

1 **Title**

2 **The evolution of trait correlations constrains phenotypic adaptation to high CO₂ in a**
3 **eukaryotic alga**

4

5 **Running Title**

6 **Biogeochemically important, multi-trait adaptation in a eukaryotic alga**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Microbes form the base of food webs and drive biogeochemical cycling. Predicting the effects of
26 microbial evolution on global elemental cycles remains a significant challenge due to the sheer
27 number of interacting environmental and trait combinations. Here we present an approach for
28 modeling the interactive effects of *de novo* biological change and multivariate trait correlation
29 evolution using principal component axes. We investigated the outcome of thousands of possible
30 adaptive walks parameterized using empirical evolution data from the alga *Chlamydomonas*
31 exposed to high CO₂. We found that only a limited number of phenotypes emerged. Applying
32 adaptive trait correlations to the starting population (historical bias) accelerated adaptation while
33 highly convergent, nonrandom phenotypic solutions emerged irrespective of bias. These findings
34 are consistent with a limited set of evolutionary trajectories underlying the vast amount of possible
35 trait combinations (phenotypes). Critically, we demonstrate that these dynamics emerge in an
36 empirically defined multidimensional trait space and show that trait correlations, in addition to
37 trait values, must evolve to explain multi-trait adaptation. Identifying high probability high-fitness
38 outcomes based on trait correlations is necessary in order to connect microbial evolutionary
39 responses to biogeochemical cycling, thereby enabling the incorporation of these dynamics into
40 global ecosystem models.

41

42 **Keywords:** microbial evolution, trait correlations, trait adaptation, phytoplankton,
43 biogeochemistry, PCA

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46

47 **Introduction**

48 Microbes play a critical role in regulating biogeochemistry and the global climate. In recent
49 years, there has been a significant increase in global change studies examining the roles of
50 microbial evolution in shaping future biogeochemical cycles. This work has helped to more
51 explicitly integrate the fields of evolution and microbial ecology resulting in both long-term
52 experimental evolution studies with ecologically important microbes and, to a limited extent, the
53 incorporation of adaptation into ecological and ocean circulation models [1-13]. These studies are
54 just the first step in tackling the immensely complex challenge of microbial evolution and its
55 influence on global biogeochemistry. Critically, we still have only a limited understanding of how
56 microbial communities will respond to multi-stressor and fluctuating environmental change, and
57 the sheer number of interacting environmental and trait combinations exceeds our experimental
58 ability to do so [14,15]. Hence, experimental and theoretical methods to reduce dimensionality and
59 extract broad evolutionary patterns across traits and taxa are critical for creating a predictive
60 framework that can both help guide experiments and make more accurate future predictions [5].

61 Here, we aim to understand how different evolutionary starting points derived from
62 multiple traits and their relationships (historical bias) can constrain overarching evolutionary
63 trajectories of phenotypes (suites of traits) in microbial populations adapting to environmental
64 change. We broadly define bias as standing trait correlations (i.e., relationships) in a population
65 that are heritable and can impact fitness such that, over time, these correlations can constrain the
66 direction of evolution [16]. Since our overall goal is to assess how biogeochemically-important,
67 microbial traits and their relationships will evolve in response to future environmental change, our
68 approach is designed to facilitate future integration into global biogeochemical models.
69 Specifically, our framework can be used to replace an assumption commonly used in

70 biogeochemical models that existing interspecific trait relationships will govern future microbial
71 phenotypes such that fixed tradeoffs determine competitive outcomes across different
72 environmental conditions. In reality, tradeoffs can evolve [17] and microbial populations can
73 display different plastic and evolutionary responses [10,18]. Furthermore, growing evidence
74 demonstrates that intraspecific trait variation can be significant in phytoplankton, and that
75 constraints on trait relationships will bias evolutionary trajectories of biogeochemically important
76 microbial populations in the face of environmental change [19-21].

77 Seminal research modeling the interaction of complex trait relationships, inheritance,
78 epistasis, and metabolic networks has been conducted on theoretical populations experiencing
79 environmental change [16-20]. These studies have broadly found that an evolving population may
80 be able to access only a subset of phenotypes depending on both its initial trait values and trait
81 correlations. Specifically, these studies (e.g., [16,22,23]) have used quantitative genetics
82 approaches to study adaptive walks accounting for uncertainty inherent in trait variation, genotypic
83 variability, inheritance, and environmental variability. They created theoretical frameworks using
84 multivariate and eigenvector methods to examine evolutionary trade-offs between biological and
85 environmental dimensions over time through primarily accounting for the standing genetic
86 variation. Other theoretical approaches emphasized the role of de novo mutation in a fitness
87 landscape without accounting for standing genetic variation [23,24]. These studies are often
88 entirely theoretical [24,25], or empirically limited by the need to measure the fitness impacts of
89 every possible single mutation. Here, we have created a blended approach at the trait level that
90 models how de novo trait changes map onto standing trait variation, and parameterized our model
91 with empirical trait data from a laboratory evolution experiment.

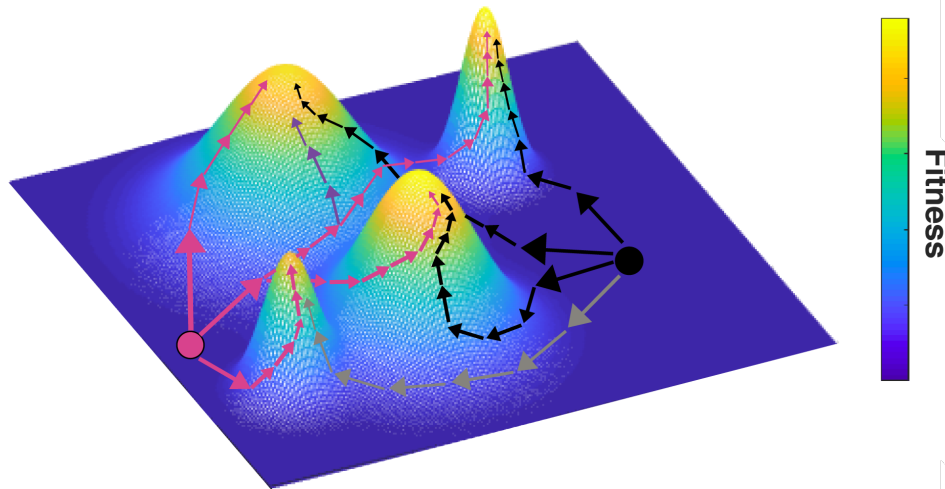


Fig. 1. Comparison of adaptive walks between two different phenotypes in a rugged fitness landscape with four high-fitness peaks Two example starting phenotypes are represented as circles (magenta and black). The x- and y-axis represent dimensions in fitness space (e.g., different traits). The phenotypes start with low fitness (z-axis) and through trait and trait-correlation changes move to higher fitness. The adaptive walk is governed by historical bias, or different initial trait architecture, that impacts the movement of the population within the landscape. As the adaptive walk proceeds, the population moves to the top of one of the fitness peaks. While there are several paths available to each starting phenotype (represented by magenta and black arrows), due to historical bias (trait correlation constraints), some paths can be inaccessible (denoted by the grey and purple arrows). Note that depending on historical bias (i.e., phenotypic starting location), some high fitness peaks are either more difficult to access or completely inaccessible.

92 Previous studies in developmental bias have used empirical data to demonstrate that
93 biological systems will produce certain phenotypic variants more readily than others in response
94 to a perturbation (mutation or environmental change) due to the inherent structure, composition,
95 and evolutionary history of a population [26,27]. These findings contrast with the long-held
96 assumption of isotropic (i.e. equal) variation [28] and have revealed instead that only a limited part
97 of multivariate phenotypic space (i.e. only certain phenotypes) can be accessed [29]. Critically,
98 this explains why not all viable trait combinations are explored [28]. In summary, a growing body
99 of literature has shown that genetic architecture influences how traits and trait correlations are

100 impacted by environmental shifts and that these shifts produce nonrandom distributions of
101 phenotypes [30-32].

102 While inaccessible trait combinations (i.e. phenotypes) have been well-documented in the
103 evolutionary literature [23,26,28] [16,22,33], there have been few attempts to investigate the
104 implications of this phenomenon for the evolution of trait and trait correlations of photosynthetic
105 microbes [19,20]. Therefore, we lack a fundamental understanding of how evolutionary dynamics
106 can impact biogeochemical cycling when both trait values and trait correlations evolve.
107 Specifically, constraints on how trait combinations evolve in phytoplankton have the potential to
108 impact rates of carbon cycling and shifts in aquatic ecosystem structure that depend on these
109 microscopic primary producers [34,35].

110 Fig. 1 shows an illustrative example of a rugged fitness landscape (i.e., multiple high-
111 fitness peaks) where each peak represents high-fitness trait combinations (phenotypes). In this
112 example landscape, there are 4 equally high-fitness peaks. However, the accessibility of each peak
113 differs depending on the starting location (ancestral trait values) and the initial trajectory, which is
114 dictated by a population's collective trait relationships (Fig. 1, magenta and black circles and
115 paths). Ultimately, to robustly study microbial trait evolution, we need a framework that allows us
116 to estimate probable evolutionary trajectories given both starting trait combinations and trait
117 correlations (historical bias). Below, we introduce such a framework using empirical evolution
118 data from a eukaryotic alga. The TRAit Correlation Evolution (TRACE) model is a first step
119 towards investigating how correlated metabolic traits with clear biogeochemical significance may
120 impact elemental cycling under environmental change (e.g., ocean acidification). Using a trait-
121 based fitness landscape generated using empirical data from an experimental evolution study with
122 the eukaryotic alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, we found that only a handful of phenotypic

123 variants were reproducible both with and without historical bias. Overall adaptive rates (defined
124 as the number of generations to reach maximum fitness) were impacted by the amount and type of
125 bias (trait correlations) in the model. These results indicate that populations harboring trait
126 correlations oriented in (i.e. consistent with) the direction of selection may experience accelerated
127 rates of adaptation. Understanding which trait relationships inform the probability of adaptive
128 microbial phenotypes will be critical for predicting the short- and long-term contribution of
129 biogeochemically-important traits to biogeochemical cycling.

130

131 **Materials and Methods**

132 *PCA*

133 Ancestral and evolved trait values from low-CO₂ and high-CO₂ adapted populations across
134 5 genotypes of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* were obtained from Lindberg et al. (2020) [3] and can
135 be found in Supplementary File 1. We selected four independent ecologically relevant traits:
136 growth rate, respiration, cell size, and daughter cell production. All empirical trait values were
137 standardized for both ancestral and evolved data. Principal component analyses (PCA) were
138 conducted on ancestral traits resulting in 48% and 37% of the variance explained on axes PC1 and
139 PC2, respectively, and 54% and 32% for evolved traits (Fig. 2a). For both ancestral and evolved
140 PCAs, or trait-scapes, there are 6 trait correlations, which can be found in Supplementary File 1.
141 These PCAs served as the trait-based fitness landscape (trait-scape) for the modeled adaptive walk.

142 To select a start and end point for the adaptive walk, ancestral populations were projected
143 onto the evolved PC axes. A single genotype was selected for the modeling exercise where the
144 observed ancestral trait values defined the start point of the adaptive walk (tan circle in Fig. 2b;
145 row 20 in the ancestral trait value matrix in Supplementary File 1) and the corresponding evolved

146 population trait values defined the evolutionary endpoint (red circle in Fig. 2b; row 20 in the
147 evolved trait value matrix in Supplementary File 1).

148

149 *TRACE Model*

150 The TRAit Correlation Evolution (TRACE) model framework simulates the adaptive walk
151 of a microbial population across a trait landscape (trait-scape) towards a high-fitness area. TRACE
152 was adapted from an individual based Fisher model of adaptation [1,36,37]. Each generation, each
153 individual in the population experienced either a change in trait values or changes in trait and trait-
154 correlations. Changes in trait values moved these individuals across the trait-scape while trait-
155 correlations constrained the direction of movement. Selection was imposed based on distance to
156 the evolutionary end-point in the evolved trait-scape (described below), such that the population
157 evolved towards the high fitness region of the trait-scape. In essence, this framework selected for
158 individuals with the smallest overall difference across all trait values from the empirically observed
159 high fitness phenotype. The weighting of the traits was derived from the observed evolved
160 phenotypes evaluated using PCA, such that traits that were not observed to play an important role
161 in fitness in the high-CO₂ environment had low weight. It is important to note that the model did
162 not directly select for trait correlations, but that specific correlations emerged in the population if
163 they provided a fitness advantage in terms of trait dynamics.

164 In the default model simulations (referred to as 90/10), 90% of individuals were randomly
165 chosen to experience a random change in a trait value (while maintaining all existing trait-
166 correlations) while 10% experienced both a trait and trait-correlation change. These changes were
167 drawn from a Gaussian distribution (mean = 0 and standard deviation = 0.05) such that small
168 changes were common and large changes were rare. For each individual, the randomly chosen trait

169 change was added to the existing trait value. Following this first trait change, the remaining 3 trait
170 values were updated using the trait correlations for that individual in that time step. For example,
171 if trait 1 was initially changed, then traits 2, 3, and 4 would subsequently be updated by multiplying
172 the new trait 1 value by the three trait correlations ($1v_2$, $1v_3$, and $1v_4$). To test if the sequence of
173 correlational changes influenced adaptive outcomes in our model, we changed the order in which
174 traits were updated and showed that results remained unchanged as expected (Supplementary Fig.
175 1; Supplementary text).

176 The remaining 10% of the population experienced both a trait and a trait correlation change.
177 For each individual, one of the six trait correlations was randomly selected to change. Similar to
178 the trait change, a random value was drawn from a Gaussian distribution with a mean of 0 and
179 standard deviation of 0.05 and added to the existing correlation value. Next, one of the two traits
180 associated with that correlation was randomly chosen and a trait change was selected in the same
181 manner as above. Next, we updated the second trait tied to the correlation using the new correlation
182 and trait value (the other 2 trait values were not updated in this generation).

183 Selection was imposed using distance to the high fitness area (evolutionary end coordinate)
184 as a measure of fitness. Following changes to the respective traits and correlations, all individuals
185 in the population were projected back onto the evolved trait-scape (i.e., evolved PCA) using the
186 evolved factor loadings. The Euclidian distances (z) were calculated for each individual relative to
187 the evolutionary endpoint. Next, fitness was calculated as [1,36]:

188
$$w(z) = e^{(-z^2)/2}$$
 Eq. 1

189 Finally, individuals were randomly sampled with replacement weighted by fitness to persist to the
190 next generation. This selective approach through probabilistic weighting of fitness was adapted
191 from our previous studies [1,36] inspired by Fisher's model of adaptation [37].

192

193 *Model simulations:*

194 The model was initialized with a population of 1000 individuals with the same trait values
195 corresponding to the ancestral trait values. The evolved trait-scape (i.e. evolved PCA), the
196 population starting location (tan circle in Fig. 2b), and the high fitness area (red circle in Fig. 2b)
197 in the evolved trait-scape were defined based on empirical data from the *Chlamydomonas* long-
198 term evolution study [3]. Three different modes of the model were run with varying amounts of
199 starting bias using different starting trait correlations: mixed, ancestral, and evolution (described
200 below). Each model run was conducted for 2000 generations with 100 replicates each. All model
201 parameters are given in Supplementary Table 1. Previous work by us and others have demonstrated
202 that adaptive outcomes using this framework are robust across a wide range of population sizes
203 (Supplementary text) [1,36]. Several sensitivity studies were conducted to test model dynamics.
204 Briefly, we ran the model with a different starting location, varied the order in which traits were
205 updated, removed the influence of trait correlations on evolutionary outcomes, and varied the ratio
206 of trait to trait correlation changes. Detailed explanations and figures can be found in the
207 Supplementary Information.

208

209 *Mixed mode (no bias) simulations:* To first test all possible routes available to travel from the
210 ancestral start point to the evolutionary end point in the evolved trait-scape (Fig. 2b), random
211 correlation values from a standard uniform distribution over the interval (-1,1) were generated and
212 randomly assigned to all individuals within the population. Hence, every individual started with
213 the same 4 trait values but completely random correlation values.

214

215 *Ancestral mode simulations:* To test the effects of systematically adding ancestral bias, four
216 ancestral sub-modes were conducted: A1, A2, A3, and A4. For simplicity, we chose to sequentially
217 add back in ancestral correlations based on the empirically calculated significant trait-correlations
218 from most significant to least significant ($R^2 = -0.89$ to 0.54 ; see Fig. 2C). For sub-mode A1,
219 random correlation values were generated as above for 5 of the 6 trait correlations, and one
220 empirical ancestral correlation was added back to all individuals. This resulted in a starting
221 population in which each individual contained the same 4 trait values, one ancestral trait
222 correlation value shared across all individuals, and random correlation values for 5 of the 6 trait
223 correlations. The rest of the model steps proceeded as above where all traits and correlations were
224 allowed to change. For A2, all steps were the same except that two empirical ancestral correlations
225 were added. Finally, three and four ancestral correlations were added back for A3 and A4,
226 respectively.

227

228 *Evolved mode simulations:* The same procedure was conducted for the evolved mode but instead
229 empirical evolved correlations were systematically added (modes E1 – E4).

230

231 *Hierarchical Clustering*

232 Hierarchical clustering with multiscale bootstrap resampling (1,000 replicates) on mean trait
233 correlation values was conducted using R package pvclust [38] using Euclidean distance and the
234 average (UPGMA) method. Principal component analysis using mean correlation values was
235 conducted with package R package vegan [39], and pvclust clusters with approximately unbiased
236 (AU) p-values $> 75\%$ were projected onto the PC coordinate plane as convex hulls.

237

238 **Results**

239 *Collapsed multivariate trait-scape*

240 The complexity of multi-dimensional trait evolution requires a tractable framework to
241 understand how trait adaptation might proceed. Previous work has shown that complex trait
242 adaptation and fitness variations can be represented in a reduced dimensional space, specifically
243 using Principle Component axes [20,40]. Building on this work, we created a trait-based landscape
244 or ‘*trait-scape*’ for the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* adaptation to high-CO₂ using four
245 ecologically relevant traits (growth rate, respiration, cell size, and daughter cell production).
246 Specifically, using the output from an experimental evolution study [3] with replicate populations
247 of 5 genotypes of *C. reinhardtii*, we demonstrated that both trait values and the correlations
248 between traits changed as the population adapted from a low-CO₂ environment (ancestral
249 environment) to a high-CO₂ environment (evolved environment; Fig. 2). Specifically, all four traits
250 changed to varying degrees depending on the genotype [3], and correlations between traits changed
251 upon high-CO₂ adaptation with some traits becoming correlated (e.g., 1v2) while others becoming
252 uncorrelated (e.g., 2v4; Fig 2c). This resulted in distinct differences between the PCAs (trait-
253 scapes) for the ancestral and evolved populations (Fig. 2). As the specific traits themselves are not
254 relevant for this study, we will hereafter refer to them as traits 1-4. We refer the reader to [3] for
255 an in-depth discussion of the evolution experiment.

256 To understand how *C. reinhardtii* genotypes adapted to high CO₂, we compared the
257 ancestral genotypes (projection of the ancestral trait values onto the evolved trait-scape) to the
258 evolved genotypes (evolved trait values in evolved trait-scape; Fig. 2b). Fig. 2b shows where
259 replicate populations of ancestral genotypes (empty circles) are located in the evolved trait-scape
260 relative to their corresponding evolved genotypes (filled circles). This analysis demonstrates that

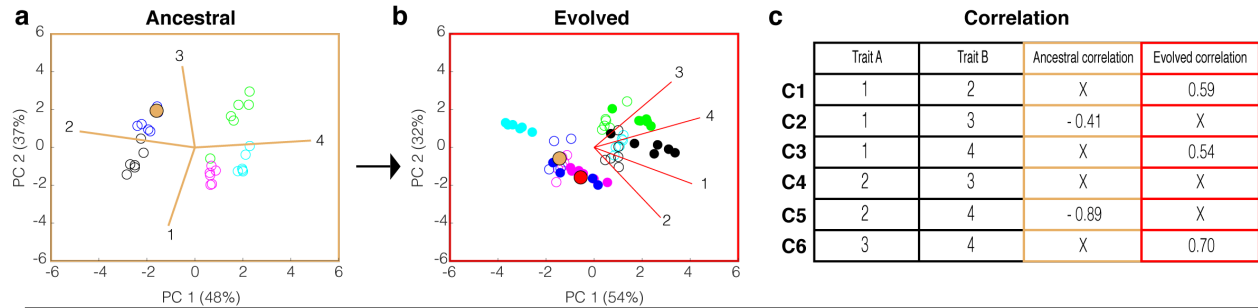


Fig. 2 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of ancestral and evolved trait values, respectively, and their trait correlations. a) Ancestral PCA calculated from the values of 4 ancestral traits across 5 genotypes where each point represents an independent biological population (i.e. culture) colored by genotype. Percentages along PC1 and PC2 denote the amount of variance explained by each PC axis, respectively. b) Evolved PCA plot calculated from the evolved values of the same 4 traits as in a) across 5 genotypes. Filled circles represent the independent populations of the evolved genotypes. Open circles represent the corresponding populations of the ancestral genotypes in a) projected onto the evolved PC axes. The tan and red filled circles denote the start and end coordinate of the model, respectively. c) Table of all 6 possible trait combinations and their values in their ancestral and evolved genotypes. An ‘X’ indicates a non-statistically significant trait correlation ($p > 0.05$).

261 PC axes can provide a reduced dimensional space (trait-scape) for understanding how multiple
 262 traits simultaneously respond to environmental perturbation, similar to what has been shown in
 263 previous studies [20,28,40]. To understand how trait movement within this collapsed multi-
 264 dimensional trait-scape can be constrained by historical bias (previous correlations between traits),
 265 we developed a statistical model of multi-trait adaptation and investigated probabilities of different
 266 emergent evolutionary outcomes.

267

268 *Simulating TRAIT Correlation Evolution*

269 Using the TRACE model, we explored the impact of historical bias (i.e., correlations
 270 between traits) on an adaptive walk where the trait-based fitness landscape and start and
 271 evolutionary end-points were defined by empirical data. We began with a ‘null hypothesis’ model
 272 in which there was no historical bias (mixed mode simulation) and then systematically added in

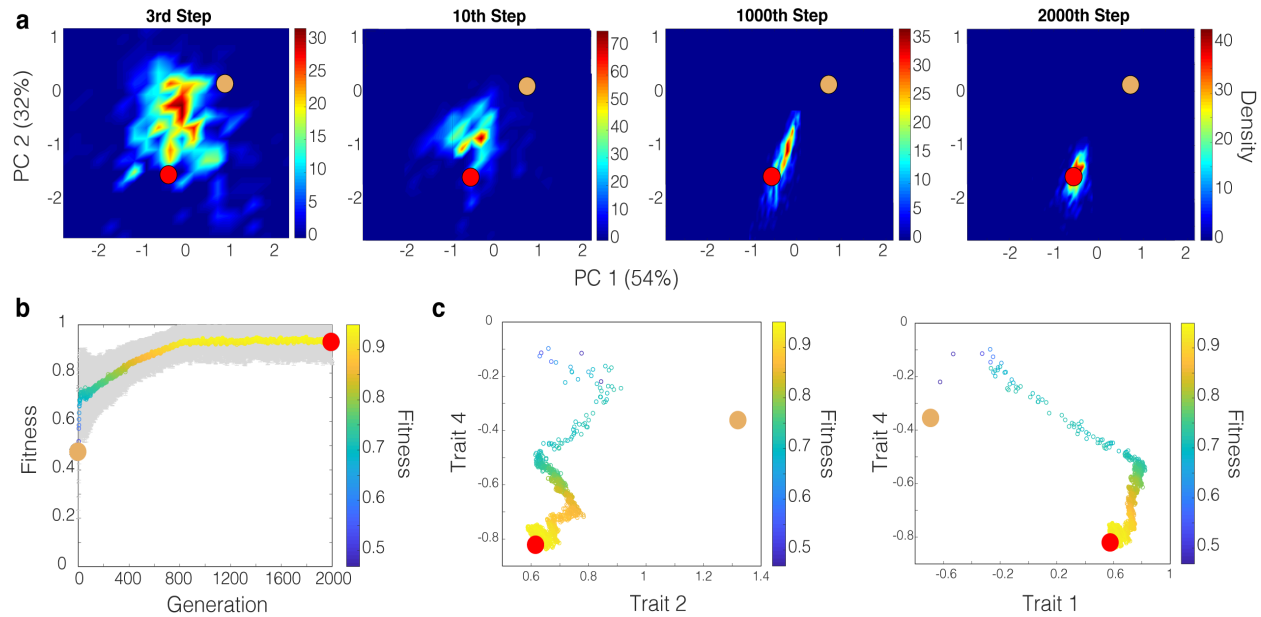


Fig. 3 Representative adaptive walk in evolved PC space of a population of 1000 individuals. a) Density plots of an adaptive walk of a single population for a single run ($n = 1000$ individuals) starting at the tan dot and ending at the red dot. Each plot represents a different point in time (i.e. generation) in the adaptive walk with the color representing the density of individuals in a given area. b) Fitness plot of the population across the entire adaptive walk with the colored line and grey region representing the mean and standard deviation, respectively. Both the y-axis and color indicate fitness. c) Trait vs. trait plots representing the same adaptive walk where lower fitness denotes the start of the walk and high fitness denotes the end. As in b), each point represents the mean standardized trait value of all individuals at a specific generation, or step.

273 bias to determine the impact on population level adaptation. An example of model dynamics from
 274 a single run in mixed mode is shown in Fig. 3a where a representative population consisting of a
 275 thousand individuals moved over time from the ancestral starting phenotype to the evolved high
 276 fitness area (Fig. 3a). This resulted in an overall increase in fitness of the population over time (Fig
 277 3b). The underlying dynamics of the model (changes in trait values and trait correlation changes)
 278 for 3 representative traits are shown in Fig. 3c.

279 Consistent with prior studies examining evolution under relatively strong selective pressure
 280 [1,36], fitness effects produced from changes at the beginning of the walk were significantly
 281 greater than at the end of the walk [41-44] (Fig. 3). As the model ran forward in time, individuals
 282 within the population explored the collapsed trait-scape through changes to both traits and their

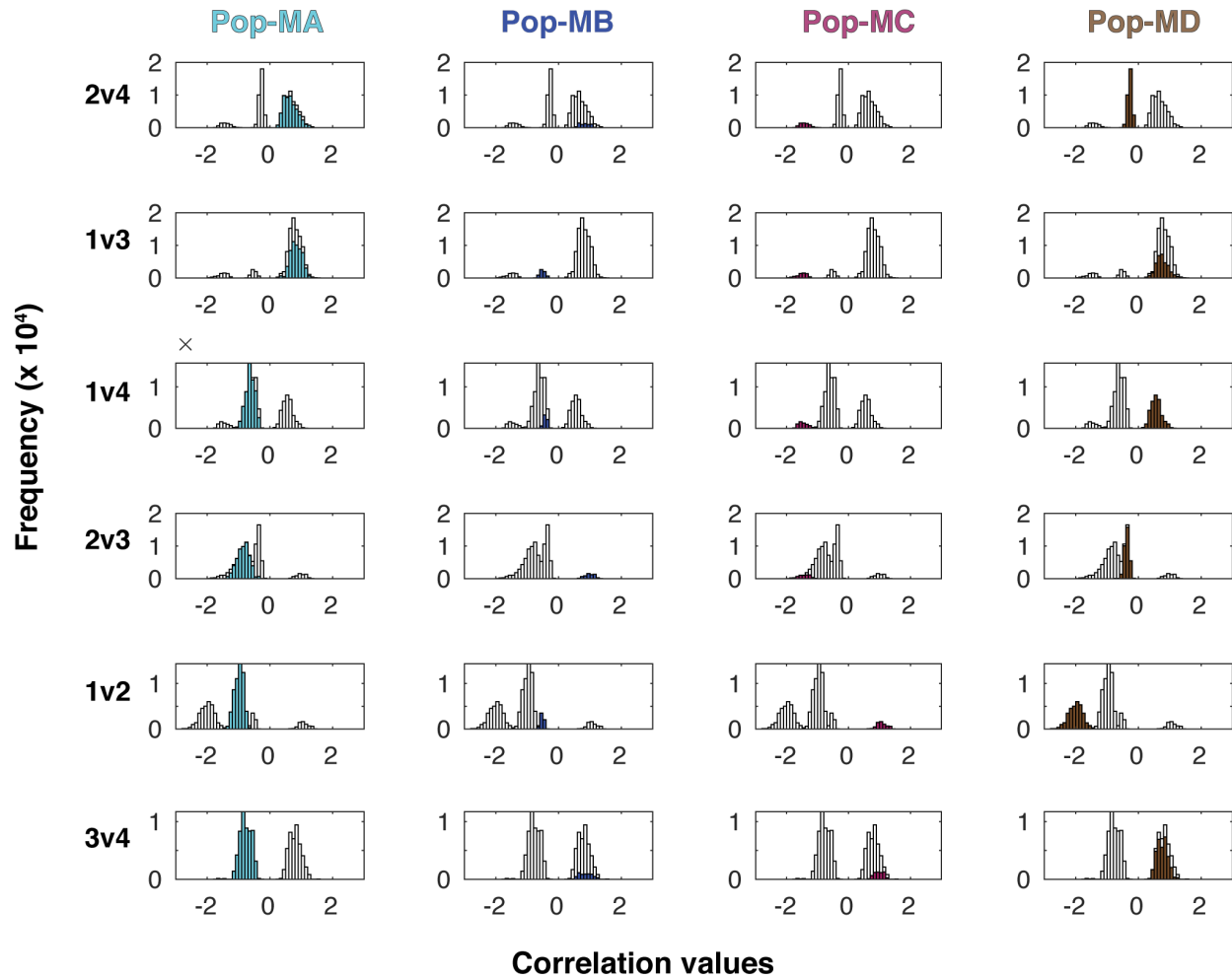


Fig. 4 Four distinct, emergent phenotypes from model runs seeded with no bias. Each row displays one of the six possible trait correlations (2v4, 1v3, 1v4, 2v3, 1v2, and 3v4) with the distribution of the emergent trait correlation values for all individuals in all replicate runs (N=100,000) shown in grey. Highlighted in color in each subplot are the trait correlation values for the individuals belonging to each of the emergent phenotypes, or populations (columns). Each phenotype has a clearly defined set of trait correlation values. For example, the 2v4 mean correlation for Pop-MA was 0.66 +/- 0.22 while the 2v4 mean correlation for pop-MD was -0.28 +/- 0.07. Pop-Ma and Pop-MD were the most accessible phenotypes and so the trait-correlation values associated with these phenotypes had the largest frequency (y-axis, note scale of 10⁴).

283 correlations (Fig. 3). Although some individuals reached a maximum possible fitness of 1 (i.e., the
 284 evolutionary end coordinate), the mean population fitness consistently remained below 1 (Fig. 3b).
 285 This is due to the fact that the model is simultaneously optimizing multiple traits and their
 286 correlations, which inherently introduces small but significant amounts of persistent phenotypic
 287 variation. In addition, while average movement of the population was fairly linearly in PC space
 288 (Fig. 3a), the trajectory of trait changes was not linear (Fig. 3c).

289 At the final generation (2000th generation), we examined the distribution of each trait
290 correlation (1v2, 1v3, 1v4, 2v3, 2v4, and 3v4) across all individuals in all replicate runs (1000
291 individuals x 100 replicate runs = 100,000 individuals total). Four distinct phenotypes (i.e., traits
292 + trait correlations for the final population) emerged all with statistically analogous end mean
293 fitness. Figure 4 displays the emergent trait correlations for the four phenotypes (Pop-MA, Pop-
294 MB, Pop-MC, and Pop-MD). As these four phenotypes occurred in the same region of the trait-
295 scape but have distinct trait correlations and, to some extent distinct trait values, we term them
296 ‘cryptic phenotypes’. In other words, these cryptic phenotypes represent four distinct evolutionary
297 outcomes of different trait correlations + trait values that all converged on the single evolutionary
298 end coordinate in the evolved trait-scape. For some correlations such as trait 1 vs trait 2 (1v2),
299 little to no overlap was observed across each of the 4 phenotypes (Fig. 4, row 5), while for others,
300 several phenotypes shared the same trait correlations. For example, individuals in Pop-MA and
301 Pop-MD shared the same 1v3 correlation (Fig. 4, row 2, columns 1 and 4). In contrast, Pop-MA
302 and Pop-MD have a completely different relationship for 1v4 (Fig. 4, row 3, columns 1 and 4). An
303 example pairwise trait-trait plot is shown in Fig. 5a where the 4 phenotypes can be identified in
304 terms of their trait values. While the four phenotypes distinctly separated in terms of trait 2 and
305 trait 4, there was significant overlap for other traits such as trait 2 vs trait 3 (Supplementary Fig.
306 2). Thus, the cryptic phenotypes shared some trait correlations but diverged in others. These
307 findings are consistent with experimental evolution studies that observed convergent phenotypes
308 derived from a mix of parallel and divergent mutational and transcriptional changes across
309 replicate populations evolving to the same environment [7,45-48]. The emergence of multiple
310 high-fitness phenotypes (e.g., Fig. 5a) occupying a single high fitness area in multivariate space

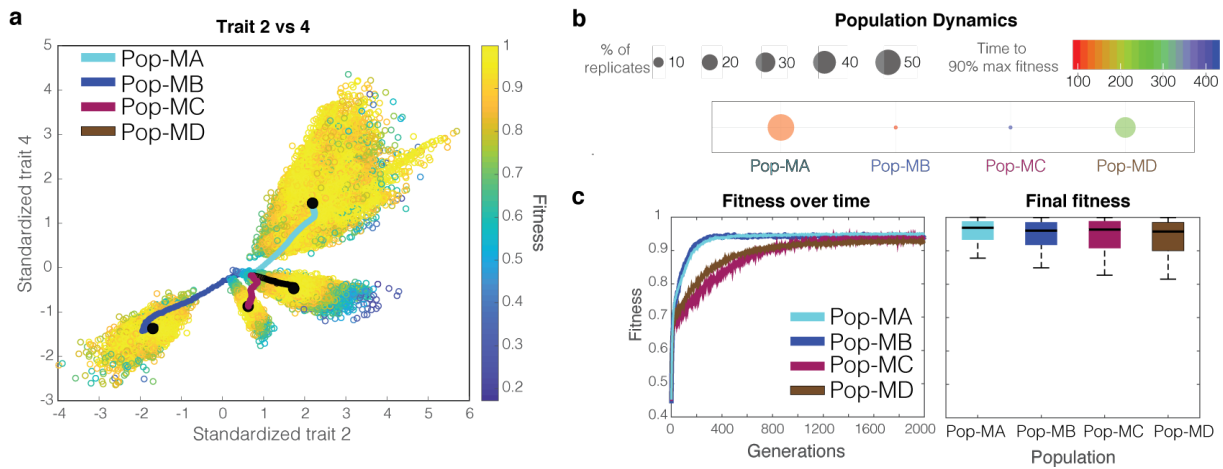


Fig. 5 Representative trait, population, and fitness dynamics for a mixed-mode model run with default model dynamics (90/10) a) Trait vs. trait plot denoting the 4 distinct populations (i.e. phenotypes) that emerged from 100 replicate model runs in mixed mode (i.e., no bias). Each hollow point represents the final trait values of a given individual in the last generation (2000th generation) colored by fitness defined by the trait-scape. Colored lines represent the average trait values at each generation for each population with the black point denoting the final generation. b) Population dynamics of the 4 emergent populations showing the number of replicates (out of 100) that chose specific populations (size of circle) along with each population's rate of adaptation (color of circles). c) The left plot displays the fitness of each population over time while the right displays boxplots representing the distribution of the final fitness values across all individuals of all replicate runs (n = 100,000). Black lines in the boxplots denote the median with the edges denoting the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively.

311 demonstrates that our model captures a rugged trait-based fitness landscape with multiple high-
 312 fitness peaks (e.g., Fig. 1).

313 The accessibility of the four phenotypes that emerged from the population without any bias
 314 was considerably different. Here we define accessibility as the fraction of replicates that converged
 315 on an emergent phenotype. Pop-MA was the most accessible with 55% of replicates converging
 316 on this phenotype while Pop-MD was the second most accessible with 33% (Fig. 5b). Pop-MA
 317 also exhibited the most variance in trait values within the population (i.e., broadest peak when
 318 plotted in more traditional pairwise trait space; e.g., Fig. 1 and Fig. 5a), indicating a relatively
 319 larger range of trait values conferring high-fitness with associated Pop-MA's trait correlations.
 320 The most accessible phenotype, Pop-MA, also had the fastest rate of fitness gain (Fig. 5b, c),
 321 potentially indicating that this phenotype is the most accessible from our experimentally derived

322 starting location. Although Pop-MA and Pop-MB exhibited similar rates of adaptation (Fig. 5c,
323 left plot), Pop-MB was not nearly as accessible with only 6% of the replicates converging on this
324 phenotype (Fig. 5b). Instead, Pop-MD with a slower adaptive rate was the second most accessible
325 phenotype (Fig. 5b, c). Pop-MA and Pop-MD trait correlations were more similar overall than
326 those of Pop-MB.

327 To examine the impact of ancestral starting point on the emergent phenotypes, we ran the
328 mixed-mode model using a second starting location (i.e., trait values) in the trait-scape that was
329 equidistant to the high fitness area. These model runs converged on 3 of the 4 phenotypes observed
330 with the empirical starting location (Pop-MA, Pop-MB, and Pop-MD). However, shifting the
331 starting location resulted in Pop-MB becoming the most accessible phenotype with the former
332 two most populous phenotypes, Pop-MA and Pop-MD, represented by only 24% and 9% of
333 replicates, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 3). No replicate found Pop-MC and no new
334 phenotypes emerged. These runs indicate that high-fitness areas of the trait-scape were conserved,
335 and that starting an adaptive walk from another location influenced the accessibility of certain
336 phenotypes thereby biasing evolutionary outcomes. The fact that no new populations emerged
337 further supports the ability of this framework to capture the known phenomenon that there are a
338 limited number of accessible phenotypes [28].

339 We then tested the influence of trait correlational constraints on evolutionary trajectories
340 by randomly changing traits independently of trait correlations (i.e., ignoring trait relationships).
341 Here, every individual experienced a random trait change, but no other traits were updated based
342 on trait correlations resulting in unconstrained movement across the trait-scape. We found that
343 only one phenotype emerged, as expected, but in contrast to the simulations where trait correlations
344 were included (Supplementary Fig. 4; Supplementary text). Here, individuals were unconstrained

345 by bias and so were able to quickly move directly to the high-fitness area. This demonstrates that
346 trait correlational constraints can produce different evolutionary strategies (i.e., emergent, cryptic
347 phenotypes), and if constraints are not present, individuals are able to more freely explore
348 phenotypic space and arrive at the high-fitness phenotype more rapidly.

349 We also tested the sensitivity of the model dynamics to the underlying model assumptions
350 of the frequency of trait and trait correlation changes (default Mode 90/10, 90% of individuals
351 experience a trait change only and 10% experience both a trait + trait correlation change).
352 Specifically, the model was run in two other modes: for every generation, 1) 50% of individuals
353 experienced a trait change and 50% experienced both a trait and correlation change (Mode 50/50)
354 and 2) 10% of individuals experienced a trait change and 90% of individuals experienced both a
355 trait and correlation change (Mode 10/90). All other parameters stayed the same. Mode 50/50
356 found the same 4 phenotypes as the default Mode 90/10 while Mode 10/90 found the two most
357 accessible phenotypes, Pop-MA and Pop-MD (Supplementary Fig. 5). No new populations
358 emerged. The fact that some combination of the same phenotypes emerged from each of the three
359 independently run modes provides further evidence for a robust, conserved trait-scape with limited
360 high-fitness phenotypes derived from a population with no historical bias.

361 *Adding Historical Bias*

362 The mixed-mode model runs presented above represent a null hypothesis where organisms
363 start with no constraint (e.g., bias) on trait-trait relationships. Next, we assessed the impact of
364 adding trait-correlation bias through the systematic addition of empirical ancestral (sub-modes A1
365 - A4) and evolved (sub-modes E1 – E4) correlations. For both ancestral and evolved modes,
366 systematically adding more bias (i.e., going from A1 – A4 and E1 – E4, respectively,) changed the
367 accessibility of the high-fitness phenotypes across replicate runs (Fig. 6). In other words, adding

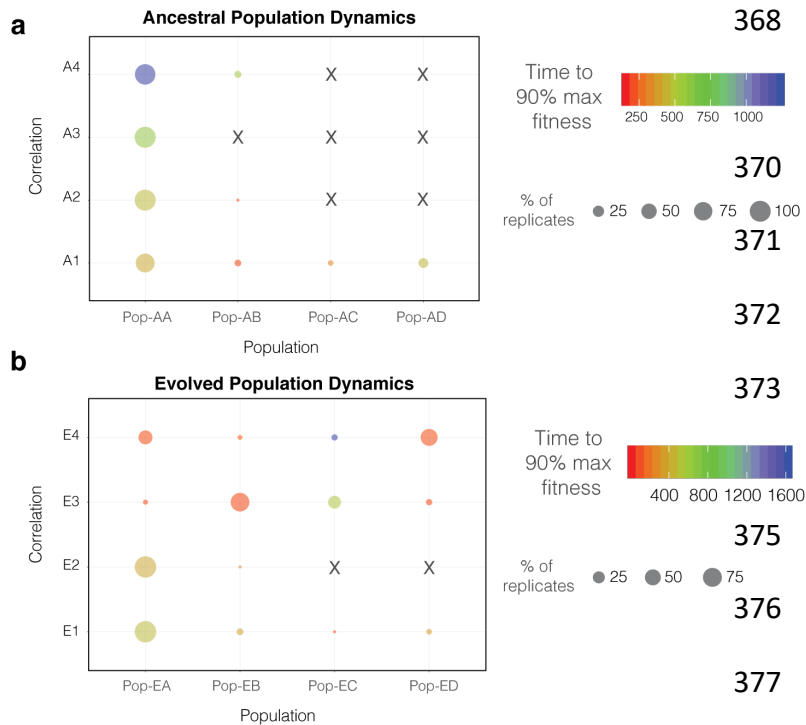


Fig. 6 Dynamics of emergent populations in simulations with different historical bias. a) Bubble plot showing emergent populations as a function of adding empirical ancestral correlations (ancestral bias). Bubble size denotes the number of replicates (out of 100) within a specific population while bubble color represents each population's rate of adaptation (color of circles). b) Same plot as in a) except with adding empirical evolved correlations (evolved bias).

368 different types of bias influenced
 369 adaptive walks across the trait-
 370 scape by introducing constraints in
 371 the form of trait relationships (e.g.,
 372 different paths depicted in Fig. 1).
 373 However, the type of bias (e.g.,
 374 ancestral vs evolved correlations)
 375 had a different impact on
 376 phenotype accessibility. Bias from
 377 the ancestral correlations was

382 evolved trait relationships (i.e., consistent with the trait-scape) generally resulted in faster adaptive
 383 rates and greater overall accessibility to adaptive phenotypes (Fig. 6b). These results are consistent
 384 with prior observations where bias (e.g., trait correlations) accelerated adaptive evolution if
 385 existing biological orientation aligned with the direction of selection but constrained adaptation if
 386 it limited variability in the direction of selection [16,17,28]. Here we show these same modeled
 387 dynamics occur when using a collapsed multi-variate trait-space and including trait correlations as
 388 a constraint on an adaptive walk. Specifically, depending on a starting population's bias, different
 389 phenotypes are more probable than others with some being generally inaccessible as found in other
 390 studies [28,29].

391

392 *Meta-analysis of phenotypes across different modeled modes*

393 We analyzed results from the mixed (n=1), ancestral (n=4), and evolutionary (n=4) modes
394 to compare emergent phenotypes with different historical biases across independent runs. We
395 assessed the similarity of the high-fitness phenotypes across all model runs (9 runs with 100
396 replicates each) using hierarchical clustering with multiscale bootstrap resampling (1,000
397 replicates) on mean trait correlation values at the 2000th generation (Methods). We also included
398 the empirical data from the ancestral and evolved populations in this analysis. Hierarchical
399 clustering revealed 5 high-confidence clusters (I – V) harboring 93% of the phenotypes (n=26 of
400 28) with approximately unbiased (AU) p-values > 75 (Fig. 7a). Two phenotypes, Pop-MB and
401 Pop-EB-E1, clustered with II and IV, respectively, albeit with less confidence relative to the high-
402 confidence clusters. The empirical ancestral phenotype did not fall within any of the high-
403 confidence clusters, which is expected as the ancestral phenotype was not well-adapted in the

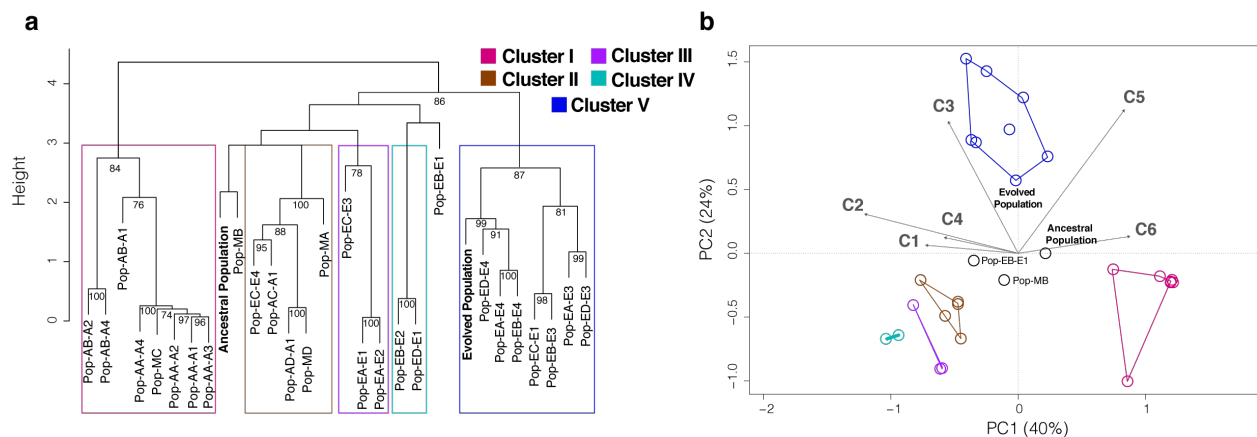


Fig. 7 Hierarchical clustering and Principal Component Analysis of mean trait correlation values calculated across all phenotypes from mixed, ancestral, and evolved mode model simulations a)

Hierarchical clustering with multiscale bootstrap resampling (1,000 replicates) on trait correlation values from the emergent phenotypes (Fig. 4) across all model runs (mixed mode, A1-A4, and E1-E4) along with empirical ancestral and evolved correlation values. Approximately Unbiased (AU) p-values > 75 are labeled at the nodes. We identified five overarching clusters with high-confidence AU p-values (colors), which contained even higher confidence sub-clusters. b) Principal component analyses with trait correlation values as in a) with the 5 clusters projected onto the coordinate plane as convex hulls. Percentages on x and y axes denote the percent of explained variance along each axis. Vectors C1-C6 denote correlations 1-6 as defined in Fig. 2C.

404 evolved trait-scape. In contrast, the empirical evolved population clustered with high-confidence
405 in cluster V, a cluster found by 20% of the replicates including phenotypes from sub-modes E1,
406 E3, and E4 where evolved bias was added. The clustering observed through the hierarchical
407 analysis also emerged through a PC analysis of the population trait correlations. Specifically, we
408 observed 3 general regions of convergence in PC space among the phenotypes, as clusters II, III,
409 and IV collapsed into a small region of the lower left quadrant in the PCA plot (Fig. 7b).
410 Importantly, these convergent regions emerged from thousands of possible trait and correlation
411 values across varying degrees of bias. They provide valuable insight into probable combinations
412 of high-CO₂ adaptive trait correlations along a reduced set of biological axes.

413

414 **Discussion**

415 Here, we combined empirical trait evolution data from a model freshwater alga with a
416 framework that uses eigenvector based methods (principal components) to model multivariate
417 adaptive walks with evolving traits and trait correlations. By leveraging empirical ancestral trait
418 correlations and the observed changes in these correlations as a result of adaptation to high CO₂,
419 we were able to simulate adaptive walks with endpoints anchored in real evolutionary outcomes.
420 The true utility of TRACE lies in its ability to provide insight into multi-trait evolution using trait
421 data from empirical, organismal experiments. Specifically, our model provides a framework for
422 studying the evolution of multiple traits and their potential trade-offs in response to environmental
423 change. This approach generally contrasts with the vast majority of past adaptive walk models that
424 study evolution using hypothetical traits and fitness. Critically, our model captures the same
425 evolutionary phenomena as past models but with a trait-scape characterized by easy-to-quantify
426 and ecologically important traits from globally relevant microbes. From here, we can build on our

427 understanding of key sets of multivariate trait relationships under environmental change. This will
428 be critical for determining how evolving microbial processes will influence global
429 biogeochemistry and carbon cycling in the face of global change. For example, TRACE can
430 provide hypotheses as to the degree of evolvability of certain traits and trait correlations under
431 selective gradients (e.g., CO₂) in a multi-trait landscape and suggest potential multivariate trait
432 tradeoffs.

433 We believe that a framework such as TRACE is essential for more robustly predicting
434 biogeochemical shifts as our framework can capture the contrasting responses of microbes in the
435 short- and long-term. Specifically, TRACE allows for the emergence of trade-offs through
436 evolutionary change. For example, experimental evolution study results suggest that microbes
437 might be able to adapt by increasing their carbon use efficiency and/or increasing cell size at
438 warmer temperatures, contrary to their plastic responses [10,18]. However, this adaptive capacity
439 might not be available when considering other stressors, such as nutrient limitation [49]. Therefore,
440 by combining TRACE with experimental evidence on the co-evolution of traits, we can better
441 constrain the adaptive capacity of microbes. These hypotheses can then be tested with targeted
442 laboratory and field experiments and ultimately integrated into larger biogeochemical models to
443 constrain microbial phenotypes and thus trait distributions under different global change scenarios.

444 Applying TRACE to *Chlamydomonas* evolution under high CO₂, we found that a limited
445 set of integrated phenotypes underlie thousands of possible trait correlational scenarios. Upon
446 systematically adding different types (ancestral or evolved) of bias, only certain phenotypes
447 emerged for some trait combinations (e.g., A2 – A4 & E2) while others found all possible
448 phenotypes for a specific mode. These results help elucidate evolutionary trajectories based on
449 trait correlation constraints for ecological and biogeochemical traits of interest. Importantly, they

450 can also help inform future experimental designs aimed at testing the probability of adaptive
451 outcomes across multivariate environments through the analysis of a select set of traits. The
452 combination of both experimental evolution and eigenvector methods like PCA can be a powerful
453 approach to help predict both short- and long-term biological responses to global change.
454 Particularly, this framework can be used to estimate a rugged trait-scape harboring a limited set of
455 phenotypes and identify high-fitness trait-correlation combinations under selective gradients. Due
456 to the seemingly infinite amount of possible interacting biological and environmental variables to
457 test, these evolutionary and mathematical tools that allow us to efficiently combine experiments
458 with modeling will be critical to help predict microbial population responses to future global
459 change scenarios through the lens of evolutionary phenomena.

460

461 **Data Accessibility**

462 The model code is available at <https://github.com/LevineLab>

463

464 **Author contributions**

465 N.G.W., S.C., and N.M.L., and designed research; N.G.W. and N.M.L. performed research;

466 N.G.W., S.C., J.H., P.A.A., M.A.D., and N.M.L. analyzed data; and N.G.W., S.C., J.H., P.A.A.,

467 M.A.D., S.G.L., and N.M.L. wrote the paper.

468

469 **Competing Interests**

470 We declare that we have no competing interests.

471

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474

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Supplementary Material

Adaptation and population size

26 Adaptation dynamics in our model framework follow those from our previous work [1,2]
27 where populations initially start far from the optimum and are subjected to predominantly non-
28 neutral changes to traits and/or correlations. We do not explicitly represent drift in the model,
29 which can also impact the adaptive process as each change (e.g., mutation) occurs with an initial
30 frequency of $1/N$ and can be lost by chance. However, the relative supply of changes (population
31 size \times number of changes per generation) used in our model runs is sufficient for selection to
32 overwhelm drift resulting in robust evolutionary results. Accordingly, in prior studies using an
33 analogous adaptive process, we varied population size and/or selection strength over multiple
34 orders of magnitude and demonstrated adaptive outcomes to be robust over the same selection
35 period [1,2].

36

Sensitivity tests

38 We conducted several sensitivity tests to examine model dynamics. First, we tested if the
39 the sequence of correlational changes influenced adaptive outcomes in our model. To do this, we
40 conducted model runs where we changed the order in which traits were updated and showed that
41 phenotypic results remained unchanged as expected (Supplementary Fig. 1).

42 We also examined the impact of trait correlational constraints on evolutionary trajectories
43 (Supplementary Fig. 4) by randomly changing traits independently of trait correlations (i.e.
44 ignoring trait relationships). For these runs, each individual experienced a random trait change,
45 but no other traits were updated. Hence, individuals were unconstrained by bias and so were able
46 to quickly move directly to the high-fitness area. We found that only one phenotype emerged, as

47 expected (Supplementary Fig. 4). This demonstrates that trait correlational constraints are critical
48 for producing different evolutionary strategies (i.e. emergent, cryptic phenotypes), and if
49 constraints are not present, individuals are able to more freely explore phenotypic space and arrive
50 at the high-fitness phenotype more rapidly.

51 Finally, we tested the sensitivity of the model dynamics by varying the ratios of trait and
52 trait correlation changes (Supplementary Fig 5). In addition to the default Mode 90/10 (90% of
53 individuals experience a trait change only and 10% experience both a trait + trait correlation
54 change) two other modes were run: Mode 50/50 and Mode 10/90. For each generation in Mode
55 50/50, 50% of individuals experienced a trait change and 50% experienced both a trait and
56 correlation change. For Mode 10/90, 10% of individuals experienced a trait change and 90% of
57 individuals experienced both a trait and correlation change. All other parameters stayed the same.
58 Mode 50/50 found the same 4 phenotypes as the default Mode 90/10 while Mode 10/90 found the
59 two most accessible phenotypes, Pop-MA and Pop-MD (Supplementary Fig. 5). No new
60 populations emerged. The fact that some combination of the same phenotypes emerged from each
61 of the three independently run modes provides further evidence for a robust, conserved trait-scape
62 with limited high-fitness phenotypes derived from a population with no historical bias.

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Supplementary Table 1 Parameter values used for main text model simulations.

Parameter	Description	Value
N	Size of population	1000
t	Number of generations	2000
$tgrad$	Standard deviation of trait change	0.05
$cgrad$	Standard deviation of correlation change	0.05
N_{trait}	Number of trait changes	[900, 500, 100]
N_{corr}	Number of correlation changes	[900, 500, 100]
N_{runs}	Number of replicate runs	100

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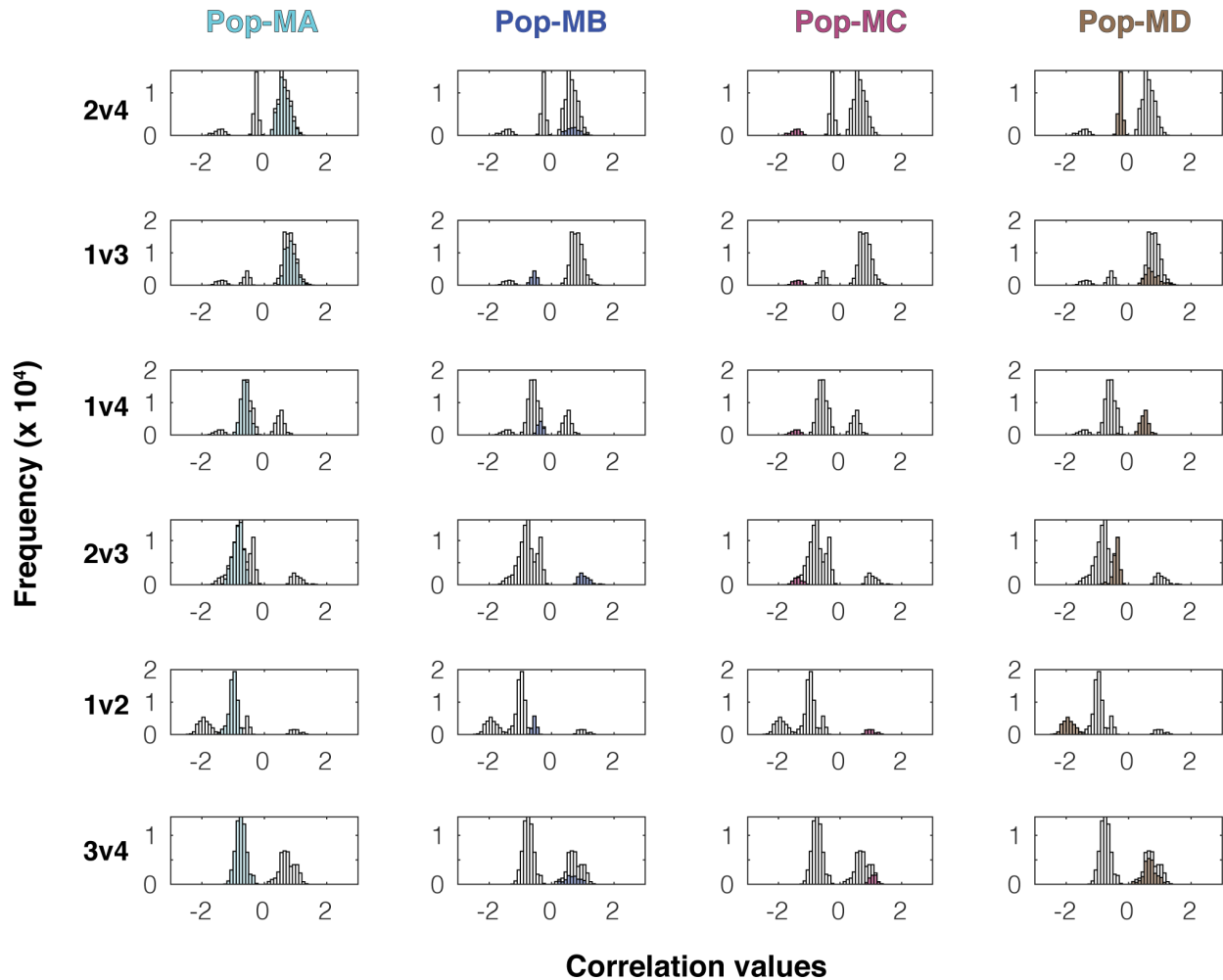
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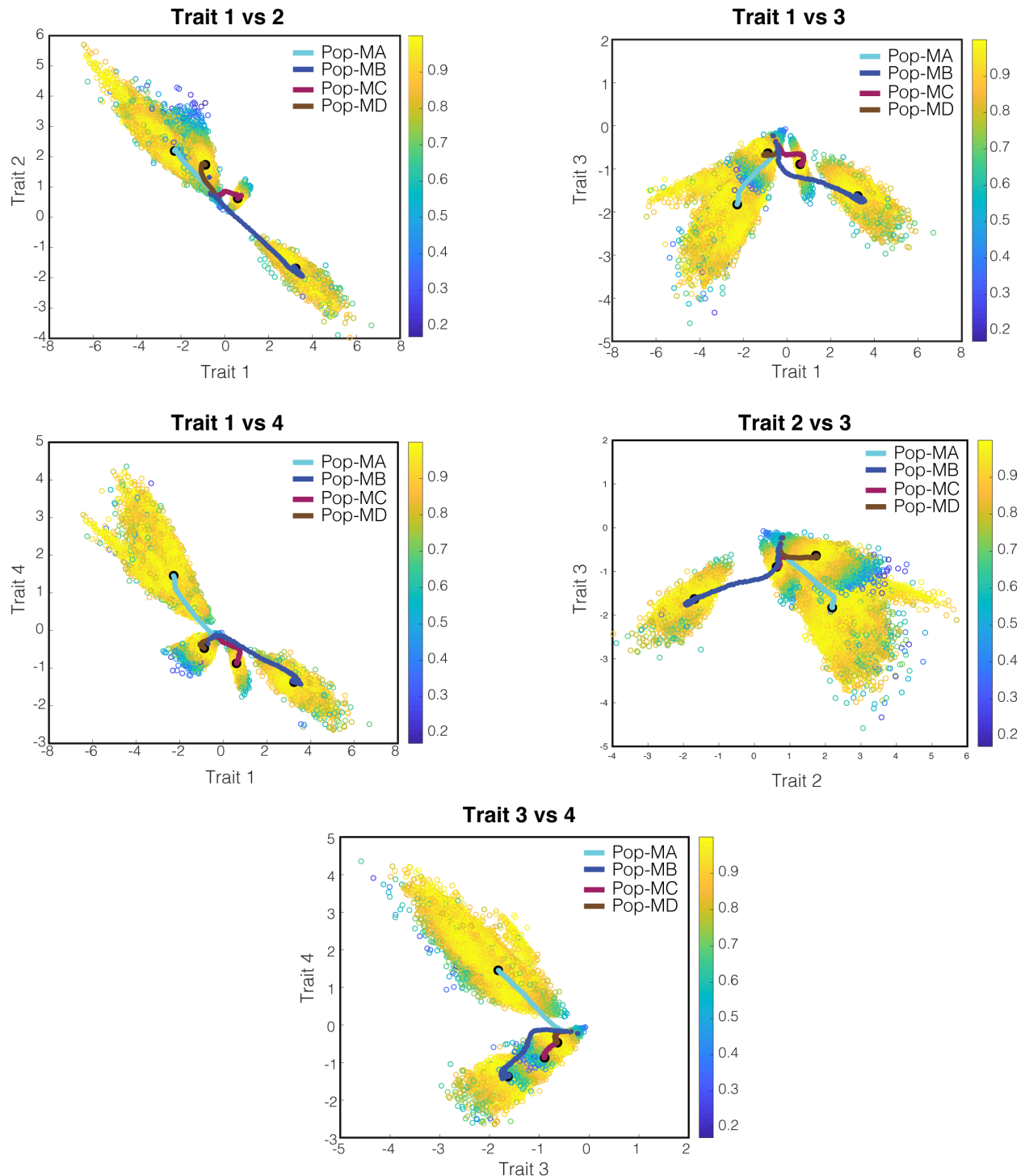
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Supplementary Fig. 1 Four distinct, emergent phenotypes (i.e. populations) from model runs seeded with no bias These model runs were identical to “Mixed mode” in the main text (Fig. 4) except the order of updating traits and correlations was reversed. Each row displays one of the six possible trait correlations (2v4, 1v3, 1v4, 2v3, 1v2, and 3v4) with the distribution of the emergent trait correlation values for all individuals in all replicate runs ($N=100,000$) shown in grey (y-axis, note scale of 10^4). Highlighted in color in each subplot are the trait correlation values for the individuals belonging to each of the emergent phenotypes, or populations (columns). Each phenotype has a clearly defined set of trait correlation values. Here, the 4 same populations emerged as in Fig. 4 of the main text.

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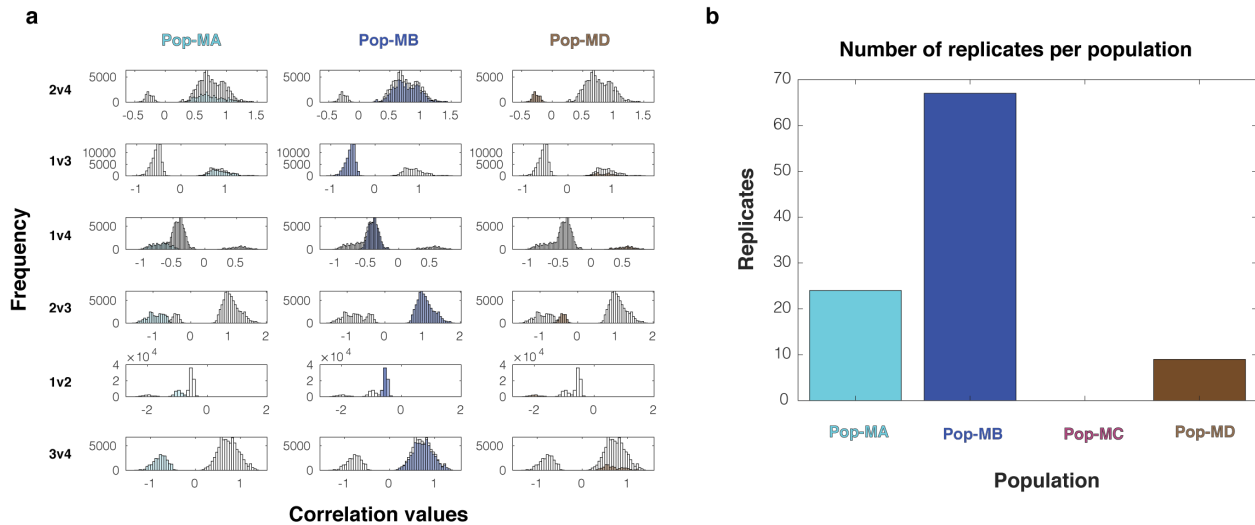
Supplementary Fig. 2 Trait vs. trait plots for mixed mode simulations a) Trait vs. trait plots denoting the 4 distinct populations (i.e. phenotypes) that emerged from 100 replicate model runs in mixed mode (i.e., no bias). Each hollow point represents the final trait values of a given individual in the last generation (2000th) colored by fitness. Colored lines represent the average trait values at each generation for each population with the black point denoting the final generation.

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Supplementary Fig. 3 Impact of starting location on emergent phenotypes (i.e. populations) in mixed-mode model simulations. a) Shown are emergent populations resulting from mixed-mode model simulations as in the main text except starting from a different, equidistant ancestral phenotype in PCA space. Each row displays one of the six possible trait correlations (2v4, 1v3, 1v4, 2v3, 1v2, and 3v4) with the distribution of the emergent trait correlation values for all individuals in all replicate runs (N=100,000) shown in grey. Highlighted in color in each subplot are the trait correlation values for the individuals belonging to each of the emergent phenotypes, or populations (columns). Each phenotype has a clearly defined set of trait correlation values. b) Shown is a bar plot denoting the number of replicates within each population (out of 100 model runs). When starting from a different ancestral start point, Pop-MC did not emerge in any replicates.

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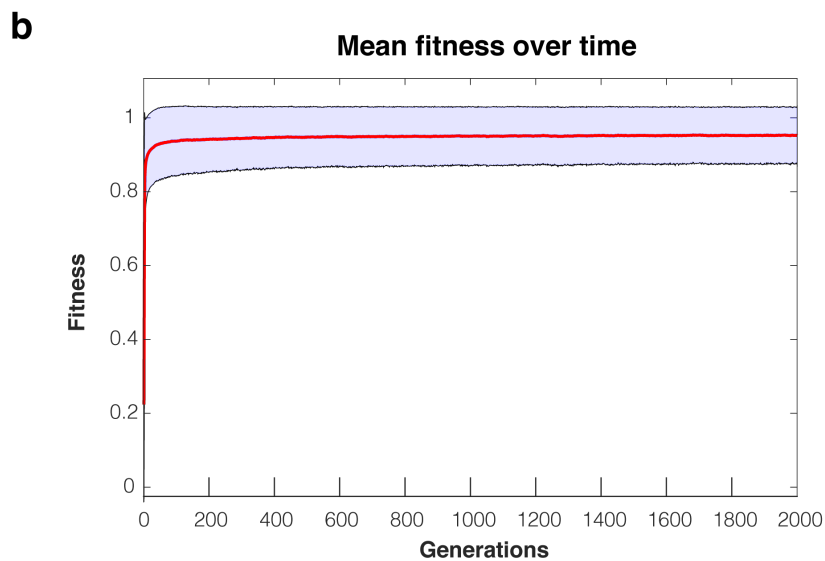
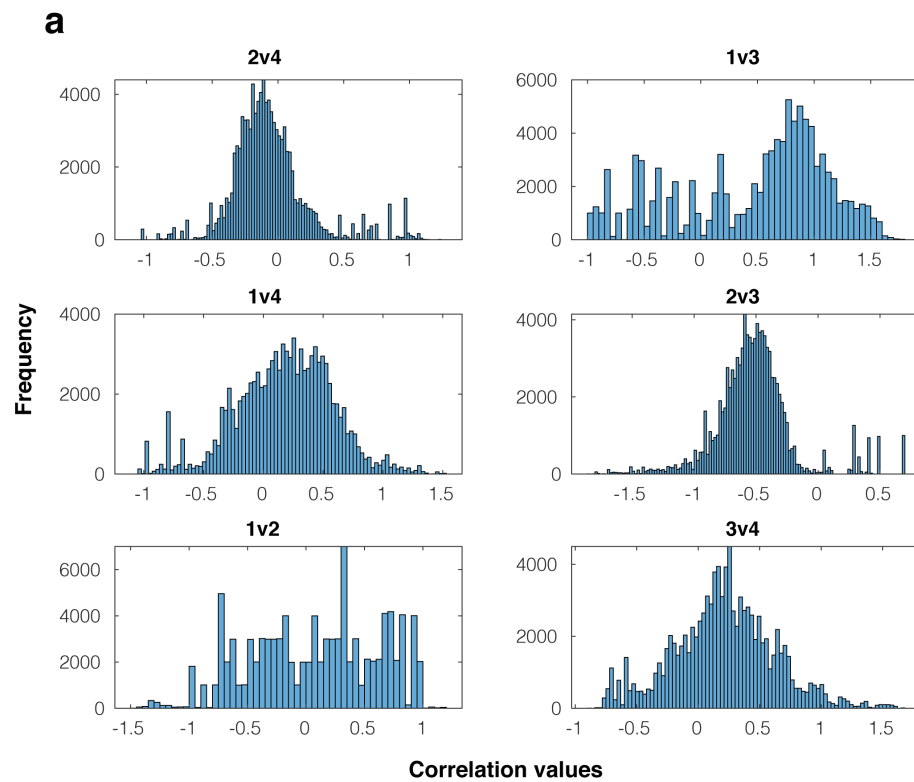
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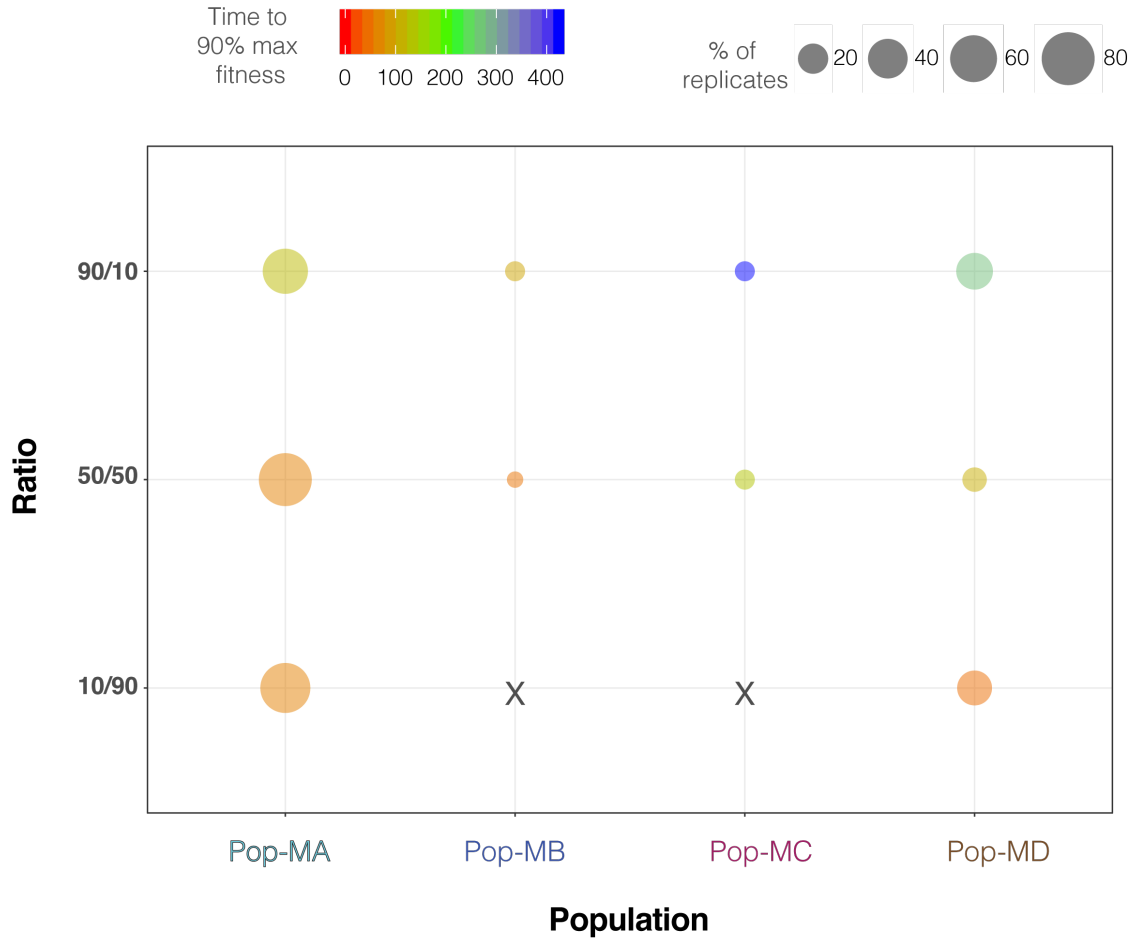
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Supplementary Fig. 4 Trait correlational distributions from model runs that changed traits independently of trait correlations. a) Shown are trait correlational distributions per correlation. At each generation, 1 trait per individual was randomly changed but no other traits were updated using the trait correlations resulting in one phenotypic solution. b) Shown is the mean fitness of all individuals over time across all replicate runs (1000 individuals x 100 replicate runs). The red line indicates the mean while the light blue area denotes the smoothed standard deviation.

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Supplementary Fig. 5 Population dynamics of emergent populations across different ratios of trait and trait correlation changes. The bubble plot shows emergent populations as a function of varying the ratio of trait and trait correlation changes for mixed-mode simulations. 90/10 denotes 90% of individuals in a population experiencing a trait change and 10% both a trait and correlation change per generation. Similarly, 50/50 denotes 50% experiencing a trait change and 50% both a trait and correlation change. Finally, 10/90 denotes 10% experiencing a trait change and 90% both a trait and correlation change. Bubble size denotes the number of replicates (out of 100) within a specific population while bubble color represents each population's rate of adaptation (color of circles), or time to reach 90% of its maximum fitness.

145 **References**

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