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1 **The evolution of plasmid stability: Are infectious transmission and compensatory evolution competing**
2 **evolutionary trajectories?**

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6 **Abstract**

7 Conjugative plasmids are widespread and play an important role in bacterial evolution by accelerating
8 adaptation through horizontal gene transfer. However, explaining the long-term stability of plasmids remains
9 challenging because segregational loss and the costs of plasmid carriage should drive the loss of plasmids through
10 purifying selection. Theoretical and experimental studies suggest two key evolutionary routes to plasmid
11 stability: First, the evolution of high conjugation rates would allow plasmids to survive through horizontal
12 transmission as infectious agents, and second, compensatory evolution to ameliorate the cost of plasmid
13 carriage can weaken purifying selection against plasmids. How these two evolutionary strategies for plasmid
14 stability interact is unclear. Here, we summarise the literature on the evolution of plasmid stability and then use
15 individual based modelling to investigate the evolutionary interplay between the evolution of plasmid
16 conjugation rate and cost amelioration. We find that, individually, both strategies promote plasmid stability, and
17 that they act together to increase the likelihood of plasmid survival. However, due to the inherent costs of
18 increasing conjugation rate, particularly where conjugation is unlikely to be successful, our model predicts that
19 amelioration is the more likely long-term solution to evolving stable bacteria-plasmid associations. Our model
20 therefore suggests that bacteria-plasmid relationships should evolve towards lower plasmid costs that may
21 forestall the evolution of highly conjugative, 'infectious' plasmids.

22 **Main**

23 Plasmids, and the vast pool of bacterial accessory genes they carry, are both a substantial source of genetic
24 material for bacteria, and agents of rapid evolutionary change. Plasmids can carry bacterial accessory genes
25 encoding diverse traits, such as metabolism of exotic substrates, colonisation of new habitats, or resistance to
26 environmental toxins (Carattoli 2013, Frost et al 2005). The ability of plasmids to spread these traits to novel
27 hosts can have important consequences for ecosystem and human health, demonstrated most strikingly in the
28 spread by plasmids of antimicrobial resistance genes (Sheppard et al 2016). However, plasmid persistence in
29 bacterial populations can be hard to explain. Not all plasmids carry accessory genes ('cryptic' plasmids (Zaleski
30 et al 2015)), and even those that do are likely to be beneficial to their hosts only in specific environmental
31 contexts (Gullberg et al 2014, Hall et al 2015). Moreover, experimental studies have shown that when they are

32 acquired, plasmids tend to levy a fitness cost on their hosts, meaning that plasmid-free competitors can
33 outcompete plasmid-containing cells, driving plasmid extinction from the population (Dahlberg and Chao 2003,
34 De Gelder et al 2007, Hall et al 2016). Yet plasmids remain widespread.

35 Different processes, mechanisms and interactions have been proposed to explain the long-term maintenance of
36 plasmids. Positive selection for beneficial plasmid-borne accessory genes can maintain plasmids in the short
37 term (De Gelder et al 2008). However, positive selection alone is unlikely to underlie prolonged plasmid
38 maintenance because accessory genes are usually able to recombine with and become 'captured' by the
39 chromosome, leaving the costly autonomous plasmid redundant (Hall et al 2016, Harrison and Brockhurst 2012).
40 Theoretical studies have demonstrated that more complex environments may help to maintain the linkage
41 between plasmids and the bacterial accessory traits they encode, for example by allowing transfer of locally-
42 adaptive genes to immigrating genotypes (Bergstrom et al 2000), or lowering the relative cost of a public good
43 trait by spreading that cost infectiously (Rankin et al., 2011). However, positive selection is unable to explain the
44 abundance of cryptic plasmids that carry no beneficial genes. Likewise, active partitioning mechanisms (*par*
45 modules) (Sengupta and Austin 2011) or the acquisition of toxin-antitoxin (TA) 'addiction' modules by plasmids
46 (Loftie-Eaton et al 2016) can stabilise plasmids by reducing the rate at which plasmid free competitors arise. But
47 these mechanisms alone cannot explain long-term survival because segregational loss is not reduced to zero and
48 TA systems can be lost or moved onto the chromosome meaning plasmid-free individuals can emerge and
49 benefit from growth advantage.

50 Given that positive selection is unable to explain the long-term stability of costly plasmids in the face of
51 appreciable rates of segregational loss, two key processes have emerged that enable plasmid stability: infectious
52 transmission and compensatory evolution.

53 Plasmids could counter the negative demographic effects of purifying selection and segregation by increasing
54 their rate of infectious horizontal transmission into plasmid-free hosts, i.e. by becoming infectious agents. While
55 this route is clearly unavailable to plasmids that do not encode their own conjugative apparatus, i.e. mobilizable
56 plasmids (those that utilise the conjugation machinery of other elements) and non-mobilizable plasmids, a
57 considerable proportion of large plasmids do carry their own conjugation apparatus (Smillie et al 2010). Among

58 these conjugative plasmids this process is typically tightly regulated by the plasmid itself via a complex gene-
59 regulatory network (Bañuelos-Vazquez et al., 2017). These networks are often conservative, actively repressing
60 plasmid transfer unless specific environmental, physiological or demographic conditions are met (Koraimann
61 and Wagner 2014). This self restraint is likely to reflect the high cost of initiating conjugation for the bacterial
62 host, which requires an investment of time and resources into building the conjugative pilus, and replication and
63 transfer of DNA, resulting various physiological stresses (Zahl et al 2006). Moreover, pili production can increase
64 susceptibility of the host to environmental stressors (Bidlack and Silverman, 2004) as well as predation from lytic
65 bacteriophages (Jalasvuori et al 2011). Among bacteria-plasmid relationships studied under laboratory
66 conditions rates of conjugation in bacterial populations are often considered too low to explain plasmid stability
67 (Bergstrom et al 2000), although various authors have argued that conjugation rates observed in lab media
68 underestimate rates in natural environments (Lilley and Bailey 1997). However, experimental evolution has
69 revealed that selection for horizontal transmission can lead to the evolution of increased conjugation rate in
70 plasmids (De Gelder et al 2008, Kottara et al 2016, Turner et al 1998) and several studies have found plasmids
71 with conjugation rates sufficient to allow them to invade and persist as infectious elements (Bahl et al 2007, Fox
72 et al 2008, Hall et al 2016).

73 A number of long-term experimental evolution studies have now demonstrated that plasmid stability can be
74 facilitated by compensatory evolution to ameliorate the cost of plasmid carriage thereby weakening purifying
75 selection against the plasmid backbone (Dionisio et al 2005, Harrison et al 2015a, Heuer et al 2007, Porse et al
76 2016, San Millan et al 2015, Sota et al 2010, Zhong et al 2012). Moreover, signatures of plasmid amelioration
77 can be detected by comparative genomics (McNally et al 2016). The experimental studies reveal that
78 compensatory mutations ameliorating the plasmid cost can occur both on the plasmid (Dionisio et al 2005, Porse
79 et al 2016, Sota et al 2010) or on the host chromosome (Harrison et al 2015a, San Millan et al 2015). Several
80 known mechanisms of compensatory evolution involve mutations to regulatory genes which are likely to undo
81 the gene regulatory disruption caused by plasmid acquisition, which is emerging as a common basis for the costs
82 of newly acquired plasmids (Harrison et al 2015a, San Millan et al 2015). In some cases, single compensatory
83 mutations in regulatory genes have been shown to completely ameliorate the cost of plasmid carriage (Harrison
84 et al 2015a). In other cases, compensatory mutations have been shown to target conjugation leading to reduced

85 rates either indirectly, presumably as a result of large-scale regulatory changes (Harrison et al 2015a), or directly
86 via mutations affecting genes involved in the conjugation process (Heuer et al 2007).

87 Thus increased rates of infectious transmission via higher rates of conjugation and amelioration to reduce the
88 cost of plasmid carriage have both been shown to promote plasmid stability. However, there has been little
89 consideration of how these two processes interact. As mentioned above, compensatory mutations can directly
90 lead to reduced rates or complete loss of conjugation, likely due to the fact that conjugation itself is an inherently
91 costly process. Experimental evolution studies provide contradictory evidence for how amelioration and
92 infectious transmission interact. Several studies have reported evidence for a trade-off between increased
93 plasmid conjugation rate and bacterial host fitness, suggesting that the physiological costs of conjugation scale
94 with the rate of conjugation (Dahlberg and Chao 2003, Heuer et al 2007, Turner et al 1998). However, another
95 study observed no such trade-off: plasmids that evolved higher conjugation rates also evolved to become less
96 costly (Kottara et al 2016), suggesting that infectious transmission and amelioration need not always be mutually
97 exclusive mechanisms for plasmid stability. There is a clear need for evolutionary theory to understand how
98 these two key mechanisms of plasmid stability interact.

99 To expand on our verbal model and further explore the relationship between amelioration and infectious
100 transmission in plasmid stability we developed an individual-based model of plasmid evolution (Harrison et al
101 2015b, Harrison et al 2016). Individual based models are a powerful tool to explore the dynamics of evolving
102 systems, as they are stochastic and thus can be used to investigate the impact of evolutionary events, like rare
103 mutations, on ecological processes, like plasmid dynamics. They are therefore useful for unpicking the potential
104 and relative importance of different evolutionary processes and trajectories. We used our model to explore
105 systems in which conjugation rate could evolve, amelioration could evolve, or both processes could evolve. We
106 ran the simulation with varying rates and degrees of amelioration, and also explored the differences in plasmid
107 maintenance between models in which amelioration mutations occurred on the plasmid compared with
108 chromosomal mutations.

109 **The model**

110 Here we elaborate on a model parameterised to reflect the characteristics of a costly conjugative plasmid
111 (Harrison et al 2015b, Harrison et al 2016). A full description of the model and parameter values can be found
112 in the supplementary material. In brief, populations are modelled in continuous time (Allen and Dytham, 2009)
113 with individuals randomly chosen and subjected to one of three possible events, chosen at random; cell division,
114 conjugation, cell death. Whether or not the event occurs is dependant on a given probability (supplementary
115 materials). If it does, the changes are recorded, but regardless of whether the event occurs or not, time is
116 advanced, with time increments scaled by population size. We divide time here in to generations, which as it is
117 continuous is somewhat arbitrarily, but amounts to roughly $3n$ events, at which point analytics are recorded. To
118 simulate environmental disruption every 8 generations the population experiences a 1% bottleneck, where 99%
119 of the population, drawn at random, dies.

120 *Compensatory evolution*

121 The mechanisms which underlie compensatory evolution are only starting to be understood but empirical
122 evidence suggests that amelioration of plasmid cost is often accomplished through highly repeatable, large
123 effect mutations (Harrison et al., 2015; Porse et al., 2016; San Millan et al., 2015) that can be very specific to
124 different bacteria - plasmid combinations (San Millan et al., 2015). As we have previously shown both the
125 strength and availability of these mutations can have important consequences for the fate of the conjugative
126 plasmids (Harrison et al., 2016). Following our previous model the cost of plasmid carriage can be ameliorated
127 in a single mutational step whereby either 100%, 95% or 50% of the cost of the plasmid is ameliorated.
128 Compensatory mutations occur at the same (10^{-7}) or elevated (10^{-6} and 10^{-5}) mutation rate relative to the rest
129 of the genome.

130 Further to this we allow mutations to occur on either the plasmid, i.e. remain linked to the plasmid following
131 horizontal gene transfer, or on the bacterial genome, where naive hosts will be subject to the full cost of plasmid
132 carriage.

133 *Conjugation*

134 Conjugation events are dependant on two probabilities; firstly the probability that a cell is in contact with
135 another cell in the environment, which scales with the population size/density. If contact occurs - and the focal
136 individual carries a plasmid - conjugation will be initiated with a given probability, here referred to as the
137 conjugation rate, which is encoded by the plasmid. Plasmid encoded conjugation rates are free to evolve with
138 mutational effects drawn at random. In order to capture the tradeoff between vertical and horizontal
139 transmission, the next time that individual is selected for a cell division event the probability of cell division
140 occurring is reduced to zero. Superinfection is not permitted meaning that attempted conjugation with a plasmid
141 containing cell results in a growth rate cost but no transfer of the plasmid.

142 Analysis

143 Parameter effects on plasmid survival - i.e. the time to plasmid extinction with censoring to account for replicates
144 where plasmids were maintained - was estimated where possible using the Cox proportional hazard method
145 using the 'coxph' function in the 'survival' R package. As statistical analysis of data obtained through simulations
146 is problematic, in particular due to inflated risk of type I error (White et al., 2014) effect size ($\exp(\text{coeff})$) but not
147 p values are reported.

148 Results

149 Under the conditions of the model plasmids are lost from bacterial populations when conjugation rates or
150 amelioration is allowed to evolve (Fig 1A). Both the evolution of increased conjugation rate and the emergence
151 of amelioration could result in plasmid maintenance. Plasmid survival in each case was stochastic, with plasmids
152 either persisting, often at high frequency, or being lost from the population entirely depending on the mutations
153 arising before the plasmid went extinct; a situation akin to evolutionary rescue.

154 For models in which conjugation, but not amelioration, could evolve, plasmids survived in 10/60 replicates (Fig.
155 1A) and rose to high frequency. However, this result was highly dependent on mutations that increase plasmid
156 conjugation rate arising before the plasmid became extinct. This outcome results in purely parasitic infectious
157 plasmids that offset their cost of carriage by evolving a high rate of (re-)infection. Furthermore, plasmids
158 maintained by high conjugation rates encounter an additional constraint due to the tradeoff between horizontal

159 and vertical transmission. This cost is captured in our model, as conjugation is associated with a reduction in
160 growth. The benefits of horizontal vs vertical transmission will be exacerbated under conditions where
161 horizontal transmission is inefficient, i.e. where conjugation does not result in plasmid infection, which may also
162 be the case where the plasmid is at high frequency but also where potential recipients contain a different
163 plasmid from the same incompatibility group or cellular immune systems such as CRISPR/cas loci. The result of
164 this is that investment in conjugation will be frequency-dependent, leading to large oscillations in conjugation
165 rate before reaching an equilibrium at an intermediate rate (Fig. 2B and C).

166 For models in which amelioration, but not conjugation, could evolve, plasmid maintenance was strongly
167 dependant on the strength of amelioration mutations (% cost ameliorated: $\exp(\text{coeff}) = 0.751$, $\text{SE}(\text{coeff}) = 0.020$),
168 as well as on the mutation rate ($\log[\text{amelioration mutation rate}]$: $\exp(\text{coeff}) = 0.689$, $\text{SE}(\text{coeff}) = 0.043$) (Fig.1B).
169 This is consistent with the stochastic nature of individual-based models: if survival depends on the mutation
170 appearing before the plasmid was driven extinct, increased rates of mutation can have a large effect on the
171 outcome. Variable survival was seen in models where amelioration occurred less frequently, provided the
172 strength of amelioration was sufficient to tip the balance between loss through purifying selection and gain
173 through conjugation, allowing plasmids to reinvade. The models suggested that plasmid-borne amelioration is
174 more effective than host amelioration (amelioration location: $\exp(\text{coeff}) = 0.441$, $\text{SE}(\text{coeff}) = 0.155$). This is
175 because for plasmid amelioration, the plasmid and the amelioration mutation are linked, allowing them to
176 spread together by both vertical and horizontal transmission, whereas for host amelioration reduced-cost
177 plasmids are only transmitted vertically (i.e. to daughter cells). However, although few cases of amelioration
178 have been conclusively identified in experimental studies, those that have been published suggest that host
179 amelioration occur perhaps more readily than plasmid-borne amelioration (Harrison et al 2015a, San Millan et
180 al 2015) but see (Porse et al 2016, Sota et al 2010). This may be due to the fact that there are potentially more
181 chromosomal targets for amelioration — chromosomes are bigger than plasmids (often an order of magnitude
182 or more), thus increasing the effective supply of ameliorative mutations. In addition, plasmid-borne
183 ameliorations may be host specific, and therefore this advantage may be limited in situations where plasmids
184 are transferred between host genotypes or species (Sota et al 2010).

185 For models in which both conjugation rate and amelioration were allowed to evolve, the mechanisms interacted
186 synergistically to enhance plasmid maintenance (Fig. 1C. effect of conjugation evolution on amelioration models:
187 $\exp(\text{coeff}) = 0.574$, $\text{SE}(\text{coeff}) = 0.112$). This is because the evolution of either mechanism increases the likelihood
188 of the other becoming established. Where amelioration evolved first plasmids could be maintained, giving time
189 for high conjugation rates to evolve and spread plasmids throughout the population (Fig. 3A & B).
190 Correspondingly, the early appearance of high conjugation rates increases plasmid prevalence and allows
191 compensatory mutations to reach fixation (Fig. 3C & D), whereas alone they are only able to invade the plasmid
192 containing portion of the population. In the long-term however, amelioration is predicted to be a more
193 successful strategy than high conjugation rate. While high conjugation rates can drive plasmid invasion, once
194 the population has ameliorated plasmid cost the need for high rates of conjugation are reduced. Under the
195 conditions of our model, where plasmids are at high frequency and conjugation is inefficient there is a benefit
196 to investing less in horizontal transmission and plasmid conjugation rates decrease (Fig 3B & D). Interestingly,
197 some plasmid-borne accessory genes confer benefits which scale negatively with plasmid frequency in the
198 population (Ellis et al 2007), indicating additional costs to conjugative plasmids in populations where they are at
199 high frequency.

200 Our results suggest that established bacteria-plasmid relationships should thus ultimately trend towards low
201 conjugation rate, because high conjugation rate is only transiently beneficial. For many, possibly all, natural
202 plasmids, conjugation is tightly controlled through a plasmid encoded gene-regulatory network which represses
203 plasmid transfer gene expression unless specific environmental, physiological or demographic conditions are
204 met (Koraimann and Wagner 2014). This self restraint is likely to reflect the high cost of conjugation initiation,
205 limiting conjugation to conditions where plasmid transfer is more likely to be successful, e.g. where bacterial
206 population density is high (McAnulla et al., 2007), or beneficial e.g. when hosts are under physiological stress
207 (Beaber et al., 2003). Whilst here we assume that conjugation is subject to regulation based on bacterial density,
208 the mechanism underlying conjugation regulation may well have an impact on the predictions of the model. This
209 is particularly true for mechanisms that restrict conjugation under conditions where plasmid-free recipients are
210 likely to be rare. This may be achieved indirectly, through transient derepression systems, where the infectivity
211 of newly acquired plasmids is initially high but repression builds up over time. At the population level this will
212 allow conjugation rates to be high where new hosts are abundant and naturally decline as the plasmids become

213 saturated in the population (Fernandez-Lopez et al 2014). In addition more direct mechanisms have been
214 identified which use either plasmid (Singh et al., 2013) or host encoded pheromones (Dunny and Johnson, 2011)
215 to detect the frequency of plasmid free recipients and therefore repress conjugation as plasmids approach
216 saturation. Such mechanisms circumvent the frequency-dependant benefits that are inherent in plasmid
217 conjugation and lead to selection against highly infectious plasmids in our model.

218 In contrast to increased conjugation rate, amelioration was universally favoured and does not suffer a penalty
219 at high plasmid frequency. Thus whilst high conjugation rates can facilitate the invasion of plasmids into new
220 bacterial hosts, where compensatory mutations are available these mutations will inevitably spread, reducing
221 purifying selection which drives plasmid loss and thus selection for high conjugation rates. Over evolutionary
222 timescales therefore, evolution to ameliorate plasmid costs is likely the primary mechanism enabling plasmid
223 persistence. Moreover, our simulations suggest that plasmid amelioration is a more effective evolutionary
224 solution than is host amelioration, although this is likely to vary with ecological conditions. For example, the
225 relative benefits of plasmid versus host amelioration may depend on the balance of vertical versus horizontal
226 transmission, with host amelioration likely to be more favoured with diminishing opportunities for horizontal
227 transmission.

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232

233 Figure 1. Overview of plasmid prevalence across the model parameter space. Circles denote the outcome of
234 replicate simulations for each set of model parameters. Each is composed of 20 sectors, showing the plasmid
235 prevalence (height, where the circle center = 0 and outline = 1) mean conjugation rate (shading) for a single
236 replicate simulation after 1000 generations. A. Models where no compensatory evolution is permitted. For these
237 treatments 60 replicate simulations were run (split across 3 circles, showing 20 replicates per circle). B. Models

238 where amelioration but not conjugation was allowed to evolve. The effect size (x axis) and mutation rate (y axis)
239 of available amelioration mutations was varied, as well as the position on either the plasmid or chromosome. C.
240 Models where both conjugation rates and amelioration was allowed to evolve. Axes as for B.

241 Figure 2. Rescue of plasmids through conjugation rate evolution. Population dynamics of a single iteration of the
242 model where conjugation rate evolution occurs in time to prevent plasmid loss in the absence of amelioration
243 mutations. Panels on the left show A. plasmid prevalence (shading) and B. corresponding plasmid conjugation
244 (shading: mean conjugation rate; line: number of conjugation events per plasmid) through time. Panel C.
245 Oscillations in conjugation rate are driven by plasmid-frequency dependant selection stabilised over time (shown
246 as line shading from 0 (light) to 1000 (dark) generations).

247 Figure 3. Examples of the synergistic effect of combined conjugation and amelioration evolution in stabilising
248 plasmid prevalence. Panels A and C show plasmid prevalence (light shading) and the frequency of ameliorated
249 plasmid genotypes (dark shading) and panels B and D show corresponding plasmid conjugation (shading: mean
250 conjugation rate; line: number of conjugation events per plasmid) through time. In iteration 1 conjugation rate
251 evolves first allowing the plasmid to invade to high frequency. As a consequence ameliorated plasmid bearers
252 are able to invade into the plasmid containing portion of the population. In iteration 2 amelioration mutations
253 stabilise plasmid prevalence at low frequencies, allowing time for conjugation rate mutations to appear before
254 the plasmid is lost. Both iterations are examples of dynamics from models where conjugation evolves,
255 amelioration occurs on the chromosome, efficiency = 100% and mutation rate = $5e10^7$.

256

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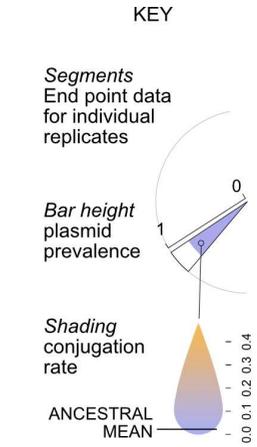
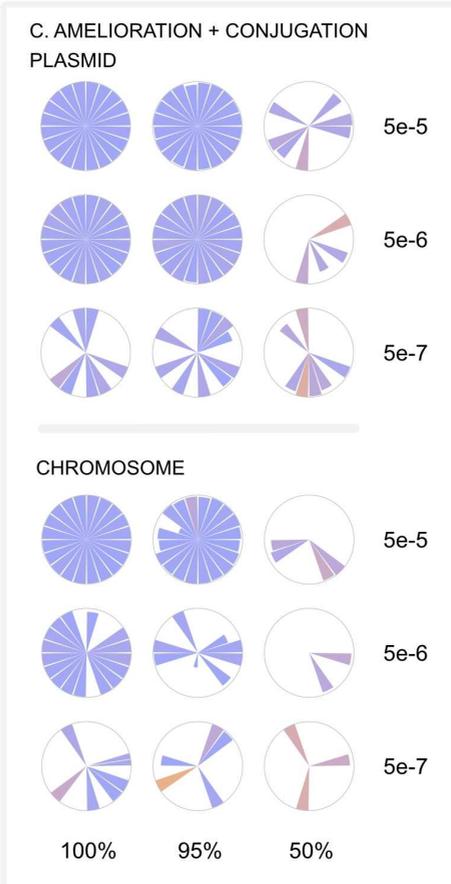
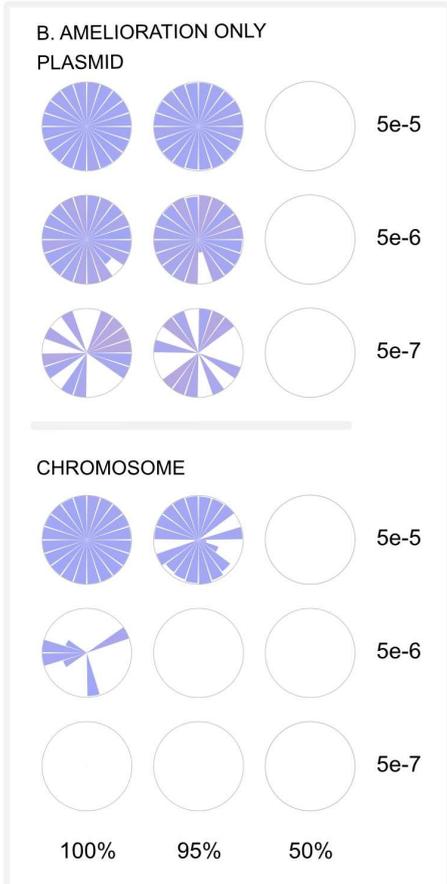
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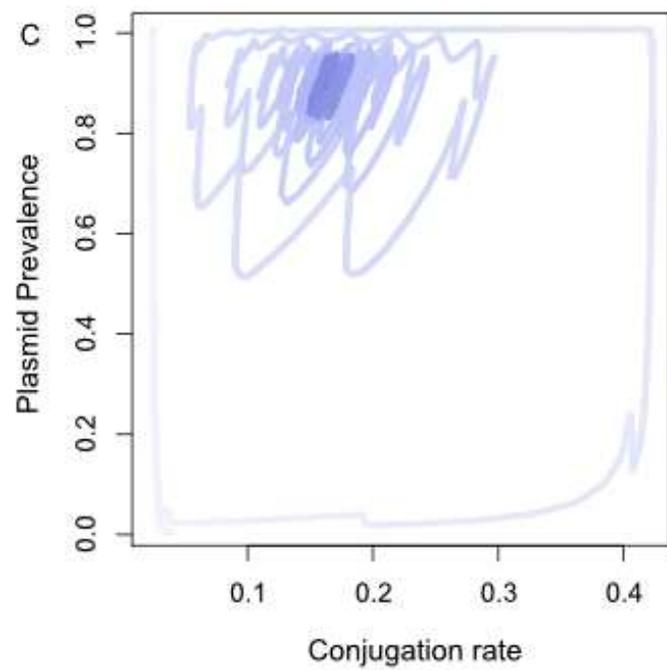
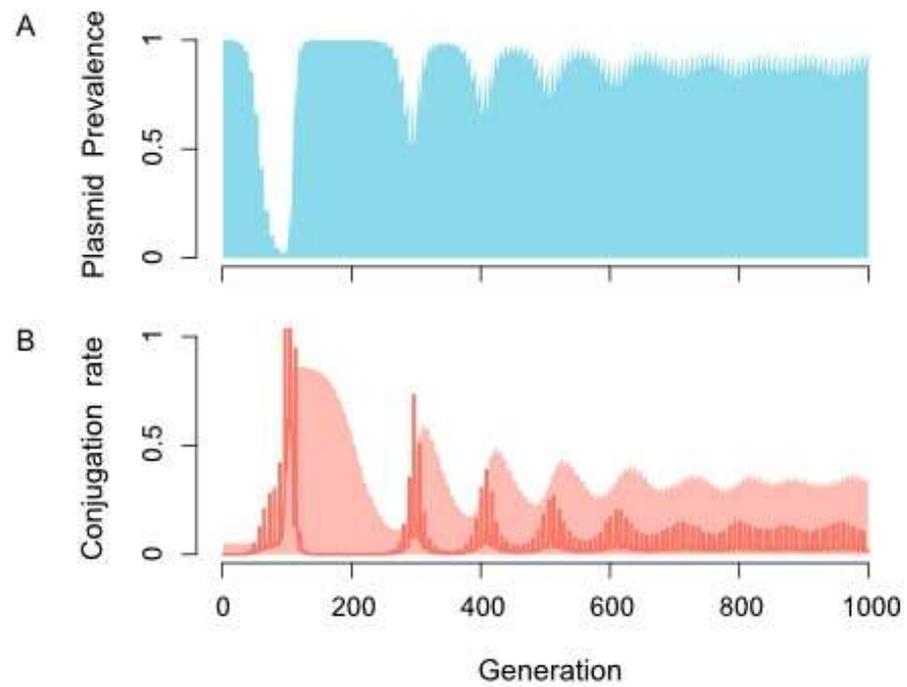
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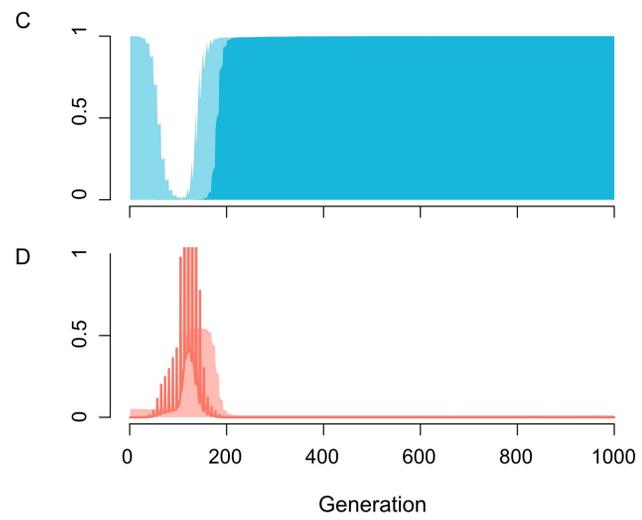
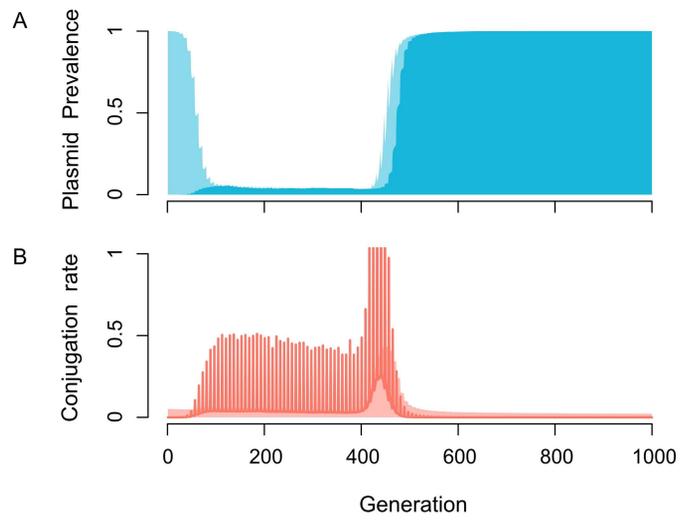
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Amelioration mutation rate

Plasmid cost ameliorated





Supplementary information

Individual Based Model methodology

We developed an individual-based model using single bacterial cells as unique agents. Simulations are all initiated with 2,000,000 cells, initially 100% plasmid bearing, and are run for 1000 time steps. Populations are allowed to grow to a carrying capacity (K) of 5,000,000 with the probability of cell division scaled with population density, declining to 0 at K . We vary parameters for amelioration (the mutation rate, strength of amelioration mutations and their linkage to/location on either the plasmid or chromosome) and follow the fate of plasmids in the population with conjugation rate is either fixed or allowed to evolve (see table for parameter ranges). This gives 38 different conditions, and we have 20 replicates of each condition – with the exception of the no amelioration conditions (conjugation with and without conjugation evolution for which 60 replicates were run).

The model follows the rejection method of Allen and Dytham (2009) where events occur in series. Cells are selected at random and subject to one of three possible events in the model chosen at random: cell division; cell death; conjugation. We calculate the probability of that event occurring and either execute the event and update status or do nothing. Time then advances, whether the event is executed or not, by an amount drawn from an exponential distribution with mean $1/3n$ where n is the current population size (i.e. the number of events per unit time (here termed a 'generation') is proportional to the population size and a cell surviving an entire time step will experience an average of 1 event of each type during that time step).

When a generation is completed various statistics are collected and recorded. No status is changed at the end of the generation however to capture the stochasticity introduced through population disruption and bottlenecking (inherent in transfer experiments as well as naturally disturbed populations) every 8 generations the population is subject to 99% mortality.

Events

Cell division is density dependent with probability declining to zero at the carrying capacity. Any costs, such as the cost of carrying a plasmid, are applied as a reduction in the probability of cell division. Daughter cells are identical to the parent cell, except for 1) in plasmid bearers, the possibility of losing the plasmid through segregation, 2) the possibility of mutating the conjugation rate and, 3) for cells that have not ameliorated the cost of

bearing a plasmid, the possibility of mutating to allow amelioration of the cost of plasmid carriage.

Cell death is not density dependent and remains at a fixed rate throughout.

Conjugation is the only event type that requires direct interaction between cells. A conjugation event is initiated when the focal cell is plasmid bearing. First, we assume a well-mixed population and the focal cell encounters another random cell with probability $2n/K$ (where n is current population size and K is the carrying capacity). If an encounter occurs conjugation is initiated by the donor with a probability set by the donor cell's conjugation rate. If the encountered cell is plasmid free conjugation is successful and the encountered cell gains a plasmid. If it is plasmid-containing no transfer occurs. Donor cells pay a cost for the initiation of a conjugation attempt, regardless of outcome, by missing its next cell division opportunity.

Parameters

This model extends the simulation model described previously (Harrison et al., 2016, 2015b). Parameter estimates are drawn from experimental data based on the *Pseudomonas* plasmid pQBR103 (Harrison et al., 2015a) where possible as well as the literature.

Parameter	Applied as	Value
<i>Population</i>		
Starting population		2,000,000
Carrying capacity (K)		5,000,000
Mortality at bottleneck death rate		0.99
Bottleneck frequency		8 generations
<i>Cell division event</i>		
Birth rate	Cell division probability	Variable (n/K) where n is the current population size
Cost of plasmid carriage	Reduction in cell division probability	0.2 ¹
Segregation rate	Probability of generating a plasmid-plasmid free daughter cell if plasmid containing	0.0001 ²
Mutation rate amelioration	Probability of daughter cells acquiring amelioration mutation	Variable (5×10^{-5} , 5×10^{-6} , 5×10^{-7}) ¹

Strength of amelioration mutations	Ameliorated cost of maintaining a plasmid	Variable (0, 0.01, 0.1) ¹
Mutation rate conjugation	Probability of plasmid in daughter cell acquiring conjugation mutation	1*10 ⁻⁶
Strength of conjugation mutations	Change to probability of conjugation	Variable (Drawn from a random distribution with mean 0 and SD 0.2) NB. conjugation is capped at 0 and 1

Cell death event

Death rate	Probability of cell death	0.1
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Conjugation event

Encounter rate	Probability of encountering another cell for possible conjugation	2 * n/K where n is the current population size Capped at 1
Starting conjugation rate	Probability of initiating conjugation if encounter occurs (prior to conjugation evolution)	0.025 ¹

¹ Parameterised based on experimental data from Pseudomonas plasmid pQBR103 (Harrison et al., 2015a)

² Estimate based on segregation rate of Pseudomonas plasmid pWWO (Duetz and Van Andel, 1991)

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