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Fundamental parameters governing the transmission of conjugative plasmids

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ABSTRACT

Plasmid conjugation is a major route for the dissemination of antibiotic resistances and

adaptive genes among bacterial populations. Obtaining precise conjugation rates is thus

key to understanding how antibiotic resistances spread. Plasmid conjugation is typically

modeled as a density-dependent process, where the formation of new transconjugants is

proportional to the rate of encounters between donor and recipient bacteria. By analyzing

conjugation dynamics at different cell concentrations, here we show that this assumption

only holds at low bacterial densities. At higher concentrations, plasmid transmission

switches from a density-dependent process to a frequency-dependent one. Mathematical

modeling revealed that plasmid conjugation follows a Holling´s Type II functional

response, characterized by two fundamental parameters: the searching rate and the

handling time. These parameters represent, respectively, the density and frequency

dependent limits for plasmid transmission. Our results demonstrate that these

parameters are characteristic of the transfer machinery, rather than the entire plasmid

genome, and that they are robust to environmental and transcriptional perturbation.

Precise parameterization of plasmid conjugation will contribute to a better understanding

of the propagation dynamics of antimicrobial resistances.

Introduction

Conjugative plasmids are key mediators of bacterial adaptation shuttling antibiotic resistance genes, virulence determinants and other adaptive genes through horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Baquero et al., 2009; Bennett, 2008; Li et al., 2019; Lopatkin et al., 2017). Plasmids cluster into discrete taxonomic units, PTUs, which show extensive variation in their host range and transmissibility (Brooks et al., 2019; Jain & Srivastava, 2013; Loftie-Eaton et al., 2016; Redondo-Salvo et al., 2020). Although the molecular mechanisms of plasmid propagation have been extensively analyzed, the reasons why some plasmids are more prevalent and promiscuous than others remain largely unknown. The successful propagation of a given plasmid depends on many factors, including its ability to replicate stably, the burden imposed to the host, and epistatic interactions with other plasmids present in the population (Gama et al., 2017; San Millan et al., 2014; San Millan & MacLean, 2017). However, the first and most important barrier for the invasion of a new population is horizontal transmission, a process that bacterial plasmids mainly achieve by conjugation. Among transmissible plasmids, nearly half of them encode all the genes required for their autonomous transmission, and are called conjugative (Smillie *et al.*, 2010, Coluzzi *et al.* 2022). Conjugative plasmids contain the genes required for DNA mobilization (MOB) and the genes required to build the conjugative pilus (TRA). Another set of plasmids, called mobilizable, encode only the MOB genes; and their transfer requires the supplementation of TRA from the chromosome or other co-residing conjugative plasmids.

The long-term dynamics of plasmid propagation depend on a number of intertwined

factors, including their transmissibility, their ability to colonize different species, the

adaptive genes they encode, and the burden they impose on the host (San Millan &

MacLean, 2017).   Plasmid transmission is the first and foremost process for the

spread of a conjugative plasmid among bacterial populations, and establishes the

overall ability of the plasmid to transfer itself from a population of donors (D) to

recipient (R) bacteria. Obtaining quantitative estimates of plasmid transmissibility is

key to fully understand their propagation dynamics, and over the years a number of

mathematical models of plasmid conjugation have been proposed (Levin et al., 1979;

Levin & Stewart, 1980; Simonsen et al., 1990; Smets & Lardon, 2009; Stewart & Levin,

1977; Wan et al., 2011; Zwanzig et al., 2019).   Most of these models are based on

ordinary differential equations (ODEs), and describe plasmid transmission as a mass-

action kinetic process, where transconjugants (T) are formed at a pace proportional

to the rate of encounters between D and R. Such models are formally and conceptually

equivalent to classical density-dependent transmission models (DDT) for infectious

agents (Figure 1A). Under this regime, transmission of an infectious agent (in this

case, the plasmid) is limited by the probability of donors encountering a susceptible

individual (R cells in the case of conjugation). Under this mode of transmission, the

higher the density of R cells, the higher the conjugation frequency. In microbial

populations, however, there are situations where the rate of encounter with R cells

saturates, and conjugation may be limited by factors other than the probability of D-

R encounters. This is, for example, the case of biofilms. In such cases, transmission

may be limited by a second factor: the time required for the infectious agent to turn a

susceptible cell into an infected one (Figure 1B). This mode of transmission is called

frequency-dependent (FDT), since it is limited by the maximum pace at which

susceptible cells can be turned into infected individuals. This is the transmission

dynamics of many sexually transmitted diseases, where the frequency of encounters

is not usually constrained by the population density. In strict terms, however, any

transmissible agent may shift between DDT and FDT regimes, as the availability of

susceptible receptors fluctuates (Anderson & May, 1979; May & Anderson, 1979).

Ecological models of predation encountered similar dynamics. Predation rates also

depend on two factors: the density of prey, and the time invested by the predator to

consume its catch. The seminal work of Holling (Holling, 1959a, 1959b) derived the

fundamental equations governing the functional response of predation rates

depending on prey density. Under Holling's type I functional response, predation

increases linearly with prey abundance, as the predator tracks a fixed area per unit

time. This response is functionally and formally equivalent to density-dependent

models in epidemiology. Holling's type II functional response, however, shows

saturation. When the abundance of prey no longer becomes limiting, the rate of

predation is bounded by the processing time, the time required for the predator to

consume the prey (Figure 1C). Despite their formal similarities, there are important

differences between epidemiological models and ecological models of predation.

Infectious agents turn susceptible individuals into vectors of infection, thus there is

an exponential character in the propagation of infectious agents that is absent in the

case of predator-prey relationships. In the case of plasmid transmission, this

exponential character is present in conjugative plasmids, which can transmit

themselves from the newly formed transconjugants to other receptors. Besides, a key

difference between plasmid propagation and classical epidemiological models resides in the timescales involved. In classical epidemiology, most agents spread at rates that are much faster than the vegetative reproduction rate of the susceptible population. The contribution of vegetative growth is thus negligible to the overall transmission dynamics. In the case of plasmids, however, both horizontal and vertical transmission present similar timescales and contribute to the propagation of the plasmid.

Here we show that plasmid mobilization dynamics follows a Holling's type II functional response, and how this model may be generalized to conjugative transmission dynamics. As in ecological models of predation, two fundamental parameters govern plasmid transmission. The first parameter, the searching rate (hereafter, K_{on}), indicates the rate at which donor cells can encounter suitable recipients. The second parameter, the handling time (τ), represents the average time required for a conjugative donor to turn a recipient cell into a transconjugant. These rates were found to be different among model broad host range conjugative plasmids. Experimental measurements revealed that, in *E. coli,* PTU-N1 prototype plasmid pKM101 exhibited faster searching kinetics (K_{on}) and shorter handling times (τ) than PTU-W R388 and PTU-P1 RP4. This superior conjugation ability resulted in faster invasion of the recipient population. Differences in transmission dynamics were assignable to the conjugation machinery, although, a comparison between members of PTU-W revealed considerable intra-PTU variability. Our results thus demonstrate that plasmid conjugation depends on two key parameters, which vary among natural

plasmid isolates. These differences may be behind the distinct prevalence of each PTU

in microbial communities.

Results

Conjugation dynamics follows a type II functional response.

To obtain an analytic model able to capture the dependence on cell density and the

time required to turn a recipient in a suitable donor, we posed the following reaction

scheme, where D, R and T correspond, respectively, to Donor, Recipient and

Transconjugant cells.

$$D + R \underset{k_{off}}{\overset{k_{on}}{\rightleftarrows}} C \overset{kc}{\rightarrow} D + T$$

145   Eq.1

In Eq.1, D and R cells encounter each following mass action kinetics with a K_{on} rate.

Formation of the conjugative pair, C, then ensues. C may resolve into the irreversible

formation of a new transconjugant T at rate K_c, or, alternatively, in an infructuous

mating with a reverse rate K_{off}. The handling time, hereafter τ, is the average time

required for a donor to turn a receptor into a transconjugant, and can be expressed

as 1/ K_c. The model described in EQ.1 is suited for the transfer of mobilizable

plasmids, where transconjugants are not able to become donors themselves.

However, minor modifications allow the model to be adapted to self-transmissible

conjugative plasmids (Supplementary Materials). Eq.1 reaction scheme is

conceptually identical to a Michaelis-Menten dynamics, and the same approximations can be used to obtain an analytic expression for transconjugant formation. As shown by (Andrup & Andersen, 1999), following Haldane´s approximation the number of transconjugants per donor (the conjugation frequency) obtained after time t follows:

$$\frac{[T]}{[D]} = \frac{[R] \cdot k_{on}}{1 + [R] \cdot k_{on}\tau} t$$

Eq.2

Eq.2 corresponds to Holling´s type II functional response, originally proposed as the relationship between predation rate and prey density (Holling, 1959b). In the context of plasmid conjugation, the density of susceptible recipient cells (R) divides the response into two distinct regimes (Figure 1C). At low R densities, the searching rate (k_{on}) becomes limiting (density-dependent transmission). At high R densities, however, it is the handling time τ which limits plasmid propagation (frequency-dependent transmission). Holling´s type II functional response describes both regimes and the transition between them as the R density changes. Eq.2 is valid for plasmid mobilization, but as shown in Supplementary Materials, plasmid conjugation can be similarly modelled. In this latter case, the autocatalytic nature of transmission (T cells become donors in conjugation, but not in mobilization) results into an exponential relationship of the form:

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$$Ln\left(1 + \frac{[T]}{[D]}\right) = \frac{[R] \cdot k_{on}}{1 + [R] \cdot k_{on}\tau}t$$

180   Eq.3

In order to check whether plasmid transmission dynamics followed a type II

functional response, as posed by the model (Figure 1D), we performed a series of

conjugation assays with variable recipient densities. As described in Materials and

Methods, in all these assays the conjugation time was set to 1h. to minimize the effect

of vegetative growth on D, R and T counts, and to reduce the impact of newly formed

T cells in the overall conjugation frequency. The donor to recipient ratio was also set

to 1D:100R, such that the total cell density may be approximated to [R], and no donor

saturation (donors only finding other plasmid carriers) is expected to happen

throughout this 1h span. Following the protocol described in Materials and methods

we measured the transmission rates of plasmids pKM101 (prototype of IncN/PTU-

N1), R388 (IncW/PTU-W) and RP4 (IncP1α/PTU-P1). Transmission was assayed in

populations of isogenic donor and recipient *E. coli* strains. Results, shown in Figures

1E, F and G, revealed that the three plasmids tested experienced transmission

dynamics following a type II functional response. Transition from density-dependent

to frequency dependent transmission -labeled as [N]$_{sat}$ for saturation density- was

observed at similar cell densities, around 0.01 to 0.1 cells per square micron.

Differences in conjugation parameters result in faster transmission dynamics.

Data shown in Fig.1 was fitted to Eq.3 as described in materials & methods, to extract

the searching rate and handling times of plasmids RP4, pKM101 and R388. Results

are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Conjugation parameters obtained by fitting data from Figure 1 to Eq. 3

Plasmid (PTU)	K_{on} (Conf. interval at 95%)	τ (C.I. at 95%)
R388 (PTU-W)	35.8 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ (10-62)	0.7 h (0.6- 0.8)
pKM101 (PTU-N1)	275.8 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ (202-350)	0.6 h (0.5 - 0.6)
RP4 (PTU-P1)	88.1 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ (27-149)	0.6 h (0.5 - 0.7)

Results demonstrate that pKM101 had a substantially higher searching rate K_{on} than

RP4 and R388. These results indicate that pKM101 is able to find more suitable

receptors in the same timespan than the other plasmids tested. The handling times, τ

were, however, similar in the three plasmids tested.

To analyze the impact of differential searching rates on the overall kinetics of plasmid

invasion, we monitored the progression of the plasmid in a susceptible population

along time. Since plasmids pKM101 and R388 had previously shown the highest

differences in searching rates, we performed invasion assays with these two model

plasmids in *E. coli* populations. As indicated in Materials and Methods, plasmid

progression was measured as the number of transconjugant cells produced per donor

cell (T/D). We performed these assays at two different D: R proportions, 1:100 and

1:10000, keeping the same total cell concentrations (*i.e.*, using less donors). Results,

shown in Figure 2A, demonstrate that both plasmids were able to successfully invade

the population after 180 min., reaching T/D>10 in both cases. Plasmid pKM101 was

significantly faster at both D:R ratios tested, thus demonstrating that higher searching

rates and lower handling times result in faster invasion rates.

Differences in the conjugation parameters are intrinsic to the conjugation

machinery.

Plasmid conjugation is a complex mechanism in which factors other than the transfer

machinery often have an impact on the overall rate of plasmid propagation (Dionisio

et al., 2005; Guynet et al., 2011). To test whether differences in searching rates (K_{on})

and handling times (τ) were intrinsic to the conjugation machinery, or depended on

the entire plasmid genomes, we constructed a series of *E. coli* mutants harboring

chromosomal constructions of the entire PTU-N1 or the PTU-W transfer systems

respectively. For this purpose, the entire TRA operon of each of the plasmids was

introduced into the chromosome of *E.coli*. These TRA_N and TRA_W constructions allow

the mobilization of plasmids encoding the cognate MOB regions (MOB_N and MOB_W).

Tra genes from R388 or pKM101 were cloned into *E. coli* MDS42 and MG1655

chromosomes respectively under their own, native promoters as indicated in

Materials and Methods. We first tested whether these constructions were able to

mobilize their cognate MOB regions, and compared the mobilization dynamics of

Tra_W to the conjugation dynamics of its cognate R388 plasmid (Figure 2B). As shown

in the figure, the strain harboring Tra_W achieved lower T/D ratios than its parental

plasmid. This is not surprising, since secondary transfer from the transconjugants is

absent in experiments with the Tra_W construction. To test whether the differences

observed were solely due to the kinetic difference between conjugation and

mobilization, we repeated R388 invasion assays in a population of recipient cells

expressing PifC. PifC protein is an inhibitor of R388 conjugation (Getino et al., 2017),

thus its presence in the receptors prevents transconjugants to become effective

donors. Conjugation of plasmid R388 to a PifC-containing receptor should yield

similar dynamics to mobilization from Tra_W if the difference between conjugation and

mobilization is solely due to the absence of secondary transfer. As shown in Figure

2B, the transfer dynamics in Tra_W are similar to the conjugation of plasmid R388 to a

population expressing PifC. This indicates that the differences between R388 and the

strain harboring Tra_W can be ascribed to the lack of secondary conjugation in the

latter. A similar situation was observed when the conjugation rate from pKM101 was

compared to the mobilization rate from a strain containing Tra_N (Figure 2C).

Once the functionality of the chromosomal constructions had been established, we

compared the mobilization rates of Tra_W and $Tra_N.$ Results, shown in Figures 2C and

2D demonstrated that the transfer machinery of pKM101 exhibited higher

mobilization rates than R388. These results are consistent with the values obtained

for wild type plasmids. Results in the searching rates and handling times observed in

full plasmids are thus dependent on the differences between the transfer apparatus

of both plasmids.

Differences in conjugation rates are robust to environmental variables and

overexpression of the transfer machinery.

In some PTUs, environmental factors such as temperature and nutrient availability

have an important impact on plasmid transmission rates (Johnsen & Kroer, 2007).

Thus, it was possible that the differences observed between pKM101 and R388 could

be explained by a differential sensitivity to environmental conditions. To test this end,

we performed conjugations in different temperatures and nutrient compositions.

Conjugation assays were performed as detailed in Materials and Methods, and results

are shown in Figures 3A and 3B. As shown in Figure 3A, both plasmids exhibited an

optimal transmission at 37ºC, yet pKM101 showed higher transfer rates at all

temperatures tested. Plasmid conjugation rates were also relatively invariant when

different media were used (Figure 3B). LB buffering against acidification produced by

cell growth did not change the conjugation rates. Increasing the nutrient availability

by performing conjugations in terrific broth did not have an observable effect, either.

In all conditions tested, plasmid pKM101 consistently yielded higher conjugation

efficiencies than R388.

Another possible explanation for the differences observed between both plasmids

was a differential expression of the conjugation apparatus. The expression of

conjugation genes in both plasmids is regulated through two conserved negative

feedback loops. TRA operon is auto repressed by KorA, its first ORF, while MOB

functions are controlled by second negative feedback under control of the accessory

protein (TrwA$_{R388}$/ TraK$_{pKM101}$). Changes in these repressors or their cognate

operators could result in different expression levels, thus we tested whether

increasing the expression of conjugation genes altered plasmid transmissibility.

Specifically, we analyzed whether increasing the expression of transfer genes

increased the conjugation frequency of R388. For this purpose, MOB and TRA

operons, as well as each individual conjugation gene were cloned under the control

of pBAD promoter and introduced into donor cells. Overexpression of these genes

was achieved as indicated in Materials and Methods, and the conjugation rates

determined as previously described (Rodriguez-Grande & Fernandez-Lopez, 2020).

Results, shown in Figure 3C revealed that the overexpression of transfer genes did

not increase the conjugation frequency. Minor, yet statistically significative changes

were achieved when overexpressing TrwJ. TrwJ is the pilus adhesin, the protein

responsible for contacting the recipient cell (Backert et al., 2008; Yeo et al., 2003).

Thus, it is possible that overexpression of this protein results in better donor to

recipient adhesion (Lacroix & Citovsky, 2011; Schmidt-Eisenlohr, Domke, & Baron,

1999; Schmidt-Eisenlohr, Domke, Angerer, et al., 1999).

304   Variation in the fundamental parameters within the PTU-W

Results demonstrated that pKM101 and R388 exhibited different conjugation

parameters, which resulted in different invasion dynamics. These differences could

be ascribed to their transfer machineries and were considerably orthogonal to

environmental and transcriptional perturbations. We thus wondered whether the

searching rate and the handling time were characteristic of a given plasmid PTU, or

were variable, with each plasmid showing different values. To test this end, we

compared plasmid R388 with three other PTU-W plasmids: pMBUI4, pIE321 and R7K.

PTU-W plasmids have a highly conserved genomic backbone (Fernández-López et al.,

2006), pIE321 being 97% identical at the DNA sequence level to R388, while R7K

being 97.5% (Revilla et al., 2008). Despite this high level of sequence conservation,

these plasmids were isolated from different bacterial species. Plasmid pIE321 was

isolated from *Samonella* Dublin (Götz et al., 1996)*,* while R7K was found in

Providencia rettgeri (Coetzee et al., 1972). Searching rates and handling times were

obtained, as previously described, by analyzing the T/D obtained after 1h conjugation

against a population of recipients with variable cell density (Figure 4). While in

pIE321 the handling time was slightly higher than that of R388, we observed a 10x

increase in the case of plasmid R7K. To check whether these differences had an impact

on the speed of propagation of R7K, we performed a conjugation kinetics assay, as

described before (Figure 4B). As shown in the figure, plasmid R7K invasion of the

recipient population was much slower than that of R388, taking >150 minutes to

reach a conjugation frequency of 1 T per D, while R388 reached these levels in <30

min. Results thus demonstrated that within a given plasmid PTU, the conjugation

parameters may exhibit significant variation.

Discussion

Understanding the factors that facilitate or curtail plasmid conjugation is essential to

devise strategies against the propagation of antibiotic resistances. Plasmid

propagation is a complicated process, in which transmission, vegetative growth and

plasmid-host co-adaptation play important roles (San Millan, A. & MacLean, R. C.,

2017). Plasmid transmission is classically modelled as a mass-action kinetics process,

where the rate of propagation is proportional to the density of donor and recipient

bacteria. Here we showed that this model does not faithfully capture the dynamics of

transfer. Our results demonstrated that plasmid conjugation followed a Holling's

Type II Functional Response (Holling, 1959b). This dynamical response is

characteristic of processes for which there exist density and frequency dependent

constraints. Density dependent transmission occurs at low cellular concentrations,

when the rate of encounters becomes a limiting step. In situations where density is

high enough, the time required for a donor cell to "turn" a recipient into a newly

formed transconjugant becomes limiting. The hallmark of a Holling´s Type II response

is a transition between a regime where the rate of reaction is proportional to density

to a regime where it becomes independent (Figure 1). This double dependence can

be captured by two characteristic parameters: the searching rate (k_{on}, with units

corresponding to area per time, $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$) and the handling time, τ (with units of time,

h). The interplay between these two parameters (Eqs.2 and 3) determines the cell

density at which density or frequency become limiting. By fitting conjugation

frequencies obtained at different total cell densities, we were able to obtain estimates

of both parameters for plasmids from the PTU-P1, PTU-N1 and PTU-W. Estimates of

the searching rate, k_{on}, were in the range of hundreds of square microns per hour,

which roughly correspond to a searching radius of 3-10 μm per hour. These results

are in accordance with earlier estimates for the effective distance for plasmid

transmission, obtained for PTU-F_E and PTU-P1 plasmids (Harrington & Rogerson,

1990; Lagido et al., 2003; Babić et al., 2008; Seoane et al., 2011).

Interestingly, although both the searching rate and the handling time showed

significant variation between plasmids, the cell density at which plasmids

transitioned from one regime to the other was similar in all cases. Transition from a

density-dependent to a frequency-dependent regime occurred at cell densities of

approximately 0.02-0.05 cells per μm^2 (that is, a 1 μm-long cell every 20-50 μm^2).

This figure roughly corresponds to a cellular density where each transconjugant

would be, on average, contacting 1 recipient. This is a surprisingly low cellular

concentration, indicating that in denser environments such as biofilms (Fux et al.,

2005; Hall-Stoodley et al., 2004; Madsen et al., 2012), the soil (Raynaud & Nunan,

2014) or the gut microbiota (Contijoch et al., 2019) conjugation is most likely

frequency-limited. This indicates that in a significant proportion of microbial

environments plasmid conjugation is constrained by the handling time, rather than

the probability of encounters, as assumed by classical models of plasmid transmission

(Levin et al., 1979; Simonsen et al., 1990; Smets & Lardon, 2009).

This frequency limitation explains many experimental results obtained for

conjugation on solid surfaces and biofilms. In these experiments, a population of

donors encountering one of recipients is typically able to generate only a "border" of

transconjugants (Christensen et al., 1996; Fox et al., 2008; Reisner et al., 2012 ;

Christensen et al., 1998; Hausner & Wuertz, 1999). As handling times of conjugative

plasmids are on the same order of magnitude as the doubling times of donors and

recipients (Fernandez-Lopez et al., 2014), the layer of contact of recipients is pushed

backwards at the same speed that the layer of transconjugants is created. When

frequency becomes limiting, the factor constraining plasmid propagation is the time

the population enjoys until the exhaustion of resources, compared to the handling

time τ. The higher the number of effective transfers achievable by the plasmid before

resources run out, the higher the conjugation rate. This explains why most plasmid

propagation experiments on highly dense environments produced similar low

invasion levels, except those continuously refreshing the growth medium (Turner,

2004) (Fox et al., 2008). Thus, to accurately measure the conjugative efficiency,

experiments with short mating times (30-90') and an excess of recipients (1:100 D:R

ratio) are likely to yield more precise estimations. Results obtained in longer

experiments, and with 1:1 D to R ratios will be confounded by vegetative growth and the lower probability of D-R encounters, respectively.

The handling time, τ, was found the most significant constraint for transfer. The factors that influence this parameter, however, are unclear. The fact that plasmids and their cognate transfer machineries exhibit slightly different handling times (T_h=0.5h for pKM101 and T_h=0.33h for Tra_N) suggests that factors outside the conjugation region may play a role. The difference in size of the DNA being transferred is the most obvious candidate (pKM101 is 35 kb and the vector mobilized by Tra_N is approximately 5 kb). However classical experiments using HFR strains demonstrated that DNA transfer is fast, and the entire chromosome can be readily conjugated in approximately 100 minutes (Lederberg et al., 1952; Tatum & Lederberg, 1947). Other experiments also demonstrated that plasmid-encoded fluorescent proteins are expressed in transconjugants after 15 minutes of mating, indicating that the whole process of transfer takes shorter times (Gordon, 1992; Lawley et al., 2002). These results suggest that the constraint is not the actual time required to pump the DNA into the recipient, but other factors conditioning the establishment and resolution of an effective conjugative pair. Plasmid copy number may be another possible contributor to τ. R388 and pKM101 plasmids are relatively low copied, compared to the vectors mobilized in assays using Tra_W and Tra_N mediated mobilizations. Moreover, the different IncW plasmids assayed in Figure 4 also present different copy numbers (Fernández-López et al., 2006), which could contribute to the differences observed in transfer rates. Further experiments systematically analyzing the impact of plasmid copy number on the transfer rate are required to clarify this end.

The searching rate K_{on}, establishes how easily a successful D-R pair is established

upon encounter. Physical factors involving cell to cell adhesion are likely to contribute

this rate. It is known that conjugation is favored when other, unrelated conjugative

plasmids express their pili in the same donor, or even the recipient cell (Gama et al.

2017). This suggests that increasing adhesion may facilitate transfer, a phenomenon

that was also observed introducing synthetic adhesins in D and R cells (Robledo et al.,

2022). Plasmids pKM101 and R388 showed a significant difference in their K_{on} (Table

1) a phenomenon which may be related to differences in the ability of the plasmid to

facilitate cell to cell adhesion. Plasmid pKM101 contains *pep*, an adhesin-like protein

that is absent in R388 and that has been shown to facilitate conjugation (González-

Rivera et al., 2019). Also, the only protein that slightly increased the conjugation

efficiency in R388 when overexpressed was the VirB5 adhesin TrwJ (Figure3).

Similar results have been obtained in pKM101 (Yeo et al., 2003) and Ti plasmids

(Lacroix & Citovsky et al., 2011), thus reinforcing the idea that increasing adhesion

improves the conjugation rate.

The fact that plasmids from the same PTU exhibited different searching rates and

handling times was surprising. It indicates that conjugation efficiency is not a

conserved feature among the members of a PTU, despite the overall sequence

similarity. In the case of W plasmids, sequence divergence concentrates in the MOB

and replication regions, and are the highest between R388 and R7K plasmids (Revilla

et al., 2008; Krol et al., 2013). Interestingly, R7K showed the lowest searching rate

and the longest handling time, which resulted in slower invasion dynamics (Figure 4).

438 R7K is the only PTU-W plasmid that was originally isolated from a host outside

439 Enterobacteria, thus its poor performance may represent a maladaptation to *E.coli*,

440 compared to the rest of PTU-W plasmids. Previous analyses have shown that plasmid-

441 host co-evolution has a major impact on key plasmid properties such as host range

442 and burden. (Bouma & Lenski, 1988; de Gelder et al., 2007, 2008; San Millan &

443 MacLean, 2017). It is thus likely that plasmid transmission also depends on co-

444 adaptations between the plasmid and the host. By systematically measuring the

445 searching rates and handling times in plasmids at different stages of co-adaptation,

446 we may be able to correlate transfer efficiencies with genes and mutations. Our model

447 thus provides an analytic framework to unravel the mechanisms and constrains that

448 regulate plasmid propagation in bacterial populations.

450 **Materials and Methods**

451 Plasmids and strains employed in this work are detailed in Tables 2 and 3.

452 **Cloning**. Plasmid constructs used for gene dosage experiments were built using the

453 Gibson assembly method (Gibson et al., 2009), using pBAD33 PCR products as vector

454 and genes and operons from *tra* region of R388 as insert (to be inserted downstream

455 the arabinose promoter of pBAD33 (Guzman et al., 1995)). All fragments were PCR

456 amplified with Phusion DNA polymerase (Thermo Fischer), gel-purified and digested

457 with DpnI restriction endonucleases (Promega) before assembly. *E. coli* DH5α strain

458 was used for electroporation and selective culture purposes. Gibson assembly

459 products were introduced in *E.coli* by electroporation. To build the mobilizable

460 plasmid pSEVA121:mobW, the region containing *oriT* of RP4 included in vector

461 pSEVA121 (coordinates 1278 to 1586 of GenBank Acc. No. JX560322.1) was replaced

by the *oriT-trwABC* region of R388 (coordinates 11153-16299 of GenBank Acc. no.

BR000038) using Gibson assembly.

Tra$_W$ and Tra$_N$ constructions. The MDS42::Tra$_W$ strain was constructed by cloning

the *mpf* (also called *tra* operon) region of R388, comprising all genes (*trwD-korA*)

required to build up the conjugative pili and inserting this whole region in a MDS42

E.coli strain (Pósfai et al., 2006) using Wanner-Datsenko protocol (Datsenko &

Wanner, 2000). The lacZYA genes of E. coli strain MDS42 (coordinates 287438-

292616 of GenBank Acc. No. NC_020518.1) were used as target for the chromosomal

insertion. The trwD-korB region of R388 (coordinates 11153-16299 of GenBank Acc.

No. BR000038) was PCR-amplified in three overlapping fragments. The kanamycin-

resistance gene (KmR) surrounded by FLP recombinase recognition sites (FRT) was

amplified from pKD4 (AY048743.1). Finally, 1kb fragments, homologous to the lacI

and cynX chromosomal genes, were amplified from MDS42 genomic DNA. The six

fragments were assembled (lacI-trwD-korB-KmR-cynX) and introduced by

electroporation into MDS42 competent cells expressing the Lambda-Red site-specific

recombinase (Datsenko & Wanner, 2000). KmR colonies were checked by PCR to

confirm the Tra$_W$ integration in the expected location, and the genome of a selected

colony was completely sequenced by Illumina. The phenotype of the MDS42::Tra$_W$

strains was checked by culturing in a chromogenic medium (agar Brilliance™) that

differentiates lac- and lac+ phenotypes. The KmR cassette was subsequently deleted

following the procedure described by Datsenko and Wanner (Datsenko & Wanner,

2000). Resistant derivatives of MDS42::Tra$_W$ were obtained by plating saturated

cultures of this strain in LB-agar plates supplemented with Rif10, Nx20 or Sm300.

MDS42::Tra$_N$ strain was similarly constructed by amplifying and Gibson-assembling

the *mpf* region of pKM101 (genes *korB-traG*) in a pOSIP vector (St-Pierre et al., 2013),

then electroporated in a DH5α *pir$^+$* strain before PCR comprobation, miniprep

purification and introduction by electroporation in a *pir$^-$* MG1655 strain -following

St-Pierre et al. protocol- where it recombined at attC position in the *E.coli*

chromosome (St-Pierre et al., 2013).

Conjugation and mobilization experiments. Unless otherwise stated, mating

assays were performed using BW27783 (Khlebnikov et al., 2000, 2001) Nal^R (donor)

and Rif^R (recipient) cells that had been grown to saturation overnight, at 37ºC, in 10

ml LB media supplemented with appropriate antibiotics. Antibiotic concentrations

used were nalidixic acid 20 µg / ml, rifampicin 10 µg / ml, kanamycin 50 µg / ml,

chloramphenicol 25 µg / ml, trimethoprim 20 µg / ml and ampicillin 100 µg / ml. Cells

were washed in equivalent volumes of fresh LB without antibiotics and allowed to

grow at 37ºC for 3h more. These cultures were collected, centrifuged at 4000g for 10'

and concentrated in 1 ml of fresh LB, then mixed at desired D:R ratios. Conjugation

on solid surfaces were performed in Corning® Costar® 24 well plates to which 1 ml

of LB-Agar had been added at least 3 days before, to solidify and dry. 15 µl of mating

mix were placed on top of the LB-Agar and let to conjugate for 1 h. at 37ºC, except

when indicated otherwise. Cells were then resuspended using 1 ml of sterile PBS,

subject to serial dilution and plated on LB-agar with appropriate antibiotics.

Conjugation assays using serial dilutions to discern between FDT and DDT were

performed as indicated above with the following modifications: For conjugation on

solid surfaces, cell cultures of donor (10 ml) and recipient (100 ml) cells were grown

to saturation on LB broth containing the appropriate antibiotics. Cells were washed,

refreshed for 3h in LB without antibiotics, concentrated ~100x in fresh LB and then

mixed in 1:100 Donor to Recipient ratio before being serially diluted in LB (dilution

ranging from 10^2X to 10^{-4}X). From each dilution, 100 µl of cells were deposited on top

of a 10cm diameter LB-agar plate (also prepared at least 3 days before to ensure

proper LB agar drying) and incubated for 1h at 37ºC. Cells were resuspended in 1000

µl of PBS, serially diluted and appropriate dilutions were plated on LB-agar plates

with antibiotics to count the number of D, R and T cells present. The same protocol

was applied in mating experiments at different times, with only two changes: a

1:10.000 ratio was also used (by putting 1/100 less donor volume in the same amount

of 10x concentrated recipient cells, as usual) and PBS was used to abort conjugation

at different times: 30, 60, 90, 120, 150 and 180 minutes.

Experiments measuring gene dosage effect on conjugation were conducted as the rest

of conjugation experiments explained above, except for the donor and recipients were

grown overnight on LB with antibiotics and glucose 0.5% (for pBAD33 arabinose

promoter repression) and washed and allowed to grow for 3h more in LB without

antibiotics with glucose 0.5% or arabinose 50µM (for arabinose promoter induction).

Each experiment was conducted simultaneously with a control donor containing the

conjugative plasmid and pBAD33 with no cargo. No transfer of pBAD33-derived

plasmids was observed. Conjugation efficiencies were determined as T/D and ratios

mean conjugation efficiency (three replicates) for the plasmid + pBAD33::trwX

donors divided by mean conjugation efficiency (three replicates) for the plasmid +

pBAD33 control were represented in graphs. In this case, if no change in conjugation

efficiency is observed, the expected mean ratio clone:control should be 1, while if

efficiency is improved by supplementing a gene or operon, the ratio should be greater

than 1. In this case, DH5α strain was used as donor to avoid recombination between

vector cargo and R388wt. Conjugation experiments in buffered LB were performed

at a pH=7.4 using Na_2HPO_4 10mM and NaH_2PO_4 1.8mM and pH adjusted with HCl 35%

and NaOH 1M.

Statistical tests. In order to check if conjugation efficiency measurements (as T/D

cell counts) did follow a normal distribution we performed a Shapiro-Wilk and an

Anderson-Darling test on two independent arrays of 16 measurements of R388

conjugation efficiency each. Both groups of T/D counts showed no normality, but

when the analysis was performed on their log-transformed values they showed

normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk, W=0.97 both groups, Anderson-Darling test

A^{*2}=0.26 and 0.21 respectively), thus indicating log-normal distribution, as suggested

before (Gama et al., 2017; Lucas et al., 2010).

Paired comparisons of log(T/D) values were performed using two-sided t Student's

test, while multiple comparisons were performed using ANOVA. Unless otherwise

specified, a significance level of α= 0.05 was taken as good enough to reject null

hypothesis.

Nonlinear fitting of conjugation efficiencies at different cell concentrations was

performed with nonlinear curve fitting package of GraphPad Prism v8.0.2 using

custom equations (namely, Eqs 2 and 3).

Table 2. Strains used in this work

Strain	Genotype	Reference
DH5α	F$^-$ endA1 hsdR17 (rk$^-$, mk$^+$) supE44 thi-1 λ$^-$ recA1 gyrA96 relA1 deoRΔ(lacZYA-argF)-U169 φ80d lacZΔM15	(Grant et al., 1990)
BW27783	lacI^q rrnB$_{T14}$ lacZ$_{WJ16}$ hsdR514 Δ(araBAD$_{AH33}$) Δ(rhaBAD$_{LD78}$) Δ(araFGH) φ(ΔaraEp P$_{CP8}$-araE)	(Khlebnikov et al., 2000, 2001)
MG1655	Dam $^+$, F $^-$, lambda$^-$, rph-1	(Blattner et al., 1997)
MDS42	MG1655Δ(fhuACDB) endA$^-$, recA$^-$, Δ(699 genes, ISs and prophages)	(Pósfai et al., 2006)
MDS42 Tra$_N$	MG1655::mpf_R46	This work
MDS42 Tra$_W$	MDS42::mpf_R388	This work
DH5α *pir$^+$*	endA1 hsdR17 glnV44(=supE44) thi-1 recA1 gyrA96 relA1 φ80dlacΔ(lacZ)M15 Δ(lacZYA-argF)U169 zdg-232::Tn10 uidA::pir$^+$	(Platt et al., 2000)

569   **Table 3. Plasmids used in this work**

Plasmid	Antibiotic Markers	Description	Reference
pSEVA121	Ap	RP4 replicon, mobilizable (RP4 oriT)	(Martínez-Garćía et al., 2015)
pBAD33	Cm	pACYC replicon, pBAD, araC	(Guzman et al., 1995)
pRL443	Ap, Tc	RP4ΔaphA (Kn^S), IncP1α, conjugative	(Elhai et al., 1997)
R388	Tp	IncW, conjugative	(Datta & Hedges, 1972)
pKM101	Ap	15 kb deletion of R46, IncN, conjugative	(Langer et al., 1981)
R7K	Ap	IncW, conjugative	(Coetzee et al., 1972)
pMBUI4	Tc	IncW, conjugativo	(Brown et al., 2013)
pIE321	Tc	IncW, conjugativo	(Götz et al., 1996)
pSU1027	Tp	R388 with p15a replicon	(Mötsch et al., 1985)
pSU4280	Cm	pSU19::Mob_pKM101	(Llosa et al., 2003)
pSEVA121::mobW	Ap	oriV_RK2, oriT_RP4, oriT-TrwABC_R388, mobilizable by R388 and RP4.	This work

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Figure 1. Conjugation follows a type II Functional response. A) In a Density-Dependent Transmission
(DDT) regime, plasmid conjugation increases linearly with increasingly available recipients; cell-to-cell
contact is the only limiting factor, B) in a Frequency Dependent-Trasmission (FDT) regime donors are
limited by the time required to complete the transfer event. Transmission is not limited by encountering
susceptible receptors. C) Number of transconjugants per donor expected (y axis) as a function of the total
cell population (N, x axis). In a Holling´s Type II functional response there is a density-dependent region
where transconjugant formation increases proportionally with N (leftwards from the blue line). When N
becomes saturating the formation of transconjugants does not scales any further with cell density and
becomes frequency-limited (rightwards from the blue line). D, E, F) Transconjugants per donor ([T]/[D],
y axis) measured at different Recipient densities ([R]≈[N], x axis) in E. coli BW27783 mating on solid LB-
agar surfaces and 1 h. conjugation time for plasmids D) R388, E) pKM101 and F) RP4. The black line
represents the DDT regime, where different k_{on} produce different y-intercepts. The red line represents the
FDT regime, where the conjugation efficiency is just $1/\tau$ and the dotted curve corresponds to the fitting
to Eq.3. Every black dot corresponds to the average of 3 conjugation experiments.

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Figure 2.- Plasmid propagation efficiency through time, as transconjugant per
donor cell production at different time intervals. A) *Plasmids R388 and pKM101*
conjugation rates at 1:100 and 1:10000 D/R ratio. ***B)*** *Comparison of plasmid R388*
conjugation efficiency (black dots) vs R388-derived constructions. Black dots
correspond to the wt plasmid transferred to a recipient strain that contains an empty
pBAD expression vector. Green dots represent values obtained in conjugations where
donors contained wild-type R388, and recipients harboured a pBAD::pifC construction,
able to block secondary transmission. White dots correspond to the mobilization of a
plasmid containing the MOB region of plasmid R388 from a strain harbouring a
chromosomal integration of the TRA_W genes. ***C)*** *Mobilization dynamics obtained using*
the TRA genes from PKM101 (TRA_N, red) and the TRA genes from R388 (TRA_W, black)
integrated in the chromosome of E.coli . The mobilizable plasmid in each case contained
the MOB region of each corresponding plasmid. ***D)*** *Mobilization (red circunferences)*
and conjugation (maroon dots) dynamics of PKM101. The mobilization dynamics was
obtained using a mobilizable vector containing MOB_N harboured by a strain that
contained the TRA_N genes inserted in the chromosome. The conjugation dynamics was
obtained using the wt pKM101 plasmid.
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Figure 3. Effect of environmental conditions and protein expression on conjugation rates. a) *Effect of temperature on the conjugation rate. Conjugation assays were performed as described in Materials and Methods. (1h, 37ºC, 1D:100R). Each point corresponds to an independent experiment* **b)** *Effect of media composition on the transfer rate (LBagar: autoclaved LBagar, LBagar pH7.4: PBS-buffered at pH 7.4, LBagar*: non-autoclaved LBagar and TBagar: Terrific Broth agar.* **c)** *Overexpression of TRA genes does not increase the transfer rate. On the x axis, genes overexpressed in R388-carrying donors using a pBAD33 vector. On the y axis, the ratio between the conjugation frequency obtained overproducing each of the constructions shown in the figure, and the conjugation frequency obtained with an empty vector.*
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Figure 4. Plasmids from the same PTU display different conjugation dynamics. (A)
Conjugation kinetics for different plasmids of the same PTU. The conjugation frequency,
expressed as Tc / D is indicated on the y axis. The conjugation time, in minutes, is
indicated on the x axis. ***(B)*** *Conjugation frequencies (y axis) obtained at different cell*
densities (x axis) for different plasmids belonging to PTU-W. Estimated handling times
(τ) and searching rates (k_{on}) for each plasmid correspond to k_{PMBUI4}= 159 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$
τ_{pMBUI4}=0.3 h , k_{R388}= 36 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ τ_{R388}=0.7 h, k_{pIE321}= 8.63 $\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ τ_{pIE321}=1 h , k_{R7K}= 1.8
$\mu m^2 \cdot h^{-1}$ τ_{R7K}=6.6 h.
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SUPPLEMENTARY CALCULATIONS
Fundamental parameters governing the transmission of conjugative plasmids

Jorge Rodriguez-Grande, Maria del Pilar Garcillan, Fernando de la Cruz and Raul Fernandez-Lopez

1.- Deriving the functional response for plasmid mobilization

To obtain the dynamics of mobilization we pose a model with three different types of cells:

D = donors
R = recipients
T = transconjugants

The model assumes that D cells encounter R in a density-dependent fashion, producing a complex C. The conjugative complex may progress to the formation of a transconjugant T, or may result in a non-productive mating (by premature termination of the conjugative pair), such that:

$$D + R \underset{koff}{\overset{kon}{\leftrightarrow}} C \overset{Kc}{\rightarrow} D + T$$

Eq.1

We also will perform our experiments in the regime where $R \gg D$, thus the number of recipients may be considered a constant. Under these assumptions, the differential equations governing the progression of the population follow:

$$\frac{dD}{dt} = C\ koff + C\ kc - D\ R\ kon$$

Eq. 2

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = D\ R\ kon - C\ koff - C\ kc$$

Eq. 3

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = C\ kc$$

Eq. 4

1031 The system is thus formally equivalent to a Michaelis-Mentem reaction scheme,
1032 following the Haldane approximation, we can pose the following:

1033
1034   1) Pseudo-steady state: Given enough time t, formation of C complexes will be
1035   in steady-state, thus:

1036
1037 $$D\,R\,kon = C\,(koff +\ kc)$$
1038   Eq. 5

1039
1040   2) Preservation of the total number of D: the contribution of vegetative growth
1041   during the experiment is considered negligible

1042
1043 $$D(0) = D(t) + C(t)$$
1044   Eq. 6

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1046 This allows us to pose an equation which is formally equivalent to that of the MM
1047 process under the Haldane approximation:

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$$C = \frac{D_0\,R}{\dfrac{koff + kc}{kon} + R}$$

1052   Eq. 7
1053

1054
$$\frac{dT}{dt} = kc\,C = \frac{D_0\,R\,kc}{\dfrac{koff + kc}{kon} + R} = \frac{D_0\,R\,kc\,kon}{koff + kc + R\,kon}$$

1055
1056   Eq. 8
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1058 Now, we can introduce the average lifetime of C, the time required for the C
1059 conjugative complex to resolve into the formation of transconjugants or an abortive
1060 reversion to D + R. Such average lifetime (τ) is just $1 / (koff + kc)$. Introducing this
1061 factor into Eq. 8 yields

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1063
$$\frac{dT}{dt} = kc\,C = \frac{D_0\,R\,kc}{\dfrac{koff + kc}{kon} + R} = \frac{D_0\,R\,kc}{\dfrac{1}{\tau\,kon} + R} = \frac{D_0\,R\,kon\,\tau\,kc}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau} = \frac{D_0\,R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\,\frac{1}{1 + koff/kc}$$

1064
1065   Eq. 9
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1067 This Eq can be now directly integrated yielding the following expression for the
1068 formation of transconjugants per donor :

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1070
$$\frac{T}{D_0} = \left(\frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\right)\left(\frac{1}{1 + \dfrac{koff}{kc}}\right) t$$

Now, in conditions where the formation of a transconjugant is much more likely than the abortion of the conjugative pair, such that kc>> koff Eq 10 simplifies to an expression which is formally equivalent to Holling's type II functional response:

$$\frac{T}{D_0} = \left(\frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\right) t$$

<div align="center">Eq. 11</div>

In this Eq the transconjugants generated per donor cell depend on two constants: a *kon* parameter that indicates the rate at which donor cells find and attach to recipients, and an effective conjugation time, τ, indicating the time required for a donor-recipient complex to resolve into a new transconjugant. In those cases where the abortion rate of the conjugative plasmid is substantial, the rate of transconjugant formation will be affected by a term which is just the probability of the C complex resulting into the successful formation of a new transconjugant:

$$\frac{T}{D_0} = \left(\frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\right)\left(\frac{kc}{kc + koff}\right) t$$

<div align="center">Eq. 12</div>

2.- Deriving the functional response for plasmid conjugation

The dynamics of plasmid conjugation are significantly more complex than that of mobilization. The newly formed transconjugants can act as donors, a process which is often assumed to involve a lag period. Additionally, transconjugants often exhibit higher conjugation rates than the parental donor population, due to the transitory de-repression of the conjugation machinery after plasmid transmission. An autocatalytic process of this nature, involving lags of variable time and non-linear dynamics, frequently exhibits too complicated dynamics to be faithfully parametrized. We can, however, modify the experimental conditions to simplify the dynamics and obtain the searching rate and the effective conjugation time.

The simplest approximation is to assume that, in conjugative plasmids, the rate of formation of new transconjugants is proportional to the number of donors D_0 and already formed transconjugants (T_t). In these conditions:

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}(T_t + D_0)$$

<div align="center">42</div>

1115
1116   Eq. 13
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1119   This expression can be directly integrated, yielding:
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$$Ln(1 + \frac{T}{D_0}) = \frac{R\ kon}{1 + R\ kon\ \tau} t$$

1123
1124
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1126   Eq. 14
1127
For plasmids with low conjugation rates the overall contribution of the newly formed
transconjugants is negligible, compared to that of the initial D population. This
translates in the convergence of Eq 14 and Eq 11 at low conjugation frequencies. As a
rule of thumb, in a plasmid with a conjugation frequency of 0.1 T/D the contribution
of secondary conjugation is approximately 0.01 T/D. This means that for most
experimental conditions and model plasmids, Eq10 can be directly applied without
the introduction of a substantial estimation error. This, however, does not hold for
plasmids in which the conjugation frequency observed is higher than 1 T/D (for 1
T/D the error would be 0.3 T/D). This may be the case of highly conjugative plasmids
or, more frequently, mating experiments performed for very long times, under a
continuous replenishment of nutrients.
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1140   **3.-Vegetative growth contribution is negligible**
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1142   In Eq.12 we assumed vegetative growth to yield a negligible contribution to the
1143   frequency of conjugation (Fc). Here we will show that this is always the case, as long
1144   as the growth rate of T and D is similar.
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1146   The FC is defined as the ratio of T to D, such that
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$$\frac{dFc}{dt} = \frac{dT_t D_t - dD_t T_t}{dD_t^2}$$

1149
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1151   Eq. 15
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1153   Where
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$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{R\ kon}{1 + R\ kon\ \tau} (T_t + D_t) + \alpha\ T$$

1155
1156
1157   Eq. 16
1158   And the growth of D follows:

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$$\frac{dD}{dt} = \alpha D$$

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1161   Eq. 17

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$$D_t = D_0 e^{\alpha t}$$

1164   Eq. 18

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1167   In these conditions

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$$\frac{dFc}{dt} = \frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\,\frac{D_t + T_t}{D_t} = \frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\,(1 + Fc)$$

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1173   Eq. 19

1174   Which can be directly integrated

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$$Ln(1 + Fc) = \frac{R\,kon}{1 + R\,kon\,\tau}\,t$$

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1178

1179   Eq. 20

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