

1 ***Enterobacterales plasmid sharing amongst human bloodstream***  
2 ***infections, livestock, wastewater, and waterway niches in***  
3 ***Oxfordshire, UK***

4

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26 **Abstract**

27 Plasmids enable the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in common  
28 *Enterobacteriales* pathogens, representing a major public health challenge. However, the  
29 extent of plasmid sharing and evolution between *Enterobacteriales* causing human infections  
30 and other niches remains unclear, including the emergence of resistance plasmids. Dense,  
31 unselected sampling is highly relevant to developing our understanding of plasmid  
32 epidemiology and designing appropriate interventions to limit the emergence and  
33 dissemination of plasmid-associated AMR. We established a geographically and temporally  
34 restricted collection of human bloodstream infection (BSI)-associated, livestock-associated  
35 (cattle, pig, poultry, and sheep faeces, farm soils) and wastewater treatment work (WwTW)-  
36 associated (influent, effluent, waterways upstream/downstream of effluent outlets)

37 *Enterobacteriales*. Isolates were collected between 2008-2020 from sites <60km apart in  
38 Oxfordshire, UK. Pangenome analysis of plasmid clusters revealed shared “backbones”, with  
39 phylogenies suggesting an intertwined ecology where well-conserved plasmid backbones  
40 carry diverse accessory functions, including AMR genes. Many plasmid “backbones” were  
41 seen across species and niches, raising the possibility that plasmid movement between these  
42 followed by rapid accessory gene change could be relatively common. Overall, the signature  
43 of identical plasmid sharing is likely to be a highly transient one, implying that plasmid  
44 movement might be occurring at greater rates than previously estimated, raising a challenge  
45 for future genomic One Health studies.

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49

50 **Introduction**

51 *Enterobacteriales* are found both in human niches (e.g., hospital patients(1,2) and  
52 wastewater(3)) and non-human niches (e.g., livestock-associated(4,5) and waterways(6)). In  
53 recent decades, widespread carriage of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes has  
54 complicated the treatment of *Enterobacteriales* infections(7,8). The dissemination of AMR  
55 genes between *Enterobacteriales* occurs in a ‘Russian-doll’-style hierarchy of nested,  
56 mobilisable genetic structures(9): genes not only move between bacterial hosts on  
57 mobilisable or conjugative plasmids but can also be transferred within and between plasmids  
58 and chromosomes by smaller mobile genetic elements (MGEs) such as insertion  
59 sequences(10,11). Despite gene gain/loss events, many plasmids have been shown to have a  
60 persistent structure encoding replication and transfer machinery(12,13).

61

62 Many plasmids can transfer between species and are seen across different niches(14) but the  
63 extent to which they are shared between human and non-human niches remains poorly  
64 understood. Previous studies investigating this topic have often been limited in size given the  
65 genetic diversity in these niches(15,16), and/or restricted to single species(17) or drug-  
66 resistant isolates(18), or are systematic studies, pooling geographically/temporally disparate  
67 samples (19,20). Further, fragmented genome assemblies in many cases make recovering  
68 complete plasmids, and other MGEs, impossible(21).

69

70 Instances of cross-niche transfer of plasmids are well-described, but the frequency of such  
71 events is poorly characterised. There are multiple instances where AMR genes have emerged  
72 from non-human niches and subsequently become major clinical problems in human  
73 *Enterobacteriales* infections, highlighting the relevance of inter-niche transfer in AMR gene  
74 dissemination (e.g., *bla<sub>CTX-M</sub>*, *mcr-1*(22) and *bla<sub>NDM-1</sub>*(23)). In general, environmental bacteria

75 are believed to be the original source of AMR genes that eventually become prevalent in  
76 clinical settings after transfer into clinical pathogens. However, we know little about natural  
77 rates of inter-niche transfer beyond these high-profile examples. It remains unclear how  
78 plasmids evolve within natural populations, meaning we understand little about the wider  
79 context in which AMR genes emerge and disseminate.

80

81 To explore *Enterobacteriales* plasmid diversity and sharing across niches in a geographically  
82 and temporally restricted context, we studied hybrid assemblies (i.e., using both long and  
83 short reads) of large *Enterobacteriales* isolate collections in Oxfordshire, UK, from (i) human  
84 bloodstream infections (BSI; 2008-2018), (ii) livestock-associated sources (faeces from  
85 cattle, pigs, poultry, sheep; surrounding environmental soils; [all 2017 except poultry 2019-  
86 2020], and (iii) wastewater treatment work (WwTW)-associated sources (influent, effluent,  
87 waterways upstream/downstream of effluent outlets; Oxfordshire, 2017).

88

89

## 90 **Results**

91 Our dataset of  $n=3,697$  plasmids from  $n=1,458$  isolates (Fig. 1a, Table 1) contained bacteria  
92 from human bloodstream infections (BSI;  $n=1,880$  plasmids from  $n=738$  isolates), livestock-  
93 associated sources (cattle, pig, poultry, and sheep faeces, soils surrounding livestock farms;  
94  $n=1,155$  plasmids from  $n=512$  isolates), and from wastewater treatment works (WwTW)-  
95 associated sources (influent, effluent, waterways upstream/downstream of effluent outlets;  
96  $n=662$  plasmids from  $n=208$  isolates). All sampling sites were <60km apart (Fig. 1b) and  
97 timeframes overlapped (2008-2020; Fig. 1c). Isolates had a median 2 plasmids (IQR=1-4,  
98 range=0-16). Major *Enterobacteriales* genera represented included:  $n=1,044$  *Escherichia*,  
99  $n=211$  *Klebsiella*,  $n=125$  *Citrobacter*, and  $n=63$  *Enterobacter*.

**Table 1. Isolate niche breakdown.**

Niche	Sample type(s)	No. isolates	No. plasmids
Bloodstream infections (BSI)	Community, nosocomial, other healthcare associated infections	738	1,880
Livestock-associated	Cattle faeces	133	215
	Sheep faeces	113	286
	Pig faeces	104	352
	Poultry faeces	34	112
	Soil surrounding livestock farms	128	190
Wastewater treatment work (WwTW)-associated	Influent	88	313
	Upstream waterways	25	60
	Effluent/downstream waterways	95	289
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,458</b>	<b>3,697</b>

100

**Table 2. Isolate genus breakdown.**

Niche	Isolate genus					Total
	<i>Citrobacter</i>	<i>Enterobacter</i>	<i>Escherichia</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	Other	
Bloodstream infections (BSI)	6	11	547	161	13	<b>738</b>
Livestock-associated	54	10	433	14	1	<b>512</b>

101

Wastewater treatment work (WwTW)-associated	65	42	64	37	0	<b>208</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>1,044</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>1,458</b>

102

103 Sampling niche was strongly associated with isolate genus (Fisher's test,  $p$ -value<0.001;  
104 Table 2). *Klebsiella* isolates were disproportionately derived from BSI versus other niches  
105 (76% [161/212] versus 51% [738/1,458]). *Citrobacter* and *Enterobacter* were  
106 disproportionately derived from WwTW-associated versus other niches (52% [65/125] and  
107 67% [42/63] versus 14% [208/1,458]). Chromosomal Mash trees (see Supplementary  
108 Methods) for the two most common species in the dataset, *E. coli* (72% [1,044/1,458]; see  
109 Fig. S1) and *K. pneumoniae* (11% [163/1,458]; Fig. S2) demonstrated intermixing of human  
110 and non-human isolates within clades, consistent with species-lineages not being structured  
111 by niche.

112

113 We contextualised our plasmids within known plasmid diversity using 'plasmid taxonomic  
114 units' (PTUs; using COPLA, see Supplementary Methods), designed to be equivalent to a  
115 plasmid 'species'. We found 32% (1,193/3,697) of plasmids were unclassified, highlighting  
116 the substantial plasmid diversity within this geographically restricted dataset. In total, we  
117 found  $n=67$  known PTUs, containing a median 9 plasmids (IQR=4-30, range=1-556), with  
118 the largest PTU-F<sub>E</sub> (556/2,504), corresponding to F-type *Escherichia* plasmids.

119

120 **Near-identical plasmid sharing observed between human and livestock-associated**  
121 ***Enterobacteriales***

122 We screened for near-identical plasmids shared across isolates by grouping those with a low  
123 Mash distance ( $d<0.0001$ ) and highly similar lengths (longest plasmid  $\leq 1\%$  longer than

124 shorter plasmids; see Supplementary Methods). We found  $n=225$  near-identical groups of  $\geq 2$   
125 members, recruiting 19% (712/3,697) plasmids. Bootstrapping accumulation curves for near-  
126 identical plasmid groups and singletons per the number of isolates (ACs; see Supplementary  
127 Methods), we revealed a highly ‘open’ accumulation (Heap’s parameter  $\gamma=0.97$ , Fig. S3)  
128 suggesting further isolate sampling would detect more unique plasmids approximately  
129 linearly. Restricted to BSI/livestock-associated isolates alone, we found similar curves for  
130 both niches (BSI  $\gamma=0.98$ , livestock-associated  $\gamma=0.94$ ), suggesting they had similar levels of  
131 plasmid diversity.

132

133 Near-identical pairs of plasmids were most common, representing 71% (159/225) of groups  
134 (group size IQR=2-3, range=2-32). Plasmid members of near-identical groups represented  
135 multiple bacterial host STs (25% [56/225]), species (4% [9/225]), and genera (4% [9/225]),  
136 consistent with plasmids capable of inter-lineage/species/genus transfer. Further, 8% (17/225)  
137 of near-identical groups contained plasmids found across human BSIs and  $\geq 1$  other sampling  
138 niche (livestock-associated/WwTW-associated), suggesting inter-niche transfer (i.e., ‘cross-  
139 niche groups’; Fig. 2a). Within cross-niche groups,  $n=3/17$  contained plasmids from multiple  
140 bacterial species (Fig. 2b), and most consisted of conjugative plasmids ( $n=5/17$  conjugative,  
141  $n=9/17$  mobilisable,  $n=3/17$  non-mobilisable; Fig. 2c). AMR genes were carried by plasmids  
142 in  $n=6/17$  cross-niche groups (Fig. 2d), with  $n=5/6$  of these groups containing  $\geq 1$  beta-  
143 lactamase protein encoding gene.

144

145 Sharing between BSI and livestock-associated isolates was supported by 8/17 cross-niche  
146 groups ( $n=45$  plasmids). Of these,  $n=2/8$  contained non-mobilisable Col-type plasmids (one  
147 group contained BSI/pig/poultry/influent plasmids, and one group contained BSI/poultry  
148 plasmids);  $n=4/8$  contained mobilisable Col-type plasmids (two groups contained BSI/pig

149 plasmids, one group contained BSI/sheep plasmids, and one group contained  
150 BSI/cattle/pig/poultry/sheep/influent plasmids), of which one group contained BSI/pig  
151 plasmids carrying the AMR genes *aph(3")-Ib*, *aph(6)-Id*, *dfrA14*, and *sul2* (see  
152 Supplementary Methods). The remaining 2/8 groups contained conjugative FIB-type  
153 BSI/sheep plasmids. One group contained plasmids, carrying the AMR genes *aph(3")-Ib*,  
154 *aph(6)-Id*, *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*, *dfrA5*, *sul2*, and the other group contained plasmids carrying the MDR  
155 efflux pump protein *robA*.

156

157 The beta-lactamase *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* was the most common AMR gene detected (8% of total AMR  
158 gene annotations [424/5402]; see Supplementary Methods). In terms of sequence length (bp),  
159 plasmids made up 3.1% of the overall dataset but 13.8% of the *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*-carrying proportion.  
160 Of the plasmid clusters, 16% (39/247) carried *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*, and of these 9 clusters were seen in  
161 human BSI and at least one other niche. Plasmid clusters either variably or always carrying  
162 *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* were strongly associated with BSI ( $p<0.01$ , Chi-squared test  $\chi^2=8.19$ , 33/161 of BSI  
163 clusters containing *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* vs. 5/86 for non-BSI clusters) and carried a higher number of  
164 other AMR genes ( $p<0.01$ , Wilcoxon test of *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*-plasmid clusters vs. others; see Fig.  
165 S4).

166

167 **Plasmid clustering reveals a diverse but intertwined population structure across niches**  
168 Near-identical plasmids shared across niches are a likely signature of recent transfer events,  
169 but we also wanted to examine the wider plasmid population structure. We therefore  
170 agnostically clustered all plasmids based on alignment-free sequence similarity (clusters were  
171 groups of  $n \geq 3$  plasmids; see Supplementary Methods and Figs. S5-6). We defined  $n=247$   
172 plasmid clusters with median 5 members (IQR=3-10, range=3-123) recruiting 71%  
173 (2,627/3,697) of the plasmids. The remainder were either singletons (i.e., single, unconnected

174 plasmids; 19% [718/3,697]) or doubletons (i.e., pairs of connected plasmids; 10%  
175 [352/3,697]). By bootstrapping  $b=1,000$  ACs for plasmid clusters, doubletons, and singletons  
176 found against number of isolates sampled (Fig. S7; see Supplementary Methods), we  
177 estimated that the rarefaction curve had a Heap's parameter  $\gamma=0.75$ , suggesting further isolate  
178 sampling would likely detect more plasmid diversity and clusters.

179

180 Of the plasmid clusters,  $n=69/247$  (28%) plasmid clusters had  $\geq 10$  members, representing  
181 50% (1,832/3,697) of all plasmids (Fig. 3a). 122/247 (49%) clusters contained BSI plasmids  
182 and plasmids from  $\geq 1$  other niche. This included 73/247 (30%) of clusters with both BSI and  
183 livestock-associated plasmids, representing  $n=38$  unique plasmid replicon haplotypes (i.e.,  
184 combinations of replication proteins) of which only 24% (9/38) were Col-type plasmids,  
185 which are often well-conserved and carry few genes(24). 72/247 (29%) of clusters contained  
186 both BSI, and influent/effluent/downstream plasmids, reflecting a route of *Enterobacteriales*  
187 dissemination into waterways. In contrast, only 18/247 (7%) of clusters contained both BSI  
188 and upstream waterway plasmids, of which most (13/18 [72%]) also contained  
189 influent/effluent/downstream plasmids.

190

191 Overall, plasmid clusters scored high homogeneity ( $h$ ) but low completeness ( $c$ ) with respect  
192 to biological and ecological characteristics (non-putative PTUs [ $h=0.99$ ,  $c=0.66$ ]; replicon  
193 haplotype [ $h=0.92$ ,  $c=0.69$ ]; bacterial host ST [ $h=0.84$ ,  $c=0.14$ ] in Fig. 3b; predicted mobility  
194 [ $h=0.93$ ,  $c=0.20$ ] in Fig. 3c). This indicated that clustered plasmids often had similar  
195 characteristics, but the same characteristics were often observed in multiple clusters. The  
196 imperfect homogeneity is to be anticipated as replicon haplotypes and mobilities can vary  
197 within plasmid families, and plasmid families can have diverse host ranges(14).

198

199 Plasmids carrying AMR genes were found in 21% (52/247) of the plasmid clusters (i.e.,  
200 ‘antimicrobial resistance gene (ARG)-carrying clusters’), representing  $n=550$  plasmids (Fig.  
201 3d). Of the ARG-carrying clusters, 92% (48/52) contained at least one beta-lactamase-  
202 carrying plasmid ( $n=437$  plasmids in total). AMR genes were present in a median proportion  
203 67% of ARG-carrying cluster members (IQR=28-100%, range=3-100%). This highlights that  
204 AMR genes are not necessarily widespread on genetically similar plasmids and can be  
205 potentially acquired multiple different times through the activity of smaller MGEs (e.g.,  
206 transposons) or recombination. For example, cluster 12 was a group of  $n=42$  conjugative,  
207 PTU-F<sub>E</sub> plasmids found in BSI, wastewater, and waterways. Of these, 31% (13/42) carried  
208 the AMR gene *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*, and in a range of genetic contexts:  $n=9/13$  *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* genes were found  
209 within Tn3 and  $n=4/13$  were carried without a transposase, of which  $n=2/4$  were found with  
210 the additional AMR genes *aph(6)-Id*, *aph(3'')-Ib*, and *sul2*. AMR genes were  
211 disproportionately carried by F-type plasmids (61% [337/550] ARG-carrying cluster  
212 plasmids versus 34% [891/2627] of the total clustered plasmids), underlining the known role  
213 of F-type plasmids in AMR gene dissemination(13).

214

### 215 **An intertwined ecology of plasmids across human and livestock-associated niches**

216 Plasmids can change their genetic content, particularly when subject to new selective  
217 pressures(25,26). Many plasmids have a structure with a ‘backbone’ of conserved core genes  
218 and a ‘cargo’ of variable accessory genes(12,13,27). We wanted to explore evidence for  
219 cross-niche plasmids with minimal mutational evolution in a shared backbone (compatible  
220 with ~years of evolutionary separation) but variable accessory gene repertoires.

221

222 We first conducted a pangenome-style analysis (see Supplementary Methods) on the  
223  $n=69/247$  plasmid clusters with  $\geq 10$  members. For each cluster, we determined “core” (genes

224 found in  $\geq 95\%$  of plasmids) and “accessory” gene repertoires (found in  $<95\%$  of plasmids).  
225 Within clusters, we found median 9 core genes (IQR=4-53, range=0-219), and median 9  
226 accessory genes (IQR=3-145, range=0-801) (Fig. 3e). Core genes comprised a median  
227 proportion 42.2% of the total pangenome sizes (IQR=20.9-66.7%). At an individual plasmid  
228 level, core genes shared by a cluster comprised a median proportion 62.5% of each plasmid’s  
229 gene repertoire (IQR=37.4-83.3%; Fig. 3e). Putatively conjugative plasmids carried a  
230 significantly higher proportion of accessory genes in their repertoires than mobilisable/non-  
231 mobilisable plasmids (Kruskal-Wallis test [ $H(2)=193.01$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ] followed by  
232 Dunn’s test).

233

234 Using multiple sequence alignments of the core genes within each cluster, we produced  
235 maximum likelihood phylogenies (see Supp. File 1 and Supplementary Methods). For this  
236 step, we only considered the  $n=62/69$  clusters where each plasmid had  $\geq 1$  core gene. With the  
237  $n=27/62$  clusters that contained both BSI and livestock-associated plasmids, we measured the  
238 phylogenetic signal for plasmid sampling niche using Fritz and Purvis’  $D$  (see Table S1 and  
239 Supplementary Methods). The analysis indicated that the evolutionary history of plasmid  
240 clusters is neither strictly segregated by sampling niche nor completely intermixed, but  
241 something intermediate.

242

243 Alongside the core gene phylogenies, we generated gene repertoire heatmaps (example  
244 cluster 2 in Fig. 4a-b; all clusters and heatmaps in Supp. File 1). By visualising the genes in a  
245 consensus synteny order (see Supplementary Methods), the putative backbone within each  
246 plasmid cluster is shown alongside its accessory gene and transposase repertoire. This  
247 highlights how plasmids might gain/lose accessory functions within a persistent backbone.  
248 Log-transformed linear regression revealed a significant relationship between Jaccard

249 distance of accessory genes presence against core gene cophenetic distance  
250 ( $y=0.080\log(x)+0.978$ ,  $R^2=0.47$ ,  $F(1,52988)=4.75e4$ ,  $p$ -value <0.001; see Fig. S8 and  
251 Supplementary Methods).

252

253 **Plasmid evolution between human and livestock-associated niches is not structured by**  
254 **bacterial host**

255 Alongside vertical inheritance, conjugative and mobilisable plasmids are capable of inter-host  
256 transfer, crossing between bacterial lineages, species, up to phyla(14). Phylogenetic analysis  
257 can determine whether plasmid evolution between BSI and livestock-associated niches is  
258 driven by host clonal expansion or other means, as well as allow us to explore the early  
259 emergence of AMR gene carrying plasmids.

260

261 As a detailed example, we evaluated the largest plasmid cluster containing both human and  
262 livestock-associated plasmids (cluster 2,  $n=100$  members). All plasmids carried at least one  
263 F-type replicon and were all putatively conjugative, with 75% (75/100) and 25% (25/100)  
264 assigned PTU-F<sub>E</sub> and a putative PTU, respectively. Further, 48% (48/100) plasmids carried  
265 *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*, and 51% (51/100) carried >1 AMR gene. All host chromosomes were *E. coli* except  
266 OX-BSI-481\_2 (*S. enterica* ST 2998; hereon omitted from the analysis). The  $n=99$  *E. coli*  
267 isolates represented six phylogroups: A (5/99), B1 (18/99), B2 (52/99), C (14/99), D (7/99),  
268 and G (3/99; see Supplementary Methods).

269

270 Figure 4b-c shows the plasmid core gene phylogeny ( $T_{\text{plasmid}}$ ) and the *E. coli* host core gene  
271 phylogeny ( $T_{\text{chromosome}}$ ). The *E. coli* phylogeny was structured by six clades corresponding to  
272 the six phylogroups (see Supplementary Methods). We found low congruence between the  
273 plasmid core-gene phylogeny and the chromosomal core-gene phylogeny as seen in the

274 central ‘tanglegram’ (i.e., lines connecting pairs of plasmid and chromosome tips from the  
275 same isolate). Additionally, we calculated a Robinson-Foulds distance  $RF(T_{\text{plasmid}},$   
276  $T_{\text{chromosome}})=162$ , reflecting a high number of structural differences between the phylogenies  
277 (see Supplementary Methods). There was some evidence of plasmid structuring by niche  
278 (Fritz and Purvis’  $D=0.24$ ; see Supplementary Methods).

279

280 Within the plasmid phylogeny, there was a clade of  $n=44$  plasmids (support 100%; circled in  
281 grey in Figure 4b) containing both BSI and livestock-associated plasmids, which were within  
282 median 4 core gene SNPs of each other (IQR=2-8, range=0-59). Estimating plasmid  
283 evolution at an approximate rate of one SNP per year (see Supplementary Methods) would  
284 give a median time to most recent common ancestor of the backbone at approximately 4  
285 years prior to sampling, consistent with recent movement between human and livestock-  
286 associated niches. This plasmid clade was mainly present in phylogroup B2 (20/44), but also  
287 A (3/44), B1 (9/44), C (8/44), and D (4/44), suggesting plasmid movement. Further, 77%  
288 (34/44) of plasmids within the clade carried *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* (BSI: 25/34, Livestock-associated: 8/34,  
289 WwTW-associated: 1/34), and 82% (36/44) carried  $\geq 1$  AMR gene, highlighting the role of  
290 plasmids in cross-niche dissemination of AMR.

291

292 To examine the evolution of entire plasmid sequences within the clade, we represented all  
293  $n=44$  plasmids as a ‘pangraph’ (Figure 4d; see Supplementary Methods). Briefly, pangraph  
294 converts input sequences into a consensus graph, where each sequence is a path along a set of  
295 homologous sequence alignments i.e., ‘blocks’, which in series form ‘pancontigs’. Filtering  
296 for ‘core blocks’ (i.e., those found in  $\geq 95\%$  plasmids), we found 4 pancontigs (40 blocks  
297 total), with the longest 98,269bp (total length 125,369bp), indicating a putative plasmid  
298 backbone (Fig. 4e). Then, filtering for ‘accessory blocks’ (i.e., those found in  $<95\%$

299 plasmids), we found 18 pancontigs (39 blocks total), with median length 2,380bp (total length  
300 63,753bp), forming the accessory gene repertoire (Fig. 4f). This points to a persistent plasmid  
301 backbone structure with loss/gain events at particular ‘hotspots’ as well as rearrangements.

302

303 **Discussion**

304 Sharing of plasmids between different niches is normally focused on those carrying AMR  
305 genes that are of particular current clinical concern, such as extended-spectrum beta-  
306 lactamase (ESBL) or carbapenemase genes, meaning we lack information on the vast  
307 ‘denominator’ of background plasmid sharing, and on the dissemination of other AMR genes  
308 which are now widespread in clinical isolates and from which important insights might be  
309 gained. By analysing a dataset of  $n=3,697$  systematically collected *Enterobacterales* plasmids  
310 sampled from human BSI, livestock- and WwTW-associated sources in a geographically and  
311 temporally restricted context, we found evidence supporting significant plasmid  
312 dissemination across niches, putting those which carry AMR genes of current major clinical  
313 concern into context. We found 225 instances of shared, near-identical plasmid groups, 25%  
314 of which were found across multiple bacterial STs, 4% across multiple bacterial species, and  
315 8% in both human BSI and  $\geq 1$  non-BSI niche. Beyond this near-identical sharing, we  
316 analysed ‘clusters’ of plasmids and found that 73/247 clusters contained plasmids seen in  
317 both human BSIs and other contexts. Approximately a fifth (52/247) of plasmid clusters  
318 contained plasmids carrying AMR genes ( $n=550$  plasmids). Our results suggest the need for  
319 broad, unselected, and detailed sampling frames to fully understand plasmid diversity and  
320 evolution, and to evaluate the “One Health” risk of AMR associated with plasmid-sharing  
321 across niches.

322

323 Whilst many plasmid clusters were strongly structured by host phylogeny and isolate source,  
324 some plasmids from human BSIs were highly genetically related to those in other niches,  
325 including livestock. However, not all of these carried AMR genes. Our results highlight the  
326 potential routes for transfer that exist through similar plasmids. However, recovering these  
327 instances of putative sharing is a sampling challenge. Accumulation curve analyses suggested  
328 increasing the size of our dataset would have led to further near-identical matches at an  
329 approximately linear rate, meaning even a dataset of this size captures only a small fraction of  
330 the true extent of plasmid sharing between human clinical and other non-human/clinical  
331 niches. This presents a challenge for designing appropriately powered studies. Had we only  
332 sampled  $n=100$  livestock-associated isolates (i.e., around 20% of our actual sample), there  
333 was only a 39% chance that we would have detected  $\geq 5$  matches with BSI plasmids (Fig. S9).

334

335 Understanding the evolutionary history, distribution, and epidemiology of well-known genes  
336 in environmental plasmids may offer insights into the future trajectories of more recently  
337 emerged genes. For example, the first plasmid-encoded beta-lactamase to be described was  
338 *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>*, identified in 1965 in an *E. coli* isolate in Greece(28) and now widely prevalent in  
339 *Enterobacteriales*(29). *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* has a narrow spectrum of activity and is now less clinically  
340 concerning than newer genes which mediate broad-spectrum resistance, but in our dataset  
341 *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* was strongly associated with plasmid clusters seen in BSI and with the carriage of  
342 other AMR genes. *bla<sub>TEM-1</sub>* may continue to play an important role in the spread of AMR-  
343 carrying plasmids which can transfer recently emerged genes, and similarities in its  
344 association with plasmids and other smaller transposable mobile genetic elements may reflect  
345 the future trajectory of other AMR genes of more recent clinical concern such as ESBLs and  
346 carbapenemases.

347

348 Given that plasmids observed in BSI isolates represent small proportion of human  
349 *Enterobacteriales* diversity, many more sharing events may occur in the human gut(30) which  
350 we only sampled incompletely using wastewater influent as a proxy. The human colon  
351 contains around  $10^{14}$  bacteria(31), with large ranges of *Enterobacteriaceae* abundance.  
352 Further, even small numbers of across-niche sharing events, such as transfer events of  
353 important AMR genes from species-to-species or niche-to-niche, may have significant  
354 clinical implications, as has been seen with several important AMR genes globally. Future  
355 studies need to carefully consider the limitations of sampling frames in detecting any genetic  
356 overlap, given both substantial diversity and the effects of niches and geography(11,16).

357

358 By examining plasmid relatedness compared to bacterial host relatedness, we demonstrated  
359 that cross-niche plasmid spread is not driven by clonal lineages. Using a pangenome-style  
360 analysis, we showed that plasmids can share sets of near-identical core genes alongside  
361 diverse accessory gene repertoires. While plasmids with more distantly related core genes  
362 tended to have dissimilar accessory gene content, plasmids with more closely related core  
363 genes shared a wide range of accessory gene content. This would be consistent with a  
364 hypothesis of persistent ‘backbone’ structures gaining and losing accessory functions as they  
365 move between hosts and niches. We suggest that this mode of transfer might be worth  
366 considering. Evolutionary models for plasmids which can accommodate well-conserved  
367 backbone evolution alongside accessory structural changes and gain/loss events are urgently  
368 needed. Estimating plasmid evolutionary rates remains a challenge, with little known about  
369 appropriate values for mutation rates in plasmids, and even less for non-mutational processes  
370 such as gene gain/loss.

371

372 Our study had several limitations. Our non-BSI isolates were not as temporally varied as the  
373 BSI isolates, meaning we could not fully explore temporal evolution. Isolate-based  
374 methodologies are limited in evaluating the true diversity of the niches sampled; composite  
375 approaches including metagenomics might shed additional insight in future studies. Further,  
376 the exact source of an isolate is poorly defined for wastewater/waterway isolates as they act  
377 as a confluence of multiple sources, although they represent important niches in their own  
378 right. We only analysed plasmids from complete genomes i.e., where the chromosome and all  
379 plasmids were circularised, meaning we disregarded ~23% and ~33% of BSI and non-BSI  
380 assemblies, respectively. The exclusive use of complete assemblies was to ensure full  
381 plasmid sequences could be examined in their full genomic context. We only focused on  
382 plasmids as horizontally transmissible elements here; detailed study of other smaller mobile  
383 genetic elements across-niches would represent interesting future work. We have also  
384 investigated a limited subset of *Enterobacteriales*: plasmid sharing likely extends to other  
385 bacterial hosts not investigated here. Lastly, our isolate culture methods for livestock-  
386 associated samples may not have been as sensitive for the identification of *Klebsiella* spp. as  
387 for other *Enterobacteriales* such as *Escherichia*, as we did not use enrichment and selective  
388 culture on Simmons citrate agar with inositol(32).

389  
390 In conclusion, this study presents to our knowledge the largest evaluation of systematically  
391 collected *Enterobacteriales* plasmids across human and non-human niches within a  
392 geographically and temporally restricted context. Plasmids can clearly disseminate between  
393 niches, although this dynamic likely varies by cluster; the overall number of near-identical  
394 plasmid groups identified across niches consistent with recent transfer events was 8%  
395 (17/225) and influenced by sample size. We demonstrate a likely intertwined ecology of  
396 plasmids across human and non-human niches, where different plasmid clusters are variably

397 but incompletely structured and putative ‘backbone’ plasmid structures can rapidly gain and  
398 lose accessory genes following cross-niche spread. Future “One Health” studies require dense  
399 and unselected sampling, and complete/near-complete plasmid reconstruction, to  
400 appropriately understand plasmid epidemiology across niches.

401

## 402 **Materials and Methods**

### 403 **Livestock-associated isolates**

404  $n=247$  *Enterobacterales* isolates from farm-proximate soils and poultry faeces ( $n=19$  farms;  
405  $n=5$  cattle,  $n=4$  pig,  $n=5$  poultry,  $n=5$  sheep) were collected and sequenced for this study in  
406 2017-2020. DNA extraction and sequencing was performed as in Shaw *et al.*, 2021(11).  
407 Genomes were hybrid assemblies reconstructed using Unicycler(33) (v. 0.4.4; default hybrid  
408 assembly parameters except min\_component\_size 500 and --min\_dead\_end\_size 500). Only  
409 complete assemblies (plasmids and chromosomes) were considered ( $n=162/247$ ).

### 410 **BSI isolates**

411 Sequenced Human BSI *Enterobacterales* isolates from patients presenting to  $n=4$  hospitals  
412 within Oxfordshire, UK, September 2008-December 2018, as described in Lipworth *et al.*,  
413 2021(34) were also included. Although all patients were sampled in Oxfordshire, a total of  
414  $n=505/738$  patients resided in Oxfordshire,  $n=133/738$  in surrounding counties, and  
415  $n=100/738$  had location information omitted. Only complete assemblies ( $n=738/953$  total  
416 assembled) were considered.

### 417 **Other livestock-associated and WwTW-associated isolates**

418 *Enterobacterales* isolates from faeces from the  $n=14$  non-poultry farms and wastewater  
419 influent, effluent, and waterways upstream/downstream of effluent outlets surrounding  $n=5$   
420 WwTWs, across 3 seasonal timepoints in 2017 (as in (11)) were included. Only complete  
421 assemblies ( $n=558/827$  total assembled) were considered.

422 **Statistical analysis and bioinformatics**

423 Chromosome sequence types (STs) were determined with mlst (v. 2.19.0; see Supplementary  
424 Methods). To generate accumulation curves (ACs), new plasmid diversity was recorded for  
425 each isolate sampled randomly, without replacement. A bootstrapped average of  $b=1,000$   
426 ACs was used to estimate a Heap's parameter ( $\gamma$ ) by fitting a linear regression to log-log  
427 transformed data see (Supplementary Methods). We adopted three approaches to plasmid  
428 classification, using COPLA to classify plasmids into broad plasmid taxonomic units (PTUs),  
429 and also grouping and clustering plasmids into smaller clusters using alignment-free  
430 distances (see Supplementary Methods). Within plasmid clusters, we identified core genes  
431 with Panaroo (v. 1.2.9), aligned them with mafft (v7.407) and produced trees with IQ-tree (v.  
432 2.0.6). Plots were primally produced using the R library ggplot2, with additional graphics in  
433 BioRender. More information can be found in the Supplementary Methods.

434

435 **Data availability**

436 Study metadata is provided in Table S2. Accessions for poultry and environmental soil isolate  
437 reads are given in Table S3, and assemblies will shortly be made available on NCBI.  
438 Accessions for existing BSI and REHAB reads and assemblies can be found in Lipworth *et*  
439 *al.*, 2021(34) (BioProject PRJNA604975) and Shaw *et al.*, 2021(11) (BioProject  
440 PRJNA605147) respectively.

441 **Code availability**

442 Analysis scripts can be found in the GitHub repository

443 <https://github.com/wtmatlock/oxfordshire-overlap>.

444 **REHAB Consortium.**

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484

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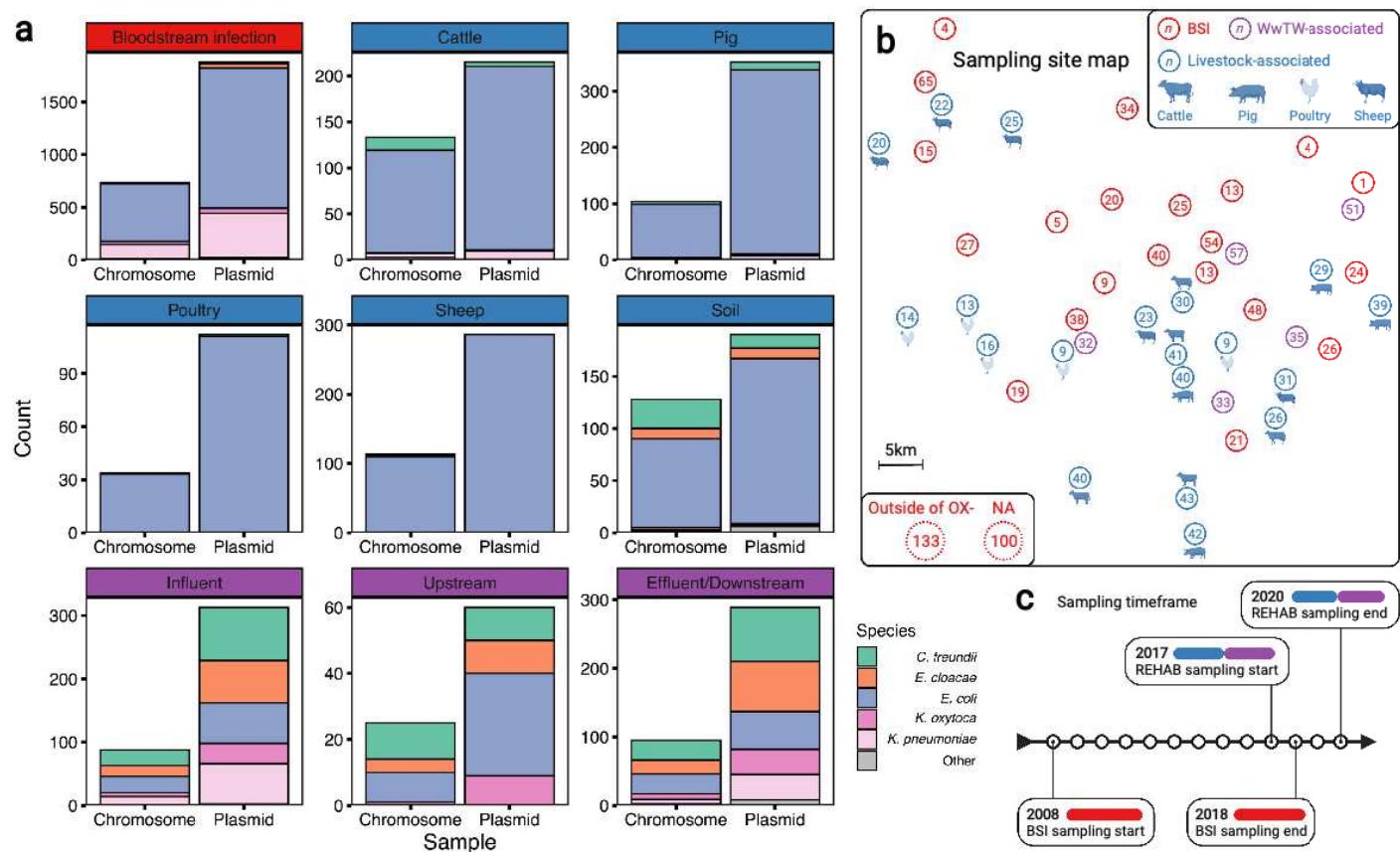
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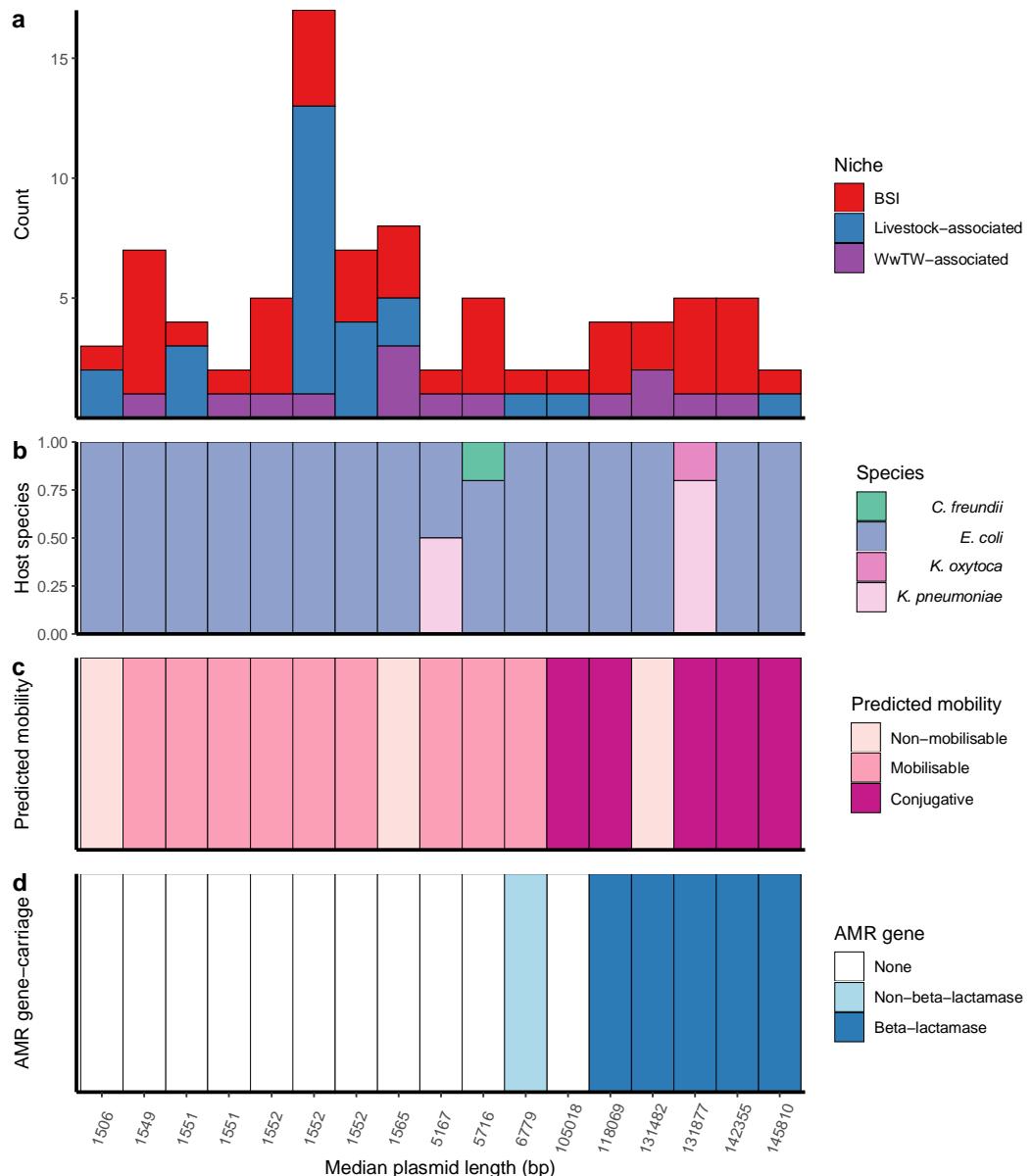
593 **Fig. 1. A diverse sample of geographically and temporally restricted *Enterobacteriales***

594 (a) Number of chromosomes and plasmids by niche, stratified by isolate genus. (b) Map of  
 595 approximate, relative distances between sampling sites, coloured by niche (human  
 596 bloodstream infection [BSI], livestock-associated (cattle, pig, poultry, and sheep faeces, soils  
 597 nearby livestock sites), and wastewater treatment work (WwTW)-associated sources  
 598 (influent, effluent, waterways upstream/downstream of effluent outlets). Number in circles  
 599 indicates how many of the  $n=1,458$  isolates are from that location. (c) Sampling timeframe  
 600 for BSI and REHAB (non-BSI) isolates.



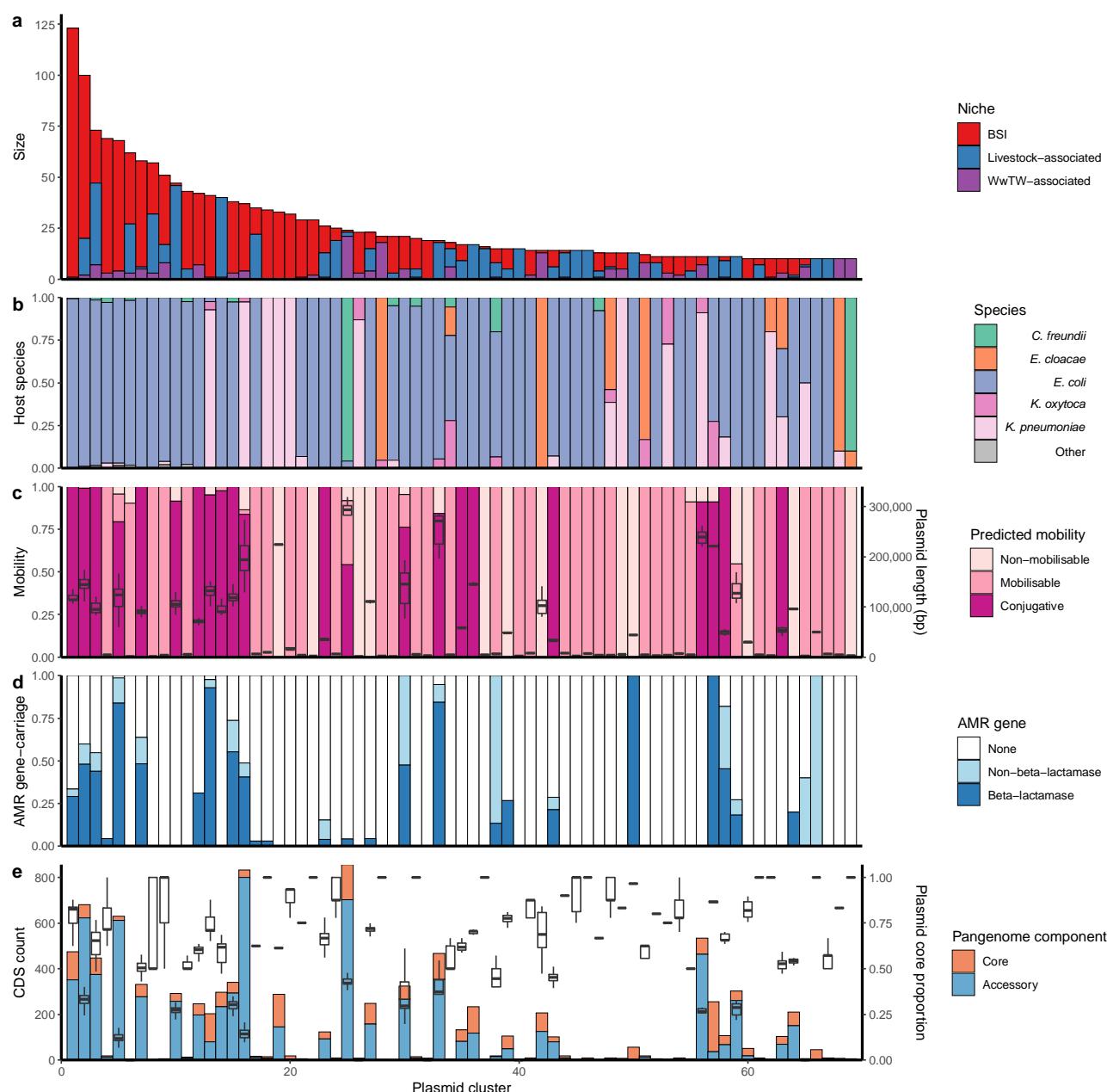
601 **Fig. 2 Cross-niche, near-identical plasmids.**

602 **(a)** Size of cross-niche, near-identical plasmid groups, coloured by niche (total  $n=84$   
603 plasmids). Median length (bp) of plasmids within groups increases from left to right. **(b)**  
604 Proportion of plasmid host species by group. **(c)** Predicted mobility of plasmid. **(d)** AMR  
605 gene carriage in plasmid.



606 **Fig. 3. Genetically similar plasmids share between niches**

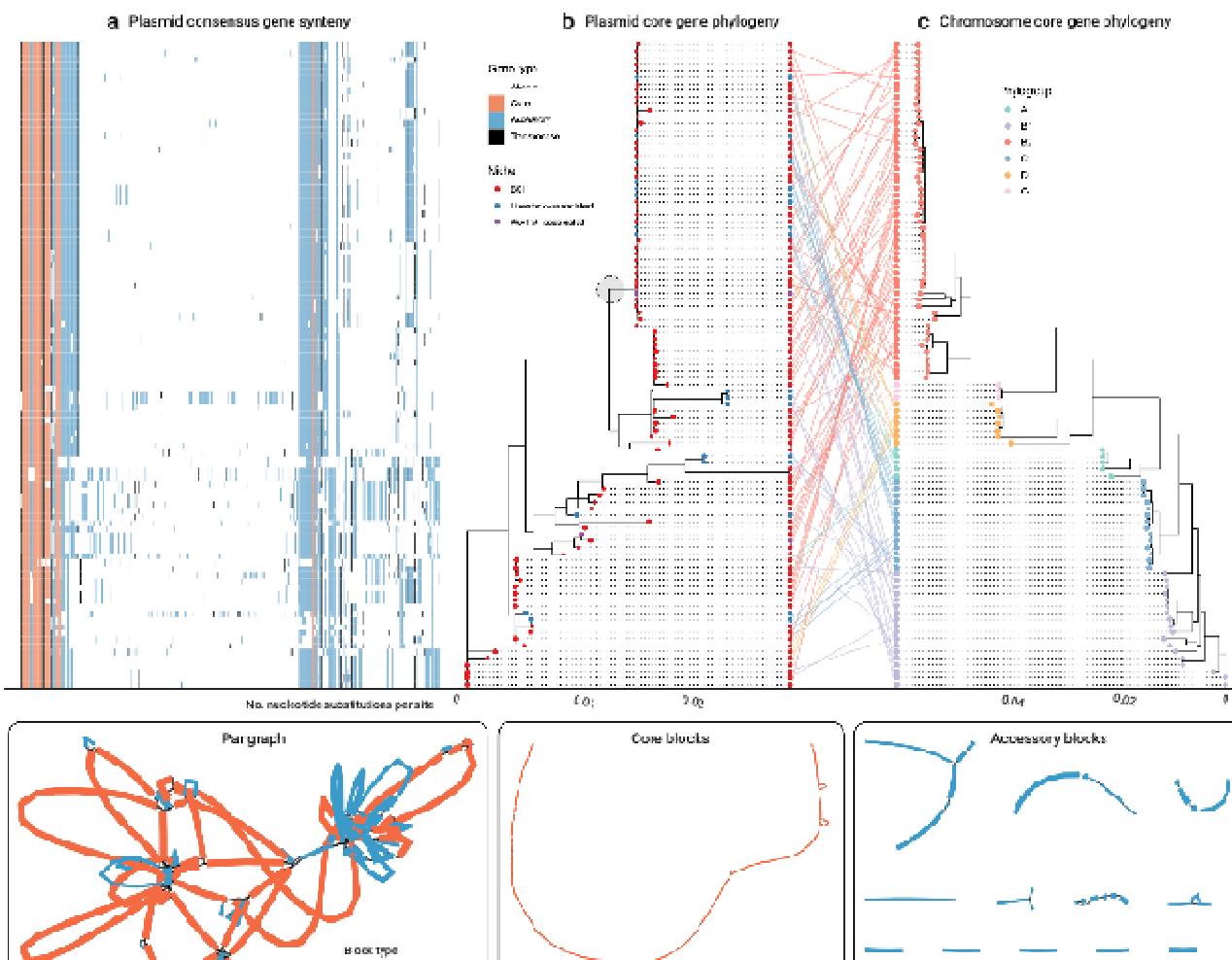
607 **(a)** Size of plasmid clusters with at least 10 members, coloured by niche. Size of clusters  
 608 decreases from left to right. **(b)** Proportion of plasmid host species by cluster. **(c)** Plasmid  
 609 mobility class and size: Left hand axis shows proportion of plasmids with a predicted  
 610 mobility class by cluster. Right hand axis shows plasmid length boxplots by cluster. **(d)**  
 611 Proportions of AMR gene carriage by cluster. **(e)** Plasmid core and accessory genomes: Left  
 612 hand axis shows the count of core and accessory coding sequences (CDS) by cluster. Right  
 613 hand axis shows plasmid core gene proportion (i.e., plasmid core CDS/total plasmid CDS)

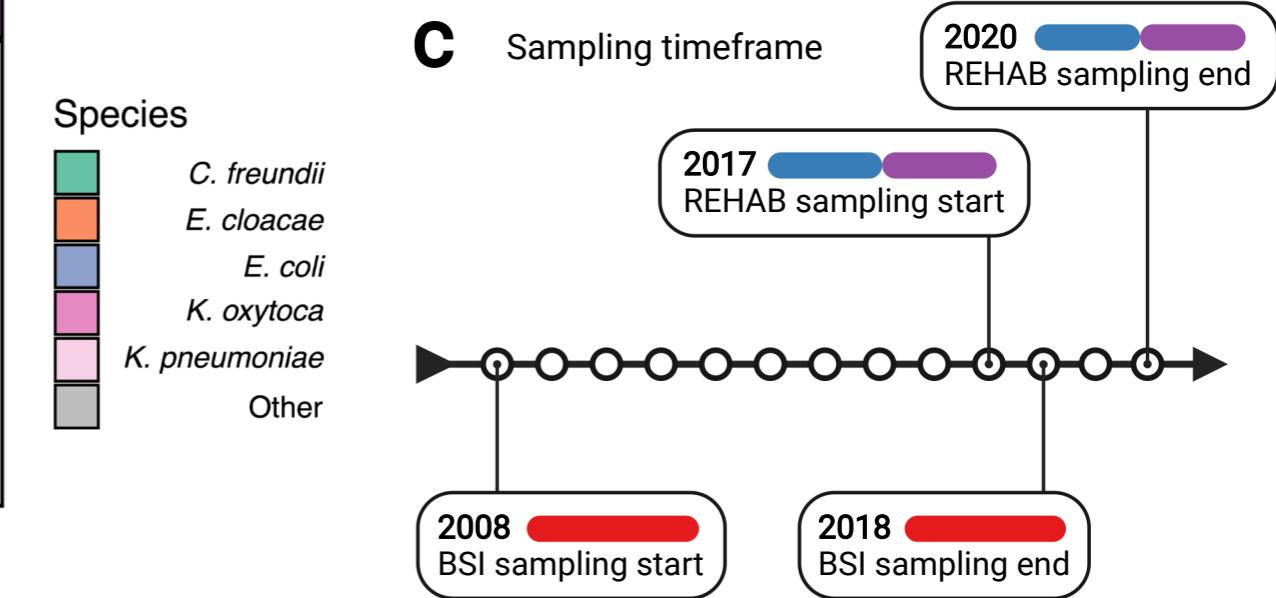
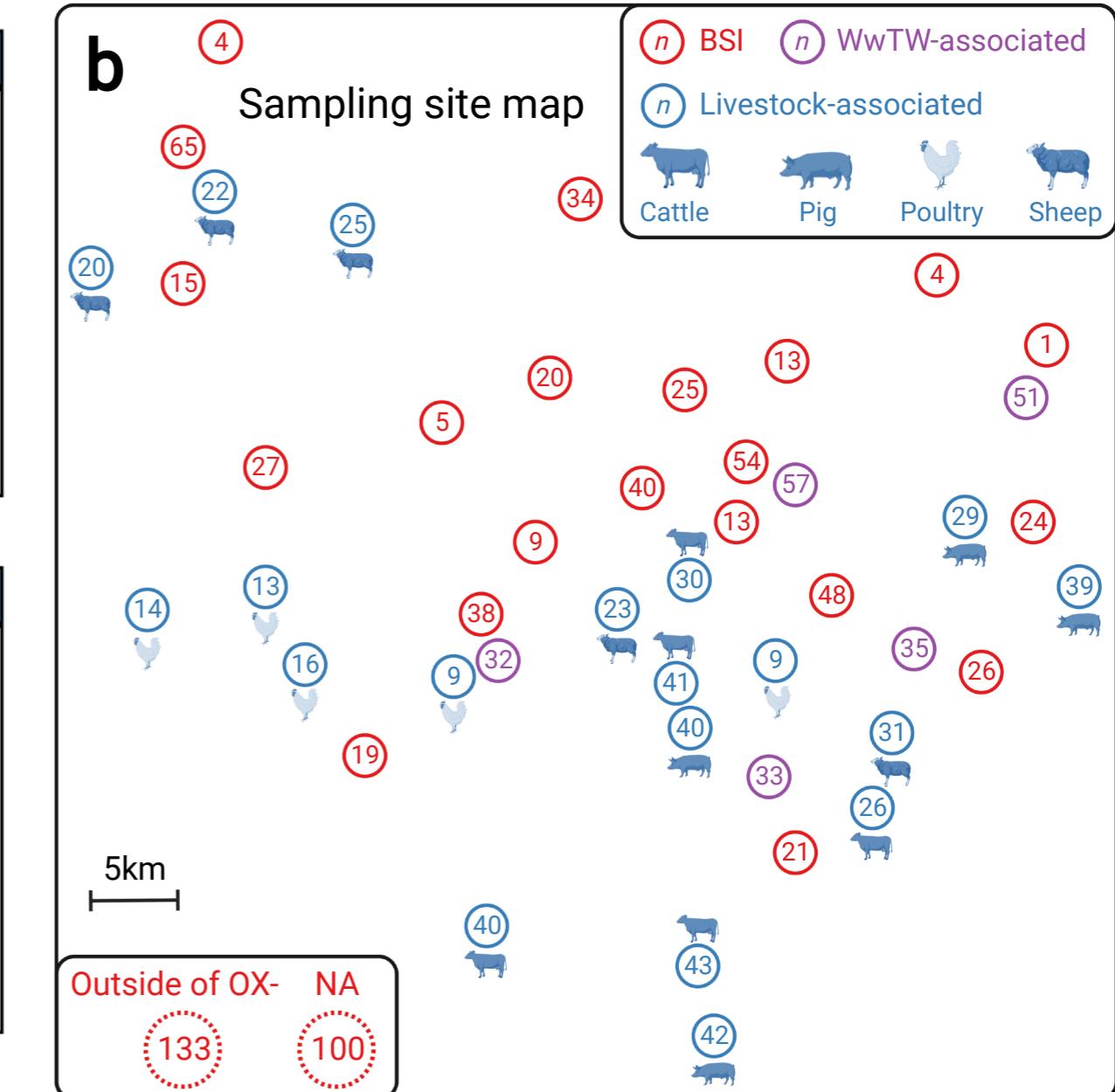
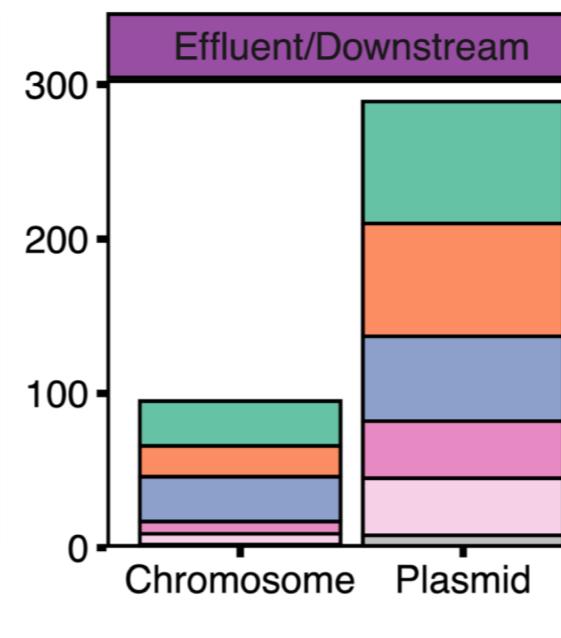
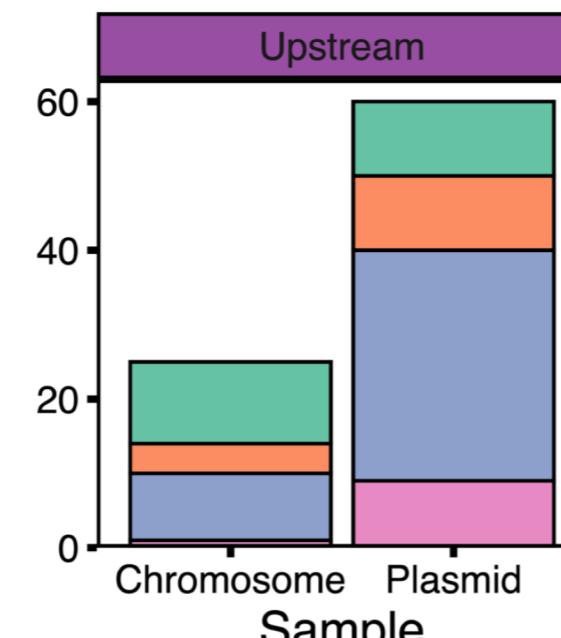
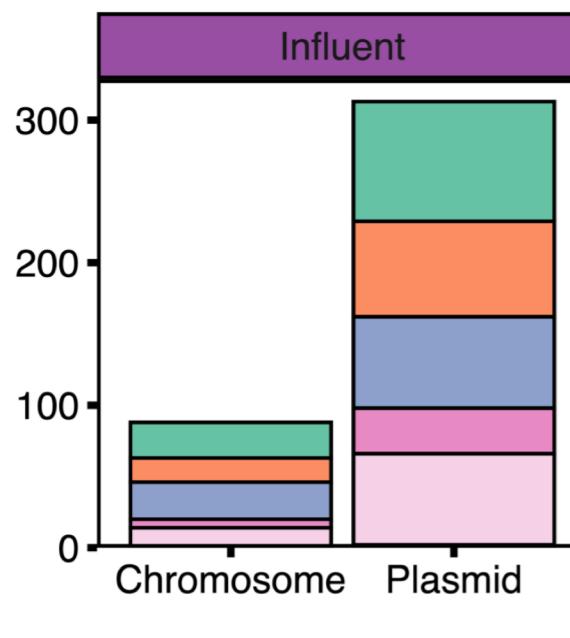
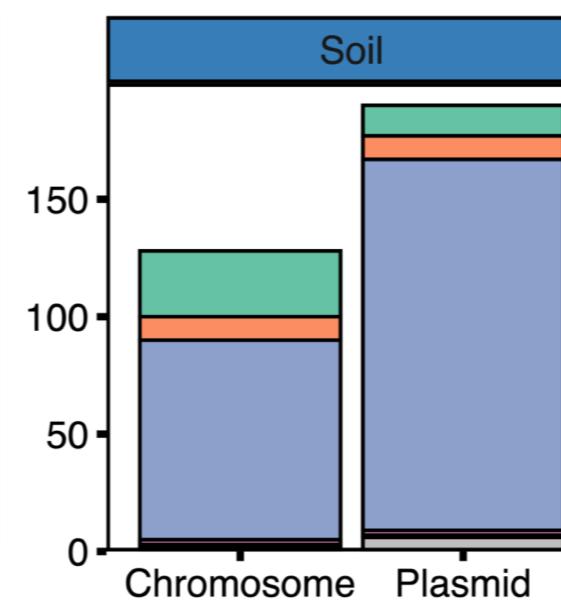
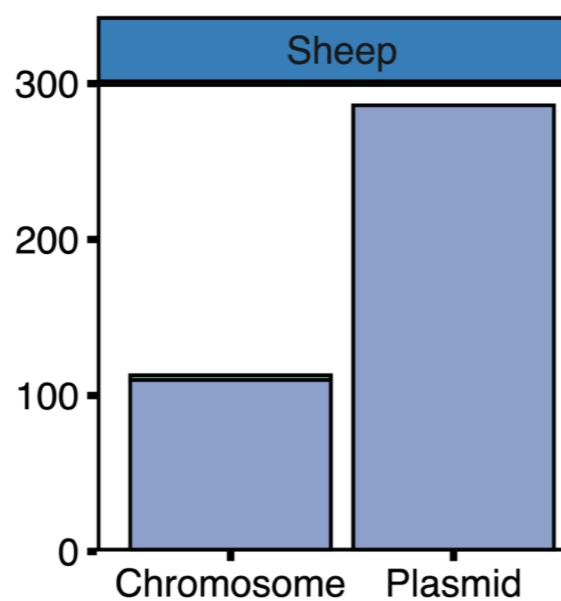
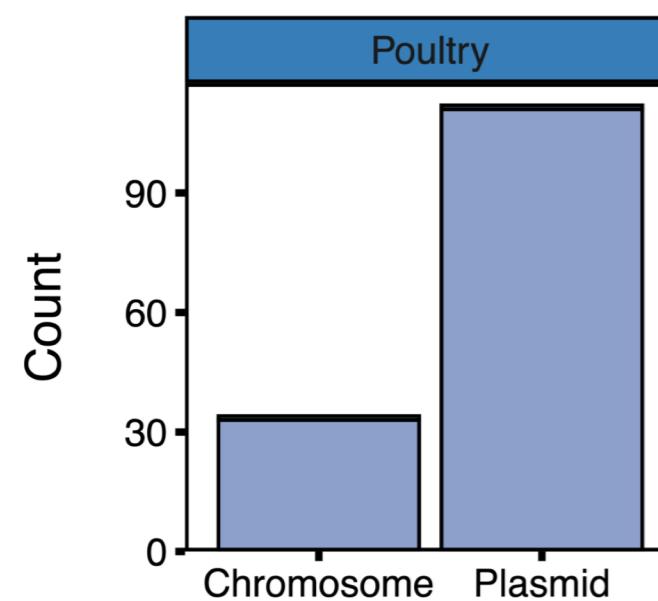
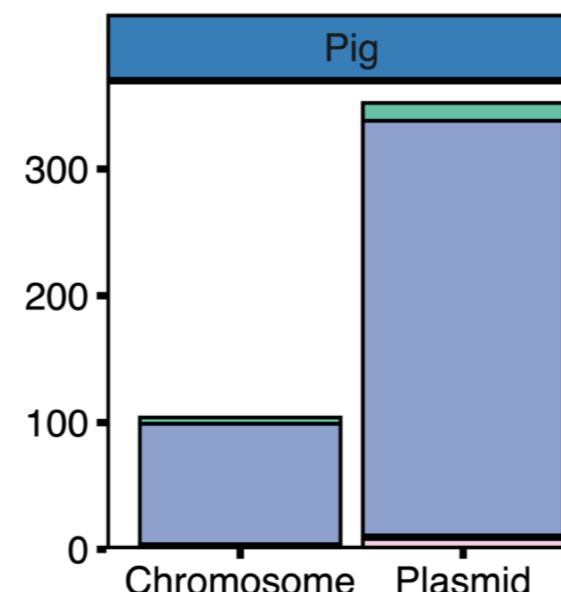
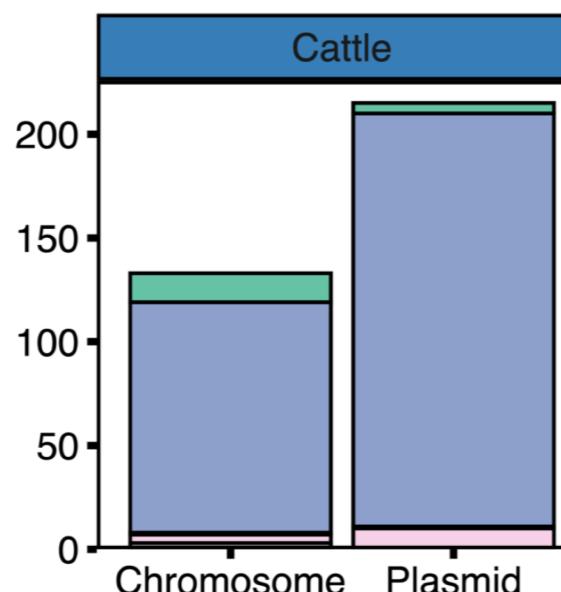
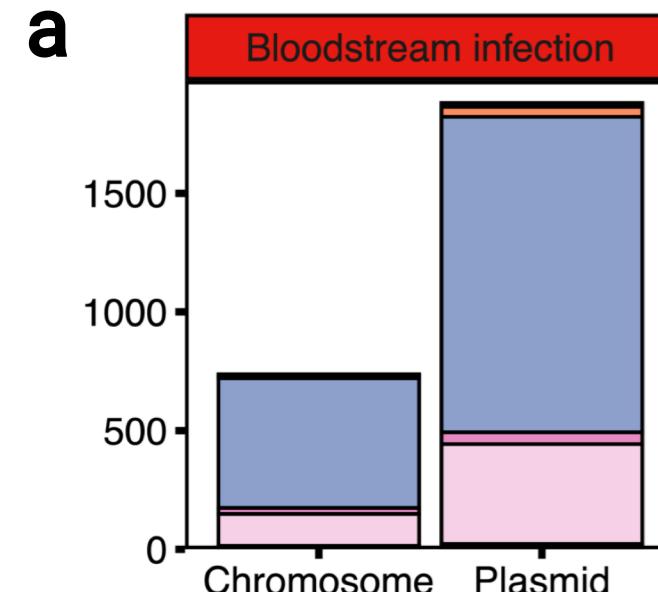


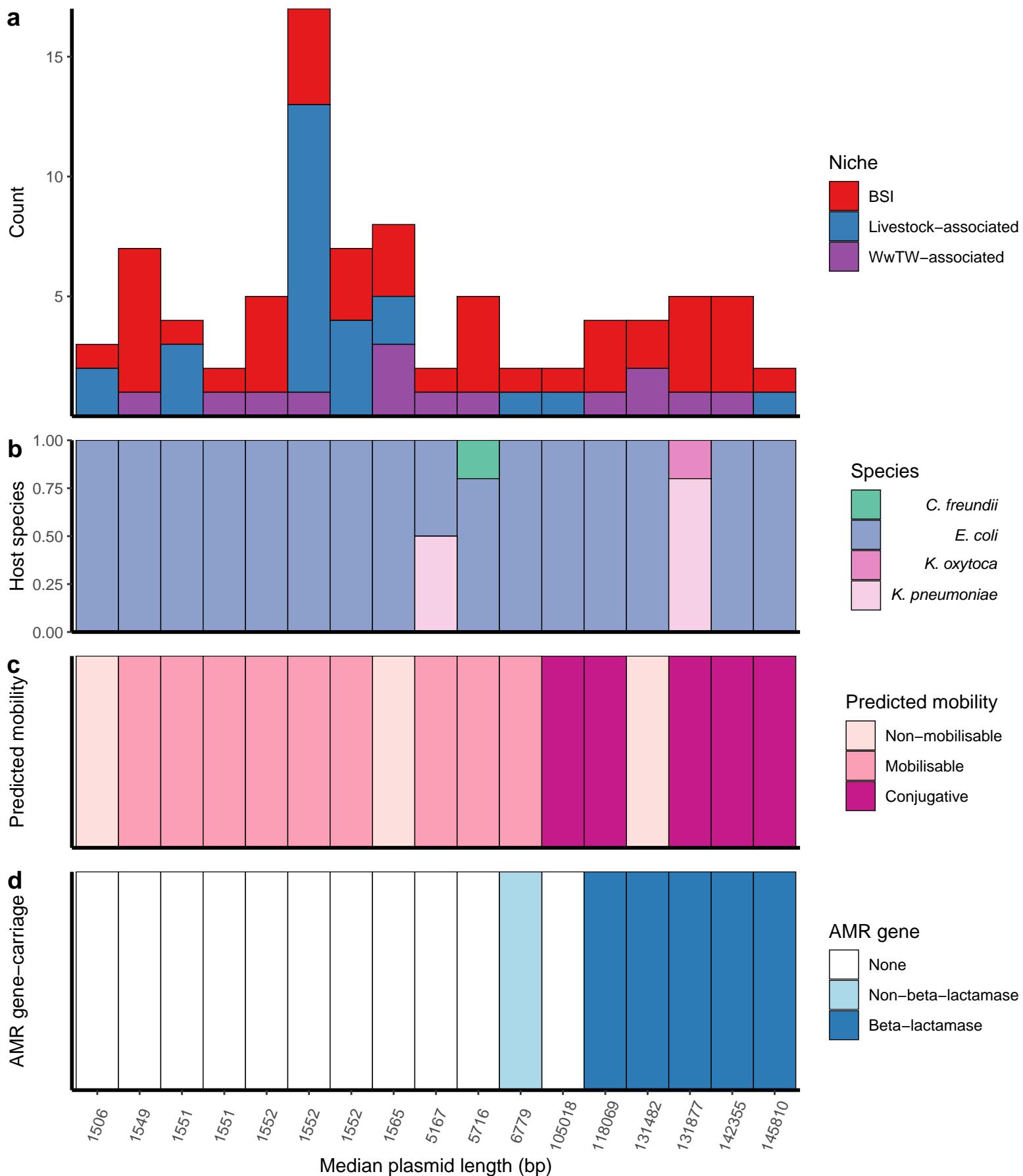
614 boxplots by cluster.

615 **Fig. 4. Cluster 2 plasmid and host evolution**

616 **(a)** Consensus gene ordering for plasmid cluster 2, coloured by gene type (total  $n=99$   
617 plasmids;  $n=1$  *S. enterica* isolate omitted). Genes are coloured by core, accessory, or  
618 transposase. **(b)** Plasmid core gene phylogeny with tips coloured by sampling niche. The grey  
619 circle highlights the clade of  $n=44$  plasmids which were further analysed. **(c)** Plasmid host  
620 chromosome core gene phylogeny with tips coloured by sampling niche. Plasmid and host  
621 phylogeny tips are connected in a ‘tanglegram’ which connects pairs of plasmids and  
622 chromosomes from the same isolate. **(d)** Visualisation of the pangraph for  $n=44$  plasmids in  
623 the grey-circled clade in (b). Blocks are coloured by presence in plasmids. **(e)** Core blocks  
624 (found in at least 95% of the  $n=44$  plasmids). **(f)** Accessory blocks (found in less than 95% of  
625 the  $n=44$  plasmids).

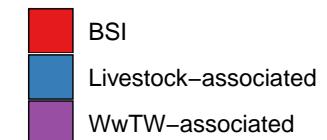
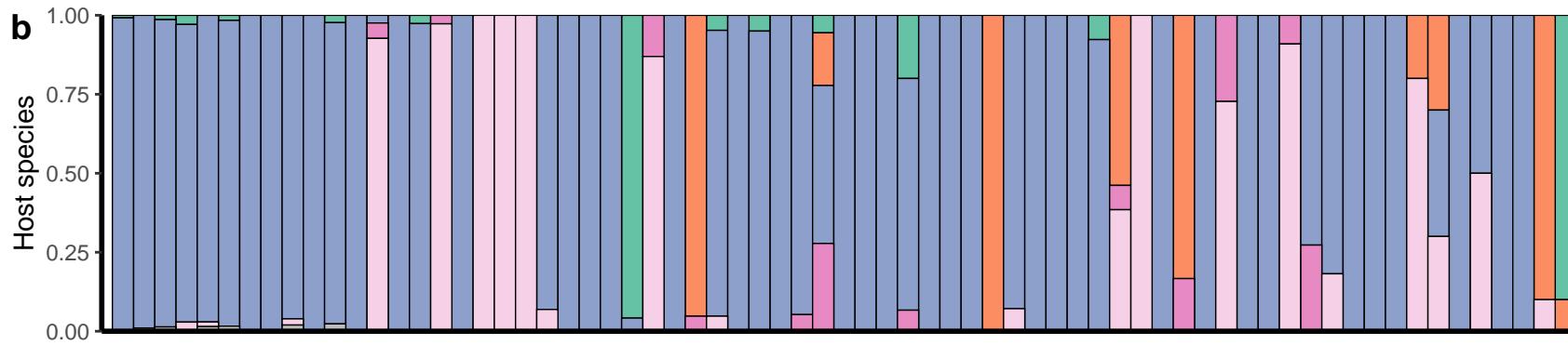
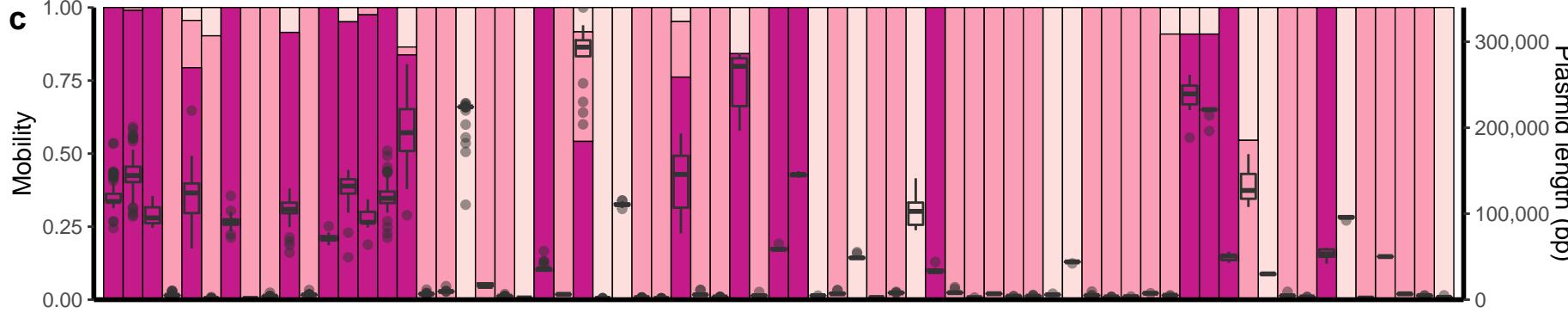
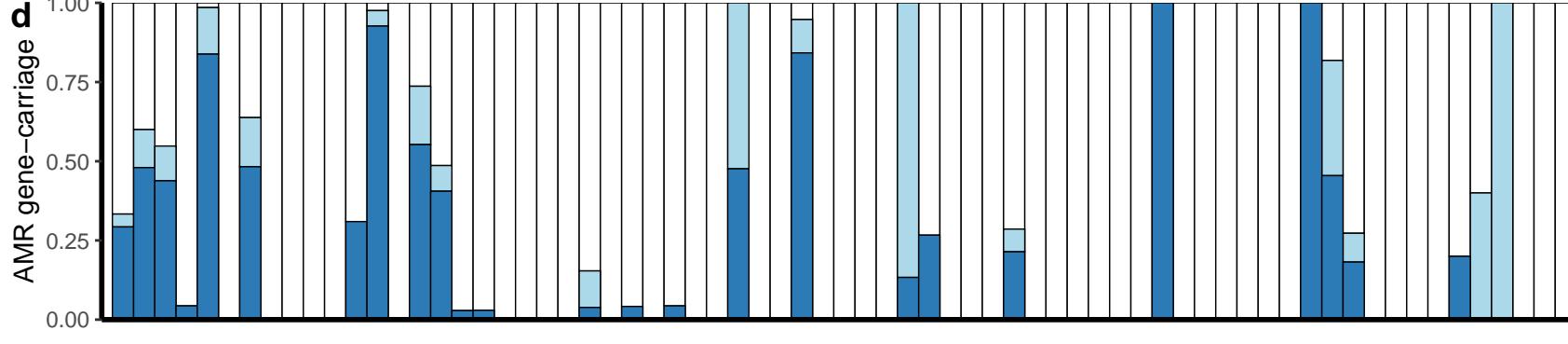
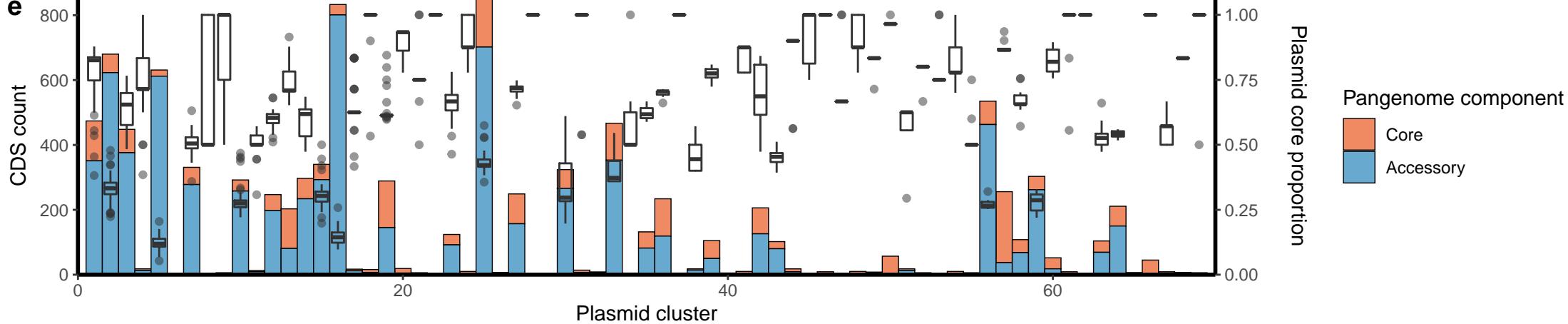


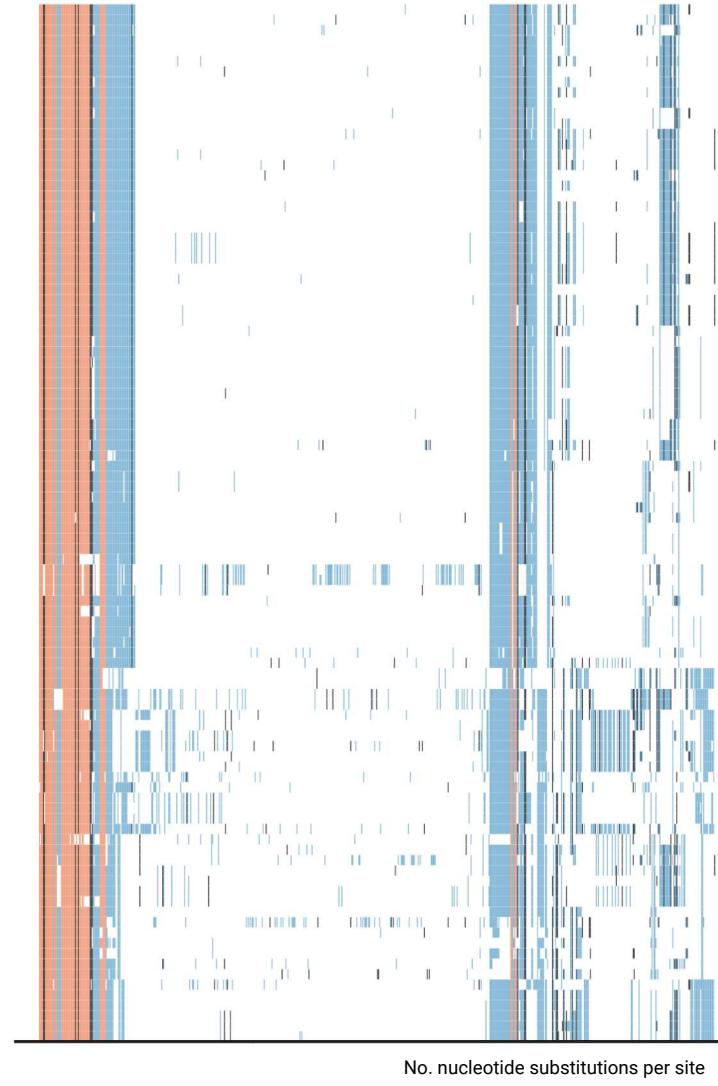
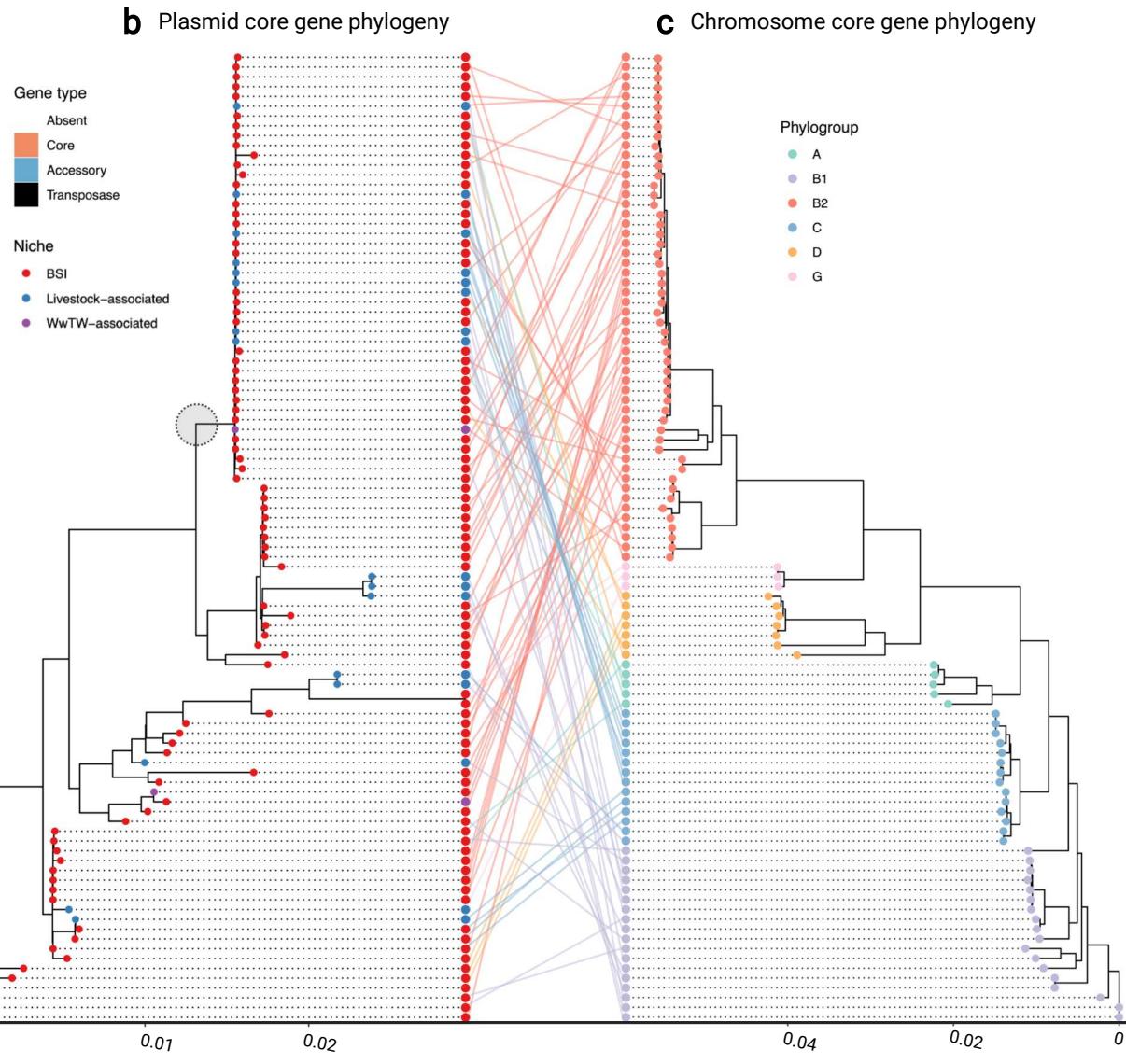
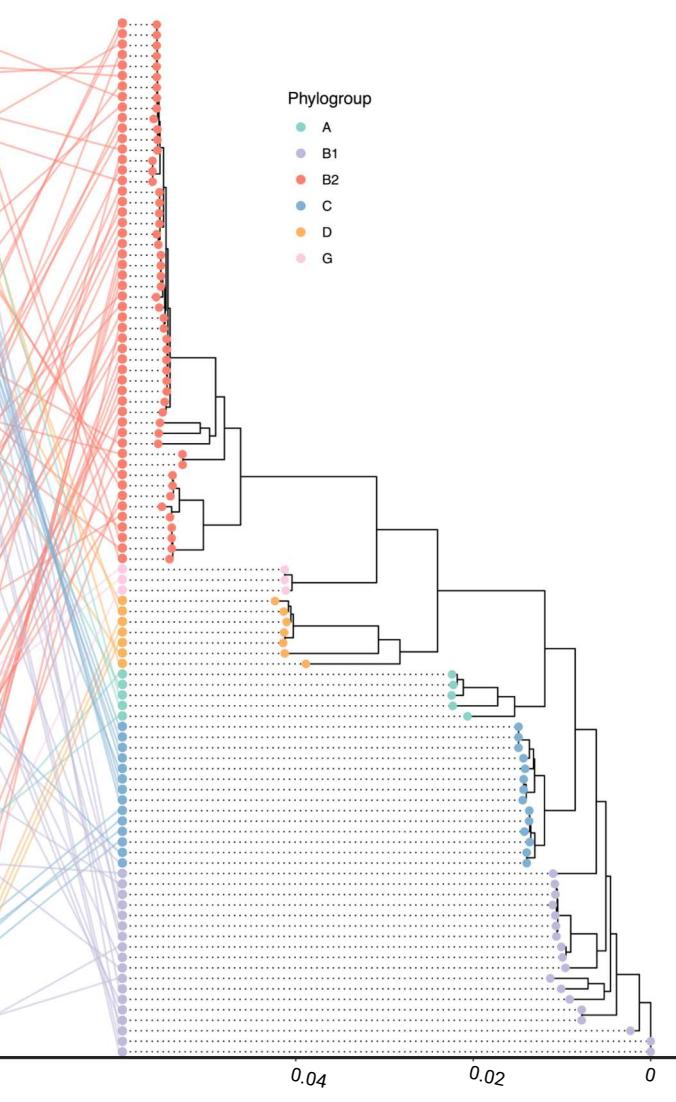
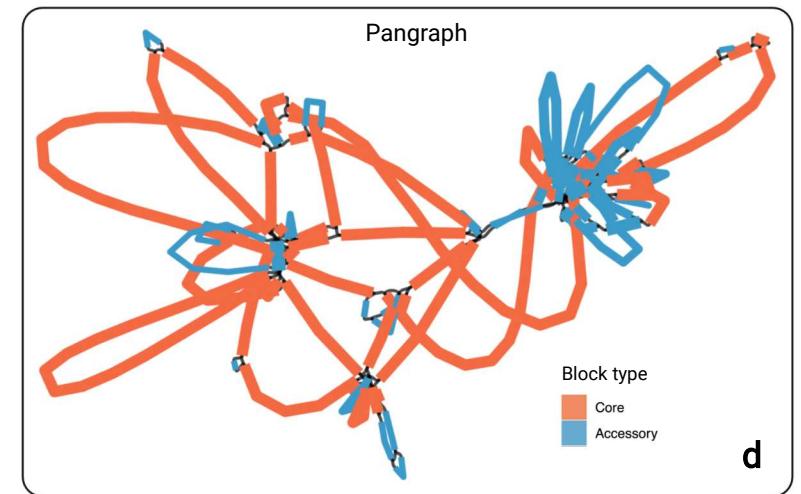
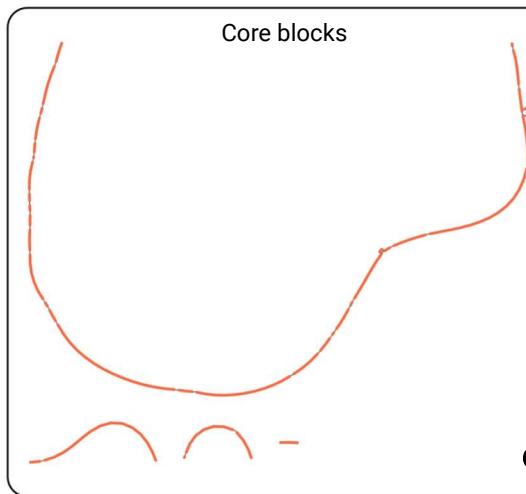




**a**

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**Niche****b****c****d****e**

**a** Plasmid consensus gene synteny**b** Plasmid core gene phylogeny**c** Chromosome core gene phylogeny**d** Pangraph**e** Core blocks**f** Accessory blocks