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Bottery, M.J., Wood, A.J. and Brockhurst, M.A. (2017) Adaptive modulation of antibiotic resistance through intragenomic coevolution. Nature Ecology and Evolution, 1. pp. 1364-1369. ISSN 2397-334X

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-017-0242-3

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1 Adaptive modulation of antibiotic resistance through intragenomic

- 2 coevolution
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12 Bacteria gain antibiotic resistance genes by horizontal acquisition of 13 mobile genetic elements (MGE) from other lineages. Newly acquired 14 MGEs are often poorly adapted causing intragenomic conflicts, resolved 15 by compensatory adaptation of the chromosome, the MGE or reciprocal 16 coadaptation. The footprints of such intragenomic coevolution are 17 present in bacterial genomes, suggesting an important role promoting 18 genomic integration of horizontally acquired genes, but direct 19 experimental evidence of the process is limited. Here we show adaptive 20 modulation of tetracycline resistance via intragenomic coevolution 21 between *Escherichia coli* and the multi-drug resistant (MDR) plasmid 22 **RK2.** Tetracycline treatments, including monotherapy or combination 23 therapies with ampicillin, favoured *de novo* chromosomal resistance 24 mutations coupled with mutations on RK2 impairing the plasmid-25 encoded tetracycline efflux-pump. These mutations together provided 26 increased tetracycline resistance at reduced cost. Additionally, the 27 chromosomal resistance mutations conferred cross-resistance to 28 chloramphenicol. Reciprocal coadaptation was not observed under 29 ampicillin-only or no antibiotic selection. Intragenomic coevolution can 30 create genomes comprised of multiple replicons that together provide 31 high-level, low-cost resistance, but the resulting co-dependence may 32 limit the spread of coadapted MGEs to other lineages. 33

35 Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) is a fundamental process in bacterial evolution 36 that accelerates adaptation by sharing ecologically important accessory traits 37 between lineages¹. These accessory traits are themselves frequently located 38 on semi-autonomous mobile genetic elements (MGE), such as conjugative 39 plasmids, that encode genes for their own replication, partition and horizontal transfer^{2,3}. Conjugative multidrug resistance (MDR) plasmids, encoding 40 41 antibiotic resistance genes (ARG) against multiple classes of antibiotics, are 42 of particular clinical concern since they allow instantaneous acquisition of 43 MDR phenotypes and thus potentiate the rapid emergence of MDR bacterial pathogens^{4,5}. Newly acquired conjugative plasmids are often costly since the 44 45 plasmid is unlikely to be well adapted to the new genetic background, causing 46 intragenomic conflict⁶. The cost of plasmid carriage is likely to arise due to the 47 metabolic burden of maintaining, transcribing and translating plasmid genes⁷, 48 as well as via disruption of cellular homeostasis caused by gene regulatory interference between chromosomal and plasmid regulators^{8,9}, and cytotoxic 49 effects of plasmid gene products⁶. 50

51

52 An important route to resolving this intragenomic conflict is compensatory evolution to ameliorate the cost of plasmid acquisition¹⁰. Experimental 53 54 evolution suggests that compensatory evolution can arise via mutations 55 located on either the chromosome or the plasmid, or via intragenomic coevolution involving both plasmid and chromosome mutations^{8,9,11,12}. 56 57 Comparative genomics suggests a key role for compensatory evolution in 58 natural bacterial populations, potentially stabilising MDR plasmids within 59 lineages and thus allowing the evolutionary emergence by HGT of MDR

60	pathogens ¹³ . A key outstanding question is how the mode of compensatory
61	evolution following MDR plasmid acquisition varies with antibiotic treatment.
62	Here we experimentally evolved Escherichia coli MG1655 carrying the MDR
63	plasmid RK2 (encoding tetracycline and ampicillin resistance genes) under a
64	range of antibiotic treatment regimes including no antibiotic, mono- and
65	combination-therapies of tetracycline and ampicillin. Following 530
66	generations of selection we quantified evolved changes in antibiotic
67	resistance and fitness, and used genome sequencing to determine the
68	genetic bases of the observed adaptation.
69	
70	Results
71	Thirty independent isogenic populations of <i>E. coli</i> MG1655 carrying the MDR
72	plasmid RK2 ¹⁴ , which encodes resistances to tetracycline (TET) and ampicillin
73	(AMP), were experimentally evolved for ~530 generations (80 days), under
74	five antibiotic treatments (six independently evolving lines per treatment): no
75	antibiotic (N), AMP (A), TET (T), AMP plus TET (AT), and 24 hour cycling
76	between AMP and TET (A/T) (see methods). Plasmids remained at high
77	frequency in all populations for the duration of the selection experiment.
78	Plasmid-free segregants were only observed at very low frequency in two of

the six populations from treatment N (Supplementary Fig. 1), whereas

80 transposition of resistance genes from RK2 onto the host's chromosome was

81 never observed.

82

To test for changes in antibiotic resistance profiles following evolution we first
determined the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of evolved lineages to

85	TET and AMP. The susceptibility of the evolved strains to antibiotics differed
86	between treatments (Fig. 1a). We observed a four-fold increase in TET MIC in
87	evolved strains from the T and AT treatments and a small increase in lineages
88	that had evolved under the cycling A/T treatment compared with the ancestral
89	MG1655 with ancestral RK2 (Anc-RK2), whereas evolved strains from
90	treatments N and A showed no change in tetracycline MIC (ANOVA, $F_{5,30}$ =
91	6.103, p < 0.001; Post-hoc Tukey Tests, Anc-RK2:T p < 0.001, Anc-RK2:AT p
92	< 0.01, Anc-RK2:N p = 0.525, Anc-RK2:A p = 0.783). By contrast, we
93	observed no change in resistance to AMP in any treatment (ANOVA, $F_{5,30}$ =
94	1.212, p = 0.327), possibly due to a lower relative selection pressure imposed
95	by the concentration of AMP used in the experiment compared to the
96	concentration of TET ¹⁵ . Interestingly, TET selection led to the evolution of
97	bacteria that were cross-resistant to chloramphenicol (CML), although the
98	extent of the evolved cross-resistance varied between treatments (ANOVA,
99	$F_{5,30}$ = 24.25, p < 0.001); with CML MIC increasing 8-, 4-, and 2-fold in T, AT,
100	A/T treatments, respectively. Consistent with CML cross-resistance being a
101	correlated response to TET selection, evolved strains from both the N and A
102	treatments remained equally sensitive to CML as the ancestral MG1655(RK2)
103	(Post-hoc Tukey Tests, Anc-RK2:N p = 0.975, Anc-RK2:A p = 0.993). Thus
104	whereas T and AT treatments, and to a lesser extent the cycling A/T
105	treatment, led to the evolution increased TET resistance and cross-resistance
106	to CML, evolved lineages from the N and A treatments showed no change in
107	their resistance profile.

109	To examine the genetic bases of evolved changes in resistance we next
110	obtained whole genome sequences for one randomly selected clone per
111	population. Excluding hypermutators, evolved clones had acquired between 2
112	and 11 mutations, located exclusively on the chromosome in non-TET
113	treatments (C, N, A), and on both the chromosome and plasmid in the
114	treatments including TET (T, AT, A/T) (Supplementary Fig. 2, Supplementary
115	Table 1). Of all the observed mutations 13.2% were synonymous and 19%
116	were intergenic, the remaining non-synonymous mutations (67.8%) comprised
117	missense mutations (42.8%), frameshifts (10.6%), insertion sequences (5.6%)
118	and gene deletions (5.4%), and these were analysed further. While the
119	variance in the number of non-synonymous mutations did not differ between
120	treatments (Analysis of multivariate homogeneity of group variances excluding
121	hypermutators $F_{5,26}$ = 1.8617, p = 0.1358), the loci affected by non-
122	synonymous mutations did vary between treatments (Permutational ANOVA,
123	permutation test: $F_{5,26}$ = 2.5231, p < 0.01, Bonferroni corrected). Clones that
124	had evolved under TET selection (T, AT, A/T) had significantly different sets
125	of non-synonymous mutations compared to evolved clones from the other
126	treatments (C, N, A) (permutation test: $F_{1,30}$ = 6.9463, p < 0.01, Bonferroni
127	corrected), with a larger genetic distance between TET and non-TET
128	treatments than within these treatment groups (Fig. 2a). Thus TET-selected
129	lineages followed an evolutionary trajectory distinct from non-TET-selected
130	lineages, leading to mutations on both the chromosome and the plasmid,
131	which suggest that TET selection favoured bacteria-plasmid coadaptation.
132	

133	Strikingly parallel mutations were observed between independent replicate
134	populations both within and between TET-containing treatments (Fig. 2b).
135	Highly parallel mutations are likely to represent adaptive evolution at these
136	loci, and because mutations at these loci were not observed in the
137	populations from the N and A treatments, these mutations were likely to be
138	TET-specific adaptations. Mutations in the chromosomal genes <i>ompF</i> (16 out
139	of 18 clones), and ychH (16 out of 18 clones) showed strong locus-level
140	parallelism within all three TET-containing treatments. Mutations in ompF,
141	encoding a major non-specific diffusion porin ¹⁶ , were all predicted loss-of-
142	function mutations, including the insertion of IS elements, frameshifts or
143	premature stop codons. The loss of OmpF in E. coli reduces membrane
144	permeability, including to antibiotics, and consequently is known to increase
145	resistance to a wide spectrum of antibiotics ¹⁷ including TET and CML ^{18,19} .
146	Deletion of <i>ompF</i> (<i>E. coli</i> K-12 Δ <i>ompF</i> JW0912 ²⁰) significantly increased
147	resistance to TET without the RK2 ($t_{9.09}$ = 4.2836, p < 0.01), and further
148	increased TET resistance when carrying RK2 (Two-way ANOVA Interaction
149	$F_{1,20}$ = 14.724, p < 0.01; Supplementary Fig. 4a). Parallel loss of function
150	mutations (IS elements and frameshifts) in ychH were observed across all the
151	TET treatments. YchH is a hypothetical stress-induced inner membrane
152	protein ^{21,22} , but deletion of <i>ychH</i> (<i>E. coli</i> K-12 Δ <i>ychH</i> JW1196 ²⁰) did not
153	significantly increase the resistance to TET with or without the plasmid
154	(Supplementary Fig. 4b), suggesting that this general stress response may
155	not be required under TET selection and is consequently selected against.
156	

157 Mutations in several loci observed in the T and AT treatments were not 158 present in the cycling A/T treatment. These included mutations in both acrR 159 (10 out of 12 clones) and *adhE* (9 out of 12 clones). Mutations in *adhE* were 160 extensively parallel at the nucleotide level, with 8 clones from independent 161 populations all having the same missense SNP in the ethanol dehydrogenase domain²³. The phenotypic significance of these mutations is unclear due to 162 163 the multiple roles assigned to this protein, including multiple metabolic pathways²⁴, but intriguingly the AdhE protein is known to exhibit binding 164 activity to the 30S ribosome²⁵, the primary TET target. The *acrR* gene 165 encodes a repressor of AcrAB multidrug efflux pump²⁶, the majority of 166 167 mutations in *acrR* are predicted loss of function mutations, with IS elements 168 and frameshifts observed in evolved strains. The deletion of acrR results in the overexpression of *acrAB* leading to MDR phenotypes^{27,28}. Deletion of *acrR* 169 (E. coli K-12 $\Delta acrR$ JW0453²⁰) alone did not significantly increase resistance 170 to TET ($t_{9.32}$ = -0.591, p = 0.339), but when combined with the RK2 plasmid 171 172 did allow significantly increased growth in TET ($t_{6.4}$ = 3.665, p < 0.01, 173 Supplementary Fig. 4c). These findings are consistent with the higher TET 174 resistance of evolved clones from the T and AT treatments versus the A/T 175 treatment (Fig. 1a) and reflect overall weaker TET selection under the A/T cycling compared to the T and AT treatments where TET selection was 176 177 constant. Interestingly, stronger TET selection appeared to constrain evolution 178 at chromosomal loci not involved in resistance. For example, we observed 179 highly parallel loss of function mutation in the flagellum operon in the A, N and 180 A/T treatments, but only rarely observed mutations at these loci in T and AT 181 treatments. Loss of the flagellar motility is a commonly observed adaptation of

182	<i>E. coli</i> to growth in liquid media ²⁹ and this may have been impeded by clonal
183	interference or negative epistasis with chromosomal resistance mutations in
184	populations under strong TET selection. Consistent with this, whereas
185	evolved clones from the N and A treatments increased in fitness relative to the
186	plasmid-free ancestor in antibiotic-free media, such fitness gains were not
187	observed in evolved clones from the TET-containing treatments
188	(Supplementary Fig. 5).
189	
190	To confirm that TET selection had led to the evolution of chromosomal
191	resistance we next cured evolved strains of their plasmids and quantified
192	resistance ³⁰ . Evolved strains carrying putative chromosomal resistance
193	mutations displayed increased TET (ANOVA, $F_{5,30}$ = 42.63, p < 0.001), AMP
194	(ANOVA, $F_{5,30}$ = 12.55, p < 0.001) and CML (ANOVA, $F_{5,30}$ = 35.88, p <
195	0.001) resistance (Fig. 1b). Across all tested antibiotics, evolved clones
196	carrying both <i>ompF</i> and <i>acrR</i> mutations had significantly increased resistance
197	compared to the ancestral MG1655 (Post-hoc Tukey Tests, all $p < 0.05$),
198	whereas cured evolved strains without either of these mutations (i.e. from the
199	N and A treatments) did not (Post-hoc Tukey Tests, all $p > 0.05$). Interestingly,
200	cured evolved clones from the cycling A/T treatment that carried only
201	mutations in <i>ompF</i> but not in <i>acrR</i> showed marginally increased resistance to
202	both TET and CML, but no detectable increase in AMP resistance, relative to
203	MG1655. Thus TET selection favoured the <i>de novo</i> evolution of chromosomal
204	resistance despite pre-existing plasmid-encoded TET resistance, and these
205	chromosomal resistance mutations are responsible for the observed cross-
206	resistance to CML.

208 We observed parallel mutations on the plasmid exclusively in evolved clones 209 from the TET-containing treatments (T, AT, and A/T). These mutations 210 occurred in *tetA/tetR* (18 out of 18 clones; *tetA*: 13, *tetR*: 2, both: 3, Fig. 2b) 211 which encode the tetracycline-specific efflux pump. The expression *tetA* is tightly regulated by the repressor *tetR* in the absence of tetracycline^{31,32}. 212 213 Mutations in *tetA* were dispersed throughout the gene, affecting the protein's transmembrane, periplasmic and cytoplasmic domains³³. Three of the five 214 215 mutations observed in *tetR* are in direct contact with or in close proximity to the tetracycline binding pocket³⁴, while the other two mutations are located in 216 217 the central scaffolding of the protein, suggesting that they are likely to 218 interfere with activity of the *tetR* repressor. Evolved plasmids carrying 219 mutations in *tetA* or *tetR* displayed reduced resistance to TET in the ancestral 220 MG1655 background compared to ancestral RK2 (Fig. 1d, ANOVA, F_{5,30} = 221 4.586, p < 0.01). Consistent with reduced efficacy of plasmid-encoded 222 resistance in evolved lineages with *tetA/tetR* mutations, when we replaced the 223 evolved plasmid with ancestral RK2, this led to increased TET resistance 224 (ANOVA, F_{5,30} = 71.86, p < 0.001, Anc-RK2:T,AT,A/T all p < 0.05). 225 226 Our data suggest that evolved strains from TET-containing treatments 227 adapted their resistance to TET by acquisition of weak chromosomal 228 resistance mutations in combination with mutations that reduced the efficacy 229 of the plasmid-encoded TET efflux pump. To understand the evolutionary

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230 benefits of this counterintuitive dual resistance strategy we first compared the

231 effect of chromosomal background (evolved or ancestral) and plasmid

232	genotype (evolved or ancestral) on growth in the presence of 10 μ g/ml TET
233	(i.e., the concentration used in our selection experiment). The evolved
234	chromosomal background carrying resistance mutations displayed a
235	significantly shortened lag phase compared to the ancestral chromosomal
236	background, irrespective of the plasmid genotype (Supplementary Fig. 6;
237	ANOVA, F _{3,56} = 76.92, p < 0.001; Post-hoc Tukey Tests, Evolved
238	Host:Ancestral Host all $p < 0.001$). This suggests that chromosomal
239	resistances reducing membrane permeability to antibiotics allowed evolved
240	strains to start growing faster in the presence of TET.
241	
242	Whereas evolved bacteria grew equally well with evolved or ancestral
243	plasmids, ancestral bacteria displayed impaired growth with evolved
244	compared to ancestral plasmids (Supplementary Fig. 6; Max OD, W = 93, p <
245	0.01). This is consistent with the mutations in <i>tetA/tetR</i> reducing resistance
246	but importantly confirms that this reduction is not evident when in combination
247	with the chromosomal resistance mutations, which appear to compensate for
248	the reduced efficacy of the plasmid-encoded efflux pump.
249	
250	We next competed evolved bacteria with either the evolved or ancestral
251	plasmid against the ancestral MG1665(RK2) to compare the costs of carrying
252	each plasmid genotype. The ancestral plasmid displayed a significantly higher
253	cost than the evolved plasmid in the evolved chromosomal background
254	(Supplementary Fig. 7, $t_{25.71}$ = -2.287, p < 0.05). This suggests that the
255	mutations to tetR/tetA ameliorate the cost of plasmid carriage but at the price
256	of reduced efficacy of TET efflux. This is consistent with previous studies

showing a high cost of expressing the specific tetracycline efflux pump³⁵. 257 258 Taken together with the growth data, this suggests that although mutations to 259 tetA/tetR reduce growth under tetracycline in the ancestral chromosomal 260 background, they have minimal effect on resistance in the evolved 261 chromosomal background due to the reduced membrane permeability and 262 additional efflux systems expressed in the evolved chromosomal background 263 carrying mutations in *ompF* and *acrR*, leading to high resistance and a 264 lowered cost of plasmid carriage. This suggests that the chromosomal 265 resistance mutations must have been gained prior to the mutations in the 266 plasmid-encoded tetracycline efflux pump. To test this, for one population 267 (AT2) we tracked the frequency over time of an observed IS-insertion in *ompF* 268 by PCR and then determined by sequencing when these genotypes acquired 269 mutations in the *tetA/tetR* genes. Consistent with the hypothesised order of 270 mutations, the IS-insertion in *ompF* was first detected at transfer 8 and had 271 swept to fixation by transfer 32, whereas mutations in *tetA/tetR* were not 272 observed in this ompF::IS background until transfer 32 (supplementary figure 273 8).

274

275 **Discussion**

Our current model of bacterial evolution suggests that horizontal acquisition of
ARGs accelerates resistance evolution by providing bacteria with ready-made
resistance mechanisms, bypassing the requirement for rare *de-novo*mutations¹. However, recent population genomic data suggesting that
lineages independently acquire and then subsequently coevolve with MDR
plasmids^{13,36,37} imply a more dynamic evolutionary process. Consistent with

282	this, here we show here that gaining an ARG can be just the starting point in
283	the evolution of resistance and, due to the costs of expressing horizontally
284	acquired ARGs, does not preclude subsequent de novo evolution of
285	chromosomal resistance. Evolved strains from TET-containing treatments
286	gained chromosomal resistance mutations reducing membrane permeability
287	and enhancing efflux of TET and providing cross-resistance to other
288	antibiotics, shortening lag phase in the presence of TET. These mutations
289	also reduced the need for a fully operational plasmid-encoded tetracycline
290	efflux pump, expression of which is highly costly ³⁵ , allowing plasmid mutations
291	in the TET efflux pump and its regulator which reduced the cost of plasmid-
292	encoded resistance. A consequence of this intragenomic coevolution is that
293	the increased TET resistance of evolved strains from T, AT and A/T
294	treatments required the action of both the chromosomal- and plasmid-
295	encoded resistances, which together acted multiplicatively. Thus intragenomic
296	coevolution can lead to the evolution of bacterial genomes comprised of co-
297	dependent replicons, limiting the potential for onward transmission of the
298	plasmid due to the weaker resistance it now encodes in other lineages.
299	
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438 Methods

439 Strains, culture conditions and evolution experiment

440 *E. coli* MG1655 chromosomally labelled with GFP at the *attB* lambda 441 attachment site was used in the evolution experiments. Isogenic E. coli 442 MG1655-mCherry was used as a reference strain in competition and 443 conjugation rate experiments. Both *E*. coli strains were provided by the Van 444 Der Woude lab (University of York). The RK2 plasmid was introduced to the 445 strains through conjugation from *E. coli* MV10 provided by the Thomas lab 446 (University of Birmingham). All cultures were grown in Oxiod® Nutrient Broth 447 (NB) at 37°C 5 ml in 50 ml microcosms shaken at 180 rpm. Independent 448 selection lines were founded by 30 independent single colonies of *E. coli* 449 MG1655-GFP harbouring RK2. These were grown overnight in non-selective 450 conditions and split into the 5 antibiotic treatments, no antibiotic selection, 100 451 µg/ml ampicillin, 10 µg/ml tetracycline, 100 µg/ml ampicillin plus 10 µg/ml 452 tetracycline, and 24 hour cycling between 100 µg/ml ampicillin and 10 µg/ml 453 tetracycline, with 6 replicate populations per treatment. In parallel, 6

454 independent E. coli MG1655-GFP colonies were picked for control treatments 455 and grown under no selection. Selection lines were established by transferring 456 50 µl of saturated overnight culture into 5ml of selective media. These 457 populations were maintained through transfer of 1% of the population into 458 fresh media and antibiotics every 24 hours for 80 transfers, resulting in ~6.64 459 generations per day, totalling ~530 bacterial generations. For the cycling 460 treatment 3 populations were initiated with 100µg/ml ampicillin and 3 461 populations were initiated with $10\mu g/ml$ tetracycline. Culture density (OD₆₀₀) 462 was recorded every 24 hours. Plasmid prevalence was measure at the start 463 and end of the selection experiment by screening 20 randomly picked 464 colonies from each population using multiplex primers specific to RK2 465 replication origin (Fw: ctcatctgtcaacgccgc, Rv: aaccggctatgtcgtgct), β-466 lactamase (Fw: ataactacgatacgggagggc, Rv: acatttccgtgtcgccctta), and 467 tetracycline efflux pump (Fw: tgggttctctatatcgggcg,Rv: tgggcgagtgaatgcagaat). 468 These primers allowed for the detection of plasmid loss and transposition of 469 resistances onto the chromosome. One end point clone was randomly 470 selected from each population for phenotypic typing, curing, calculation of 471 MICs and sequencing. Every eight transfers throughout the experiment 500 µl 472 samples of whole populations were collected and stored in 25% glycerol at -473 80°C. Whole populations were also plated out on non-selective media, 20 474 individual clones were then randomly selected, sub-cultured for a further 24 475 hours in non-selective media, and stored in 25% glycerol in 96 well plates. 476

477 Relative Fitness

478 The relative fitness of the evolved plasmid bearing versus ancestral plasmid 479 free strain was estimated by direct competition, with six replicate strains per-480 treatment. The competitions were initiated with 50 µl of 1:1 mixtures of 481 plasmid-bearing evolved strain and plasmid-bearing ancestral strain marked 482 with mCherry from overnight cultures in 5ml of non-selective NB media. The 483 relative fitness of the evolved strains was calculated by gaining exact viable 484 cell counts at 0 hours and 24 hours, strains were distinguished through 485 detection of fluorescent markers using Zeis Stereo Lumar v12 microscope. 486 The relative fitness of plasmid-bearing bacteria was calculated as a ratio of Malthusian parameters³⁸: 487

$$W_{evo} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{N_{final,evo}}{N_{inital,evo}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{N_{final,anc}}{N_{inital,anc}}\right)}$$

• •

488

Fitness effects due to different markers was determined by competing plasmid free MG1655-GFP with plasmid free MG1655-mCherry, the relative fitness of MG1655-GFP was not significantly difference from 1 (t_5 =0.015584, p=0.9882) showing that there is no significant difference between the two marker strains.

Relative fitness of evolved strains harbouring evolved plasmid or evolved strains harbouring ancestral plasmid versus ancestral plasmid bearing cells was estimated using the same method as above, with eighteen replicate strains per competition, but grown in 100 μ l cultures in a 96 well plate, 37°C shaken at 600 rpm, 3 mm orbital radius, inoculated to an initial dilution of 1:500. Again no fitness effect of markers was observed (t₅=-0.2795, p=0.791).

501 Curing RK2 from evolved strains

Evolved strains were cured using the pCURE curing system³⁰. The anti-incP-1 502 503 cassette (RK2 oriV, parD, korA, and incC genes) from pCURE11 was ligated 504 into the pLAZ2 chloramphenicol resistant vector that contains the sacB gene 505 allowing counter selection for plasmid free segregants. The resultant plasmid 506 was transformed into chemically competent evolved strains and selected for 507 using Cml 12.5 µg/ml. Single colony transformants were re-streaked on to 508 Cml 12.5 µg/ml plates and Cml 12.5 µg/ml + 5% sucrose. Sucrose sensitive 509 colonies were checked by PCR for the presence of the curing plasmid (Fw: 510 aagttttggtgactgcgctc, Rv: caaagacgatgtggtagccg) and absence of RK2 β-511 lactamase and *tetA* (primers as above). Successfully cured clones were 512 cultured for 24 hours in non-selective media to allow segregation of the curing 513 plasmid; sergeants were selected on antibiotic free, 5% sucrose plates. To 514 confirm loss of both plasmids sucrose resistant colonies were check for 515 sensitivity to chloramphenicol, ampicillin, and tetracycline, as well as PCR 516 using primers mentioned above. Both the ancestral strain harbouring RK2 and 517 ancestral plasmid free strains under went the curing process and were used 518 as a comparison to cured evolved strains to control for curing process. 519 Ancestral RK2 was introduced into the cured evolved strains, and evolved 520 RK2 was introduced into the plasmid free ancestor though conjugation. Again, 521 to control for the curing and conjugation steps, ancestral RK2 was conjugated 522 into cured ancestral strains and used for comparison. Saturated overnight 523 cultures of donor plasmid containing strains and recipient plasmid free strains 524 were mixed 1:1, and 50 µl was used to inoculate 5ml NB. The mixed cultures 525 were grown for 24 hours and plated out on to 100 µg/ml ampicillin to select for

transconjugants. Transconjugants were confirmed by fluoresces and PCRscreening for RK2 plasmid.

528

529 **MIC**

530 To measure minimal inhibitory concentrations, six replicate cultures per-

treatment were grown overnight until stationary phase in 5 ml NB, the

saturated cultures were then sub-cultured 50 µl into 5 ml fresh NB and grown

to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5. These were then diluted into 96-well plates containing a

534 log₂ serial dilution of antibiotic (AMP, TET or CML) to an initial density of

535 5×10^5 CFU/ml. 100 µl cultures were grown for 24 hours 37°C shaken at 600

536 rpm, 3 mm orbital radius. OD₆₀₀ was measured after 24 hours.

537

538 Growth Curves

539 Six replicate saturated overnight cultures per-treatment were sub-cultured to

an OD_{600} of 0.5, and used to inoculate 100 µl NB supplemented with 10 µg/ml

541 TET per well in 96-well plates at a final dilution of 1:1000. Plates were grown

542 at 37°C with shaking at 300 rpm, 3 mm orbital radius for 24 hours, OD₆₀₀ was

543 measured every 16 minutes by Tecan infinite M200 Pro plate reader. Growth

544 rates were calculated as the maximum slope of log₂ transformed OD₆₀₀

545 covering four time points (~1 hour of growth), lag phase was calculated to end

when growth rate reached 10% of the maximum achieved growth rate.

547

548 Genome sequencing and analysis

549 Whole genomes were extracted from each evolved population's clone as well 550 as the ancestral strain and ancestral strain harbouring the RK2 plasmid using

551 the DNeasy Blood and Tissue extraction kit (Qiagen). The total DNA was 552 sequenced by MicrobesNG (http://www.microbesng.uk), which is supported 553 by the BBSRC (grant number BB/L024209/1), using Illumnia MiSeq. Reads 554 were mapped to E. coli MG1655 K-12 genome (GenBank accession 555 U00096.3) and RK2 (GenBank accession BN000925.1) reference using BWA-MEM³⁹. Single nucleotide variants and small indel events were detected using 556 GATK UnifiedGenotyper⁴⁰ and SnpEff⁴¹, insertion sequences were identified 557 using custom scripts and Integrative Genomics Viewer⁴², and large genome-558 559 wide structural variants were detected using BreakDancer⁴³. Mutations that 560 were present in the ancestral clones were excluded, resulting in a set of 561 mutations that were acquired during the selection experiment. 562

563 Tracking mutations

564 Populations that did not show a hypermutator phenotype, had insertion

sequences within *ompF*, and mutations in the tetracycline resistance genes

566 on the plasmid, from the constant TET treatments (T and AT treatments) were

selected for further analysis to gain an understanding of the mutational

568 timeline during the selection experiment. Insertion sequences within *ompF*

569 were identified within whole populations of T4, AT2, AT3 and AT5 by PCR of

570 the *ompF* gene (Fw: ACTTCAGACCAGTAGCCCAC, Rv:

571 GCGCAATATTCTGGCAGTGA). A short product of 716 bp indicated no

insertion sequence, a long product of 1484 bp indicted IS1 and a long product

573 of 1911 bp indicted IS5. Whole population PCR indicated that *ompF*::IS

574 mutants had swept into the population by transfer 40 for populations T4, AT2

and AT5, and transfer 48 in population AT3. Frequency of *ompF* insertion

576 sequences were calculated by PCR of 20 clones from transfers 8, 16, 24, 32,

and 40. Tetracycline resistance genes (*tetA* and *tetR*) from clones containing

578 *ompF*::IS mutations from population AT2, transfers 8, 16, 24, and 32 were

- 579 then Sanger sequenced to determine if *ompF* mutations arise before *tetAR*
- 580 mutations (*tetA*: Fw: GGCTGCAACTTTGTCATG,Rv:
- 581 TTCCAACCGCACTCCTAG, Internal1: ACAGCGCCTTTCCTTTG, Interal2:
- 582 AAGGCAAGCAGGATGTAG; *tetR*: Fw: TCTGACGCGGTGGAAAG, Rv:
- 583 ACGCGCGGATTCTTTATC, Internal1: GAGCCTGTTCAACGGTG, Internal2:
- 584 TCTGACGACACGCAAAC).
- 585

586 Statistical analysis

587 To test if the mutations observed within each treatment had significantly 588 different variances a multivariate homogeneity of groups variances test was conducted⁴⁴. The binary presence or absence of a variant at each allele was 589 590 use to calculate a Euclidean distance matrix between each population. This 591 was used to test for homogeneity of variances between treatments using 592 *betadisper* {vegan 2.4-0}. The variances between treatments were 593 significantly different, with hypermutators significantly affecting within-group 594 variation. These clones were removed from further analysis as significant 595 differences in within-group variance can lead to falsely significant results 596 when testing for differences between groups⁴⁵. Permutational Multivariate 597 Analysis of Variance was used to calculate whether different evolutionary treatments resulted in different sets of mutations^{45,46}. Using the Euclidean 598 599 distance matrix with hypermutators removed, the significance of within- and 600 between-group distances was calculated using *adonis2* {vegan 2.4-0}. The

601	data was partitioned into different groups, multiple testing was corrected for
602	using Bonferroni correction. Neighbour Joining phylogeny was constructed
603	using the binary presence or absence table with hypermutators removed.
604	Tree estimation and bootstrap support was conducted using ape-package
605	{ape 4.0}. Significant difference between two related samples was calculated
606	using two sided, two-sample t-test. Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to check
607	for normality, when normality could not be assumed a non-parametric
608	Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used. Differences among treatments growth
609	under antibiotic selection were calculated by ANOVA of the integral of the
610	resistance profiles, with subsequent Tukey multiple comparison of means. All
611	statistical analysis was conducted in R (version 3.2.3).
612	
613	Data Availability
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625 research was supported by the Wellcome Trust 4-year Ph.D. program

- 626 (WT095024MA) "Combating infectious disease: computational approaches in
- translation science." This work was also supported by funding from the
- 628 European Research Council under the European Union's Seventh Framework
- 629 Programme awarded to M.A.B. (FP7/2007-2013 ERC grant StG-2012-
- 630 311490–COEVOCON).
- 631
- 632 **Contributions** M.A.B. and A.J.W. supervised the project. M.J.B. performed
- the experiments and analysed the data. All authors contributed towards the
- 634 design of the study and wrote the manuscript.
- 635
- 636 Competing interests The authors declare no competing financial interests.637
- 638 **Corresponding author** Correspondence to Michael. A. Brockhurst
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- 640

641 **Figure 1 | Resistance profiles of evolved plasmids and hosts.** Growth of

- 642 **a**, evolved MG1655 strains with evolved RK2 plasmids **b**, evolved MG1655
- strains cured of evolved RK2 plasmids **c**, evolved MG1655 strains with
- ancestral RK2 plasmid and **d**, ancestral MG1655 clones with evolved RK2
- 645 plasmids in the presence of tetracycline, ampicillin or chloramphenicol in
- 646 comparison to ancestral MG1655. Points represent means of one clone from
- 647 each of the six independent treatment populations, with SEM error bars.
- Dashed grey and black lines show the resistance profiles of plasmid free and
- 649 plasmid containing ancestral strains respectively. Dashed lines in evolved
- host cured of plasmid plots (**c**) show ancestral MG1655 and ancestral

MG1655(RK2) after curing process. Dashed lines in ancestral host evolved
plasmid plots (d) show ancestral MG1655 and ancestral MG1655(RK2) which
had under gone curing with ancestral RK2 subsequently reintroduced.
Vertical dashed lines in AMP and TET resistance profiles show the
concentrations of AMP (100 µg/ml) or TET (10 µg/ml) used in the selection
experiment.

657

658 Figure 2 I Mutations show treatment specific parallelism. a, An unrooted 659 neighbour joining phylogeny of end-point evolved clones. The distance matrix 660 was constructed from the binary presence or absence of variants at each 661 gene relative to the ancestral strain; hypermutators were excluded from the 662 analysis. Scale bar represents number of gene variants; percentage bootstrap 663 support is shown at the branches, B=1000, values below 0.3 are omitted. Blue 664 branches represent clone isolated from TET treatments. b, Mutations 665 observed in evolved clones (excluding hypermutators) across treatment. 666 Rings represent *E. coli* chromosomes or RK2 plasmids. Dots represent 667 mutations, the size of the dots represent the number of mutations at the same 668 loci across independent replicate populations. Plots of individual treatments 669 are in Supplementary Fig. 3.



