. Select protein structures were compared to the

pMEGA4 representative of SF640 and SF1471 using FoldSeek (bitscores as heatmaps on the right

of the tree). If not available in the AlphaFold database, the structures of Rep proteins were

predicted with AlphaFold3. For SF0640, pMEGA4_629 (median pLDDT 94.12) was aligned to

RepC from the *Salmonella enteritidis* IncQ plasmid pBLST (AFDB: A0A1D8X722) with TM-

align (score 0.86). For SF1471, pMEGA4_1423 (median pLDDT 91.5) was aligned to TrfA from

the *Escherichia coli* IncP plasmid pRK2 (AFDB: P07676) with TM-align (score 0.57). Finally,

Rep protein structures were compared to the Rep protein from E. coli F plasmid bound to an iteron

sequence (PDB: 1REP). The TM-align score with 1REP for pMEGA4_629 was 0.68 and for

pMEGA4_1423 was 0.70.

Host prediction through abundance correlation, DNA modification analysis, and Hi-C
linkage

From the searches of the SRA, we identified *E. coli* and *Salmonella spp.* isolates with

evidence of a megaplasmid. For one *E. coli* isolate, it was re-grown, DNA was re-isolated, and

sequenced via Nanopore confirming the presence of the 1.4 Mb plasmid (pMEGA4). For infants

with longitudinal samples (pMEGA1, pMEGA2, pMEGA3), we measured the Pearson Correlation

in R v. 4.4.3 between the percentage of reads mapped to the megaplasmid and all bacterial MAGs

over multiple sampling timepoints. For isolates with evidence of a medium- or high-quality

megaplasmid, plasmid and potential chromosomal contigs were separated and binned manually

based on GC content, coverage and similarity to pMEGA1 or 2. The megaplasmid copy number

(PCN) was estimated by comparing the mean depth of Illumina read coverage of the plasmid and

draft isolate genome as determined with CoverM v0.7.0 using BBMap v39.10[120,132] (**Table S5**).

To detect DNA methylation from PacBio data, we computed the mean inter-pulse duration

(IPD) at each base across the mapped reads. We empirically estimated baseline IPD values for

each k-mer by comparing to the mean IPD values of the kmer from the metagenome. Bases with

significantly elevated IPD ratios are inferred to be modified. Subsequently, motif discovery is

carried out using MotifMaker (SMRT Link v13.1.0.221970). We then scanned each contig to

evaluate the modified fraction of detected motifs, ultimately generating a genome-wide

methylation profile. In addition, to annotate restriction endonucleases (REases) and

methyltransferases (MTases) in the assemblies, we employed the annotate_rm module of

MicrobeMod with default parameters[171]. Finally, the ProxiMeta™ Metagenome Deconvolution

Platform (Hi-C) from Phase Genomics (Seattle, USA) was used to detect Hi-C linkages on the

week 4 stool samples from INF1330004 and INF1340011.

Additional investigation into CRISPR spacers and possible hosts

CRISPR spacers detected with CRISPRCasFinder v.4.2.18 from all 20 confident

megaplasmid genomes were searched against their respective metagenomes using blastn-short (-

perc_identity 97, -qcov_hsp_perc 100)[133]. In addition, CRISPR spacers predicted within the 20

metagenomic samples from which the plasmid genomes originated were searched against the

megaplasmid genomes to identify potential hosts. Finally, CRISPR spacers from the 20

megaplasmid genomes were compared to PLSDB and IMG/PR and IMG/VR representing over

772,529 plasmid and 15,722,824 viral sequences[21]. Spacer interaction networks were visualized in

CytoScape v 3.10.3. Finally, to infer potential hosts based on spacer acquisition against pMEGAs,

we blasted over 322 million predicted spacers from 580,000 bacterial genomes[38] and ~450,000

public metagenomes[39] against pMEGA1-20 and evaluated spacers with 100% identity hits.

Comparing to other plasmid databases

To ensure our megaplasmid elements had not been previously characterized, we searched

for similar elements in, to the best of our knowledge, all relevant and known plasmid and viral

sequence databases including PLSDB (v2024-05-31_v2 - 72,556 sequences), IMG/PR (699,973

sequences), IMG/VR (15,722,824 sequences), 226,194 plasmids predicted from the human gut [130],

as well as datasets from two recent studies that characterized plasmids (n = 265,476) and viruses

(n = 160,478) from infants[172,173] using MASH dist with pMEGA1 and pMEGA2[147]. To ensure that

no plasmids of similar size to the pMEGAs have been described in *Enterobacteriaceae*, we

analyzed all plasmid sequences >1Mb from PLSDB and IMG/PR, and RefSeq *Enterobacteriaceae*

genomes with secondary replicons >1Mb. Many of these plasmids were derived from isolates. If

a plasmid was derived from a metagenomic sample, we annotated the taxonomy of the host based

on ANI to other plasmids or consensus taxonomy of predicted proteins. Finally, to prevent

inclusion of mis-annotated plasmids or secondary chromosomes, we used CheckM2 to remove

sequences with 50% or greater bacterial genome completeness[174]. Predicted proteins were

annotated following the same basic pipeline for pMEGAs, and the percent of hypothetical,

unknown, or uncharacterized proteins as determined by UniRef annotations was counted for both

the largest contig of each isolate assembly and the putative >1Mb plasmid.

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 TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1: Listing of 4 complete plasmids (name, size, GC content, source). Completion was determined by mapping reads to a single contig and ensuring complete coverage as well as overlapping read coverage at the ends of the contig.

Name	Size	GC content	Source	ORFs	tRNAs	Accession (sequencing technology)	Status
pMEGA1	1,583,849	26.11	Preterm infant 1340011 8 weeks (USA)	1633	119	This study (Illumina + PacBio)	Complete & circular
pMEGA2	1,334,733	29.36	Preterm infant 1330004 4 weeks (USA)	1681	204	This study (Illumina + PacBio)	Complete & circular
pMEGA3	1,373,843	29.57	Preterm infant 1340011 4 weeks (USA)	1691	170	This study (PacBio)	Circular & confident
pMEGA4	1,415,043	25.98	*E. coli* isolate from chicken rectal swab (Thailand)	1483	108	This study (Illumina + Nanopore)	Complete & circular

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Figure 1: Identification of megaplasmids in the preterm infant gut microbiome and public

data. A) The percentage of reads mapped to MAGs and pMEGA2 within INF1330004 was

determined through Illumina read mapping. The "Other" category includes reads that did not map

to MAGs nor pMEGA2. Inset shows the same plot but with y values from 0 to 10. **B)** Sources of

samples with evidence of related megaplasmids, grouped by source location and sample type

(Missing indicates no information in the SRA). Source types with fewer than 5 hits were grouped

together. **C), D)** The number and quality of pMEGA1(**C**)- and pMEGA2(**D**)-like plasmids across

different sample types. Assembled plasmids were classified as high-quality (HQ - blue) if they had

≥85% coverage of a pMEGA and ≤10 contigs and medium-quality (MQ - orange) with ≥85%

coverage and 11-50 contigs. The remaining samples were classified as low-quality (LQ - red).

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1143   **Figure 2: A *Citrobacter freundii* is the host of pMEGA2.** Modified bases were predicted in the

1144   PacBio HiFi reads of infant 1330004 at week 4. The columns represent the motifs predicted to

1145   contain modified bases, and the rows represent genomes. *Likely host of pMEGA2 based on

1146   overlap in modification patterns.

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Figure 3: Conserved protein functions across two clades of megaplasmids. A) Distribution of

functional annotations of the 438 conserved protein subfamilies across pMEGAs1-20. Annotations

with less than 10 instances were grouped into the "Other" category. Numbers represent the number

of protein families in each category. **B)** Multicopy protein subfamilies across pMEGA1-4. Circle

size corresponds to the number of genes within each category. The number below each column or

at the end of each annotation in the Other row, indicates the number of subfamilies in that category.

C) Examples of alpha solenoid-containing protein pMEGA4_362 (median pLDDT 95.06) whose

1156   domain is annotated as an Ankyrin repeat. **D)** Alignment of pMEGA1-4 showing the locations of

1157   the 336 single copy protein subfamilies conserved across pMEGA1-20 as a percentage of the total

1158   length of the genome. Each protein subfamily is coloured based on their gene order in pMEGA2.

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Figure 4: pMEGA4 encodes mechanisms related to secretion and virulence. A) Predicted

structure of a monomer of pMEGA4_50 (median pLDDT 82.0) aligned to *Salmonella*

pathogenicity island 1 injectisome protein InvG (PDB: 6PEE). Predicted hexamer of pMEGA4_50

aligned to the 15-mer complex of InvG shown from the side (**B**) and top (**C**). **D)** Predicted structure

of monomer of pMEGA4_299 (median pLDDT 93.91) aligned to *E. coli* K12 flagellin monomer

(PDB: 8XCM) and **E)** full filament core. **F)** Predicted homo-nonamer structure of pMEGA4_299.

G) Alignment of predicted 9-mer of pMEGA4_299 with flagellar core of *E. coli* K12

(PDB:8XCM)[175].

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Figure 5: **tRNAs of pMEGA4 and *E. coli* host. A)** Nine of the ten pMEGA4 tRNAs for LYS are

encoded in a single block. **B**) Nine of the ten pMEGA4 LYS tRNA genes have the same (AAA)

codon, however the sequences differ. **C)** Phylogenetic tree constructed using LYS tRNAs for

pMEGA4 and host *E. coli*, illustrating pMEGA4 sequence diversity yet conservation of the host

sequences. The asterisk indicates the pMEGA4 AAG codon. **D)** Some high tRNA counts are

predicted by more extensive use of that codon in pMEGA4 compared to *E. coli* (dots in dashed

1175   outlined region). However, other highly represented codons do not follow this pattern. Numbers

1176   associated with each point (colored by amino acid) indicate the count of unique tRNA sequences.

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Figure 6: Public data (SRR10902853) from a panda gut metatranscriptome reveals extensive megaplasmid gene expression. A) A 109 kb region of the clade 1-like plasmid assembled and manually curated using transcripts encodes 11 protein coding genes with >500X transcript coverage. These include two pilin subunits (44, 45), VirB7 (51), IcmD/DotP (62), DotF (66), TPP1 (87), RuvB (89), and SlyB (94). Three highly expressed proteins have no functional predictions (33, 38, 90). The region also includes proteins of interest InvG (50) and FtsH (57). For the panda metagenome-derived reference, gene numbering is based on pMEGA4 homologs (genes 63 and 64, encoding transposon genes, are absent in the panda megaplasmid genome). **B**) Left - The predicted structure of two pilin subunit genes from pMEGA4 (44, 45), which share 92.4% amino acid identity. Right - The two structures aligned to *E. coli* major structural subunit of bundle-forming pilus BfpA (AF-P33553). **C)** An example region of transcript mapping to pMEGA3 showing protein coding genes 96, 97 and 105 with > 100X coverage. These are a protein related to telomerase-recruitment factor TPP1, a protein most similar to a Cas1-4 fusion, and SlyB. **D)** All of the 8 almost sequential proteins profiled as RNAse H1 in **B** have a domain that aligns well with PDB 1WSJ (red). **E)** Monomer of SlyB (pMEGA3_105; median pLDDT 90.06) and its alignment to PDB 7OJF.

 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1: Infant gut microbiome community containing pMEGA1 and pMEGA3. The percentage of reads mapped to MAGs, pMEGA1 and pMEGA3 within INF1340011 across 8 weeks of life was determined through Illumina read mapping. The "Other" category includes reads that did not map to MAGs nor pMEGA1,3. Inset shows the same plot but with y values from 0 to 10.

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Figure S2: Prevalence and completeness of megaplasmids in public data. Sequencing reads from SRA accessions were mapped to pMEGA1 **(A)** and pMEGA2 **(B)** to determine the percent length coverage and percentage of reads mapped to each megaplasmid. For each accession, assembled plasmids were classified as high-quality (HQ - blue) if they had ≥85% coverage of a pMEGA and ≤10 contigs and medium-quality (MQ - yellow) with ≥85% coverage and 11-50 contigs. The remaining samples were classified as low-quality (LQ - red). Diamond: Metagenomic sample, circle: *Escherichia coli* Isolate (Ec), square: *Salmonella enteritidis* isolate (Se). Isolates are further highlighted by a black border.

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1215 **Figure S3: Comparing 20 complete megaplasmids. A)** Whole genome alignment of complete

1216 plasmid sequences. Vertical lines connect blocks with similarity between plasmid genomes. The

1217 sequences were ordered manually and grouped based on clades. **B)** Matrix of average nucleotide

1218 identity (ANI). **C)** Matrix of MASH distance.

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Figure S4: Replication initiation proteins and relaxases from two clades of megaplasmids.

A) Phylogeny of 105 replication initiation (Rep) protein sequences. Reference Rep protein

sequences are colored based on plasmid incompatibility group[170]. Bitscores from select FoldSeek

hits are shown as heatmaps on the right of the tree. A star indicates that the protein structure is

highlighted in panel C and D. **B)** Phylogeny of 881 MOB$_F$ protein sequences with clades (F12,

F13, F11, F2) collapsed[166]. Megaplasmids identified in this study are highlighted with a star. The

length of each plasmid is shown on the far right panel. Predicted protein structures of relaxases

aligned to PDB:3GP8 with ssDNA in purple are shown to the left of the tree. **C)** Representative

structures of Rep proteins from pMEGA4 compared to RepC (purple) and TrfA (green). **D)** Region

downstream of pMEGA4_629 with putative iterons and alignment of repeat sequences. To the

right, alignment of structures from panel C to Rep protein from *E. coli* F plasmid (PDB: 1REP -

grey) bound to the iteron sequence (red).

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Figure S5: Possible *Enterobacteriaceae* hosts of pMEGA1 and pMEGA3. Modified bases were predicted in the PacBio HiFi reads of INF1340011 at week 4. The columns represent the motifs predicted to contain modified bases, and the rows represent genomes. ** Possible host(s) of pMEGA3 based on overlap in modified motif patterns.

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Figure S6: CRISPR-Cas system in pMEGA4 and targets of CRISPR spacers across

pMEGA1-20. A) Diagram of the type I-Fv CRISPR-Cas locus from pMEGA4. **B)** Structural

prediction of the pMEGA4 heterohexameric $Cas1_4$-$Cas2_2$ integrase complex (pMEGA4_568 and

569, median pLDDT 92.56 and 93.44) bound to a prespacer DNA. **C)** Structural predictions of the

pMEGA4 Cascade surveillance complex in two states. Left, pMEGA4 $Cas5_1$-$Cas6_1$-$Cas7_3$ (ORFs

570 - 572; median pLDDTs 85.19, 91.62, and 93.69) co-folded with a crRNA from an experimental

structure (5O7H) of a similar type I-Fv system. Right, the same structure but co-folded with a

target DNA. **D)** AlphaFold3 prediction of the pMEGA4 Cas3 effector (ORF 573 median pLDDT

91.81), with the HD nuclease domain colored in orange and the helicase domain colored in red. **E)**

CRISPR spacer targets from pMEGA1-20 within other pMEGAs, plasmids from IMG/PR and

PLSDB, and viral sequences from IMG/VR. Each line indicates a spacer targets a sequence in

another element or, if the connection is between two pMEGA squares, the genomes share the same

spacer with their CRISPR arrays. Grey triangles indicate a spacer from a pMEGA that targets

another pMEGA.

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Figure S7: Plasmid databases are contaminated with complete bacterial genomes and

possible secondary chromosomes. A) Length distribution of 667 non-redundant plasmids >1 Mb

from PLSDB and IMG/PR grouped by the Order of their bacterial host. **B)** Length and GC content

distribution of plasmid colored by completeness as determined with CheckM2. **C)** Length

distribution of 642 plasmids >1Mb after removing sequences with >50% completion, grouped by

taxonomic Order. **D)** Length distribution of 642 plasmids >1Mb after removing sequences with

>50% completion, grouped by taxonomic Family. Families with two or fewer plasmids were

grouped into Other.

Figure S8: Polymorphic toxin and poly-immunity loci diversity in megaplasmids. A) Alignment of regions in pMEGAs1,2 and 3 with similar subfamilies, including a putative AHH nuclease toxin (SF1803) and tandem predicted immunity proteins (SF0552, 2138, 1201). **B)** Predicted polymorphic toxins of SF1803 (median pLDDTs: pMEGA1_598 71.88, pMEGA2_293 78.25, pMEGA3_276 69.12) aligned to a predicted structure of a Rhs family protein from *E. albertii* A0A855STS0 (blue). The aligned region is a predicted nuclease domain of the

1274   HNH/ENDO VII superfamily (PF14412) and contains a conserved AHH motif. **C)** Result of co-

1275   folding the predicted toxin AHH nuclease toxin with the downstream encoded predicted immunity

1276   protein. **D)** Alignment of the structure of a known nuclease immunity protein MXAN_0049 (PDB:

1277   6A4C) to the predicted immunity protein (pink: pMEGA2_292 median pLDDT 96.38). **E)**

1278   Structural and protein sequence alignment of 5 members of SF0552 from pMEGA2.

Figure S9: pMEGA4 predicted protein structures of various functions. A) Predicted hexamer of predicted ClpX (pMEGA4_1386) and dodecamer of ClpP (pMEGA4_187). **B)** Monomers of ClpX (median pLDDT 92.81) and ClpP (median pLDDT 98.56) from pMEGA4 aligned to reference of ClpXP from *Neisseria meningitidis* (6VFX). **C)** Predicted hexamer of FtsH (pMEGA4_57) in grey with monomer shown in blue and aligned to *Thermotoga maritima* FtsH (PDB: 3KDS). **D)** Predicted membrane microdomain proteins (median pLDDTs: pMEGA4_162

95.62, and pMEGA4_816 89.94) aligned to the structure of *E. coli* membrane microdomain (PDB:

7VHP). *E. coli* HflC and HflK are colored individually in orange and yellow.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1 List of NANO samples and assembly statistics

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Table S20 Highly expressed genes in clade 1-like megaplasmid from panda gut

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Table S21 Highly expressed genes in clade 2-like megaplasmid from panda gut

metatranscriptome dataset