Modified antibiotic adjuvant ratios can slow and steer the evolution of resistance: co-amoxiclav as a case study

3

4 Richard C. Allen¹, Sam P. Brown²*

- 5 Affiliations
- 6 1: Institute of Integrative Biology, ETH Zürich, CH-8092, Switzerland
- 7 2: School of Biological sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology 30332-0230, USA
- 8 * Corresponding Author: sam.brown@biology.gatech.edu
- 9

10 Abstract

11 As the spread of antibiotic resistance outstrips the introduction of new antibiotics, reusing 12 existing antibiotics is increasingly important. One promising method is to combine antibiotics 13 with synergistically acting adjuvants that inhibit resistance mechanisms, allowing drug 14 killing. Here we use co-amoxiclav (a commonly used and clinically important drug 15 combination of the β -lactam antibiotic amoxicillin and the β -lactamase inhibitor clavulanate) 16 to ask whether treatment efficacy and resistance evolution can be decoupled via component 17 dosing modifications.

18 A simple mathematical model predicts that different ratios of these two drug components can 19 produce distinct evolutionary responses despite similar initial levels of control. We test this 20 hypothesis by selecting Escherichia coli with a plasmid encoded β-lactamase (ESBL CTX-M-14), against different proportions of amoxicillin and clavulanate. Consistent with our 21 22 theory, we found that while resistance evolved under all conditions, the component ratio 23 influenced both the rate and mechanism of resistance evolution. Specifically, we found that 24 the current clinical practice of high amoxicillin to clavulanate ratios resulted in the most rapid 25 failure due to the evolution of gene dosing responses. Increased plasmid copy number 26 allowed *E. coli* to increase β-lactamase dosing and effectively titrate out the low quantities of 27 clavulanate, restoring amoxicillin resistance. In contrast, we found high clavulanate ratios 28 were more robust - plasmid copy number did not increase, although porin or efflux resistance 29 mechanisms were found, as in all drug ratios. Our results indicate that by changing the ratio 30 of adjuvant to antibiotic we can slow and steer the path of resistance evolution. We therefore 31 suggest the use of increased clavulanate dosing regimens to slow the rate of resistance 32 evolution.

34 Introduction

The current crisis of antibiotic resistance is grounded in the ability of bacterial pathogens to rapidly evolve and adapt to novel stressors like antibiotics (1). Even for the same drug many different mechanisms confer resistance, often with varying transmissibility, costs and cross resistances (2-5). Examples of resistance have been found for all currently used antibiotics and recently clinicians have begun to face pathogens that are resistant to all available antibiotics (4, 6-8).

41 In addition to the ongoing search for new drugs (9), an important direction in combating 42 resistance is the restoration of antibiotic sensitivity to existing drugs via the use of anti-43 resistance compounds or adjuvants (10-12). Antibiotic adjuvants are compounds that do not 44 affect the growth of bacteria on their own but instead enhance the activity of antibiotics, by 45 inhibiting mechanisms of resistance (13, 14). For example β -lactamase inhibitors prevent β -46 lactamase enzymes from degrading β -lactam antibiotics (15). β -lactamse mediated resistance 47 is especially problematic for gram negative pathogens where these enzymes are common and disseminated on plasmids (10, 16, 17). Therefore β-lactamase β-lactamase inhibitor (BLBLI) 48 49 combinations will restore β -lactam sensitivity of β -lactamse carrying strains without using 50 novel antibiotics or antibiotics of last resort like carbapenems (16).

51 In this study we use co-amoxiclav (brand name Augmentin), a BLBLI combination of 52 amoxicillin and clavulanate (clavulanic acid) that has been widely used globally since 1981 53 (18), and is on the WHO list of essential medicines (19). Amoxicillin is a bacteriocidal β-54 lactam antibiotic that inhibits synthesis of the bacterial cell wall (17). The adjuvant 55 clavulanate has a similar structure to β-lactam antibiotics and thus acts as a competitive 56 inhibitor of many β-lactamase enzymes (15). By preventing amoxicillin cleavage, clavulanate 57 suppresses the resistance phenotype making amoxicillin effective again.

58 Despite the efficacy of BLBLI combinations like co-amoxiclav resistance is still possible, 59 either by altering the effect of amoxicillin or the effect of clavulanate. Clavulanate is 60 ineffective against resistance mechanisms that don't involve β -lactamase expression. Thus direct resistance to amoxicillin, via altered penicillin binding protein structure, reduced porin 61 62 expression or increased efflux pump expression can lead to resistance to co-amoxiclay (15). 63 On the other hand increased production of lactamase enzymes overwhelm the clavulanate 64 (20) and inhibitor resistant β -lactamase enzymes reduce (or abolish) the effect of clavulanate 65 (21).

66 Despite the recent interest in adjuvants, the relative doses of the components in adjuvant 67 therapies have received little attention, with clinical amoxicillin : clavulanate ratios varying 68 from 2:1 to 16:1 (22), with an increase in amoxicillin more recently to combat resistance 69 (18). Here we mathematically model and empirically map the synergy between amoxicillin 70 and clavulanate in controlling a population of β -lactamase expressing *E. coli*. We then go on 71 to demonstrate that drug ratios that are equally effective in their initial levels of control can 72 produce distinct evolutionary responses. Specifically, we find that current high amoxicillin 73 ratios lead to the rapid evolution of resistance via increased β-lactamase expression, while 74 low amoxicillin ratios with equal initial efficacy are more robust, and maintain the efficacy of 75 our meagre pool of *β*-lactamase inhibitors. We therefore suggest the use of increased 76 clavulanate dosing regimens to slow the rate of resistance evolution.

- 78 Results
- 79 Theoretical model

80 We begin by developing a simple qualitative model for bacterial population dynamics under 81 the control of co-amoxiclav as examples of β -lactam antibiotics and a β -lactamase inhibiting 82 adjuvants (Figure S3, Text S1). The model predicts that the two compounds will show strong 83 synergy when controlling a pathogen with an existing β -lactamase resistance gene (Figure 84 1a), as is seen in our experimental results (Figure 1b). We next introduce two resistance 85 mechanisms to the model, direct (non- β -lactamase) mediated resistance via 86 target/permeability mutations (fig 2a), or β -lactamase over-production (fig 2b) and ask how 87 co-amoxiclav component dosing regimens impact selection for each mechanism.

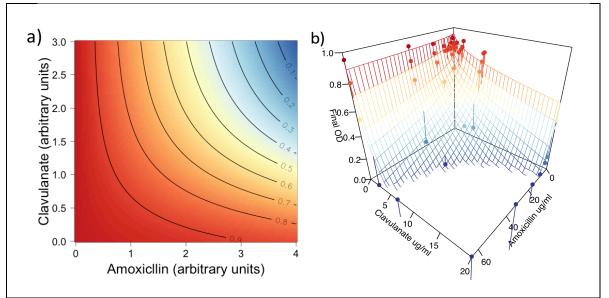
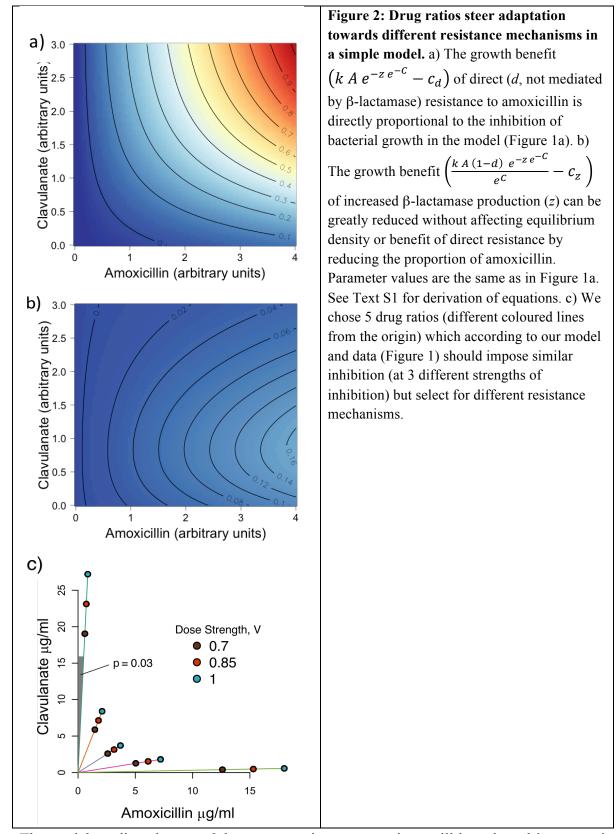


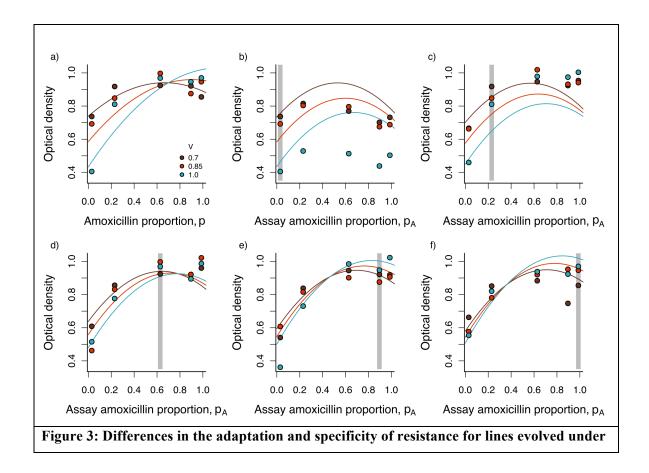
Figure 1: A simple model of amoxicillin and clavulanate action captures observed synergy. a) We model the dynamics of bacterial density *B* under the influence of amoxicillin *A* and clavulanate C as $\frac{dB}{dt} = (1 - B)B - c_z z B - c_d dB - k A B(1 - d)e^{-ze^{-C}}$ (for details, see Text S1). Carrying capacity of the system is normalised to one, so equilibrium density will be one in the absence of drugs and costly resistance. Parameters capture resistance to amoxicillin via β lactamase over-production (*z*=2.3). Other parameters are *k*=0.3, *d*=0.1, *c_d*=0.05 and *c_z*=0.005. b) This model approximates the synergistic inhibition of growth seen in *E. coli* expressing a β lactamase. The surface is the prediction of the fitted linear model (Figure S1).



89 The model predicts that non- β -lactamase resistance mutations will be selected in proportion 90 to the efficacy of the combination treatment (Figure 2a). In contrast, β -lactamase over-91 production mutants show a more interesting pattern with maximal selection biased towards

- 92 high amoxicillin ratios (Figure 2b), as increasing β -lactamase can then effectively titrate out
- 93 the low concentration of clavulanate and restore the resistance phenotype.
- 94
- 95 Adaptation of *E. coli* to drug environments

96 We next tested our theoretical predictions by conducting experimental evolution in 15 drug 97 environments, corresponding to 5 differing amoxicillin proportions (p), each at 3 dose 98 strengths (V) (Figure 2c). Importantly amoxicillin proportion and dose strength (strength of 99 inhibition in the ancestor) varied independently across these 15 environments. After 6 100 passages (approximately 40 generations) each evolved population was assayed for growth in 101 the drug environment it was selected in. The growth of populations, in their drug 102 environment, was greater for populations selected in high amoxicillin ratios than those 103 selected in low amoxicillin ratios (figure 3a), even though the different drug ratios showed 104 similar efficacy on the ancestral strain (figure S2). The slower adaptation in low amoxicillin 105 lines can also be seen over the course of the whole selection experiment, which ran for 12 106 passages (figure S4).



different amoxicillin proportions (*p*). a) shows the growth of each population its selective environment. Panels b-f) show lines evolved at different amoxicillin proportions (p_s) from a) low p_s to f) high p_s (as depicted in figure 2c). Each line was assayed for growth at alternate drug ratios (p_A). Colours differentiate dose strengths for both selection history and assay ($V_s = V_A$). Solid curves show predicted values from the fixed effects of a minimal linear mixed effects model detailed in table S3. The grey regions indicate the drug ratio that lines were selected against, the points in these regions are shown together in panel a). Points are the mean of three replicate evolved lines.

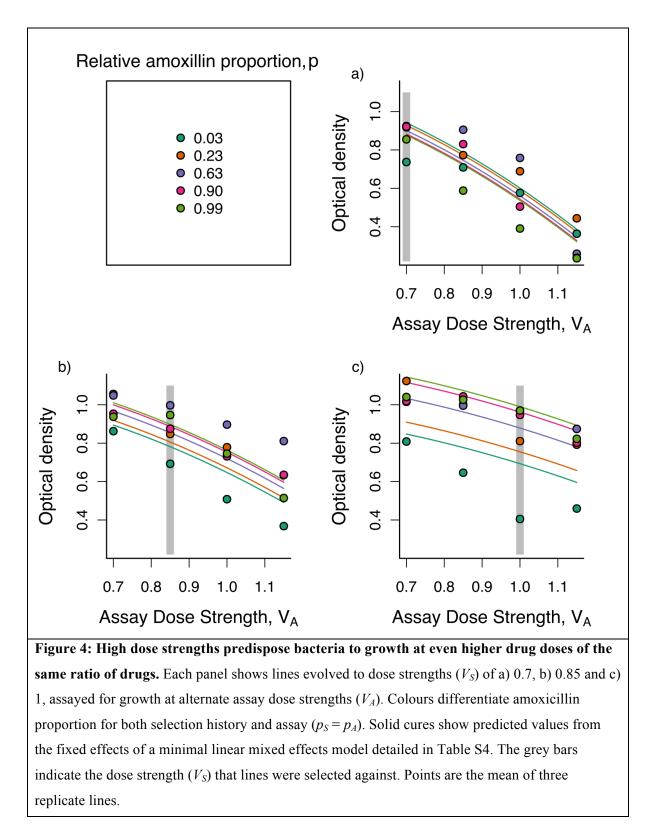
108 Cross resistance between drug environments

109 Next, we explored how adaptation to one drug environment influenced growth across distinct

110 drug environments. The populations that had been selected for 6 passages were exposed to

111 alternate drug environments along the two variables of drug environment; amoxicillin

112 proportion and dose strength.



By varying assay amoxicillin proportion (p_A) we found that adaptation to a high clavulanate environment (low p_s, Figure 3b) leads to poor growth across all drug environments. Even the complex statistical model presented here underestimates the extent that lines evolved to high clavulanate treatments have impaired growth. In contrast, adaptation to high amoxicillin

- environment (high p_s, Figure 3d-f) leads to performance that is more sensitive to the assay
 environment p_A, with high growth in the environment of adaptation and poor growth in a low
- amoxicillin environment, suggesting higher specificity of resistance in these lines.
- 121 By varying the assay dose (V_A, Figure 4) we found that adaptation to a higher dose strength
- 122 environment (high Vs, Figure 4c) leads to a reduced sensitivity to increasing assay dose
- 123 (Figure 4). The lines selected to different drug ratios behave similarly when assay dose
- 124 strengths are changed. However, strains evolved at high clavulanate proportions do poorly
- against all dose strengths.
- 126 Genetic changes during selection

127 To cast light on the mechanisms of evolved resistance, we sequenced the 15 populations 128 evolved against high dose strengths of co-amoxiclay. We find a pattern of parallel mutation of the plasmid copy number repression locus repY (23), predominantly in the lines evolved 129 130 against high amoxicillin proportions (Figure 5, Data S1). Mutations affecting porins and 131 efflux pumps, which prevent access of amoxicillin to the cell wall target (24), are also found 132 in multiple lines (Figure 5, Data S1) but are not specifically found in lines evolved to high or 133 low amoxicillin proportions. By using read depth of the plasmid and genome regions to 134 estimate plasmid copy number we find that lines selected against higher amoxicillin proportions evolved higher plasmid copy number (Figure 6, $\beta = 2.187$, $F_{1,13} = 20.89$, p < 0.001, 135 136 robust to removal of outlying point).

Position	Mutation	Change	Gene	Description	- Ancestor	- 0.03	- 0.23	- 0.63	- 0.90	- 0.99	Evolved
P 553.00	C→A	intergenic (-/-57)	- / → repY	-/positive regulator for RepZ translation							
P 89,384	IS4 +12 bp	coding (290-301/438 nt)	pilM ←	type IV pilus protein							
C 985,674	G→A	Q178* (CAG→TAG)	ompF ← ←	outer membrane porin 1a (Ia;b;F)							
C 985,714	IS1 +9 bp	coding (484-492/1089 nt)									
C 986,140	IS1 +8 bp	coding (59-66/1089 nt)									
C 986,160	IS5 +4 bp	coding (43-46/1089 nt)									
C 986,223	IS2 +5 bp	intergenic (-18/+581)	$ompF \leftarrow / \\ \leftarrow asnS$	outer membrane porin 1a (Ia;b;F)/asparaginyl tRNA synthetase							
C 1,298,718	IS5 +4 bp	intergenic (+250/-485)	ychE \rightarrow / \rightarrow oppA	putative inner membrane protein/oligopeptide transporter subunit							
C 2,844,696	T→G	T247P (ACC→CCC)	hycD ←	hydrogenase 3, membrane subunit							
C 3,533,481	G→A	T137I (ACC→ATC)	envZ ←	sensory histidine kinase in two-component regulatory system with							
C 3,533,638	C→T	G85R (GGG→AGG)		OmpR							
C 3,533,640	A→T	L84Q (CTG→CAG)									
C 3,860,684	T→G	pseudogene (943/1617 nt)	glvC ←	pseudogene, arbutin specific enzyme IIC component of PTS;enzyme;							
C 4,294,083	C→T	intergenic (+266/+376)	$gltP \rightarrow / \\ \leftarrow yjcO$	glutamate/aspartate:proton symporter/hypothetical protein							
C 4,300,681	T→G	T141P(ACC→CCC)	mdtO ←	membrane translocase (MDR) of MdtNOP efflux pump, PET family							

Figure 5: Populations selected for 6 passages have different mechanisms of co-amoxiclav resistance. The table on the left gives detail about the mutations. The frequency of each mutation in all sequenced populations is shown on the left. Red indicates that a mutation is at high frequency and blue indicates that the mutation is at low frequency or absent. The white box indicates that the mutation is present in the population but a frequency is unable to be assigned to it. Mutations are identified by their position and prefixed by P or C for plasmid or chromosome respectively. Only polymorphic mutations that were found at a frequency equal to or greater than 20% in one or more lines are shown. All mutations are listed in the Data S1.

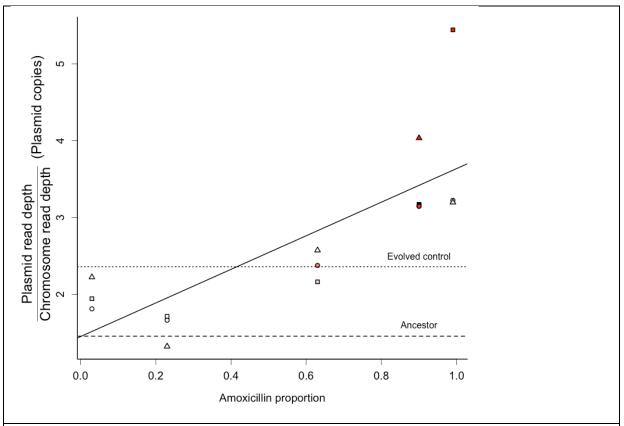


Figure 6: Plasmid copy number is higher in lines selected at high amoxicillin proportions. The copy number of the pCT plasmid in the first second and third replicate populations are denoted by squares, circles and triangles respectively. The strength of the red colour represents the sum of the proportion of all mutations in the repY promoter. Replicate 2 of the lines evolved at a relative amoxicillin proportion of 0.90 could not be quantified for the number of mutations at the repY promoter and is coloured black.

137 Discussion

138 In this study we have demonstrated that the synergistic interaction between a β -lactam 139 antibiotic and a β -lactamase inhibitor (adjuvant) can lead to distinct phenotypic and genomic 140 paths to resistance evolution in a ratio-dependent manner, with potential consequences for the 141 sustainable management of adjuvant therapies. Recent work has suggested that the ratio of 142 drugs used in combination therapies may affect selection for resistance (25-27). However 143 drug interactions make it difficult to separate the effect of drug ratio from the inhibitory 144 strength of the treatment, which has a well-established effect on the evolution of drug 145 resistance (3). We find that low amoxicillin treatments confer weaker selection for resistance 146 (Figure 3), even when the inhibitory effect of the drug combination on the ancestor is similar. 147 As expected (3), resistance generally evolves faster when the inhibitory effect is greater

(figure 3 and 4), however, all lines selected in high clavulanate environments had leastresistance, regardless of inhibitory effect (Figure 3a).

150 Our mathematical model (Figure 2b and S3) suggests that increased β-lactamase expression 151 is more strongly selected with high proportions of amoxicillin, because when clavulanate is not in excess its effect can be titrated out by increasing lactamase expression. On the other 152 153 hand selection for direct resistance only depends on the inhibitory strength of the drug 154 combination, because this is equivalent to the amoxicillin concentration experienced by the 155 bacterium after some proportion has been broken down by lactamase. Consistent with our 156 model, we found that lines selected at high amoxicillin proportions grew well in high 157 amoxicillin environments but poorly in low amoxicillin environments (Figures 3d-f). These 158 lines had increased plasmid copy number (and thus β -lactamase expression) through parallel 159 mutations in repY (Figure 5), which protects against amoxicillin but not in the presence of 160 high levels of clavulanate. On the other hand, lines selected in high clavulanate environments 161 grew poorly, but consistently across all amoxicillin proportions. These lines only acquired 162 direct resistance to amoxicillin through parallel mutations affecting porins and efflux pumps, 163 a resistance mechanism seen across all amoxicillin proportions. This resistance mechanism 164 provides a benefit independent of amoxicillin proportion, as it only depends on amount of 165 non-cleaved amoxicillin. In addition to multiple different mutations in genes with similar 166 functions we find some identical mutations in different lines indicating that specific 167 mutations may be adaptive as is likely the case for *repY* mutations. Mock passaged blank 168 wells showed no evidence of cross contamination. Sequencing of a control evolved line 169 indicated that it was also polymorphic at chromosome position 4,294,083 suggesting this 170 polymorphism was present in the ancestral population or is an artefact of our sequence 171 analysis.

172 Although the shape of drug interactions have recently been shown to evolve in bacteria (27), 173 to our knowledge this is the first time that this has been reported for antibiotic adjuvant 174 combinations, or that these changes have been linked to the mechanisms of drug action. Our 175 results suggest that dosing regimens with higher amounts of clavulanate will more effectively 176 slow the evolution of resistance by rendering some resistance types ineffective; specifically 177 beta-lactamase dose-response mutations will be less able to titrate out the effect of larger 178 amounts of beta-lactamase inhibitor. Since its introduction the dosage of amoxicillin in co-179 amoxiclav tablets has increased from 250mg to 875mg, to combat amoxicillin resistance, 180 however the dosage of clavulanate has remained the same at 125mg. There are many other 181 considerations when designing regimens including dosing pharmacokinetics/ 182 pharmacodynamics and toxicity (although amoxicillin and clavulanate are well tolerated, (28, 183 29)), but the potential for resistance is increasingly important. Increased β -lactamase 184 expression is a common resistance mechanism, particularly when plasmid borne (20). 185 Therefore, we suggest that the amount of clavulanate could be increased to reduce selection 186 for increased lactamase expression without affecting the fitness of other resistance 187 mechanisms. This would have the added benefit of reducing selection for plasmid based 188 resistance, which is both easily mobilised and can increase evolvability (20).

- 189 As our supply of antibiotics becomes limited there has been greater interest in extending the 190 lifetime of antibiotics through combination with adjuvants, and β -lactams are no exception 191 (9). As antibiotics have been developed for longer than adjuvants we have many β -lactam 192 antibiotics which could be more effective if combined with an adjuvant but relatively few β-193 lactamase inhibitors to combine them with (15). Therefore, it has been argued that adjuvants 194 should be conserved over antibiotics (13), with the antibiotic component of a combination 195 being replaced when resistance renders it ineffective through direct resistance mechanisms. 196 Our results with co-amoxiclav suggest that using β -lactamase inhibitors at high 197 concentrations would do exactly this by steering resistance away from B-lactamase over-198 expression and towards direct mechanisms of resistance – at which point the β -lactam 199 component could in principle be replaced. In practice, the potential enrichment of broad-200 specificity resistance mechanisms will limit the set of replacement options. In general we 201 argue that our ability to manage infections on both the patient and public health scales will 202 require greater investment into the evolutionary consequences of existing and potential 203 treatment regimens.
- 204 Methods

205 Strains and media

Escherichia coli strain MG1655 containing a naturally occurring pCT plasmid (30) and defective for horizontal transfer due to a mutation in the *trbA* gene (31) was used as the ancestor of all selection lines and is henceforth referred to as the ancestor. The strain was produced in the lab of Dr Ben Raymond (31) and kindly provided. The pCT plasmid is a large naturally occurring plasmid containing the CTX-M-14 extended spectrum β-lactamase. The pCT plasmid is stable, however prior to incubation for experimental evolution and growth dynamics assays the ancestor was grown in the presence of 100µg/ml ampicillin to maintain the pCT plasmid. For phenotyping of experimentally evolved strains pre-culturewas without antibiotics to reduce any non-genetic effects of exposure to antibiotic treatment.

215 Experimental evolution was conducted in a defined minimal medium with the following

recipe. M9 medium base (containing 6.78 mg/ml Na₂HPO₄, 3 mg/ml KH₂PO₄, 0.5 mg/ml
NaCl and 1 mg/ml NH₄Cl) supplemented with 1mM MgSO4, 0.1mM CaCl2, 0.4% (v/v)

218 glycerol. 0.02% casamino acids. 0.5µg/ml thiamine and Hutners trace elements (32) at 1X

- **218** glycerol, 0.02% casamino acids, 0.5μ g/ml thiamine and Hutners trace elements (32) at 1X
- 219 concentration. Initial checkerboard assays were conducted in Luria Bertani (LB) broth.
- Clavulanate (in the form of potassium clavulanate, Fluca analytical) and amoxicillin (LKT
 laboratories) were supplied in powdered forms, stored at 4°C and used to make stocks in
 deionised water. These stocks were stored at 4°C according to manufacturer's instructions,
 liquid stocks were not kept for longer than 14 days to minimise degradation of the
 compounds.

225 To test antibiotic sensitivity of the ancestral strain the ancestor was grown for 22 hours in LB 226 broth in the presence of increasing clavulanate and amoxicillin, at all possible combinations 227 of the two drug concentrations (checkerboard assay, Figures 1b and S1). From these 5 228 different ratios of amoxicillin and clavulanate, as well as associated iso-inhibitory doses were 229 identified for each ratio. These were tested in minimal medium to confirm that growth was 230 not significantly affected by drug ratio, but was affected by the strength of the drug dose 231 (figure S2). The chosen concentrations and relationships between them are shown in Figure 232 2c.

233 Experimental evolution

234 To test its ability to adapt to different drug doses, *E coli* was selected against varying drug 235 regimens defined by the relative proportion of amoxicillin (p Selection, p_s) and dose strength 236 (V_s) , as in figure 2c. A mid exponential culture the ancestor was washed and diluted in 237 minimal medium. This was aliquotted into 48 wells in the centre of a 96 well plate, which 238 were then made up to a final volume of 200µl by adding reconstituted clavulanate and 239 amoxicillin, starting densities were OD = 0.01. Experimental evolution lines were set up 240 corresponding to 5 drug ratios at 3 different strengths, plus one line which was not exposed to 241 drugs, each replicated 3 times (48 independent lines), plus 3 replicate sterile wells with no 242 drugs (which were still passaged). Plates were incubated statically at 37°C for 22 hours for 243 each passage. After each growth cycle wells were mixed using a pipette to re-suspend any 244 clumps of bacteria. The optical density of the wells was then measured and used to transfer

cells to a fresh microwell plate so that each line started at an OD (600nm) of 0.01.
Experimental evolution was performed for 12 passages (corresponding to approximately 84 generations). Lines were frozen every 3 passages by adding 100µl of a 1:1 LB:glycerol
mixture to the remaining culture after the transfer had been performed, these were then frozen at -80°C.

250 Measuring cross resistance between drug environments

251 Although final density was measured at the end of each passage, the growth of frozen 252 samples was used primarily used to assess variation in resistance phenotypes across 253 populations (removing long term physiological effects of antibiotic exposure). To assay 254 evolutionary change in response to drug combinations, for each line the population after 6 255 passages (chosen because this is when there was most diversity in how lines had adapted to 256 their environment) was revived by overnight growth in LB. Each line of selection was assaved for growth in new drug environments (Assay environments, p_A , V_A). The differing 257 258 drug environments that selection lines were assayed against either kept amoxicillin 259 proportion the same $(p_A = p_S)$ and varied dose strength (V_A) or kept dose strength the same 260 $(V_A = V_S)$ and varied amoxicillin proportion (p_S) . When varying dose strength an increased 261 dose of 1.15 times the maximum dose was also used (V_{4} =1.15). Otherwise all conditions 262 were the same, strains were grown in minimal media statically for 22 hours at 37°C and 263 mixed prior to measuring optical density.

This was a large experiment so selection lines were randomly blocked across the central wells of nine 96 well plates. Each plate had three blank wells and one well containing each of the 3 control lines selected in the absence of drugs and assayed in the absence of drugs. There was small but significant variation in the growth of control lines across plates so OD values were for each plate were corrected using the growth of controls (in the absence of drugs). p_S is undefined for the control lines (selected without drugs) so these were tested against every different drug environment.

271 Statistics

All statistics were performed in R (33). Full models were produced using relevant main
effects and interactions (statistical tables in supplementary information). Fixed effects models
were fitted using the glm function with a Gaussian error distribution and identity link
function. For data sets where multiple measures were taken from each strain, a mixed effects
model was used to take into account the effect of strain as a random effect, this was fitted

277 using the lme function in the nlme package (34). As there were many explanatory variables 278 for this data, 2 models are fitted to 2 subsets of the data. One data set includes all data where 279 strains are tested for resistance to the same dose strength they are selected against (at varying 280 drug ratios). This will investigate whether resistance evolved to one drug ratio confers 281 resistance to other drug ratios. The other set includes all data where strains are tested for 282 resistance to the same ratio they were selected against (at different dose strengths). This 283 model investigates whether resistance selected at one dose strength confers resistance to 284 others. Both these data sets include the 45 data points (one per evolved line) where both ratio 285 and strength of assay are the same as those for selection (i.e the selection conditions for that 286 line).

287 The maximal model was reduced to a minimal model in a stepwise manner. At each step of 288 model reduction all terms that were not currently included in an interaction were tested for 289 significance as grounds for including them in a model. Terms were dropped if the result of an 290 F test (for fixed effects models) or likelihood ratio test (for mixed effects models) comparison 291 of models with and without the term of interest was not significant at α =0.05 (i.e. accepting 292 the null hypothesis of no significant effect of the term). At each step only one term could be 293 dropped so where several effects were non-significant the new model with the lowest AiC 294 (Akaike information criterion) was chosen as the best model reduction at that step. When no 295 terms (not included in higher order interactions) could be dropped without a significant effect 296 this was considered the minimal model. Statistical support for all terms in the minimal 297 models was assessed as above but through comparison of the minimal model and the minimal 298 model with the term dropped. Full statistical results are reported in statistical tables in the 299 supplementary information.

300 Sequencing and Bioinformatics

To test whether different drug ratios select for different resistance mutations we sequenced evolved populations selected against the highest dose strengths after 6 passages of experimental evolution. The ancestral strain and one of the 3 populations evolved in the absence of drugs was also sequenced. Library preparation and paired end MiSeq sequencing was performed by Edinburgh genomics. Obtained sequences were aligned to both the MG1655 reference (35) and the pCT plasmid reference (30) and polymorphisms identified using breseq in polymorphism mode using default parameters (36).

308 Bibliography

- Toprak E, Veres A, Michel J-B, Chait R, Hartl DL, Kishony R. 2011. Evolutionary paths to antibiotic resistance under dynamically sustained drug selection. Nature Genetics 44:101–105.
- 312 2. Hughes D, Andersson DI. 2015. Evolutionary consequences of drug resistance:
 313 shared principles across diverse targets and organisms. Nature Publishing Group
 314 16:459–471.
- 315 3. Oz T, Guvenek A, Yildiz S, Karaboga E, Tamer YT, Mumcuyan N, Ozan VB,
 316 Senturk GH, Cokol M, Yeh P, Toprak E. 2014. Strength of Selection Pressure Is an
 317 Important Parameter Contributing to the Complexity of Antibiotic Resistance
 318 Evolution. Molecular Biology and Evolution 31:2387–2401.
- 4. Liu YY, Wang Y, Walsh TR, Yi LX, Zhang R. 2016. Emergence of plasmidmediated colistin resistance mechanism MCR-1 in animals and human beings in China: a microbiological and molecular biological study. The Lancet infectious
- MacLean RC, Hall AR, Perron GG, Buckling A. 2010. The population genetics of
 antibiotic resistance: integrating molecular mechanisms and treatment contexts. Nature
 Reviews Genetics 11:405–414.
- 325 6. Woods RJ, Read AF. 2015. Clinical management of resistance evolution in a
 bacterial infection: A case study. Evolution, Medicine, and Public Health 2015:281–
 288.
- 328 7. Chen L, Todd R, Kiehlbauch J, Walters M, Kallen A. 2017. Notes from the Field:
 329 Pan-Resistant New Delhi Metallo-Beta-Lactamase-Producing Klebsiella pneumoniae 330 Washoe County, Nevada, 2016. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 66:33.
- 331 8. McCarthy M. 2017. Woman dies after infection with bacteria resistant to all antibiotics available in US. BMJ 356.
- Jing LL, Schneider T, Peoples AJ, Spoering AL, Engels I, Conlon BP, Mueller A,
 Schäberle TF, Hughes DE, Epstein S, Jones M, Lazarides L, Steadman VA,
 Cohen DR, Felix CR, Fetterman KA, Millett WP, Nitti AG, Zullo AM, Chen C,
 Lewis K. 2015. A new antibiotic kills pathogens without detectable resistance. Nature
 1–18.
- King AM, Reid-Yu SA, Wang W, King DT, De Pascale G, Strynadka NC, Walsh
 TR, Coombes BK, Wright GD. 2014. Aspergillomarasmine A overcomes metallo-β lactamase antibiotic resistance. Nature 510:503–506.
- 341 11. Christensen LD, van Gennip M, Jakobsen TH, Alhede M, Hougen HP, Hoiby N,
 342 Bjarnsholt T, Givskov M. 2012. Synergistic antibacterial efficacy of early
 343 combination treatment with tobramycin and quorum-sensing inhibitors against
 344 Pseudomonas aeruginosa in an intraperitoneal foreign-body infection mouse model.
 345 Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 67:1198–1206.
- 346 12. Stokes JM, MacNair CR, Ilyas B, French S, Côté J-P, Bouwman C, Farha MA,
 347 Sieron AO, Whitfield C, Coombes BK, Brown ED. 2017. Pentamidine sensitizes
 348 Gram-negative pathogens to antibiotics and overcomes acquired colistin resistance.
 349 Nature Microbiology 2:17028.

- 350 13. Gill EE, Franco OL, Hancock REW. 2014. Antibiotic Adjuvants: Diverse Strategies
 351 for Controlling Drug-Resistant Pathogens. Chemical Biology & Drug Design 85:56–
 352 78.
- 353 14. Melander RJ, Melander C. 2017. The Challenge of Overcoming Antibiotic
 354 Resistance: An Adjuvant Approach? ACS Infect Dis.
- 355 15. Drawz SM, Bonomo RA. 2010. Three decades of beta-lactamase inhibitors. Clinical
 356 Microbiology Reviews 23:160–201.
- Harris PNA, Tambyah PA, Paterson DL. 2015. β-lactam and β-lactamase inhibitor
 combinations in the treatment of extended-spectrum β-lactamase producing
 Enterobacteriaceae: time for a reappraisal in the era of few antibiotic options? The
 Lancet Infectious Diseases 15:475–485.
- 361 17. Babic M, Hujer AM, Bonomo RA. 2006. What's new in antibiotic resistance? Focus on beta-lactamases. Drug Resistance Updates: Reviews and Commentaries in Antimicrobial and Anticancer Chemotherapy 9:142–156.
- 364 18. White AR, Kaye C, Poupard J, Pypstra R, Woodnutt G, Wynne B. 2004.
 365 Augmentin (amoxicillin/clavulanate) in the treatment of community-acquired
 366 respiratory tract infection: a review of the continuing development of an innovative
 367 antimicrobial agent. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy 53 Suppl 1:i3–20.
- 368 19. World Health Organization. 2015. 19th WHO Model List of Essential Medicines (April 2015). Geneva.
- 370 20. Millan AS, Escudero JA, Gifford DR, Mazel D, MacLean RC. 2016. Multicopy
 371 plasmids potentiate the evolution of antibiotic resistance in bacteria. Nature Publishing
 372 Group 1:1–8.
- 373 21. Ripoll A, Baquero F, Novais A, Rodriguez-Dominguez MJ, Turrientes MC,
 374 Cantón R, Galan JC. 2011. In Vitro Selection of Variants Resistant to -Lactams
 375 plus -Lactamase Inhibitors in CTX-M -Lactamases: Predicting the In Vivo Scenario?
 376 Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 55:4530–4536.
- 377 22. Gracia M, Ponte C, Soriano F. 2005. Optimal co-amoxiclav ratios for inhibiting
 378 Escherichia coli strains with different susceptibilities to the compounds. International
 379 Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 25:352–353.
- 380 23. Asano K, Mizobuchi K. 1998. Copy number control of IncIalpha plasmid ColIb-P9
 381 by competition between pseudoknot formation and antisense RNA binding at a
 382 specific RNA site. The EMBO journal 17:5201–5213.
- 383 24. Fernández L, Hancock REW. 2012. Adaptive and mutational resistance: role of
 384 porins and efflux pumps in drug resistance. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 25:661–
 385 681.
- 386 25. Pena-Miller R, Laehnemann D, Jansen G, Fuentes-Hernandez A, Rosenstiel P,
 387 Schulenburg H, Beardmore R. 2013. When the Most Potent Combination of
 388 Antibiotics Selects for the Greatest Bacterial Load: The Smile-Frown Transition. Plos
 389 Biology 11:e1001540–13.

- 390 26. Michel J-B, Yeh PJ, Chait R, Moellering RCJ, Kishony R. 2008. Drug interactions
 391 modulate the potential for evolution of resistance. Proceedings of the National
 392 Academy of Sciences 105:14918–14923.
- 393 27. Munck C, Gumpert HK, Wallin AIN, Wang HH, Sommer MOA. 2014. Prediction
 394 of resistance development against drug combinations by collateral responses to
 395 component drugs. Science Translational Medicine 6:262ra156–262ra156.
- 396 28. Bax R. 2007. Development of a twice daily dosing regimen of amoxicillin/clavulanate.
 397 International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 30:118–121.
- 398 29. Easton J, Noble S, Perry CM. 2003. Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid: a review of its use
 in the management of paediatric patients with acute otitis media. Drugs 63:311–340.
- 30. Cottell JL, Webber MA, Coldham NG, Taylor DL, Cerdeño-Tárraga AM,
 Hauser H, Thomson NR, Woodward MJ, Piddock LJV. 2011. Complete Sequence
 and Molecular Epidemiology of IncK Epidemic Plasmid Encoding blaCTX-M-14.
 Emerging Infectious Diseases 17:645–652.
- 404 31. Medaney F, Dimitriu T, Ellis RJ, Ben Raymond. 2016. Live to cheat another day:
 405 bacterial dormancy facilitates the social exploitation of |[beta]|-lactamases. Isme
 406 Journal 10:778–787.
- 407 32. Hutner SH, Provasoli L, Schatz A, Haskins C. 1950. Approaches to the Study of the
 408 Role of Metals in the Metabolism of Microorganisms. Proceedings of the American
 409 Philosophical Society, 94 ed. 152–170.
- 410 33. R Core Team. 2015. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.
- 411 34. Pinheiro JC, Bates D, DebRoy S, Sarkar D, R Core Team. 2017. Linear and
 412 Nonlinear Mixed Effects Models [R package nlme version 3.1-131].
- 35. Blattner FR, Plunkett G, Bloch CA, Perna NT, Burland V, Riley M, ColladoVides J, Glasner JD, Rode CK, Mayhew GF, Gregor J, Davis NW, Kirkpatrick
 HA, Goeden MA, Rose DJ, Mau B, Shao Y. 1997. The complete genome sequence
 of *Escherichia coli* K-12. Science 277:1453–1462.
- 36. Barrick JE, Colburn G, Deatherage DE, Traverse CC, Strand MD, Borges JJ,
 Knoester DB, Reba A, Meyer AG. 2014. Identifying structural variation in haploid
 microbial genomes from short-read resequencing data using breseq. BMC Genomics
 15.
- 421