

1 **Transitions in interaction landscapes of multidrug combinations**

2

3 Tina Manzhuk Kang^{1*}, Bjørn Østman^{1,2*}, Mauricio Cruz-Loya², Natalie Ann Lozano¹, Robert

4 Damoiseaux³, Van M. Savage^{1,2,4}, and Pamela J. Yeh^{1**}

5

6 ¹Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California, Los Angeles, CA

7 90095

8 ²Department of Biomathematics, University of California, David Geffen School of Medicine, Los

9 Angeles, CA 90095

10 ³Department of Medical and Molecular Pharmacology, University of California, David Geffen

11 School of Medicine, Los Angeles, CA 90095

12 ⁴Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, NM 87501

13

14 *Authors contributed equally

15 **Correspondence to: pamelayeh@ucla.edu

16

17

18

19

20

21

22 **Abstract**

23

24 Drug combinations are a promising strategy to increase killing efficiency and to decrease the
25 likelihood of evolving resistance. A major challenge is to gain a detailed understanding of how
26 drugs interact in a dose-specific manner, especially for interactions involving more than two
27 drugs. Here we introduce a direct and intuitive visual representation that we term “interaction
28 landscapes”. We use these landscapes to clearly show that the interaction type of two drugs
29 typically transitions smoothly from antagonism to no interaction to synergy as drug doses
30 increase. This finding contradicts prevailing assumptions that interaction type is always the
31 same. Our results, from 56 interaction landscapes, are derived from all possible three-drug
32 combinations among 8 antibiotics, each varied across a range of 7 concentrations and applied
33 to a pathogenic *Escherichia coli* strain. Such comprehensive data and analysis are only recently
34 possible through implementation of an automated high-throughput drug-delivery system and
35 an explicit mathematical framework that disentangles pairwise versus three-way as well as net
36 (any effect) versus emergent (requiring all three drugs) interactions. Altogether, these
37 landscapes partly capture and encapsulate selective pressures that correspond to different
38 dose regions and could help optimize treatment strategies. Consequently, interaction
39 landscapes have profound consequences for choosing effective drug-dose combinations
40 because there are regions where small changes in dose can cause large changes in pathogen
41 killing efficiency and selective pressure.

42

43 **Introduction**

44

45 Combination therapy is widely used to treat a number of chronic health issues such as cancer
46 [1, 2] , HIV [3, 4], hypertension [5] or multidrug resistant bacterial infections [6, 7].

47 Understanding the effects of these drug combinations and interactions among drugs is a major
48 clinical concern and active research area [8-14]. A promising strategy for combatting the
49 evolution of drug resistance is to use drugs in combination by effectively leveraging
50 interactions. However, a detailed understanding of how three drugs interact in a dose-specific
51 manner is challenging to examine and visualize. Gaining this understanding has importance
52 both for devising optimal treatments and for leveraging selection pressure to combat evolution
53 of resistance.

54

55 Measures for interactions are often evaluated based on a coarse-grained categorization of
56 three interaction types: additive (no interaction), synergistic (combined effect greater than
57 expected based on single-drug effects), and antagonistic (combined effect less than expected
58 based on single-drug effects). Synergistic drug combinations, in which combining drugs
59 enhances the effects of the individual drugs, are commonly prescribed for patients because
60 they maximize efficacy at lower doses. However, previous work indicates that antagonism may
61 be more beneficial for slowing down the rate of resistance evolution to the component drugs
62 [10, 14], because it creates more complex or rugged fitness landscapes. Thus, simply knowing
63 how interactions deviate from additivity towards synergy or antagonism is potentially a

64 powerful indicator to anticipate effects of a specific drug combination on treatment and
65 resistance development.
66
67 Nevertheless, in practice it becomes challenging to use this interaction categorization to
68 optimize treatment strategy and leverage evolution of resistance due to the complexity of
69 dose-dependent interactions. Many empirical studies of drug interaction are conducted at a
70 fixed dose and thus can only measure a single interaction type for each specific drug
71 combination (i.e., Bliss Independence) [10, 13, 15]. The Bliss independence model is one of the
72 most commonly used measures of drug interactions because it is intuitive, simple to calculate,
73 readily expandable to numerous interacting components, and experimentally less demanding
74 because it only requires four measurements to classify a pairwise interaction.
75
76 When drug combinations do not have an unchanged interaction type with changing drug dose
77 [16], there is a breakdown of common interaction definitions based on single-dose
78 measurements. Several studies have now shown that changes in interactions based on doses is
79 not just an abstract possibility but a reality for combinations of antibiotics, antifungal, and
80 chemotherapeutic agents [15, 17-20]. More systematic studies are needed to find and
81 understand general patterns and thus to avoid adverse effect that promote development of
82 resistance and disease relapse. Such cases could occur when the interaction of a drug
83 combination is defined at a specific dose combination and is extrapolated into a region of drug
84 doses where the interaction is neither what is expected nor what is desirable. Until now, there
85 have been no direct and intuitive visualizations of high-dimensional drug spaces that would

86 help verify and more deeply understand the range of complexities in transitions among
87 interaction types.

88

89 In this paper, we examine all possible three-drug combinations among 8 antibiotics, each varied
90 across a range of 7 concentrations and applied to a pathogenic *Escherichia coli* strain. We
91 introduce a new and direct visual representation of dose-dependent drug interactions that we
92 term “interaction landscapes” (Figure 1). This approach is placed directly within the space of
93 drug interactions where general inferences about consequences of interactions can be made
94 quickly with extremely efficient use of the information in the data. Interestingly, because
95 interactions are calculated from fitness differences, the interaction landscape is a visual
96 representation that partly captures directions and strengths of selection pressures. Therefore,
97 these interaction landscapes will help to analyze how drug-dose combinations affect treatment
98 strategies, regions of positive or negative selection pressures, and evolution of resistance.

99

100 Interaction landscapes, which are based on our high-throughput data and calculated from our
101 mathematical framework, provide direct visualizations of local synergy or antagonism
102 embedded within a larger interaction space and thus enable quantification and assessment of
103 the directionality, pervasiveness, organization, and transition between regional synergy and
104 antagonism. Consequently, we can use these landscapes to carefully investigate and answer the
105 questions above. We expect broad implications of this general approach and ideas, including in
106 environmental pollution and risk assessment of toxic chemical mixtures where the exposure is
107 rarely a uniform dose.

108 Results

109 Overall, we find that interaction types are often strongly dose-dependent, and that this is true
110 for both lower-order (two drug) and higher-order (three drug) combinations. We typically
111 observe smooth transitions between different interaction types and subspaces within a drug
112 combination. Furthermore, net interactions tend to transition from antagonistic at low dose to
113 synergy at high doses. For emergent interactions, higher doses often have the opposite effect
114 and lead to more antagonism. These transitions happen quickly but smoothly. Finally, pairwise
115 interactions can often be used to predict net three-drug interactions but not emergent three-
116 drug interactions.

117

118 Interaction type is dose dependent.

119 Both lower-order (2-drug) and higher-order (3-drug) interactions are strongly dose dependent.
120 To assess the effect of increasing dose on interaction in a two- drug case, we compared how
121 sub-inhibitory concentrations of drug A interact with drug B at either a high dose or a low dose.
122 In a three-drug combination, the interaction was examined with the third drug at a high and
123 low dose. We measured interaction both at the overall net level (DA)—combined pairwise and
124 three-way interactions—and at the emergent level ($E3$), where the pairwise interactions are
125 subtracted from the net interactions so that only the truly three-way interaction part remains
126 (Figure 2). The distributions of DA and $E3$ among all combinations of drugs and doses are
127 multimodal with peaks at synergy ($DA = -1$), additivity ($DA = 0$), and antagonism ($DA = 1$) (Fig.
128 3A and B). Smoothing the data results in a more continuous distribution (Fig. 3C and D). The
129 peaks at the boundaries of synergy and antagonism were much less prominent (Fig. 3C and D),

130 and low drug concentrations result primarily in net interactions that are additive or antagonistic
131 (Fig. S1). Synergistic *DA* and *E3* interactions are mostly observed at intermediate and high
132 concentrations with a dearth at low doses (Fig. 3C and D).

133

134 **Interaction type transitions.**

135 Interaction types tend to transition from antagonism and additivity at low doses to synergy at
136 high doses for net three-way interaction, but to antagonism for emergent three-way
137 interaction. For both *DA* and *E3*, the magnitude of the mean of all antagonistic interactions and
138 the magnitude of the mean of all synergistic interactions each increase with the combined dose
139 of all three drugs (Fig. S2, resulting in a dose dependency of interaction strength). We further
140 show net (*DA*) interactions are antagonistic at a low dose and shift to additivity or synergy at a
141 high dose (Fig. 4). Most of the dose-dependent transitions are from additivity (no interaction)
142 to either synergy or antagonism. Transitions between synergy and antagonism—corresponding
143 to an extremely abrupt or sharp transition—are extremely rare, at less than 4% for *DA* and less
144 than 1% for *E3*. Antagonistic interactions remain antagonistic or transition to additivity more for
145 2-drug combinations (26%) than for 3-drug combinations (17%). Emergent interactions (*E3*) are
146 rarely synergistic. No drug combinations exhibit emergent synergy at the low dose (index 1),
147 while less than 4% do so at the high dose (index 6) (Fig. 4). Interaction transitions are
148 summarized for each drug combination with both the sum and absolute change in *DA* (Fig. S3).
149 Clearly, increasing the dose of one drug can lead to various trajectories for changes in *DA* (Fig.
150 S4), such as a no change, additive to synergy, or additive to antagonism. Nevertheless, the
151 landscapes are not randomly scattered with mixtures of interactions, but instead are composed

152 of confined subspaces or regions of synergy or antagonism. Transitions between different
153 interaction types are generally buffered by a region of additivity.

154

155 **Pairwise interactions contribute most to net three-way interactions, emergent three-way**
156 **interactions are not predicted by pairwise interactions**

157 For each triple-drug combination, we calculated three-way net (*DA*), pairwise net (*DA*), and
158 three-way emergent (*E3*) interaction metrics for all possible drug pairs with a third drug at low,
159 intermediate, and high concentrations (dose indices 2, 4, and 6). The relationship between the
160 pairwise *DA* and three-way *DA* is mostly positive, with the net interactions strongly influenced
161 by the pairwise interactions (Fig. S5). For all three doses, the mean of the three pairwise *DA*
162 correlates strongly with three-way *DA* (Spearman's $\rho = 0.793$, Fig. 5A). *DA* and *E3* show *no*
163 *correlation* (Spearman's $\rho = -0.094$, Fig. 5B), while *E3* and pairwise *DA* exhibit a slightly anti-
164 correlated pattern (Spearman's $\rho = -0.384$, Fig. 5C). A more synergistic mean pairwise *DA* thus
165 predicts a more synergistic three-way *DA*, which is unsurprising, since the pairwise interactions
166 are included in the three-way *DA*. Although the relationship between three-way *DA* and *E3* is
167 weak or non-existent, the anti-correlation between mean pairwise *DA* and *E3* is striking. In
168 particular, for synergistic three-way *DA* (red points) interactions, there is a strong anti-
169 correlation between pairwise *DA* and *E3*, indicating that antagonistic pairwise interactions tend
170 to be associated with strongly synergistic *E3*, which in turn drives the three-way interaction
171 synergistic (Fig. S6). Conversely, when the mean of the three pairwise interactions is below zero
172 (corresponding to synergy) and the three-way *DA* is synergistic, *E3* is predominantly
173 antagonistic. This effect is likely to result from low fitness at high doses that can cause large

174 deviations in *DA* and *E3*. The correlations between pairwise *DA*, three-way *DA*, and *E3* are
175 similar for both low and intermediate doses of the third drug (dose indices 2 and 4), with similar
176 correlation coefficients (Fig. S7).

177

178 **Discussion**

179 To quantify the effect of dose on drug interactions, we measured fitness of a pathogenic strain
180 of *E. coli* subjected to all possible 3-drug combinations of eight antibiotics across a gradient of
181 doses for each drug. To visualize the high-dimensional interaction space of our data, we
182 introduced the interaction landscape that displays quantitative measures of interactions as a
183 function of the interacting components. We provide evidence that different environmental
184 conditions (*i.e.*, drug concentrations) can change drug interaction type and thus lead to dose-
185 dependent interactions. We also showed these transitions are smooth, rarely going from
186 synergy directly to antagonism or vice versa. Instead, transitions first pass through the
187 intermediate type of additivity (no interaction) as they pass from antagonism to synergy or
188 from synergy to antagonism.

189 The interaction landscapes give a direct and intuitive view of how the environmental space of
190 combined drug doses affects the efficacy of drugs in combination. This representation is
191 analogous to other maps of underlying control variables onto one dependent variable, such as
192 genotype-fitness maps [21-23] , genotype-phenotype maps [24, 25], and phenotype-fitness
193 maps [26-28] . In addition, we expect our approach can be usefully applied to other systems
194 related to toxins, pollution, and stressors.

195

196 Our results lead to two insights that should aid future studies of drug combinations. First,
197 within our interaction landscapes, there are large, clearly delineated subspaces that correspond
198 to specific types of drug interactions. These subspaces often occur at high or low
199 concentrations of the combined drugs. Conclusions can therefore be made with less
200 information than is needed for fitness landscapes by mapping the boundaries between these
201 different subspaces and understanding how the magnitude of the interactions change when
202 moving toward or away from a boundary. Moreover, these subspaces suggest simple methods
203 for predicting regions of positive or negative evolutionary pressures on subpopulations of
204 treated cells (*e.g.*, selecting for or against resistance) and could have profound implications for
205 choosing effective drug-dose combinations as well as intelligent drug treatments. Second,
206 because there are transitions across the landscape that go between these subspaces of
207 interaction type, synergistic combinations identified with only one dose regime [10, 13, 15, 29]
208 can be antagonistic when used or prescribed at a different dose regime. Such a reversal could
209 have detrimental impact on clinical decisions and scientific studies. For example, in figure 1C,
210 an interaction type of antagonism at one set of doses ([ERY]= 125 μ M, [AMP] = 0.39 μ M, and
211 [CLI] = 7.81 μ M) changes to synergy at another set of doses ([ERY] = 125 μ M, [AMP] = 6.25 μ M,
212 and [CLI] = 125 μ M). Understanding how drugs interact in a dose-specific way will help to avoid
213 conflicting results and potentially detrimental antagonistic combinations being applied in the
214 wrong setting [30]. Importantly, fluctuating drug dosages could be used to create fluctuating
215 selection pressures for cell populations. Indeed, evolutionary dynamics of a population can
216 change drastically in changing environments [31, 32] and fluctuating environments can lead to
217 higher levels of genetic diversity and biodiversity [33], evolution of generalist over specialist

218 species [34], and other evolutionary and ecological phenomena. To assess whether this picture
219 of drug interactions as strongly dose dependent goes beyond these particular drugs for this
220 specific strain of *E. coli*, other drugs in other organisms need to be explicitly measured. Further
221 detailed data and identification of general patterns across bacterial strains or drugs will
222 contribute to better methods for predictions.

223

224 Zimmer *et al.* [15] proposed a model that predicts higher-order interactions at a full range of
225 doses based only on pairwise interactions at low doses. We find component pairwise
226 interactions are the largest contributor to overall net interactions which suggests the approach
227 of Zimmer *et al.* may be frequently useful. However, pairwise interactions are independent of
228 emergent interactions, so we doubt that higher order interactions will be easily predictable
229 using the framework of Zimmer *et al.* That is, for most of the triple-drug combinations, the
230 pairwise DA is a reasonable predictor of three-way net interaction (DA), but it does not
231 correlate well with or usefully predict $E3$. Moreover, in some cases of synergistic three-way DA
232 is not predicted by any component pairwise interactions, we do find a correlation between
233 three-way DA and $E3$, showing the net interaction arises from the emergent part as would be
234 expected. Our results are consistent with the basic findings of the Zimmer *et al.* model for net
235 interactions, but show that emergent, higher-order interactions are independent and not
236 predicted from component pairwise interactions. For cases where there are only three-way
237 interactions, but very weak or non-existent pairwise interactions, inferences based on the
238 Zimmer *et al.* model will therefore be especially misleading. This critical distinction seems
239 absent from the literature because previous studies on dose-dependent interactions have been

240 conducted with either limited numbers of drug combinations, with drugs at fixed doses, or have
241 analyzed interactions with methods that do not distinguish net versus emergent interactions.
242 Our study compensates for both the lack of data and missing analysis for emergent interactions
243 for dose dependency.

244

245 Finally, we note that examining the whole-drug space for three-drug combinations can be
246 extremely time consuming and expensive. An intriguing recent work by Cokol *et al.* [35]
247 sampled data that correspond to a portion of our interaction landscape in order to infer the
248 interaction type based on the Loewe additivity model in which it is assumed that a drug cannot
249 interact with itself [36]. However, this methodology requires that the interactions be uniform
250 throughout the entire interaction space, such that the contours stay either concave or convex
251 across all doses. That is, the Cokol *et al.* framework assumes that there is no dose dependency,
252 meaning no transitions between subspaces of interaction types. In contrast, our study using
253 Bliss Independence models, which applies to single-dose measurements and makes no
254 assumptions about dose dependency, shows that drug interactions generally are strongly
255 affected by dose when we look at the entire interaction landscape. These fundamental
256 discrepancies between the Bliss and Loewe models are also observed in two-drug interactions
257 [37]. Future work to understand the meaning of these differences, which are intricately
258 connected to the domain of Bliss versus Loewe models, are therefore greatly needed.

259

260 Our introduction of interaction landscapes along with our results that transitions are typically
261 smooth and gradual should greatly aid in intuiting and thus understanding the complexity of

262 drug interactions. Such insight is needed because combinatorial therapy is an extremely
263 common practice in complex, chronic diseases such as hypertension, infectious disease, and
264 cancer [38, 39], and could be strategically valuable for preventing the evolution of resistance.
265 Visualization and analysis of multi-dimensional interaction data is a challenge faced by an
266 increasing number of disciplines as experimental advances for collecting big data continue to
267 grow. By combining our large dataset with a rigorous theoretical framework to quantify both
268 net and emergent interactions, our approach enables new insights via the detection and
269 quantification of how multi-drug interactions change with dose from low to high concentrations
270 or for small or large numbers of drugs.

271

272 **Materials and Methods**

273

274 **Bacterial Strain.** We used *E. coli* CFT073, a highly virulent pyelonephritis strain isolated from
275 human clinical specimen, obtained from ATCC (designation number 700928). The strain was
276 grown in 2 mL of LB media (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, and 10 g/L NaCl) and streaked
277 onto LB agar plates to isolate single colonies. Then a single colony was inoculated into 2 mL of
278 LB and grown for 24 hours. Following the incubation, the culture was mixed with 2 mL of 50%
279 glycerol and aliquoted into 50 μ L to generate bacterial cell stocks with 25% glycerol for storing
280 at -80°C. Each experiment was started with a thawed aliquot stock by inoculating 20 μ L into 2
281 mL of LB media. The culture was incubated at 37°C until it reached exponential growth phase
282 (an OD of 0.5) and diluted to maintain 10^4 cells per experimental condition.

283

284 **Antibiotics.** Antibiotics used include erythromycin (ERY), ampicillin (AMP), clindamycin (CLI),
285 streptomycin (STR), nitrofurantoin (NTR), cefoxitin (FOX), and trimethoprim (TMP), all from
286 Sigma (St Louis, Mo), and ciprofloxacin (CPR) from MP Biomedicals (Santa Ana, Ca). All
287 antibiotics were dissolved and sonicated in 100% DMSO (Sigma) except for STR which was
288 dissolved in 50% DMSO, due to limited solubility in 100% DMSO. Experiments for IC₅₀ and drug
289 interactions (below) were conducted in clear flat bottom 384-well plates from Greiner BioOne.

290
291 **IC₅₀ determination.** A 20-step two-fold serial dilution was prepared for each antibiotic. The
292 source plate was made by preparing each drug with a total volume of 70 μ L at 10 mM as the
293 starting concentration, or the first step, filled into a 384 well plate. The following dilution steps
294 were conducted by a robotic liquid handling system with a transfer volume of 35 μ L per step.
295 Meanwhile, 25 μ L of LB per well were prefilled into a second 384-well plates using the
296 Multidrop 384 (Thermo Scientific). Next, 500 nL from the source plate were delivered into the
297 prefilled plate using the Biomek FX (Beckman Coulter) with a pin tool (V&P Scientific). Then, 25
298 μ L of bacteria inoculum was added to each well to reach a final 50 μ L per well with 1% DMSO.
299 Each plate included negative controls (media alone), vehicle controls (media with 1% DMSO),
300 and positive controls (media with 1% DMSO and cells). The plates were incubated at 37°C with
301 OD₅₉₅ measurement for cell density at 4-hour intervals for 24 hours. IC₅₀s were determined by
302 fitting a sigmoidal dose-response curve using the software Graphpad Prism.

303

304 **Determining drug-dosage levels from dose-response curve of single drugs.**

305 To establish reasonable resolutions of various drug doses, we designed our dilution regime (Fig.
306 2A) to cover a wide range of dose effectiveness in terms of bacterial fitness of lethal, low,
307 intermediate, and high. Mean dose response curves of each single drug (Fig. 2C) show a
308 sigmoidal and monophasic curve that results in the desired fitness levels. Dose indices 1 and 2
309 are regarded as low doses, where fitness is between 1 and 0.8, with fitness here measured as
310 growth rate relative to bacteria in no-drug environments. Dose indices 3 to 5 are intermediate
311 doses that give a mean fitness around 0.4. High doses of 6 and 7 result in fitness below 0.2,
312 except for clindamycin that has fitness well above the other drugs. We then calculated IC95
313 concentrations—where the dose concentration inhibits 95% of bacterial growth compared to
314 no-drug environments—for each single drug (Table 1) to normalize the combined dose in triple-
315 drug combinations in terms of combined effectiveness.

316

317 **Drug combination experiment**

318 All three-drug combinations formed from a set of eight drugs were tested, resulting in 56
319 unique three-drug combinations. A source plate for each drug was prepared in seven-step, two-
320 fold dilutions with various starting concentrations (Table 1), dependent on their respective
321 IC50, with a total of 70 μ L in DMSO at each dilution step. In addition, a zero dose was included
322 into each drug gradient as the lowest concentration. A combination drug plate was prepared by
323 pinning from each source plate of the component drugs using a 250 nL pin tool (V&P Scientific)
324 to restrict the DMSO concentration to be lower than 1%. Methods for cell inoculation and
325 incubation were the same as stated above. OD measurements were taken at 12 hours.

326

327 **Measuring fitness**

328 Optical density measurements were made with Perkin Elmer Wallace 1420. Fitness was
329 calculated as:

330

331
$$W = (OD - OD_{neg}) / (OD_{pos} - OD_{neg}),$$

332

333 where OD is the optical density of the experimental condition with bacteria and drugs, OD_{pos} is
334 the positive control without drugs, and OD_{neg} is the negative control without bacteria or drugs.
335 Fitness is given with a precision of two decimals, and we therefore exclude fitness
336 measurements below 0.01.

337

338 **Quantifying interactions**

339 Interactions are commonly quantified as the deviation from Bliss independence [40]. We
340 quantify this using *deviation from additivity* (DA), which measures interactions between drugs,
341 while additivity is defined when the presence of one drug does not affect the percent reduction
342 of bacterial growth of another drug. If the fitness of the organisms given three drugs is W_{XYZ} ,
343 and the fitness when only given one drug is W_X , W_Y , and W_Z , for drugs X, Y, and Z, respectively,
344 then

345

346
$$DA = W_{XYZ} - W_X W_Y W_Z$$

347

348 [41]. *DA* incorporates both pairwise and three-way drug interactions but cannot discern
349 between them. To measure emergent interactions that occur only when three drugs are
350 present, we subtracted both the single-drug effects and the component pairwise effects:

351

$$352 \quad E3 = W_{XYZ} + W_X W_{YZ} + W_Y W_{XZ} + W_Z W_{XY} - 2W_X W_Y W_Z$$

353

354 [41]. To delineate boundaries and tease apart interactions as synergistic, additive, and
355 antagonistic from the unimodal distribution of *DA* and *E3*, rescaling was applied to each
356 measurement. *DA* was rescaled by dividing by the absolute value of *DA*, but replacing W_{XYZ}
357 (denoted as \tilde{W}_{XYZ}) by 0 if $DA \leq 0$, to account for cases of extreme lethal synergy ($W_{XYZ} = 0$)
358 while no single drug completely was completely lethal, and by the minimum value of
359 W_X, W_Y, W_Z if $DA > 0$, for cases of buffering antagonism where combined drugs have the same
360 effect as the strongest single-drug effect.

361

$$362 \quad DA_R = (W_{XYZ} - W_X W_Y W_Z) / |\tilde{W}_{XYZ} - W_X W_Y W_Z|,$$

363

364 where $\tilde{W}_{XYZ} = 0$ for $DA \leq 0$, and $\min(W_X, W_Y, W_Z)$ otherwise.

365

366 Similarly, *E3* is rescaled by dividing by

367

$$368 \quad |\tilde{W}_{XYZ} + W_X W_{YZ} + W_Y W_{XZ} + W_Z W_{XY} - 2W_X W_Y W_Z|,$$

369

370 where $\tilde{W}_{XYZ} = 0$ for $E3 \leq 0$ and $\min(W_X W_{YZ}, W_Y W_{XZ}, W_Z W_{XY})$ otherwise [41]. This rescaling
371 results in values between -1 and ∞ . We further discretize both DA_R and $E3_R$ based on the
372 natural breaks in the histogram distribution of DA_R and $E3_R$. Values below -0.5 correspond to
373 synergy, between -0.5 and 0.5 to additivity, and above 0.5 to antagonism. Values above 1 are
374 capped at 1.

375

376 **Smoothing**

377 To increase our confidence and resolution of interaction transition with dose, given the fairly
378 noisy OD measurements, we smoothed the data using a weighted average algorithm by
379 considering our dose combination matrix as a metric space. For each data point (interaction
380 measurement at each drug-dose combination), both rescaled DA and $E3$ were recalculated as a
381 weighted average depending on the Euclidean distance (within the three-dimensional matrix)
382 between the original data point and the points used for calculation. The weight is 1 for the
383 origin, and $1/8d$ for the 26 nearest neighbors, where d is the Euclidean distance from the origin.
384 If a neighboring value was missing, either because it lies at the boundary or because it was
385 excluded due to low fitness, its weight was set to zero. The sum of the weights was required to
386 comprise at least 59 percent of the original weight matrix. For smoothing, both DA and $E3$ were
387 truncated to values between -1 and 1, with higher values set equal to 1.

388

389 **Acknowledgements** We thank Nina Singh and Cynthia White for comments on the manuscript.
390 We are grateful for funding from the Hellman Foundation (PJY), a KL2 Fellowship (PJY) through
391 the NIH/National Center for Advancing Translational Science (NCATS) UCLA CTSI Grant Number

392 UL1TR001881, and a James F. McDonnell Foundation Complex Systems Scholar Award (VMS).
393 This investigation was also supported by National Institutes of Health, under Ruth L. Kirschstein
394 National Research Service Award (T32-GM008185). Its contents are solely the responsibility of
395 the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.
396

397 **References**

398

399 1. Komarova, N.L. and C.R. Boland, *Cancer: calculated treatment*. Nature, 2013. **499**(7458):

400 p. 291-2.

401 2. Manchado, E., et al., *A combinatorial strategy for treating KRAS-mutant lung cancer*.

402 Nature, 2016. **534**(7609): p. 647-51.

403 3. Autran, B., et al., *Positive effects of combined antiretroviral therapy on CD4+ T cell*

404 *homeostasis and function in advanced HIV disease*. Science, 1997. **277**(5322): p. 112-6.

405 4. Luzuriaga, K., *Early Combination Antiretroviral Therapy Limits HIV-1 Persistence in*

406 *Children*. Annu Rev Med, 2016. **67**: p. 201-13.

407 5. Taddei, S., *Combination therapy in hypertension: what are the best options according to*

408 *clinical pharmacology principles and controlled clinical trial evidence?* American Journal

409 of Cardiovascular Drugs, 2015. **15**(3): p. 185-194.

410 6. Kullar, R., et al., *When sepsis persists: a review of MRSA bacteraemia salvage therapy*. J

411 Antimicrob Chemother, 2016. **71**(3): p. 576-86.

412 7. Liu, C., et al., *Clinical practice guidelines by the infectious diseases society of america for*

413 *the treatment of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus infections in adults and*

414 *children*. Clin Infect Dis, 2011. **52**(3): p. e18-55.

415 8. Cokol, M., et al., *Systematic exploration of synergistic drug pairs*. Mol Syst Biol, 2011. **7**:

416 p. 544.

417 9. Fuentes-Hernandez, A., et al., *Using a sequential regimen to eliminate bacteria at*

418 *sublethal antibiotic dosages*. PLoS Biol, 2015. **13**(4): p. e1002104.

- 419 10. Hegreness, M., et al., *Accelerated evolution of resistance in multidrug environments*.
420 Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2008. **105**(37): p. 13977-81.
- 421 11. Ocampo, P.S., et al., *Antagonism between bacteriostatic and bactericidal antibiotics is*
422 *prevalent*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2014. **58**(8): p. 4573-82.
- 423 12. Singh, N. and P.J. Yeh, *Suppressive drug combinations and their potential to combat*
424 *antibiotic resistance*. J Antibiot (Tokyo), 2017. **70**(11): p. 1033-1042.
- 425 13. Wood, K.B., et al., *Uncovering scaling laws to infer multidrug response of resistant*
426 *microbes and cancer cells*. Cell Rep, 2014. **6**(6): p. 1073-1084.
- 427 14. Yeh, P.J., et al., *Drug interactions and the evolution of antibiotic resistance*. Nat Rev
428 Microbiol, 2009. **7**(6): p. 460-6.
- 429 15. Zimmer, A., et al., *Prediction of multidimensional drug dose responses based on*
430 *measurements of drug pairs*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2016. **113**(37): p. 10442-7.
- 431 16. White, D.B., et al., *Nonlinear Response Surface and Mixture Experiment Methodologies*
432 *Applied to the Study of Synergism*. Biometrical Journal, 2004. **46**(1): p. 56-71.
- 433 17. Meletiadiis, J., et al., *Concentration-dependent synergy and antagonism within a triple*
434 *antifungal drug combination against Aspergillus species: analysis by a new response*
435 *surface model*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2007. **51**(6): p. 2053-64.
- 436 18. O'Shaughnessy, E.M., et al., *Antifungal interactions within the triple combination of*
437 *amphotericin B, caspofungin and voriconazole against Aspergillus species*. J Antimicrob
438 Chemother, 2006. **58**(6): p. 1168-76.
- 439 19. Santos, J.R., et al., *Dynamic interaction between fluconazole and amphotericin B against*
440 *Cryptococcus gattii*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2012. **56**(5): p. 2553-8.

- 441 20. Weiss, A., et al., *Rapid optimization of drug combinations for the optimal angiostatic*
442 *treatment of cancer*. *Angiogenesis*, 2015. **18**(3): p. 233-44.
- 443 21. Aguilar-Rodríguez, J., J.L. Payne, and A. Wagner, *A thousand empirical adaptive*
444 *landscapes and their navigability*. *Nature ecology & evolution*, 2017. **1**(2): p. 0045.
- 445 22. Flynn, K.M., et al., *The environment affects epistatic interactions to alter the topology of*
446 *an empirical fitness landscape*. *PLoS Genet*, 2013. **9**(4): p. e1003426.
- 447 23. Khan, A.I., et al., *Negative epistasis between beneficial mutations in an evolving*
448 *bacterial population*. *Science*, 2011. **332**(6034): p. 1193-1196.
- 449 24. Fontana, W. and P. Schuster, *Shaping space: the possible and the attainable in RNA*
450 *genotype-phenotype mapping*. *J Theor Biol*, 1998. **194**(4): p. 491-515.
- 451 25. Wagner, G.P. and J. Zhang, *The pleiotropic structure of the genotype-phenotype map:*
452 *the evolvability of complex organisms*. *Nat Rev Genet*, 2011. **12**(3): p. 204-13.
- 453 26. Bull, J.J., R.H. Heineman, and C.O. Wilke, *The phenotype-fitness map in experimental*
454 *evolution of phages*. *PLoS One*, 2011. **6**(11): p. e27796.
- 455 27. Østman, B., A. Hintze, and C. Adami, *Critical properties of complex fitness landscapes*.
456 arXiv preprint arXiv:1006.2908, 2010.
- 457 28. Szendro, I.G., et al., *Predictability of evolution depends nonmonotonically on population*
458 *size*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2013. **110**(2): p. 571-6.
- 459 29. Yeh, P., A.I. Tschumi, and R. Kishony, *Functional classification of drugs by properties of*
460 *their pairwise interactions*. *Nat Genet*, 2006. **38**(4): p. 489-94.
- 461 30. Mira, P.M., et al., *Rational design of antibiotic treatment plans: a treatment strategy for*
462 *managing evolution and reversing resistance*. *PLoS One*, 2015. **10**(5): p. e0122283.

- 463 31. Bell, G. and A. Gonzalez, *Adaptation and evolutionary rescue in metapopulations*
464 *experiencing environmental deterioration*. Science, 2011. **332**(6035): p. 1327-30.
- 465 32. Ogbunugafor, C.B., et al., *Adaptive landscape by environment interactions dictate*
466 *evolutionary dynamics in models of drug resistance*. PLoS computational biology, 2016.
467 **12**(1): p. e1004710.
- 468 33. Carja, O., U. Liberman, and M.W. Feldman, *Evolution in changing environments:*
469 *modifiers of mutation, recombination, and migration*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2014.
470 **111**(50): p. 17935-40.
- 471 34. Gilchrist, G.W., *Specialists and generalists in changing environments. I. Fitness*
472 *landscapes of thermal sensitivity*. The American Naturalist, 1995. **146**(2): p. 252-270.
- 473 35. Cokol, M., et al., *Efficient measurement and factorization of high-order drug interactions*
474 *in Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Sci Adv, 2017. **3**(10): p. e1701881.
- 475 36. Loewe, S., *The problem of synergism and antagonism of combined drugs*.
476 *Arzneimittelforschung*, 1953. **3**(6): p. 285-90.
- 477 37. Doern, C.D., *When does 2 plus 2 equal 5? A review of antimicrobial synergy testing*.
478 *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 2014. **52**(12): p. 4124-4128.
- 479 38. Al-Lazikani, B., U. Banerji, and P. Workman, *Combinatorial drug therapy for cancer in the*
480 *post-genomic era*. Nat Biotechnol, 2012. **30**(7): p. 679-92.
- 481 39. Moore, R.D. and R.E. Chaisson, *Natural history of HIV infection in the_era of combination*
482 *antiretroviral therapy*. Aids, 1999. **13**(14): p. 1933-1942.
- 483 40. Bliss, C., *The toxicity of poisons applied jointly*. Annals of applied biology, 1939. **26**(3): p.
484 585-615.

- 485 41. Tekin, E., et al., *Enhanced identification of synergistic and antagonistic emergent*
486 *interactions among three or more drugs*. J R Soc Interface, 2016. **13**(119).
487

488 **Figure 1. Overview and comparison of traditional fitness landscapes and interaction**
489 **landscapes.** (A) Schematic of a traditional phenotype-fitness landscape with fitness as a
490 function of three continuous trait values. Two peaks are visible, showing that there are
491 different combinations of trait values favored by selection. Values below 0.2 are not shown. (B)
492 Fitness landscape with fitness as a function of drug concentration for AMP/CLI/ERY. Fitness is
493 optimal when no drugs are administered. Values below 0.2 are not shown. (C) *DA* interaction
494 landscape for AMP/CLI/ERY showing two distinct regimes where interactions are primarily
495 antagonistic (green) and synergistic (red). Values between -0.5 and 0.5 are not shown. (D) *E3*
496 interaction landscape for AMP/CLI/ERY, showing how interactions can be dramatically different
497 between net (*DA*) and emergent (*E3*) interactions.

498
499 **Figure 2. Schematic representation of experimental design.** (A) For one triple-drug
500 combination of X, Y, and Z, the drug X plate includes 7 steps of 2-fold serial dilutions (in red)
501 plus no drug control (in white) going in the horizontal direction. Drug Y plate includes the same
502 concentration gradient but in the vertical direction (in blue). Combining drug X and drug Y
503 plates results in a 2-dimensional matrix of drug X+Y. Drug Z is composed of 7 plates each with
504 one concentration across the full 7-drug gradient (in green). Each of the seven drug Z plates is
505 transferred to a drug X+Y plate to form a matrix of X+Y+Z at one respective dose (drug X+Y+Z).
506 Finally, a 3-dimensional matrix of all three drugs is constructed of all seven additions of Z into
507 one plate of X+Y, plus a control where Z is zero. (B) For each drug-dose combination, the
508 overall interaction of *DA* is calculated with three component pairwise interactions of drug X+Y,
509 drug X+Z, and drug Y+Z (2), and the interaction when all three drug are present (3); while

510 emergent three way $E3$ represent the interaction of only at the three drug level. (C) Mean dose
511 response curves for single drugs from the dilution scheme, where the dilution step is plotted as
512 dose index and the fitness as a function of dose. AMP (20 replicates, red), ERY (21 replicates,
513 green), CLI (21 replicates, blue), STR (21 replicates, orange), NTR (21 replicates, teal), FOX (20
514 replicates, purple), TMP (21 replicates, black), CPR (20 replicates, cyan).

515

516 **Figure 3. Rescaled net (DA) and emergent ($E3$) interaction distributions.** Panel A and C show
517 the overall net level (DA) which encompasses all component pairwise and three-way
518 interactions. Panel B and D show interaction at the emergent level ($E3$), where the pairwise
519 interactions are subtracted from the net interactions so that only the truly three-way
520 interaction part remains. The colors correspond to drug concentration, where IC_{95} were used
521 as the maxima (see methods). Drug concentrations above IC_{95} were counted as the maxima.

522 (A) Rescaled DA , (B) rescaled $E3$, (C) smoothed DA , (D) smoothed $E3$. Low drug concentrations
523 (red) result predominantly in additive ($-0.5 < DA < 0.5$) or antagonistic interactions ($DA > 0.5$).
524 Higher concentrations (green to purple) are more evenly distributed among interaction types.

525

526 **Figure 4. Distributions of transitions between interaction types from a low dose (index 1) to a**
527 **high dose (index 6).** To assess the effect of increasing dose on interaction in a two- drug case,
528 we compared drug interaction of drug A at a sub-inhibitory concentration and drug B at either a
529 high dose and a low dose. In a three-drug combination, the interaction was examined with a
530 third drug at a high and low dose. Pairwise interactions (DA_2 , i.e. overall pairwise interaction)
531 are dominated by antagonism and additivity at the low dose (green and gray, 99%), while a

532 total of 10% are synergistic at the high dose (left). Three-way (*DA*) interactions are mostly
533 additive at the low dose (gray, 76%) and antagonistic (green, 22%), but change from additivity
534 to antagonism (16%) and from additivity or antagonism to synergy (21%) at the high dose. The
535 emergent three-way interactions measured by *E3* are mainly additive at the low dose (gray,
536 89%) with the rest being antagonistic, and result in very few synergistic interactions at the high
537 dose (3%), with some being antagonistic (22%) and a majority being additive (75%).

538

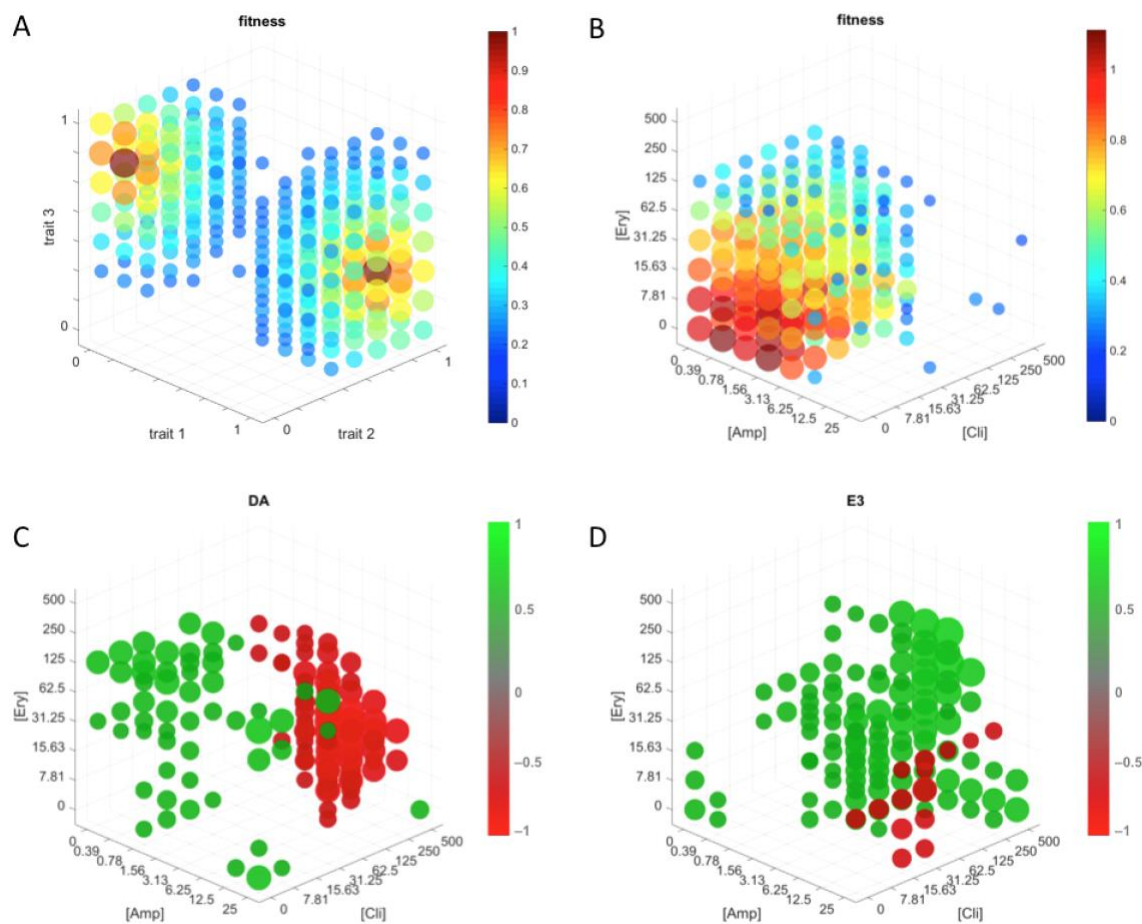
539 **Figure 5. Comparisons of three-way interactions to pairwise interactions.** For each three-drug
540 combination, we calculated three-way net (*DA*), pairwise net (*DA*), and three-way emergent
541 (*E3*) interaction metrics for all possible drug pairs and doses with the third drug at low,
542 intermediate, and high concentrations (dose indices 2, 4, and 6). The relationship between the
543 three-way *DA* at dose index 6 and the mean of the three pairwise *DA*s at the same doses shows
544 a strong positive correlation (Spearman's $\rho = 0.793$), whereas this correlation is absent between
545 *E3* and three-way *DA*, as well as between *E3* and the mean pairwise *DA*. Together, this suggests
546 that the *E3* interactions emerge independently of the pairwise interactions. The pairwise
547 interactions surprisingly are negatively correlated with the emergent three-way interactions.
548 *DA* and *E3* are evaluated at a high dose (dose index 6), and markers are colored according to
549 the three-way *DA* value for antagonism (green), additivity (gray), and synergy (red). Three-way
550 *DA* and *E3* are calculated for one drug at dose index 6 and the other two drugs at all dose
551 combinations. The three pairwise *DA* components are calculated with one of the three drugs
552 concentrations at zero. The mean pairwise-*E3* correlation for synergy alone is $\rho = -0.619$ (See
553 Fig. S8).

554 **Table 1. List of drugs used in the study.**

Compound	Abbreviation	Cellular Target	Top dose (μM)	IC95 (μM)
Ampicillin	AMP	cell wall synthesis inhibitor	25	10.0
Cefoxitin	FOX	cell wall synthesis inhibitor	25	15.4
Ciprofloxacin	CPR	Fluoroquinolone, DNA gyrase inhibitor	0.5	0.1
Nitrofurantoin	NTR	DNA damaging, multiple mechanisms	250	56.7
Trimethoprim	TMP	folic acid synthesis inhibitor	10	4.8
Streptomycin	STR	Aminoglycoside	50	26.8
Clindamycin	CLI	Protein Synthesis inhibitor, 50S	500	722.3
Erythromycin	ERY	Protein Synthesis inhibitor, 50S	500	268.3

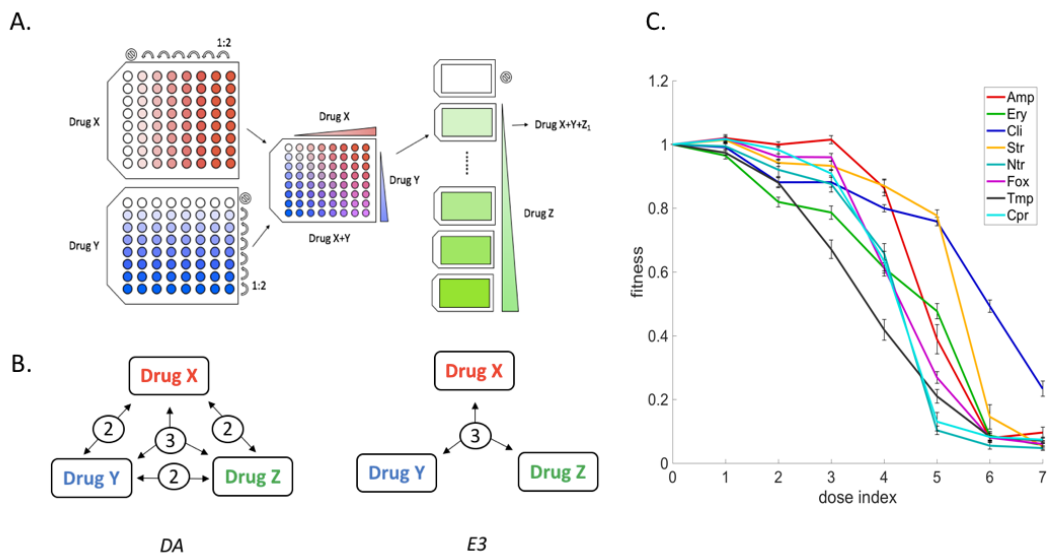
555

556 Table 1.



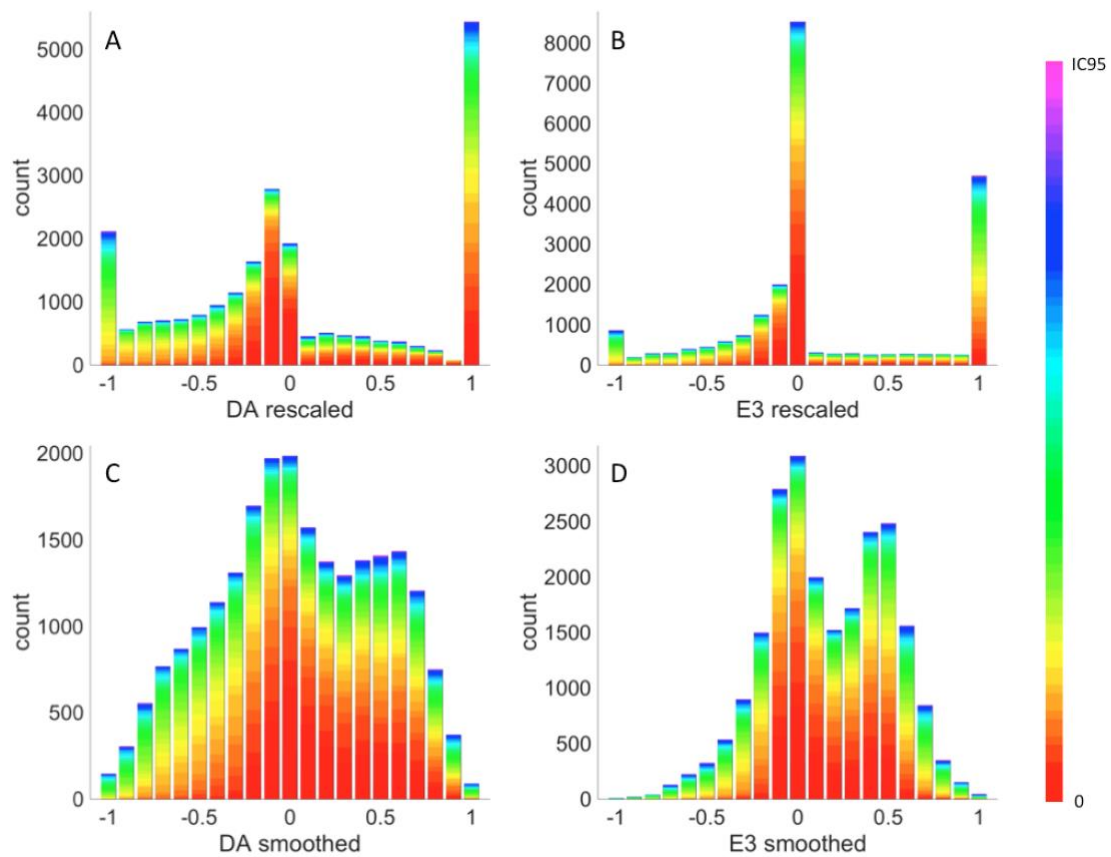
557
558
559

Figure 1.

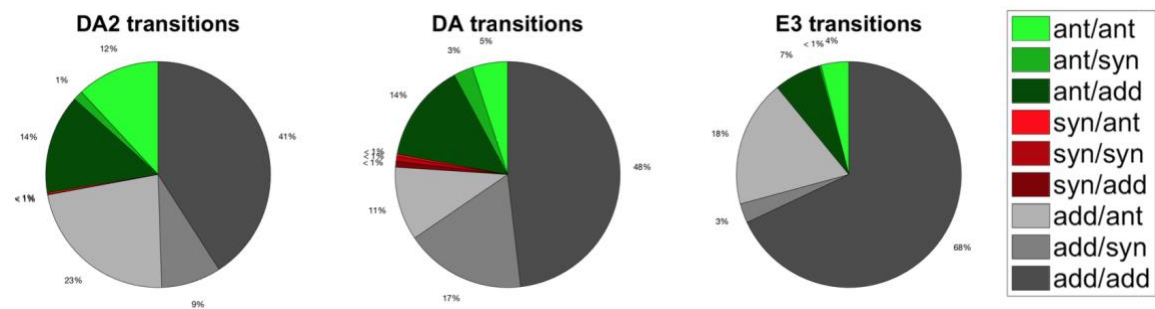


560
561
562

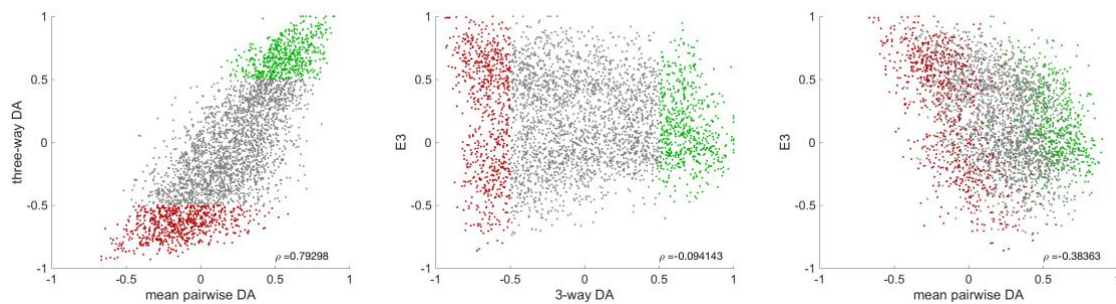
Figure 2.



563
564 Figure 3.
565



566
567 Figure 4.
568



569
570 Figure 5.
571