

SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS

Simulations: We model adaptive walks in diploid populations with Wright-Fisher simulations using Fisher’s geometric model (FGM) as in Sellis et al. (2011). The simulations use code modified from Sellis et al. to allow for more than 2 dimensions. We perform 10,000 replicate simulations with population size $N = 5,000$. Simulations are conducted for 10,000 generations. Complete source code is available at <https://github.com/sunthedeep/Fisher-Geometric-Model>.

In FGM, alleles are represented as a vector in n-dimensional space (Figure 1a). We explore two models, one with two dimensions and one with 25 dimensions. We define the phenotype of a diploid individual as the midpoint of the two vectors of the constituent alleles (Sellis et al., 2011). This amounts to an assumption of phenotypic additivity of alleles, but not necessarily additivity of fitness. The population initially contains a single allele with a distance of 2 units from the optimum, and evolves on a symmetrical Gaussian fitness landscape with single phenotypic optimum at the origin. Fitness is computed using the function:

$$w(x) = e^{\frac{-x^2}{2}}$$

where x is the distance of the individuals phenotype to the optimum. The mutation rate is set to $\mu = 5 * 10^{-6}$ which results in one mutation every 20 generations on average in the population. The angle of the mutation vector is drawn from a spherically uniform distribution. The magnitude of the mutation vector is drawn from an exponential distribution. For the two dimensional regime, the mean of the mutational magnitude is 0.5, while for the 25 dimensional regime, the mean is set to 5. The mutational magnitudes were

23 chosen to generate sufficient numbers of adaptive walks both with and without
24 overdominant mutations in simulations of both dimensionalities.

25 For the remainder of our analysis, we identify the most frequent allele in each simulated
26 population at the end of 10,000 generations of evolution and study the mutations present
27 on that allele. This is the set of mutations typically available for study in experimental
28 systems. We limit our analysis to studying the first five mutations of each adaptive walk
29 and ignore simulations with fewer than 5 mutations in order to control for the length of the
30 adaptive walk when studying predictability. We partition our five-mutation adaptive walks
31 into those that do and those that do not contain overdominant mutations to study the
32 impact of balanced states on predictability.

33 **Partitioning Walks:** Throughout all of our analysis, we have separated walks with and
34 without overdominant mutations. The methodology for this separation is as follows. For
35 each FGM simulation, we have identified the most frequent allele at the end of the
36 simulation, and isolated the first five mutations to occur on this allele. We first determine
37 the time at which the fifth mutation exceeded 5% frequency in the population, which we
38 use as a cutoff for eliminating alleles that have increased in frequency due to drift. All
39 time-points in the simulation after this threshold time are no longer considered for analysis.
40 Throughout the remainder of the simulation, we compute whether the alleles in the
41 population at at least 1% frequency could be maintained as a balanced polymorphism
42 using the method of Kimura (1956). If, at any time before the threshold time, the
43 population contains a set of alleles that could be maintained in a stable polymorphic state,
44 the walk is classified as containing at least one overdominant state.

45 **Forward Predictability Analysis:** We calculate the forward predictability of the
46 adaptive trajectory using two metrics. In both of these metrics, we only consider

47 homozygous phenotypes. Our first metric, maximum pairwise distance, considers pairs of
48 adaptive walks. We compute the maximum of the phenotypic distances between the
49 observed single mutant phenotypes of the two adaptive walks, the double mutant
50 phenotypes, the triple mutant phenotypes etc. Our second metric measures the maximal
51 deviation from the optimal trajectory. For each adaptive walk, we compute the maximal
52 phenotypic distance of any encountered (homozygous) phenotype from the line segment
53 connecting the ancestral phenotype and the optimum.

54 **Backward Predictability Analysis:** We calculate the probability of all possible
55 mutational trajectories for the given set of mutations in a manner similar to Weinreich
56 et al. (2006), but generalized to allow balanced states. The likelihood of a mutational
57 trajectory is the product of the probabilities of each mutation in the trajectory being
58 generated on the appropriate background and successfully invading the population and
59 reaching equilibrium. The probability of a mutation landing on the appropriate
60 background is proportional to the frequency of the background. For example, if the
61 ancestral allele is balanced with the 1-mutant allele, the probability of generation of a
62 2-mutant allele is proportional to the frequency of the 1-mutant allele.

63 The probability of a new allele (generated through mutation) invading and reaching a
64 stable intermediate frequency or fixing from a single copy is calculated empirically through
65 10,000 Wright-Fisher (Fisher, 1930; Wright, 1931) simulations. These simulations are
66 entirely separate from the FGM simulations used to generate the adaptive walks used
67 throughout this work. In order to compute this probability, one first needs to define the
68 expected equilibrium frequency of a new allele. This is complicated because new alleles can
69 potentially balance with any of the existing alleles or fix in the population. We first ask
70 whether the new allele can balance with any of preexisting alleles by determining whether
71 the fitness of the heterozygous genotype is greater than the fitness of both homozygous

72 genotypes. If the allele can balance, we compute the equilibrium frequency of the new
73 (derived) allele as

$$74 \quad \frac{t}{s+t}$$

75 from Gillespie (2004) when $0 \leq s \leq 1$ and $0 \leq t \leq 1$, where an individual homozygous for
76 the ancestral allele has a relative fitness of $1 - t$, the heterozygote has fitness 1 and the
77 derived homozygote has fitness $1 - s$. If one of the two homozygous genotypes is the most
78 fit state, we determine whether the new allele is either fixed or lost and set the expected
79 equilibrium frequency of the new allele to 1 or 0, respectively. Using this equilibrium
80 frequency, we can compute the mean fitness of the population at equilibrium for this pair
81 of alleles. Through this process, we make a simplifying assumption that balanced states
82 with more than two alleles are unlikely. This process is repeated to compute the mean
83 fitness of every possible balanced state involving the new allele. We choose the state with
84 the highest mean fitness as the equilibrium condition for this new allele. This can be either
85 a balanced state or fixation or loss of this new allele. If the new allele is not present in the
86 computed equilibrium condition with the highest mean fitness, we determine that the new
87 allele cannot invade the population. Otherwise, if the new allele is able to invade the
88 population, we compute the likelihood of reaching this equilibrium condition by asking how
89 frequently the new allele (starting at a single copy) can get to 90% of its equilibrium
90 frequency in our Wright-Fisher simulations.

91 We are forced to utilize empirical estimations through simulations and not the classical
92 analytic solutions (Haldane, 1927; Kimura, 1962) for invasion and fixation probability as
93 many of the observed mutations have a selective advantage exceeding 100%, violating the
94 assumptions of the analytic solutions that the mutations are weakly beneficial. Our

95 simulations (not shown) suggest that the analytic solutions significantly overestimate the
96 invasion probability under these conditions.

97 We validate this method of computing the likelihood of a particular adaptive trajectory by
98 testing whether the high probability trajectories are more likely to have been observed in
99 our FGM simulations. We sort all trajectories by their computed probability of occurrence
100 (excluding those with zero probability) and bin them into 40 equally-sized bins. We found
101 that the median of the trajectory probabilities within a bin is significantly positively
102 correlated with the number of trajectories in that bin that were observed in our original
103 FGM simulations (Pearson $r^2 = 0.997$, $p \ll 10^{-10}$), suggesting that our method is truly
104 capturing the likelihood of a trajectory taking place in the FGM simulations.

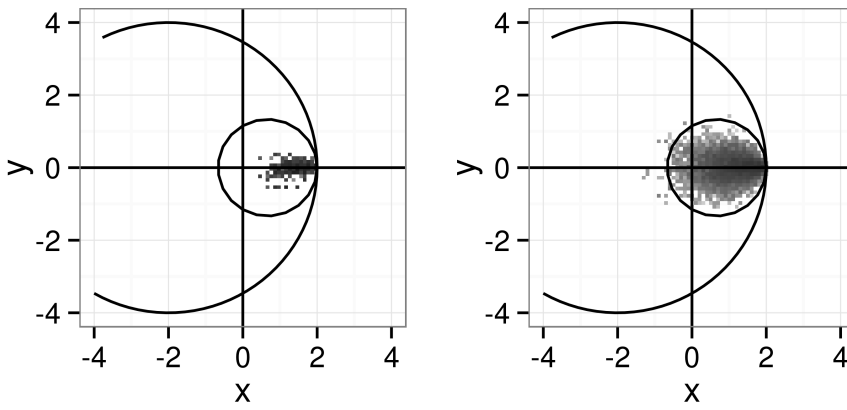
105 Note that in a traditional haploid model, where each successive mutation fixes in the
106 population, there are $5! = 120$ possible orders of the five mutations observed in the
107 simulated walk to generate the five-mutant allele observed at the end of the simulation. In
108 our diploid model, however, each mutation can occur on any allele in the population where
109 it has not already been introduced. Therefore, the same mutation can be introduced into
110 the population multiple times, but it can occur only once on each allele. The probabilities
111 of all viable mutational orders (where the 5-mutant allele is successfully reached) are then
112 rescaled to add up to 1, to give the probability of a trajectory conditional on reaching the
113 final 5-mutant allele. Mutation orders where the mutations were introduced on the final
114 adapted allele in the same order, but different balanced intermediate alleles were
115 encountered, are not distinguished from each other as these would be indistinguishable in
116 natural systems.

117 We define the effective number of trajectories as

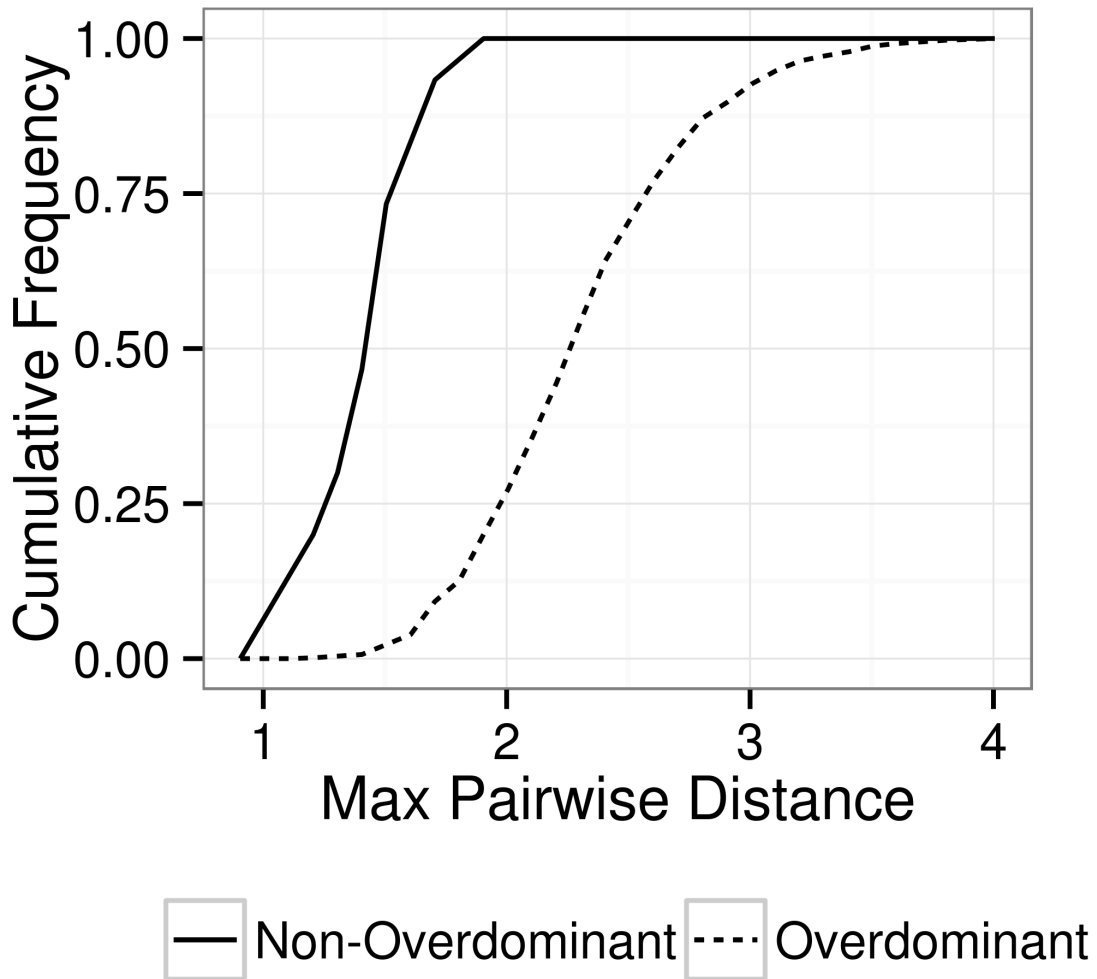
$$\frac{1}{\sum p^2}$$

119 where p is the rescaled probability for each viable trajectory in a given five-mutation
120 system. The effective number of trajectories is defined to be 0 when there are no viable
121 trajectories. This is similar to the effective number of alleles in a population (Kimura1964),
122 the predictability metric of Roy (2009) and the entropy metric of Palmer et al. (2013).
123 Thus, when a single trajectory dominates the probability density, the effective number of
124 trajectories is close to 1, even if there are many other trajectories with nonzero probability.
125 This provides a single metric of the diversity of mutational orders that are possible and
126 summarizes the backward predictability of the adaptive walk.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

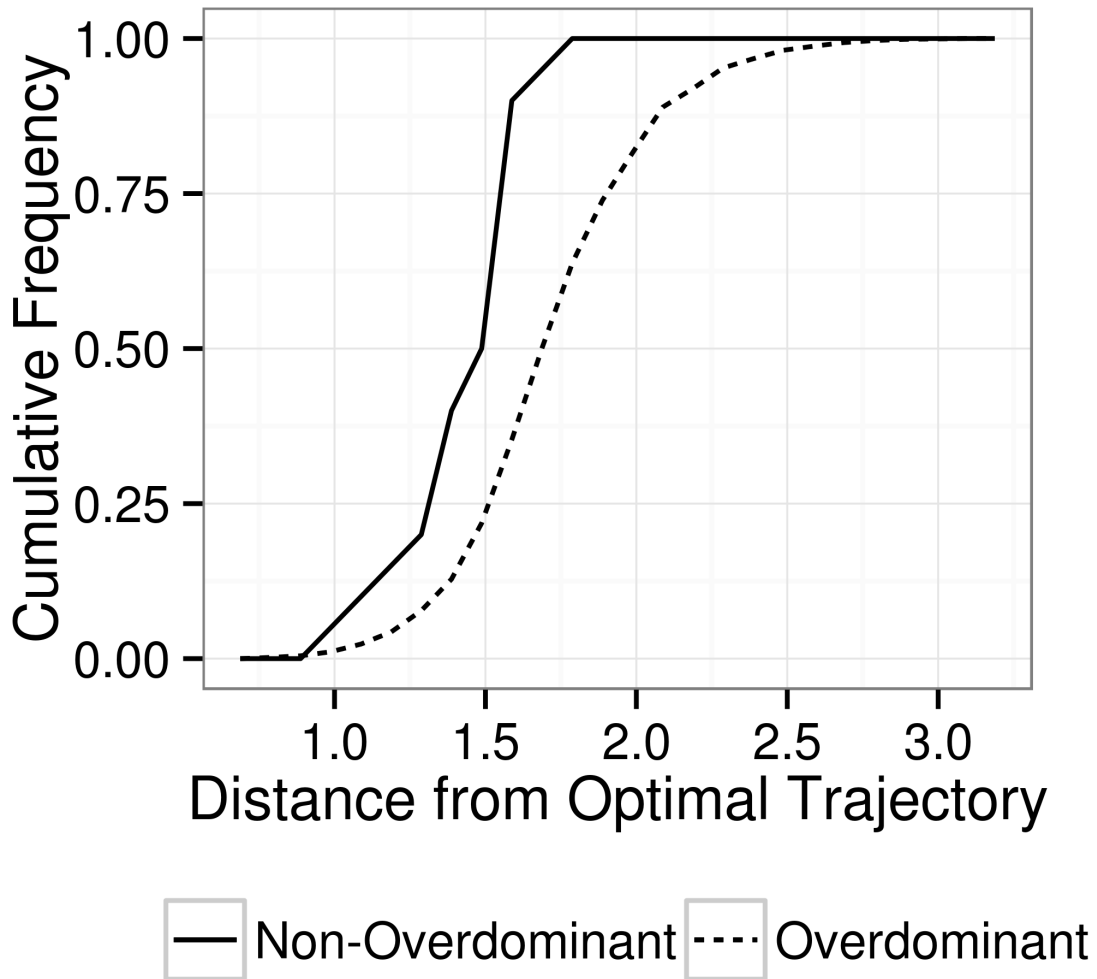


129 Figure S1. Phenotypic distribution of homozygous alleles in the first two phenotypic
130 dimensions as in Figure 1b,c for FGM simulations conducted using 25 dimensions and a
131 mean mutational magnitude of 5.



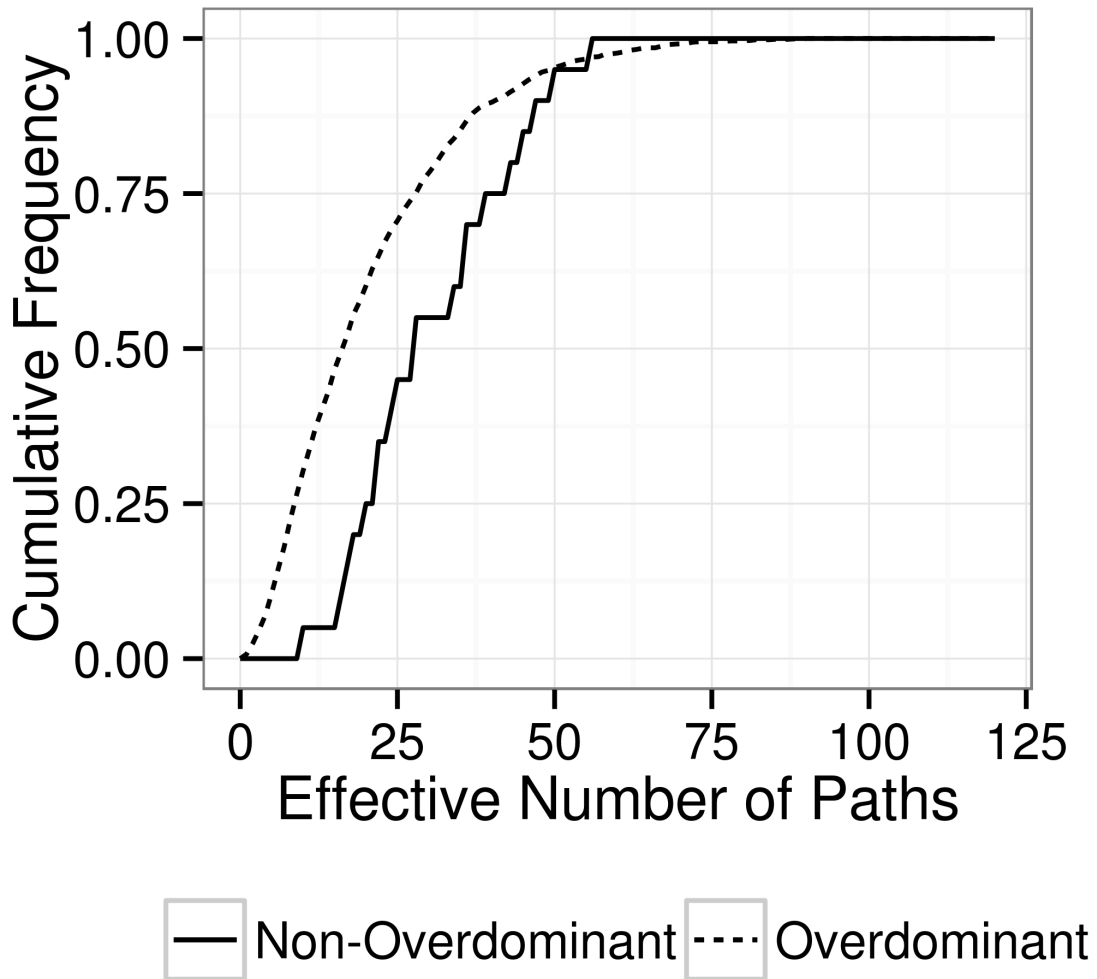
132

133 Figure S2. Maximum pairwise distance metric to study forward predictability as in Figure
 134 2 for FGM simulations conducted using 25 dimensions and a mean mutational magnitude
 135 of 5. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test $p \ll 10^{-10}$



136

137 Figure S3. Maximum distance from the optimal trajectory metric to study forward
 138 predictability as in Figure 3 for FGM simulations conducted using 25 dimensions and a
 139 mean mutational magnitude of 5. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test $p = 10^{-6}$



140

141 Figure S4. Effective number of paths statistic to study backward predictability as in Figure
 142 4 for FGM simulations conducted using 25 dimensions and a mean mutational magnitude
 143 of 5. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test $p = 0.03$

Literature Cited

- 145 Fisher, R. (1930). *The genetical theory of natural selection* (1st ed.). Oxford: Oxford at the
146 Clarendon Press.
- 147 Gillespie, J. (2004). *Population Genetics: A Concise Guide* (2nd ed.). The Johns Hopkins
148 University Press.
- 149 Haldane, J. B. S. (1927, October). A Mathematical Theory of Natural and Artificial
150 Selection, Part V: Selection and Mutation. *Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge*
151 *Philosophical Society* 23(07), 838–844.
- 152 Kimura, M. (1956). Rules for testing stability of a selective polymorphism. *Proceedings of*
153 *the National Academy of Sciences of ... 1966*, 336–340.
- 154 Kimura, M. (1962). On the probability of fixation of mutant genes in a population.
155 *Genetics* (391).
- 156 Palmer, M., A. Moudgil, and M. W. Feldman (2013). Long-term evolution is surprisingly
157 predictable in lattice proteins. *Journal of the Royal Society, Interface* 10(March).
- 158 Roy, S. W. (2009, January). Probing evolutionary repeatability: neutral and double
159 changes and the predictability of evolutionary adaptation. *PLoS ONE* 4(2), e4500.
- 160 Sellis, D., B. Callahan, D. A. Petrov, and P. W. Messer (2011). Heterozygote advantage as
161 a natural consequence of adaptation in diploids. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
162 *Sciences of the United States of America* 2011, 1–6.
- 163 Weinreich, D. M., N. F. Delaney, M. a. Depristo, and D. L. Hartl (2006, April). Darwinian
164 evolution can follow only very few mutational paths to fitter proteins.
165 *Science* 312(5770), 111–4.
- 166 Wright, S. (1931, March). Evolution in Mendelian Populations. *Genetics* 16(2), 97–159.