

# Aneuploidy can be an evolutionary detour on the path to adaptation

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## Abstract

16 Aneuploidy is common in eukaryotes, often leading to decreased growth and fitness. However,  
evidence from yeast and fungi, as well as human tumour cells, suggests that specific aneuploidies  
18 can be beneficial under stressful conditions and facilitate adaptation. In a prominent example, an  
evolutionary experiment with yeast, populations evolving under heat stress had become aneuploid  
20 (chromosome III), only to later revert back to euploid after genetic mutations have accumulated. It  
has therefore been suggested that aneuploidy serves as a "stepping stone" on the path to adaptation.

22 Here, we test this hypothesis. First, we apply DNA sequencing to show that mutant alleles  
common in aneuploid cells are uncommon in the evolved euploid population. Second, we develop  
24 an evolutionary model with both aneuploidy and mutation, and fit it to the results of the experiment  
using a Bayesian inference framework. We then predict the genotype frequency dynamics during  
26 the experiment, demonstrating that the majority of the evolved euploid population likely did not  
descend from aneuploid cells, but rather directly from the euploid wild-type population. Our  
28 model further predicts that if the experiment was repeated with smaller populations, then a larger  
fraction of the evolved population would descend from aneuploid cells.

30 Together, our results suggest that aneuploidy can be an inevitable evolutionary "detour" rather  
than a "stepping stone": it can delay, rather than facilitate, the adaptation of the population, and  
32 cells that become aneuploid may leave less descendants compared to cells that remain diploid.

# Introduction

34 Aneuploidy is an imbalance in the number of chromosomes in the cell: an incorrect karyotype.  
Evidence suggests aneuploidy is very common in eukaryotes, e.g. animals<sup>38,30,2</sup>, and fungi<sup>33,61,36,50</sup>.  
36 Aneuploidy has been implicated in cancer formation, progression, and resistance<sup>4,40,38,19</sup>. It is also  
common in protozoan pathogens of the *Leishmania* genus, a major global health concern<sup>28</sup>, and  
38 contributes to the emergence of drug resistance<sup>41</sup> and virulence<sup>29</sup> in fungal pathogens, which are  
under-studied<sup>37</sup>, despite infecting a billion people per year, causing significant morbidity in >150  
40 million and death in >1.5 million people per year<sup>41,37</sup>.

Experiments with human and mouse embryos found that most aneuploidies are lethal. It is also  
42 associated with developmental defects and lethality in other multicellular organisms<sup>44</sup>. For example,  
aneuploid mouse embryonic cells grow slower than euploid cells<sup>55</sup>. Similarly, in unicellular eukaryotes  
44 growing in benign conditions, aneuploidy usually leads to slower growth and decreased overall  
fitness<sup>31,53,33,44,22,56</sup>, in part due to proteotoxic stress caused by increased expression in aneuploid  
46 cells<sup>33,39,60</sup> and hypo-osmotic-like stress<sup>54</sup>.

However, aneuploidy can be beneficial under stressful conditions due to the wide range of phenotypes  
48 it can produce, some of which are advantageous<sup>33,56</sup>. Thus, aneuploidy can lead to rapid adaptation in  
unicellular eukaryotes<sup>14,52,18,35</sup>, as well as to rapid growth of somatic tumour cells<sup>40,46</sup>. For example,  
50 aneuploidy in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* facilitates adaptation to a variety of stressful conditions  
like heat and pH<sup>58</sup>, copper<sup>7,14</sup>, salt<sup>10</sup>, and nutrient limitation<sup>11,16,1</sup>, with similar results in *Candida*  
52 *albicans*<sup>56</sup>. Importantly, aneuploidy can also lead to drug resistance in pathogenic fungi such as  
*C. albicans*<sup>43,42,13</sup> and *Cryptococcus neoformans*<sup>47</sup>, which cause candidiasis and meningoencephalitis,  
54 respectively.

Yona et al.<sup>58</sup> demonstrated experimentally the importance of aneuploidy in adaptive evolution. They  
56 evolved populations of *S. cerevisiae* under strong heat stress. The populations adapted to the heat stress  
within 450 generations, and this adaptation was determined to be due a duplication of chromosome III.  
58 Later on, after more than 1,500 generations, the populations reverted back to an euploid state, while  
remaining adapted to the heat stress. Aneuploidy was therefore suggested to be a *transient adaptive*  
60 *solution*, because it can rapidly appear and fixate in the population under stressful conditions, and can  
then be rapidly lost when the cost of aneuploidy outweighs its benefit—after the stress is removed,  
62 or after "refined" beneficial mutations appear and fixate<sup>58</sup>. Furthermore, it has been suggested that  
aneuploidy is an evolutionary "stepping stone" that facilitates future adaptation by genetic mutations,  
64 which require more time to evolve<sup>58,57</sup>.

Here, we test the hypothesis that aneuploidy is a an *evolutionary stepping stone* that facilitates adaptive evolution by genetic mutations. First, we analyze previously unpublished sequencing data from the original experimental populations<sup>58</sup> to assess if the evolved euploid population is descended from the aneuploid population. Second, we develop an evolutionary genetic model and fit it to the experimental results of Yona et al.<sup>58</sup> in order to predict the genotype frequency dynamics in the experimental populations, thereby estimating the frequency of evolved euploid cells that descended from aneuploid cells. Our results show that aneuploidy reached high frequencies in the experimental populations, but nevertheless, the majority of cells in the evolved euploid populations likely did not descend from aneuploid cells, but rather directly from wild-type euploid cells. These results suggest that aneuploidy can be an evolutionary detour, rather than a stepping stone, on the path to adaptation.

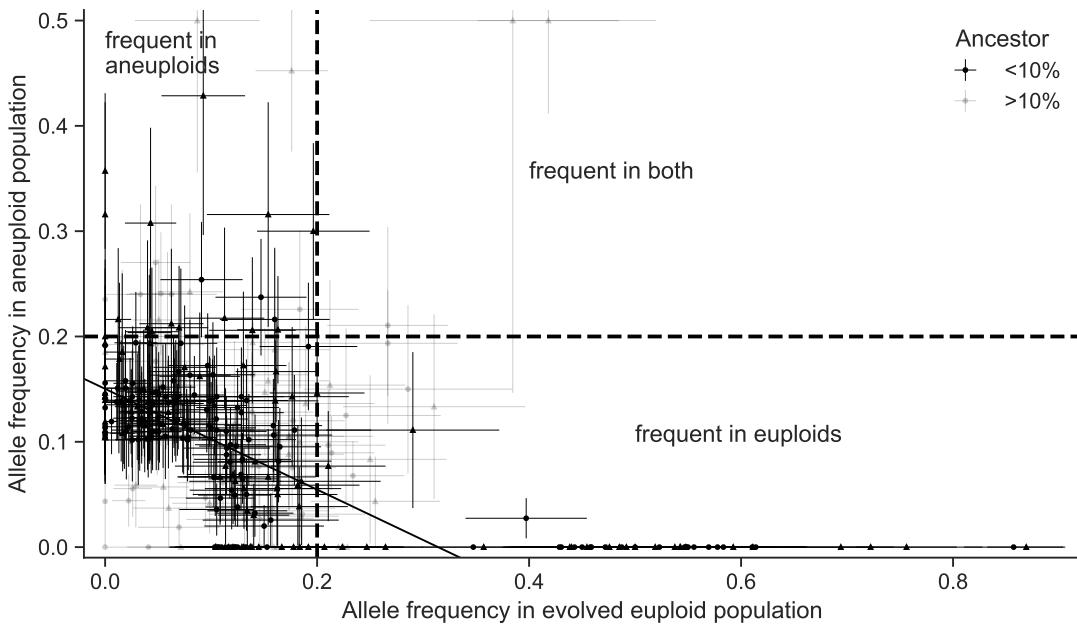
## Results

In the heat-stress experiment of Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, four populations of *S. cerevisiae* evolved under 39 °C. Aneuploidy fixed in all four experimental repetitions in the first 450 generations. Two of the repetitions, marked *H2* and *H4*, carried no large-scale duplications other than a chromosome III trisomy. These two repetitions continued to evolve under the same conditions, wherein aneuploidy was eliminated by generation 1,700 and 2,350 in *H4* and *H2*, respectively.

**Empirical frequencies of mutant alleles.** For each of two evolved populations (*H2* and *H4*) we sequenced the ancestral population (generation 0), the aneuploid population (generation 450), and the evolved euploid population (generation 1,700 or 2,350) to estimate the mutant allele frequencies (Tables S1 and S2). Overall, between 100 and 173 mutant alleles were detected with at least a single read in the six populations that were sampled. Disregarding 45 and 40 alleles that were present in the ancestral populations at a frequency >10%, the aneuploid and euploid populations carried a large number of mutant alleles: 82 and 95, respectively, in repetition *H2*, and 60 and 66 in repetition *H4*.

Surprisingly, out of all these mutant alleles, none was present at a frequency >20% in both the aneuploid and the evolved euploid populations. Furthermore, a high mutant allele frequency in the aneuploid population implies a low frequency in the evolved euploid population, and vice-versa (Spearman's correlation coefficient  $\rho = -0.64$  and  $-0.66$  in the two experimental repetitions; Figure 1), such that mutant alleles frequent in the aneuploid populations decreased in frequency when aneuploidy was lost. Moreover, for the 18 mutant alleles with high frequency in the aneuploid populations (>20%), the

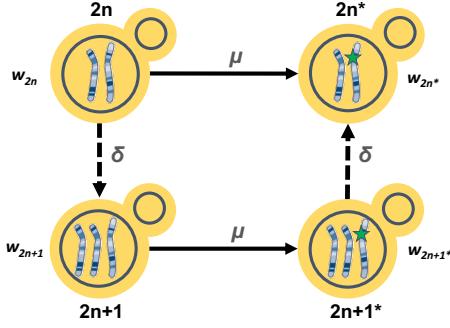
highest frequencies in the euploid populations were 15.4%, 16%, 16.3% and 19.6% (the rest were below 96 15%). Similarly, for the 48 mutant alleles with high frequency in the evolved euploid populations, the highest frequencies in the aneuploid populations were 2.7%, 7.7%, and 11.1% (the rest were below 98 1%). These results suggest evolved euploid cells are unlikely to descend from aneuploid cells.



**Figure 1: Frequencies of mutant alleles in the experimental populations are negatively correlated.** Frequencies of mutant alleles when trisomy was widespread in the population (y-axis) and after it was eliminated (x-axis) in two experimental repetitions (circles for *H2* and triangles for *H4*) from Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>. Mutant alleles with >20% in the aneuploid population were <20% in the euploid population, and vice versa (the upper-right quadrant is empty), suggesting that the majority of evolved euploid cells did not descend from the most common aneuploid genotypes. Alleles with frequency below and above 10% in the ancestral populations are in black and gray, respectively. Solid black line is a linear orthogonal distance regression line (slope=-0.559, intercept=0.164; a regression through alleles that reach at least 20% in one of the populations has slope=-0.645 and intercept=0.297). Dashed vertical and horizontal lines show allele frequencies 20%. Error bars show standard error of the mean accounting for the number of reads.

**Evolutionary genetic model.** To explore the dynamics during the evolutionary experiments, we 100 developed an evolutionary genetic model, fitted the model to empirical data, and used it to predict the genotype frequency dynamics, or specifically, the fraction of the evolved euploid population descended 102 from aneuploid cells.

The model includes the effects of natural selection, genetic drift, aneuploidy, and mutation, and follows



**Figure 2: Model Illustration.** There are four genotypes in our model: euploid wild-type,  $2n$ ; euploid mutant,  $2n^*$ ; aneuploid wild-type,  $2n+1$ ; and aneuploid mutant,  $2n+1^*$ . Overall there are two possible trajectories from  $2n$  to  $2n^*$ . Arrows denote transitions between genotypes, with transition rates  $\mu$  for the beneficial mutation rate and  $\delta$  for the aneuploidy rate.

104 a population of cells characterized by their genotype: euploid wild-type,  $2n$ , is the ancestral diploid  
 106 genotype; euploid mutant,  $2n^*$ , has a diploid karyotype and a single beneficial mutation; aneuploid  
 108 wild-type,  $2n+1$ , has an extra chromosome due to a chromosome duplication event; and aneuploid  
 110 mutant,  $2n+1^*$ , has and extra chromosome and a beneficial mutation. Fitness values of the different  
 112 genotypes are denoted by  $w_{2n}$ ,  $w_{2n^*}$ ,  $w_{2n+1}$ , and  $w_{2n+1^*}$ , and the rate of mutation and aneuploidy are  
 114 denoted by  $\mu$  and  $\delta$ . See Figure 2 for an illustration of the model.

116 We fitted this model to the experimental results<sup>58</sup> – time for fixation ( $>95\%$ ) and for loss ( $<5\%$ ) of  
 118 aneuploidy – using approximate Bayesian computation with sequential Monte Carlo (ABC-SMC)<sup>48</sup>,  
 thereby inferring the model parameters: rates aneuploidy and mutation and the fitness of all genotypes.  
 We then sampled posterior predictions for the genotype frequency dynamics using the estimated  
 120 parameter values and compared different versions of the model to test additional hypotheses about the  
 evolutionary process.

122 **Estimated rates and fitness effects of aneuploidy and mutation.** We inferred the posterior distribution  
 124 of model parameters (Figure 3). We report parameter estimates using the MAP (maximum a  
 posteriori) and providing the 50% HDI (highest density interval) in square brackets. See Supplementary  
 Material for sensitivity analysis.

126 The estimated beneficial mutation rate is  $\mu = 2.965 \cdot 10^{-6}$  [ $2.718 \cdot 10^{-7} - 3.589 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ]. From the  
 literature, the mutation rate per base pair is roughly  $2 - 3 \cdot 10^{-10}$  (refs.<sup>62,27</sup>), but it may be higher  
 128 under heat stress, as several stresses may cause hypermutation in yeast<sup>17</sup>. If we assume a 10-fold  
 increase in mutation rate, then the estimated beneficial mutation rate can be explained by a target size  
 130 of 1,000 base pairs. Yona et al.<sup>58</sup> found at least 10 genes on chromosome III with mutations that

led to increased heat tolerance. Assuming that other chromosomes also have a similar number of  
126 heat-tolerance genes (i.e., chromosome III is one of the smaller chromosomes<sup>15</sup>), and that each gene  
has a target size of ten base pairs, we easily get to a target size above 1,600.

128 The estimated aneuploidy rate,  $\delta = 1.72 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $1.47 \cdot 10^{-3} - 2.786 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ] is higher than in previous  
studies: for chromosome III in diploid *S. cerevisiae*, Zhu et al.<sup>62</sup> estimated  $6.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$  chromosome  
130 gain events per generation, and Kumaran et al.<sup>26</sup> estimate  $3.0 - 4.3 \cdot 10^{-5}$  chromosome loss events  
per generation (95% confidence interval). However, this difference may be explained by an increased  
132 aneuploidy rate during heat stress<sup>5</sup>.

The estimated fitness values are  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [1.021 – 1.023],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.025$  [1.024 – 1.026],  
134  $w_{2n^*} = 1.028$  [1.026 – 1.029], all relative to the fitness of  $2n$ , which is set to  $w_{2n} = 1$ . Thus, we  
can infer that the cost of chromosome III trisomy is  $c = w_{2n^*} - w_{2n+1^*} = 0.003$  (or 0.3%) and the  
136 benefit of trisomy is  $w_{2n+1} - 1 - c = 0.019$  (1.9%), whereas the benefit of the beneficial mutation is  
 $w_{2n^*} - 1 = 0.028$  (2.8%).

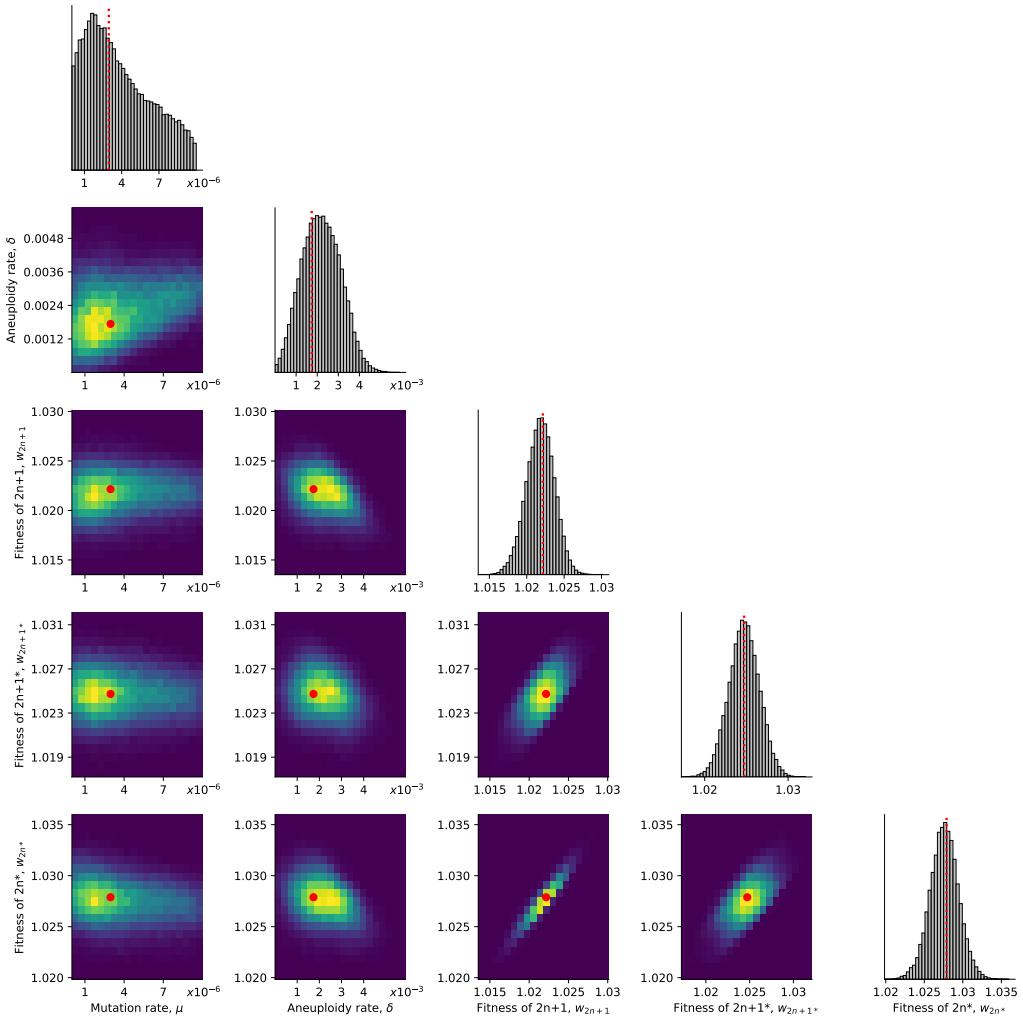
138 If we allow for transitions (mutation, chromosome loss and gain) to less-fit genotypes (e.g.,  $2n^*$  to  
 $2n+1^*$ ), then we infer similar but slightly different values, see Supplementary Material.

140 **Model comparison and goodness-of-fit.** Our model fits the data well: in simulations using the MAP  
parameter estimates,  $2n^*$  fixed in 61% of simulations by generation 1,700 and in 100% of simulations  
142 by generation 2,350 (Figure 4B).

However, a model without aneuploidy (where the aneuploidy rate is fixed at zero,  $\delta = 0$ ), fails to  
144 explain the experimental observations (Figure 4). The estimated mutation rate without aneuploidy  
is  $\mu = 7.98 \cdot 10^{-9}$  [ $7.906 \cdot 10^{-9} - 8.138 \cdot 10^{-9}$ ], much lower compared to a model with aneuploidy  
146 and suggesting a target size of just 40. The fitness of the mutant is also much lower at  $w_{2n^*} =$   
 $1.013$  [1.012 – 1.013]. This is because, without aneuploidy, a high mutation rate or fitness effect will  
148 lead to faster appearance and fixation of  $2n^*$  than in the experimental observations.

We also checked a model in which aneuploidy occurs but is adaptively neutral compared to the wild-  
150 type, that is,  $w_{2n+1} = w_{2n}$  and  $w_{2n+1^*} = w_{2n^*}$  but  $\delta > 0$ . This model fits the data better than the model  
with no aneuploidy (in which  $\delta = 0$ ), but worse than a model with positive selection for aneuploidy,  
152 in which  $w_{2n} < w_{2n+1} < w_{2n+1^*} < w_{2n^*}$  (Figure 4).

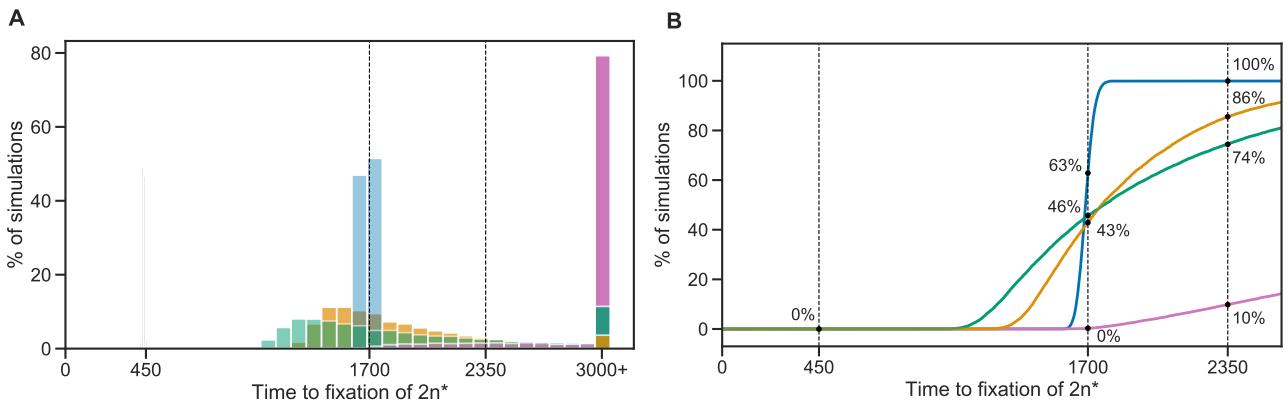
**Model predictions of genotype frequency dynamics.** We simulated 50 replicate genotype fre-  
154 quency dynamics using the MAP estimate parameters. Figure 5A shows the simulated frequencies of



**Figure 3: Posterior distribution of model parameters.** On the diagonal, the marginal posterior distribution of each model parameter. Below the diagonal, the joint posterior distribution of pairs of model parameters (dark purple and bright yellow for low and high density, respectively). Red markers and orange lines for the joint MAP estimate (which may differ from the marginal MAP, as the marginal distribution integrates over all other parameters).

the four genotypes ( $2n$ ,  $2n+1$ ,  $2n+1^*$  and  $2n^*$ ), as well as the frequencies of  $2n^*$  cells that arose from  
 156 either  $2n+1$  cells via a sequences of mutation and chromosome loss events ( $2n_A^*$ ), or directly from  
 $2n$  cells via a mutation event ( $2n_M^*$ ). We find that  $2n+1^*$  never reaches substantial frequency as it is  
 158 quickly replaced by  $2n^*$  in a process similar to *stochastic tunneling*<sup>20,25</sup>.

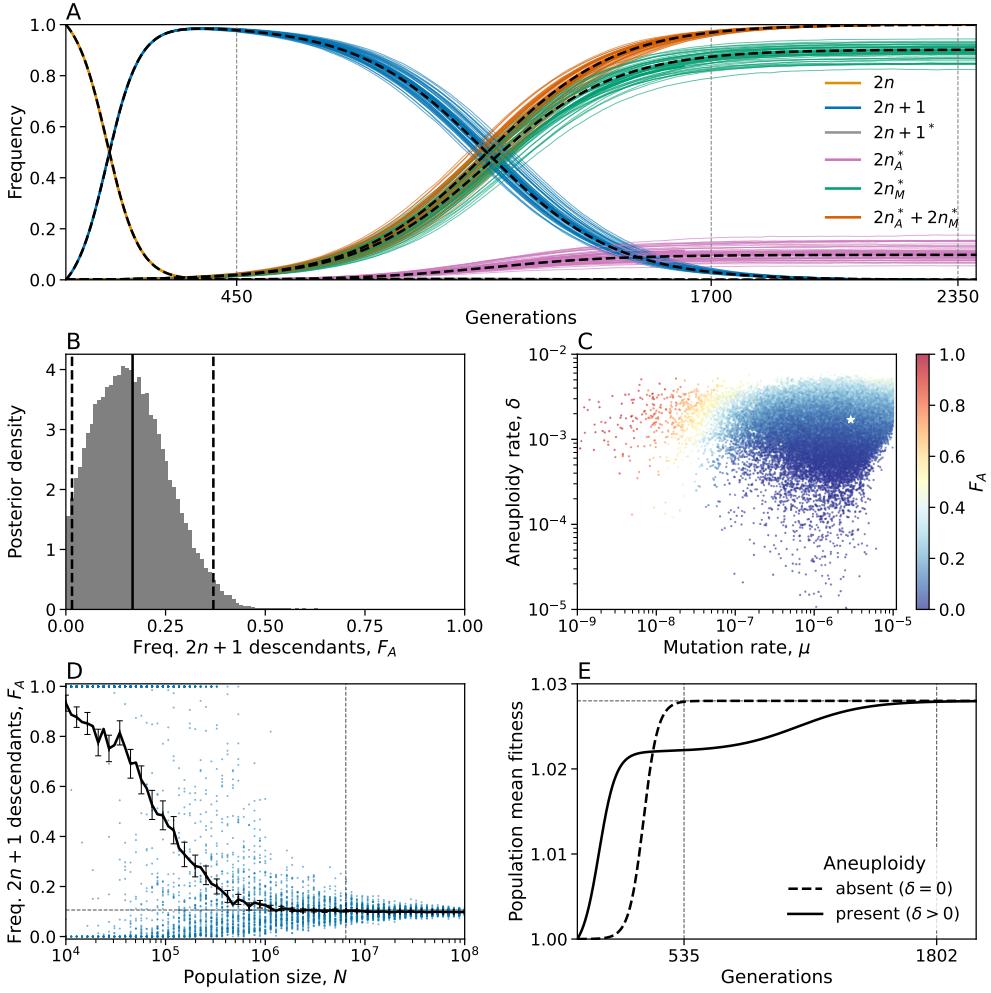
To test the hypothesis that aneuploidy facilitates adaptation, we estimated  $F_A$ , the expected frequency  
 160 of  $2n^*$  that arose from  $2n+1$ , computed as the average frequency of such  $2n_A^*$  cells at the end of  
 simulations using the MAP estimate parameters. Surprisingly, we observe that the majority of  $2n^*$   
 162 cells are  $2n_M^*$ , a product of a direct mutation in  $2n$  cells, rather than descending from  $2n+1$  cells  
 $(F_A^{MAP} = 0.106$ , Figure 5A). This is despite the fact that the  $2n+1$  genotype reaches high frequencies



**Figure 4: Model fit with and without aneuploidy.** The distribution of time to fixation of  $2n^*$  (i.e., adaptation time) in 10,000 simulations using MAP parameters of the model with beneficial aneuploidy (blue;  $\delta > 0$ ,  $w_{2n} < w_{2n+1} < w_{2n+1}^* < w_{2n}^*$ ) compared to alternative models: a model with the same parameter values but without aneuploidy (gray,  $\delta = 0$ , concentrated at  $t = 450$ ); a model fitted to the data assuming no aneuploidy (green,  $\delta = 0$ ); a model fitted to the data assuming neutral aneuploidy (yellow,  $\delta > 0$ ,  $w_{2n+1} = w_{2n}$ ,  $w_{2n+1}^* = w_{2n}^*$ ); and a model with beneficial aneuploidy and an extended prior distribution (pink). In the experiment by Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, one population lost aneuploidy by generation 1,700 and another by generation 2,350 (dashed lines) but not before generation 450. Thus, the blue distribution has a better fit compared to the other distributions (the gray distribution has a particularly poor fit). The MAP likelihood (eq. (4)) is 0.84, 0.78, 0.67, and 0.14 for the models represented by blue, yellow, green, and pink distributions, respectively. **(A)** Histogram of the time to fixation of  $2n^*$ . The last bin contains all values equal or greater than 3,000. **(B)** Cumulative distribution of the time to fixation.

164 in the population (at least 0.98, Figure 5A).

This result is not unique to the MAP parameter estimate. We simulated genotype frequency dynamics  
166 using parameter samples from the posterior distribution (Figure 3), and computed the posterior  
168 distribution of  $F_A$  (Figure 5B). The mean  $F_A$  was just 0.1673 [0.0154-0.370 95% CI] and only in 489  
170 of 100,000 posterior samples (0.489%)  $F_A$  was larger than 0.5 (see Supporting Material for results  
when transitions to less-fit genotypes are allowed, such as  $2n^*$  to  $2n+1^*$ ). Thus, if we sample a random  
172 cell from the evolved  $2n^*$  population, it is more likely to have descended directly from an euploid cell  
than from an aneuploid cell. The probability of  $2n^*$  descending from  $2n+1$  ( $F_A$ ) increases with the  
aneuploidy rate,  $\delta$ , and decreases with the mutation rate,  $\mu$ , and population size  $N$  (Figure 5C,D). In  
some cases it can also be affected by the fitness parameters (Figure S10).



**Figure 5: Predicted frequency of aneuploid-descended cells.** (A) Posterior predicted genotype frequencies over time, including the source of  $2n^*$ :  $2n_A^*$  arose from  $2n + 1$ , whereas  $2n_M^*$  arose directly from  $2n$ . Colored curves are 50 simulations using the MAP estimate parameters. Black dashed curves are the expected genotype frequencies without genetic drift (from a deterministic model). See Figure S9 for log-log scale, in which the sequence of events is easier to observe. (B) Posterior distribution of  $F_A$ , the expected frequency of  $2n^*$  cells descended from  $2n+1$  cells, computed as the average frequency at the end of 100 simulations for 100,000 samples from the parameter posterior distribution. Solid and dashed lines show the mean and 95% CI. (C)  $F_A$  values (color coded) from panel B, with their corresponding mutation rate  $\mu$  on x-axis and aneuploidy rate  $\delta$  on the y-axis. White star shows the MAP estimate. See also Figure S10. (D)  $F_A$  as a function of the population size,  $N$ , in posterior predictions with MAP parameters. Markers show  $F_A$  in 250 simulations per population size. Error bars show mean  $F_A$  with 95% CI (bootstrap,  $n = 10,000$ ). Vertical dashed line for population size in the experiment,  $6.425 \cdot 10^6$ . Horizontal line for  $F_A^{MAP} = 0.106$ . (E) Population mean fitness in a model without drift using MAP estimate parameters. Solid lines for mean fitness with aneuploidy ( $\delta > 0$ ), where the population reaches adaptation (mean fitness at 99.99% of maximum value) at generation 1,802. Dashed lines for mean fitness without aneuploidy ( $\delta = 0$ ), where the population adapts much earlier, at generation 535.

174 **Genetic instability in aneuploid cells.** It has been suggested that aneuploidy increases genetic  
175 instability<sup>45,19</sup>. Therefore, we inferred model parameters under the assumption that the mutation rate  
176 increases in aneuploid cells by a factor  $\tau = 1, 33/32$  (due to an additional chromosome), 2, 5, 10, or  
177 100 (due to genetic instability). We found that the posterior distribution was similar for  $\tau = 1, 33/32$ ,  
178 2, and 5 (Figure S4). With  $\tau = 100$ , the estimated mutation rate was about 7-8-fold lower compared  
179 to  $\tau = 1$  ( $\mu = 4.094 \cdot 10^{-7}$  [ $6.252 \cdot 10^{-8} - 6.046 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ]) and the aneuploidy rate was about 2-3-fold  
180 lower ( $\delta = 0.744 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $0.506 \cdot 10^{-3} - 1.827 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ]). With  $\tau = 10$ , the estimated mutation rate  
181 was only slightly lower compared to  $\tau = 1$  ( $\mu = 1.67 \cdot 10^{-6}$  [ $2.836 \cdot 10^{-8} - 2.245 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ]). WAIC  
182 (lower is better, see Methods) is lowest for  $\tau = 33/32$  and  $\tau = 1$  (Table S3). Therefore, our results do  
183 not support an increase in mutation rate in aneuploid cells. This may be because, unless the increase  
184 is strong ( $\tau \geq 10$ ), it does not seem to affect our inference; or because chromosome III is one of  
185 the smallest chromosomes<sup>15</sup>. We also checked the differences in genotype frequency dynamics for  
186 different  $\tau$  values. We observe  $\tau = 100$  could be distinguished if accurate data was available for the  
187 waiting time until the frequency of  $2n$  to decrease below 95% (Figure S5A) or for waiting time for the  
188 frequency of  $2n+1$  to either reach or go below 95% (Figure S5B).

## Discussion

190 In a landmark study on the role of chromosome duplication in adaptive evolution, Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>  
191 found that a chromosome III trisomy was acquired by *S. cerevisiae* populations evolving under heat  
192 stress, only to be later replaced by euploid mutant cells that carry "refined" solutions to the stress.  
193 Additionally, such a replacement also occurred when they initiated evolutionary experiments with a  
194 population in which all cells carry a chromosome III trisomy. They hypothesized that the euploid  
195 mutant cells evolved by heat-resistance mutations in aneuploid cells followed by reversion of trisomy  
196 due to a chromosome loss event.

197 If indeed the evolved euploid population is descended from the aneuploid population, then mutant  
198 alleles that were common in the aneuploid populations should also be common in the evolved euploid  
199 population. However, we found that this is not the case (Figure 1): mutant allele frequencies in the  
200 aneuploid and euploid populations are negatively correlated, such that common alleles in the former  
201 are rare in the latter. Furthermore, we developed an evolutionary genetic model of adaptive evolution  
202 by aneuploidy and mutation (Figure 2), fitted it to the experimental results of Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, and  
203 used it to predict the genotype frequency dynamics. The model predicted that only about 10-15% of  
204 the evolved euploid population descended from aneuploid cells—that is, the majority of the euploid

population are not descended from aneuploid cells, but rather are direct descendants of the ancestral  
206 wild-type population (Figure 5).

This happens despite aneuploidy reaching a high frequency in the population (>95%). Conventional  
208 wisdom might suggest that once the aneuploid genotype  $2n+1$  reaches high frequency, it will have a  
better chance at producing "refined" solutions via mutations, and its descendants will come to dominate  
210 the population: the frequency of  $2n_A^*$  (which arises from  $2n+1^*$ ) will be higher than the frequency of  
 $2n_M^*$  (which arises directly from  $2n$ ).

212 So how does  $2n_M^*$  prevail? Initially, the supply rates of  $2n+1$  and  $2n_M^*$  are  $N\delta \approx 11,000$  and  $N\mu \approx 19$ ,  
respectively (assuming MAP parameter estimates). Therefore, both genotypes are expected to appear  
214 immediately at the beginning of the experiment (Figure S9). However,  $2n+1$  appears at a much higher  
frequency as  $\delta \gg \mu$  by 2-3 orders of magnitude. After they first appear,  $2n_M^*$  has higher fitness. But  
216 as long as the frequency of  $2n$  is high, the supply rate of  $2n+1$  is higher than that of  $2n_M^*$ , again due to  
 $\delta \gg \mu$ . However, supply rates of both genotypes decreases with the frequency of  $2n$ . Therefore, when  
218 the latter decreases, mainly due to the increase in the frequency of  $2n+1$ , both supply rates diminish.  
At this stage, the higher fitness of  $2n_M^*$  comes into play and it starts to take over the population,  
220 which is mainly composed of  $2n+1$ . For the aneuploid lineage to compete with the mutant lineage, it  
must produce  $2n_A^*$  via a mutation followed by chromosome loss. Although this is a stochastic process  
222 (due to drift), our results show that the time until  $2n_A^*$  reaches a frequency of 0.1% is roughly 450  
generations, without much variation (intersection of purple lines and vertical dashed line in Figure S9).  
224 However, by that time  $2n_M^*$  is already at a roughly 10-fold higher frequency (1.86%), and since both  
mutants have the same fitness, their relative frequency remains roughly the same until the end of the  
226 experiment.

**Predictions for small populations.** We examined the effect of the population size,  $N$ , on the fre-  
228 quency of  $2n+1$  descendants in the evolved population,  $F_A$ . We found that  $F_A$  is expected to decrease  
as the population size increases (Figure 5D), ranging from about 90% when the population size is  
230 10,000, to about 10% when the population size is above 1,000,000 (less than the experimental popu-  
lation size, which was 6,425,000). Thus, our model provides a testable prediction: if the experiment  
232 was repeated under a lower population size (via stronger daily dilutions or in a smaller volume), than  
the fraction of the population descending from aneuploid cells would be much higher.

234 **Aneuploidy delays rather than facilitates adaptation.** An additional interesting result of our  
study is that aneuploidy increases, rather than decreases, the adaptation time (Figure 5E). This

236 happens despite the fact that the mean fitness initially increases faster in the presence of aneuploidy  
237 (Figure 5E). This is because once  $2n+1$  is common, selection for the mutant strain ( $2n+1^*$  or  $2n^*$ ) is  
238 weaker compared to when  $2n^*$  competes directly with  $2n$ .

200 **Rate and fitness effect of aneuploidy and mutation.** We inferred the rates of aneuploidy and  
201 mutation and their effects on fitness. We estimate that the aneuploidy rate (i.e., number of chromosome  
202 gains per generation) is  $1.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ , higher than a previous estimate of  $6.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$ <sup>61</sup>. This may be due to  
203 genetic instability caused by heat stress<sup>5</sup>. In addition, we find no evidence for increased mutation rates  
204 in aneuploid cells. Previous empirical studies have suggested that genetic instability (e.g., elevated  
205 mutation rates) in aneuploid cells is due to stress associated with the aneuploid state<sup>3,6,59,19</sup>. However,  
206 in the experiment of Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, both the wild-type and the aneuploid were under heat stress, which  
207 may explain why we did not find evidence for an increased mutation rate specifically in aneuploid  
208 cells.

248 **Conclusions.** Here, we tested the hypothesis that aneuploid cells are an evolutionary "stepping  
249 stone", or adaptive intermediate, between wild-type euploid cells and mutant euploid cells. Our  
250 results suggest that, although it seems the population goes from euploid to aneuploid and back, this is  
251 not the case at the individual level. We estimate that only about 10-15% of the euploid cells descended  
252 from aneuploid cells, whereas the rest are direct descendants of the wild-type euploid cells. Thus,  
253 aneuploidy can delay, rather than accelerate, adaptation, and cells that become aneuploid may  
254 leave less descendants than cells that remain euploid. This surprising result reinforces the importance  
255 of models when making interpretations on evolutionary processes, and emphasizes the unintuitive  
256 outcomes of clonal interference during adaptive evolution.

## Models and Methods

258 **DNA sequencing.** Whole-genome sequencing of the ancestral diploid strain ( $2n$ ) was performed  
259 on a sample from a single colony of the ancestor. Whole-genome sequencing of the four evolving  
260 populations ( $H2$  after 450 and 2,350 generations, and  $H4$  after 450 and 1,700 generations) was  
261 performed on a sample from these populations (rather than from single colonies). The liquid sample  
262 from each evolving population was taken from each culture as it grows under the same conditions as  
263 the lab evolution experiments (YPD at 39 °C). DNA was purified from the collected cells for each  
264 population and downstream deep sequencing was performed according to the Illumina protocol for

amplicon sequencing.

266 **Evolutionary genetic model.** We model the evolution of a population of cells using a Wright-Fisher  
 model<sup>32</sup>, assuming a constant effective population size  $N$ , non-overlapping generations, and including  
 268 the effects of natural selection, genetic drift, aneuploidy, and mutation. We focus on beneficial genetic  
 modifications, neglecting the effects of deleterious and neutral mutations or karyotypic changes. The  
 270 model allows for a single aneuploid karyotype (e.g., chromosome III duplication) and a single mutation  
 to accumulate in the genotype. Thus, the model follows four genotypes (Figure 2): euploid wild-type,  
 272  $2n$ , the initial genotype; euploid mutant,  $2n^*$ , with the standard karyotype and a single beneficial mutation;  
 274 aneuploid wild-type,  $2n+1$ , with an extra chromosome, i.e., following chromosome duplication;

276 and aneuploid mutant,  $2n+1^*$ , with an extra chromosome and a beneficial mutation.

Transitions between the genotypes occur as follows (Figure 2): Beneficial mutations from  $2n$  to  $2n^*$   
 276 and from  $2n+1$  to  $2n+1^*$  occur with probability  $\mu$ , the mutation rate. We neglect back-mutations (i.e.,  
 from  $2n^*$  to  $2n$  and from  $2n+1^*$  to  $2n+1$ ). Aneuploidy is formed by chromosome mis-segregation,  
 278 so that cells transition from  $2n$  to  $2n+1$  and from  $2n+1^*$  to  $2n^*$  with probability  $\delta$ , the aneuploidy  
 rate. That is, we assume chromosomes are gained and lost at the same rate, and we neglect events that  
 280 form a less-fit genotype (i.e.,  $2n+1$  to  $2n$  and  $2n^*$  to  $2n+1^*$ ).

In the experiment by Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, the population was grown every day from  $1.6 \cdot 10^6$  cells until  
 282 reaching stationary phase and then diluted 1:120. Thus, we set the population size to  $N = 6.425 \cdot 10^6$ ,  
 the harmonic mean of  $\{2^k \cdot 1.6 \cdot 10^6\}_{k=0}^7$ <sup>9</sup>. The initial population has  $N$  cells with genotype  $2n$ . The  
 284 effect of natural selection on the frequency  $f_i$  of genotype  $i = 2n, 2n + 1, 2n + 1^*,$  or  $2n^*$  is given  
 by

$$286 \quad f_i^s = \frac{f_i w_i}{\bar{w}}, \quad (1)$$

where  $w_i$  is the fitness of genotype  $i$  and  $\bar{w} = \sum_j f_j w_j$  is the population mean fitness. The effect of  
 288 mutation and aneuploidy on genotype frequencies is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f_{2n}^m &= (1 - \delta - \mu) f_{2n}^s, \\ f_{2n+1}^m &= \delta f_{2n}^s + (1 - \mu) f_{2n+1}^s, \\ f_{2n+1^*}^m &= \mu f_{2n+1}^s + (1 - \delta) f_{2n+1^*}^s, \\ f_{2n^*}^m &= \mu f_{2n}^s + \delta f_{2n+1}^s + f_{2n^*}^s. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

290 Finally, random genetic drift is modeled using a multinomial distribution<sup>32</sup>,

$$\mathbf{f}' \sim \frac{1}{N} \cdot \text{Mult}(N, \mathbf{f}^m), \quad (3)$$

292 where  $\mathbf{f}^m = (f_{2n}^m, f_{2n+1}^m, f_{2n+1^*}^m, f_{2n^*}^m)$  are the frequencies of the genotypes after mutation and  
 293 aneuploidy,  $\mathbf{f}'$  are the genotype frequencies in the next generation, and  $Mult(N, \mathbf{f})$  is a multinomial  
 294 distribution parameterized by the population size  $N$  and the genotype frequencies  $\mathbf{f}$ . Overall, the change  
 in genotype frequencies from one generation to the next is given by the transformation  $f_i \rightarrow f'_i$ .

296 **Empirical data for model inference.** We use the results of evolutionary experiments reported by  
 Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>. In their heat-stress experiment, four populations of *S. cerevisiae* evolved under 39 °C.  
 298 Aneuploidy fixed in all four population in the first 450 generations. Hereafter, fixation or elimination  
 300 of a genotype *by generation t* means that more than 95% or less than 5% of the population carry the  
 302 genotype at generation  $t$ , and possibly earlier. From re-analysis of data not published in the original  
 paper, aneuploidy did not fix before at least 200 generations elapsed. The experiment continued with  
 two populations, in which aneuploidy was eliminated by generation 1,700 and 2,350 while still under  
 the same conditions of elevated heat (39 °C).

304 **Likelihood function.** Because our model, just like the Wright-Fisher model, is non-linear and  
 stochastic, computing the distribution of fixation time  $T(g)$  of genotype  $g$  for use in the likelihood  
 306 function is intractable (it is even hard to use a diffusion-equation approximation due to the model having  
 multiple genotypes, rather than just two). We overcome this problem by approximating the likelihood  
 308 using simulations. We simulate 1,000 experiments per parameter vector  $\theta = (\mu, \delta, s, b, c)$ , resulting in  
 a set of simulated observations  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \{\tilde{X}_i\}_{i=1}^{1000}$ . We then compute the approximate likelihood,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\theta) = P^4(200 \leq T(2n + 1) \leq 450) \cdot & \left[ 1 - \right. \\ & P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{T(2n^*) < 1700\} \mid 200 \leq T(2n + 1) \leq 450) - \\ 310 & P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{1700 < T(2n^*) < 2350\} \mid 200 \leq T(2n + 1) \leq 450) + \\ & \left. P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{T(2n^*) < 1700\} \wedge \{1700 < T(2n^*) < 2350\} \mid 200 \leq T(2n + 1) \leq 450) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where  $\{ \dots \}$  is the "logical not" operator,  $P^4(\dots)$  is the 4th power of  $P(\dots)$ , and all probabilities  
 312  $P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}(\dots)$  are approximated from the results of the simulations  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ . For example,  $P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}(\{T(2n^*) < 1700\} \mid$   
 200 ≤  $T(2n + 1) \leq 450$ ) is approximated by taking simulations in which  $2n+1$  fixed before generation  
 314 450 but not before generation 200, and computing the fraction of such simulations in which  $2n^*$  did  
 not fix by generation 1,700, and hence aneuploidy did not extinct before generation 1,700. Figure S1  
 316 compares results with less and more simulated experiments, demonstrating that 1,000 simulations are  
 likely sufficient.

318 For a model without aneuploidy (that is, when the aneuploidy rate is fixed at zero,  $\delta = 0$ ), we disregard

the increased expression in chromosome III and the growth advantage measured in generation 450, and

320 focus on the growth advantage measured in later generations, presumably due to a beneficial mutation.

Therefore, the likelihood is approximated by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_!(\theta) = & 1 - P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{T(2n^*) < 1700\}) - \\ 322 \quad & P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{1700 < T(2n^*) < 2350\}) + \\ & P_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}}^4(\{T(2n^*) < 1700\} \wedge \{1700 < T(2n^*) < 2350\}). \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

**Parameter inference.** To infer model parameters, we use approximate Bayesian computation with

324 a sequential Monte-Carlo scheme, or ABC-SMC<sup>48</sup>, implemented in the `pyABC` Python package<sup>24</sup>

[pyabc.readthedocs.io](https://pyabc.readthedocs.io). This approach uses numerical stochastic simulations of the model to infer

326 a posterior distribution over the model parameters. It is a method of likelihood-free, simulation-

based inference<sup>8</sup>, that is, for estimating a posterior distribution when a likelihood function cannot be

328 directly computed. It is therefore suitable in our case, in which the likelihood function can only be

approximated from simulations, and cannot be directly computed.

330 The ABC-SMC algorithm employs sequential importance sampling over multiple iterations<sup>51,23,49</sup>. In

iteration  $t$  of the algorithm, a set of parameter vectors,  $\{\theta_{i,t}\}_{i=1}^{n_t}$ , also called *particles*, are constructed

332 in the following way. A proposal particle,  $\theta^*$ , is sampled from a proposal distribution, and is either

accepted or rejected, until  $n_t$  particles are accepted. The number of particles,  $n_t$ , is adapted at every

334 iteration  $t$  using the adaptive population strategy<sup>24</sup> [pyabc.readthedocs.io](https://pyabc.readthedocs.io). For  $t = 0$ , the proposal

particle is sampled from the prior distribution,  $p(\theta)$ . For  $t > 0$ , the proposal particle is sampled from

336 the particles accepted in the previous iteration,  $\{\theta_{i,t-1}\}_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}}$ , each with a probability relative to its weight

$W_{t-1}(\theta_{i,t-1})$  (see below). The proposal particle is then perturbed using a kernel perturbation kernel,

338  $K_t(\theta^* | \theta)$  where  $\theta$  is the sample from the previous iteration. Then, a set of synthetic observations

$\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^*$  is simulated, and the proposal particle  $\theta^*$  is accepted if its approximate likelihood (eq. (4)) is high

340 enough,  $\mathcal{L}(\theta^*) > 1 - \epsilon_t$  (or more commonly, if  $1 - \mathcal{L}(\theta^*) < \epsilon_t$ ), where  $\epsilon_t > 0$  is the *acceptance*

threshold, as higher values of  $\epsilon_t$  allow more particles to be accepted. The acceptance threshold  $\epsilon_t$

342 is chosen as the median of the  $1 - \mathcal{L}(\theta)$  of the particles accepted in the previous iteration,  $t - 1$ ,

and  $\epsilon_0 = 0.01$ . For each accepted particle  $\theta_{i,t}$  a weight  $W_t(\theta_{i,t})$  is assigned: for  $t = 0$ ,  $W_0(\theta_{i,0}) = 1$ ,

344 and for  $t > 0$ ,  $W_t(\theta_{i,t}) = p(\theta_{i,t}) / \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}} W_{t-1}(\theta_{i,t-1}) K_t(\theta_{i,t}, \theta_{i,t-1})$ , where  $p(\theta)$  is the prior density of  $\theta$

and  $K_t(\theta', \theta)$  is the probability of a perturbation from  $\theta$  to  $\theta'$ .  $K_t(\theta' | \theta)$  is a multivariate normal

346 distribution, fitted at iteration  $t$  to the particles from the previous iteration,  $\{\theta_{i,t-1}\}_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}}$ , and their

weights,  $\{W(\theta_{i,t-1})\}_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}}$ .

348 Acceptance is determined according to the approximate likelihood (eq. (4)), which has a maximum

value of  $\mathcal{L}_{max} = 0.875$  (giving a minimal value of  $\epsilon_{min} = 0.125$ ). We terminated the inference  
 350 iterations when the change in  $\epsilon$  value from one iteration to the next was small. With our standard prior  
 and model, we reached  $\epsilon = 0.13$  (or  $\mathcal{L} = 0.87$ ) after six iterations, with  $n_6 = 982$  accepted parameter  
 352 vectors and effective sample size ESS=651 (Figure S2). Running the inference algorithm with different  
 initialization seeds and less or more simulations for approximating the likelihood produced similar  
 354 posterior distributions (Figure S1).

After producing a set of weighted particles from the the posterior distribution using the above ABC-  
 356 SMC algorithm, we approximate the posterior using kernel density estimation (KDE) with Gaussian  
 kernels. We truncate the estimated posterior to avoid positive posterior density for values with zero  
 358 prior density. The MAP (maximum a posteriori) estimate is computed as the the maximum of the  
 estimated joint posterior density. We then draw 5,000,000 samples from the posterior distribution  
 360 to compute the HDI (highest density interval) and draw 50,000 samples to visualize the posterior  
 distribution with histograms.

362 **Model comparison.** We examine several versions of our evolutionary models, e.g. without aneuploidy or with increased mutation rate in aneuploid cells, as well as several different prior distributions  
 364 (see below). To compare these, we plot posterior predictions: for each model we execute 10,000  
 simulations using the MAP parameter estimates and plot the distributions of time to fixation of  $2n^*$ ,  
 366 one of key properties of the model likelihood. These plots visualize the fit of each model to the  
 data. Also, for similar models we plot the marginal and joint posterior distributions of the parameters;  
 368 if these are similar, we consider the models interchangeable. We validate this by comparing HDI  
 (highest density interval) of posterior distributions.

370 Where posterior plots are very similar and the number of parameters is the same, we use WAIC, or  
 the widely applicable information criterion <sup>12</sup>, defined as

$$372 \quad WAIC(\theta) = -2 \log \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{L}(\theta)] + 2\mathbb{V}[\log \mathcal{L}(\theta)] \quad (6)$$

where  $\theta$  is a parameter vector, and  $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$  and  $\mathbb{V}[\cdot]$  are the expectation and variance taken over the  
 374 posterior distribution, which in practice are approximated using 50,000 samples from the posterior  
 KDE. We validated that upon resampling WAIC values do not significantly change and that differences  
 376 in WAIC between models are preserved. WAIC values are scaled as a deviance measure: lower values  
 imply higher predictive accuracy<sup>21</sup>.

378 **Prior distributions.** We used informative prior distributions for  $w_{2n+1} = 1 - c + b$ ,  $w_{2n+1^*} = (1+s)(1-c)+b$  and  $w_{2n^*} = 1+s$ , which we estimated from growth curves data from mono-culture growth  
380 experiments previously reported by Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, Figs. 3C, 4A, and S2. We used Curveball, a method  
for predicting results of competition experiments from growth curve data<sup>34</sup> [curveball.yoavram.com](http://curveball.yoavram.com).  
382 Briefly, Curveball takes growth curves of two strains growing separately in mono-culture and predicts  
how they would grow in a mixed culture, that is, it predicts the results of a competition assay. From these  
384 predictions, relative fitness values can be computed. Because Curveball uses a maximum-likelihood  
approach to estimate model parameters, we were able to estimate a distribution of relative fitness  
386 values to be used as a prior distribution by sampling 10,000 samples from a truncated multivariate  
normal distribution defined by the maximum-likelihood covariance matrix (Figure S3).  
  
388 We used growth curves of  $2n$  and  $2n+1$  in 39 °C to estimate an informative prior distribution for  
 $w_{2n+1}$  (Figure S3-D, assuming  $w_{2n} = 1$ ). In this prior distribution, we used the same prior for  $w_{2n+1^*}$   
390 and  $w_{2n^*}$ . To increase computational efficiency, we also assumed  $w_{2n^*} > w_{2n+1^*} > w_{2n+1} > w_{2n}$ ;  
running the inference without this assumption produced similar results. See *supporting material* for  
392 an extended informative prior distribution that uses growth curves of  $2n^*$  and  $2n+1$  growing in 39 °C;  
this prior distribution proved to be less useful.  
  
394 As a control, we tested an uninformative uniform prior with  $U(1, 6)$ , for (i) all  $w_{2n+1}$ ,  $w_{2n+1^*}$ ,  $w_{2n^*}$ , or  
(ii) only for  $w_{2n+1^*}$ ,  $w_{2n^*}$ , using the above informative prior for  $w_{2n+1}$ . In these cases the inference  
396 algorithm failed to converge.

For the mutation rate,  $\mu$ , and aneuploidy rate,  $\delta$ , we used uninformative uniform priors,  $\mu \sim$   
398  $U(10^{-9}, 10^{-5})$  and  $\delta \sim U(10^{-6}, 10^{-2})$ . A wider mutation rate prior,  $\mu \sim U(10^{-9}, 10^{-3})$ , produced  
similar results.

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## 560 Supplementary Material

### Supplementary Analysis

562 **Sensitivity analysis.** Changing a single parameter while keeping the rest fixed at the MAP estimate produces a worse fit to the data (Figure S6). Furthermore, we fitted models with a mutation rate  
564 fixed at  $\mu = 10^{-5}$ ,  $10^{-6}$  and  $10^{-7}$ . We inferred similar parameters estimates for the model with  
566  $\mu = 10^{-6}$  compared to the model with a free  $\mu$  parameter, in which the inferred mutation rate is  
568  $\mu \approx 3 \cdot 10^{-6}$ . Inference assuming  $\mu = 10^{-5}$  or  $\mu = 10^{-7}$  produced similar estimates except that the estimated aneuploidy rate,  $\delta$ , was higher, and assuming  $\mu = 10^{-7}$ , the estimated fitness of  $2n+1$  was lower (Figure S7).

570 **Extended informative prior distribution.** In an extended informative prior distribution, we used additional growth curves of  $2n^*$  (*refined* strain from Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>) and  $2n+1$  in 39 °C to estimate  
572  $w_{2n^*}/w_{2n+1}$  (Figure S3L). The same distribution was used for  $w_{2n^*}/w_{2n+1*}$ . Thus, our main informative prior uses a single prior distribution for fitness values of  $2n+1$ ,  $2n+1^*$ , and  $2n^*$ , whereas the extended informative prior uses one distribution for  $2n+1$ , and another distribution for both  $2n+1^*$   
574 and  $2n^*$ .

576 We estimated the parameters under this extended informative prior. Inference took much longer to run but the posterior distribution seemed to converge, as it did not change much in the final iterations. The posterior predictive plot shows that inference with this extended prior produces a  
578 posterior distribution that fails to explain the empirical observations (pink in Figure 4). However, the inferred posterior distribution is considerably narrower (compare Figures 3 and S8) and therefore  
580 parameter estimates are less variable. The estimated mutation rate was much lower compared to the main informative prior, with  $\mu = 2.474 \cdot 10^{-9}$  [ $2.423 \cdot 10^{-9} - 2.612 \cdot 10^{-9}$ ]. Other parameter  
582 estimates are:  $\delta = 2.705 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $2.094 \cdot 10^{-3} - 3.094 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [ $1.021 - 1.024$ ],  
584  $w_{2n+1*} = 1.052$  [ $1.05 - 1.054$ ],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.053$  [ $1.051 - 1.055$ ], the latter two being much higher  
586 compare to the main informative prior. Notably, the mode of the posterior ratio  $w_{2n^*}/w_{2n+1} = 1.0009$  is much lower than the mode of the prior ratio of 1.033 (Figure S3H) and closer to the ratio of 1 that we assume in the main informative prior. Together with the posterior predictive results, we conclude that the main informative prior is preferable over the extended informative prior.

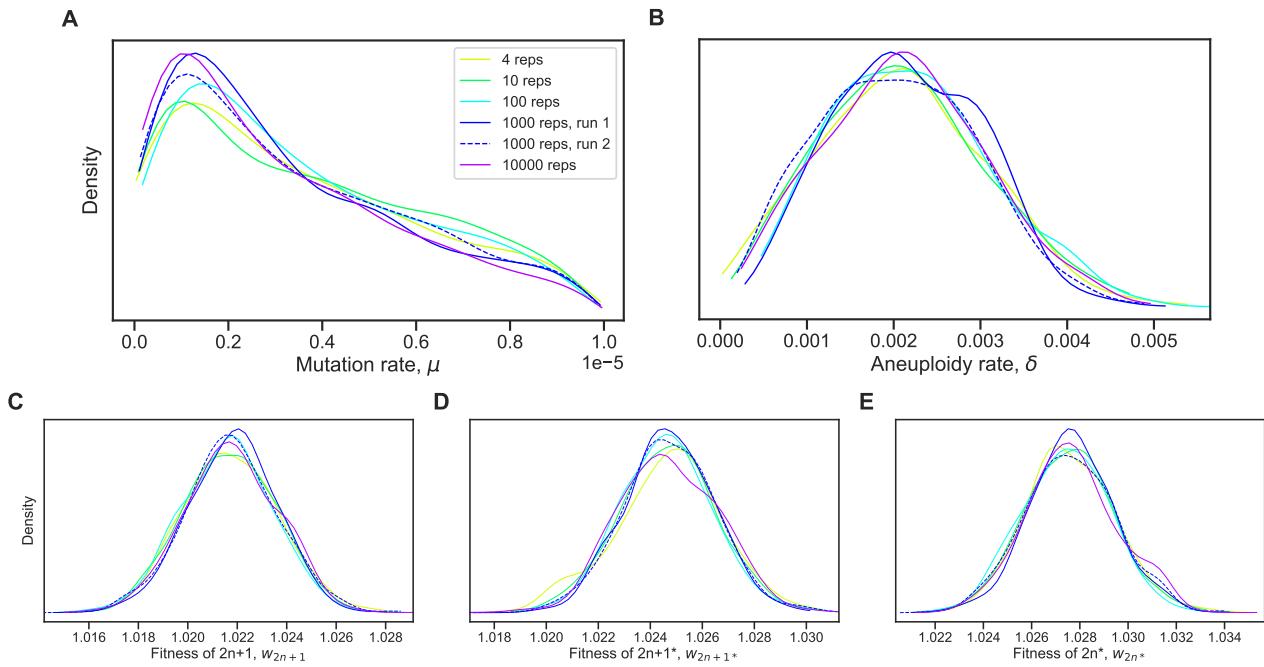
588 **Model with transitions to less-fit genotypes** We also estimated the parameters of a version of the  
 model that includes transitions (mutation, chromosome loss and gain) to less-fit genotypes (e.g.,  $2n^*$   
 590 to  $2n+1^*$ ),

$$\begin{aligned} f_{2n}^m &= (1 - \delta - \mu)f_{2n}^s + \delta f_{2n+1}^s + \mu f_{2n+1}^s, \\ f_{2n+1}^m &= \delta f_{2n}^s + (1 - \delta - \mu)f_{2n+1}^s + \mu f_{2n+1}^s, \\ f_{2n+1}^m &= \mu f_{2n+1}^s + (1 - \delta - \mu)f_{2n+1}^s + \delta f_{2n}^s, \\ f_{2n}^m &= \mu f_{2n}^s + \delta f_{2n+1}^s + (1 - \delta - \mu)f_{2n}^s. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

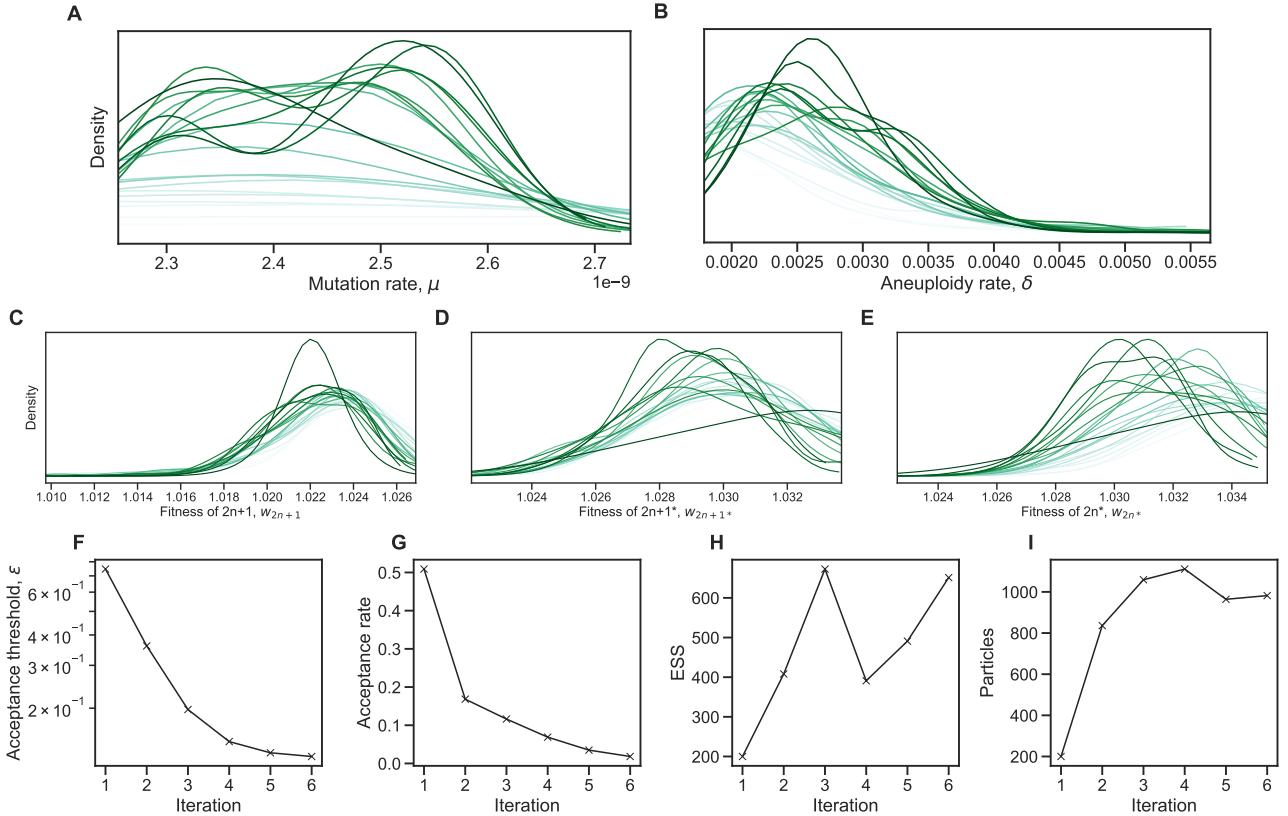
592 The inferred values are slightly different. The estimated mutation rate,  $\mu = 1.036 \cdot 10^{-7}$  [ $8.01 \cdot 10^{-8} - 1.339 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ], corresponds to a mutation target size of  $\sim 300 - 500$ , assuming the mutation  
 594 rate per base pair is roughly  $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$  (ref.<sup>62</sup>) or  $3.3 \cdot 10^{-10}$  (ref.<sup>27</sup>). The estimated aneuploidy  
 596 rate,  $\delta = 2.358 \cdot 10^{-4}$  [ $1.766 \cdot 10^{-4} - 2.837 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ] is 5-35-fold higher than in previous studies:  
 598 for chromosome III in diploid *S. cerevisiae*, Zhu et al.<sup>62</sup> estimated  $6.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$  chromosome gain  
 events per generation, and Kumaran et al.<sup>26</sup> estimate  $3.0 - 4.3 \cdot 10^{-5}$  chromosome loss events per  
 600 generation (95% confidence interval). The estimated fitness values are  $w_{2n+1} = 1.024$  [1.023 – 1.025],  
 602  $w_{2n+1}^* = 1.025$  [1.024 – 1.026],  $w_{2n}^* = 1.032$  [1.031 – 1.033], all relative to the fitness of  $2n$ , which  
 is set to  $w_{2n} = 1$ . Thus, we can infer that the cost of trisomy is  $c = w_{2n}^* - w_{2n+1}^* = 0.007$  (or 0.7%)  
 and the benefit of trisomy is  $w_{2n+1} - 1 - c = 0.017$  (1.7%), whereas the benefit of beneficial mutation  
 is  $w_{2n}^* - 1 = 0.032$  (3.2%).

We simulated genotype frequency dynamics using parameter samples from the posterior distribution,  
 604 and computed the posterior distribution of  $F_A$ . The mean  $F_A$  in this case is just 0.0189 [0.0004 - 0.1214  
 606 95% CI], lower than without the transitions to less-fit genotypes. Here,  $F_A$  is the sum of frequencies  
 of both  $2n_A^*$  and  $2n + 1_A^*$ , which reaches a frequency of 0.0007. Out of 100,000 posterior samples,  
 none had  $F_A$  above 0.05 (i.e., 5% of the population).

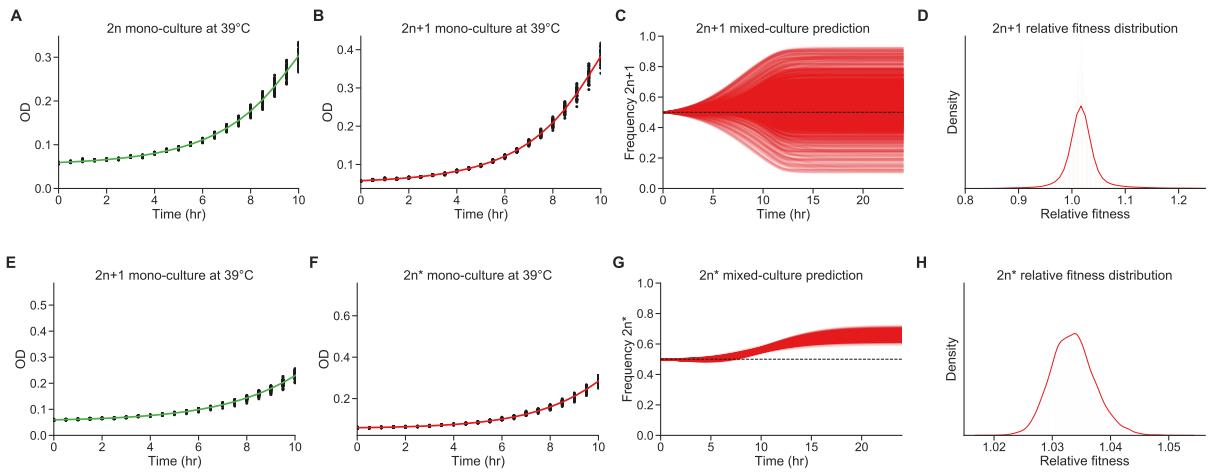
608 **Supplementary Figures & Tables**



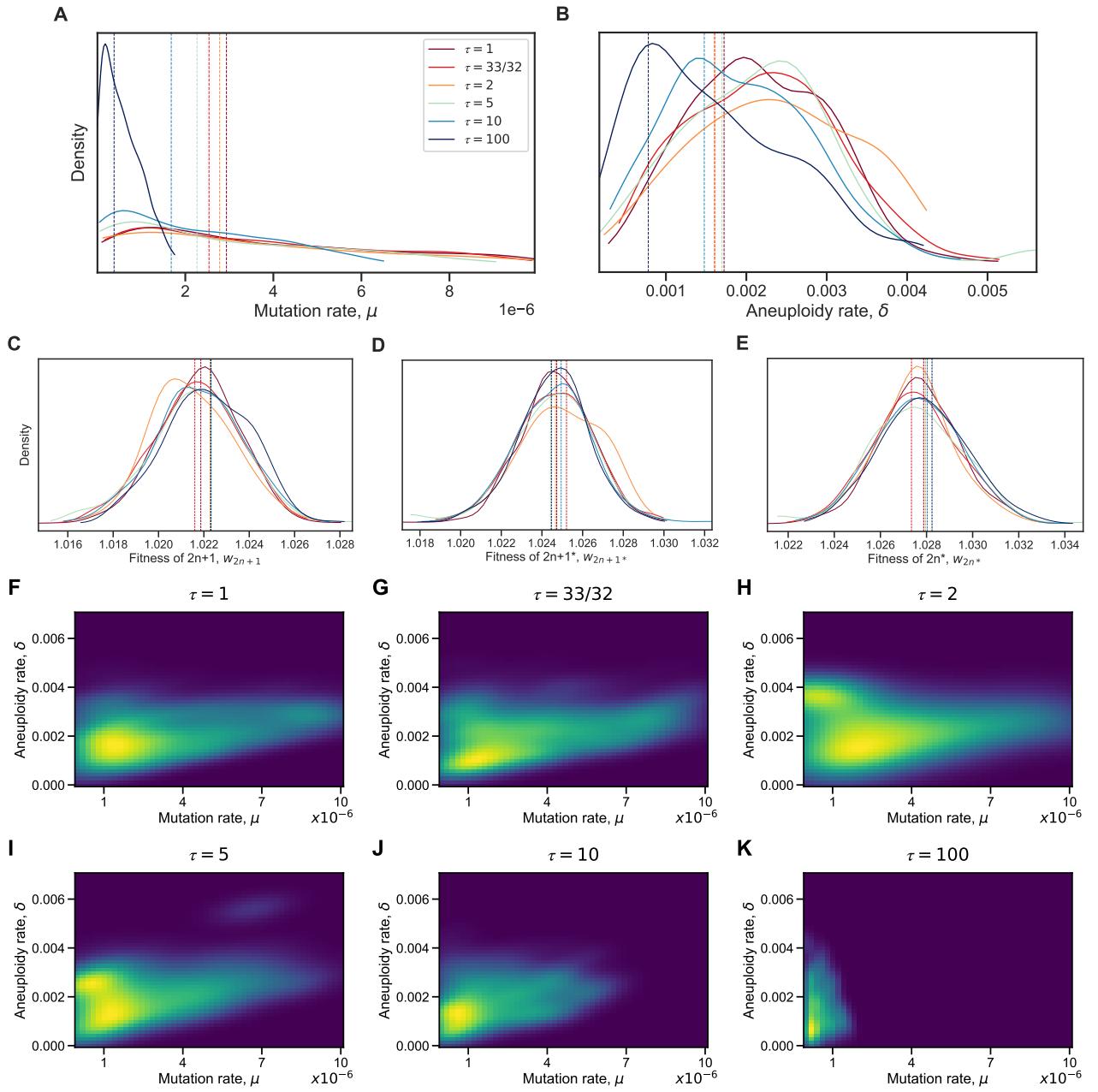
**Figure S1: Posterior distribution validation.** The posterior distribution of model parameters is roughly the same regardless of the number of simulations (4-10,000 replicates) used to approximate the likelihood (eq. (4)).



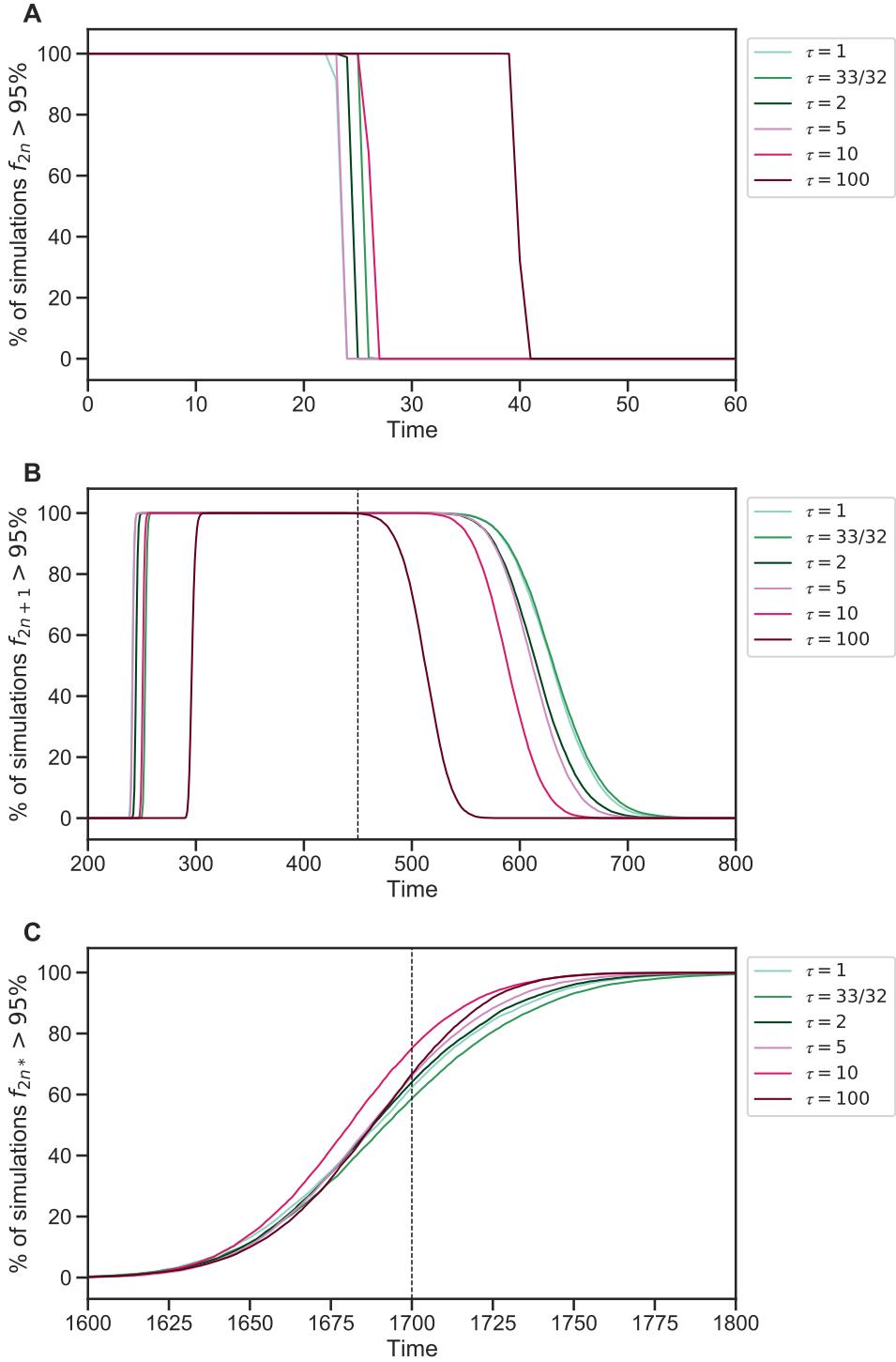
**Figure S2: Inference convergence.** The ABC-SMC algorithm was used to infer the model parameters. **(A-E)** The approximate posterior distributions of model parameters at each iteration of the ABC-SMC algorithm demonstrates convergence, as the posterior did not significantly change after the first iteration,  $t = 1$ . **(F-I)** ABC-SMC measures of convergence. After iteration number 6, the acceptance threshold was  $\epsilon = 0.13$  (i.e.,  $\mathcal{L} = 0.87$ , eq. (4)), the acceptance rate was 0.018, the number of particles was 982, and the effective sample size ESS=651.



**Figure S3: Fitness estimation from growth curves.** (A-D) Fitness estimation from growth curves of  $2n$  and  $2n+1$  at  $39^{\circ}\text{C}$ .  $w_{2n+1}/w_{2n}=1.024$  (95% CI: 0.959 - 1.115). Curveball (E-H) Fitness estimation from growth curves of  $2n+1$  and  $2n^*$  at  $39^{\circ}\text{C}$ .  $w_{2n^*}/w_{2n+1}=1.033$  (95% CI: 1.027 - 1.041). Growth curves previously described in Yona et al.<sup>58</sup>, Figs. 3C, 4A, and S2. Fitness estimated from growth curves using Curveball, a method for predicting results of competition experiments from growth curve data<sup>34</sup> [curveball.yoavram.com](http://curveball.yoavram.com). See *Models and Methods, Prior distributions* for more details. (A,B;E,F) Mono-culture growth curve data (markers) and best-fit growth models (lines). (C,G) The mixed-culture prediction for the strains from A,B and E,F respectively, 6,375 generated curves. (D,H) The relative fitness distribution for  $2n+1$  relative to  $2n$  (panel D) and  $2n^*$  relative to  $2n+1$  (panel H). Figures generated by Curveball.



**Figure S4: Model with elevated mutation rate in aneuploid cells.** (A-E) The inferred posterior distributions for models with different values of  $\tau$ , the fold-increase in mutation rate in aneuploid cells ( $2n+1$  and  $2n+1^*$ ). Vertical dashed lines represent the MAP (maximum a posteriori) of each distribution. When the increase in mutation rate is high,  $\tau = 10$  and  $\tau = 100$ , the inferred mutation (A) and aneuploidy (B) rates tend to be lower. (F-K) The inferred joint posterior distribution of mutation rate ( $\mu$ ) and aneuploidy rate ( $\delta$ ) with different  $\tau$  values (dark purple and bright yellow for low and high density, respectively).



**Figure S5: Genotype fixations for models with increased genetic instability.** We estimated the parameters for different models, each assuming a different value of  $\tau$ , the fold-increase in mutation rate in aneuploid cells. We then generated 10,000 simulations using the MAP estimate of each model and evaluated the fraction of simulations in which the frequency of genotype  $2n$  (**A**),  $2n+1$  (**B**), and  $2n^*$  (**C**) is above 95% (y-axis) at each generation (x-axis). Note that  $2n+1^*$  did not fix. We can see that  $\tau = 100$  can be distinguished if the waiting time for  $f_{2n} < 95\%$  is known (panel A) or if the waiting time for  $f_{2n+1} > 95\%$  or  $f_{2n+1} < 95\%$  is known (panel B). It is harder to distinguish between  $1 \leq \tau \leq 10$ .

**Table S1: Mutant alleles in population  $H2$ .**

Mutant alleles identified in the ancestor (generation 0), aneuploid (generation 450), and evolved (generation 2,350) of population  $H2$ . See supplementary file.

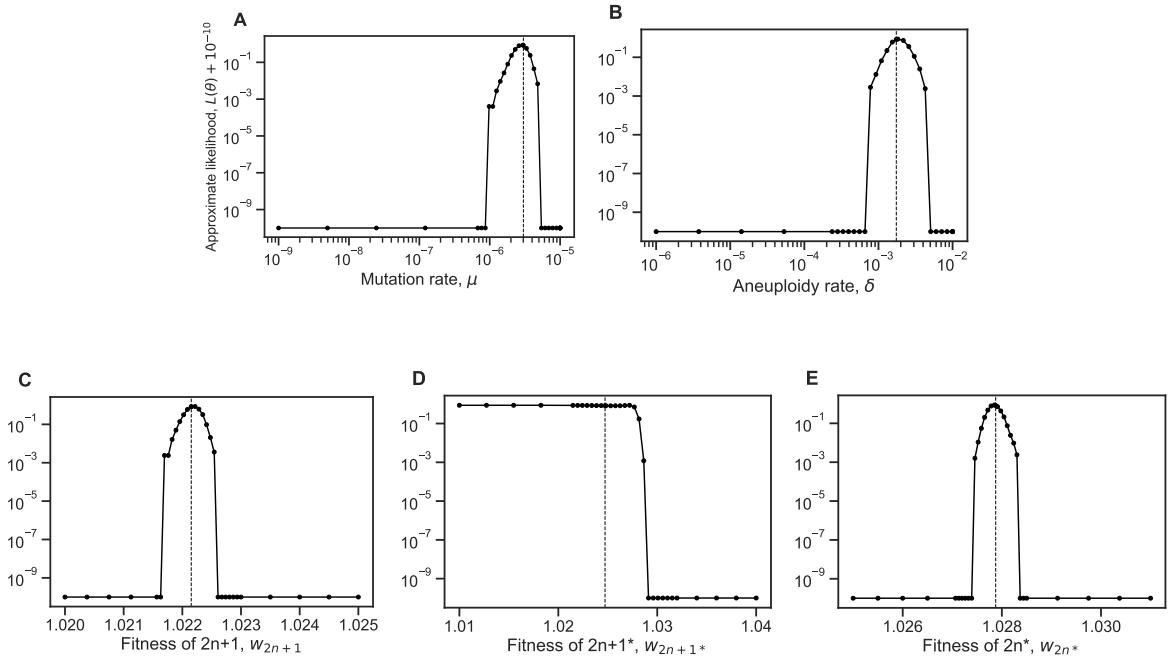
**Table S2: Mutant alleles in population  $H4$ .**

Mutant alleles identified in the ancestor (generation 0), aneuploid (generation 450), and evolved (generation 1,700) of population  $H4$ . See supplementary file.

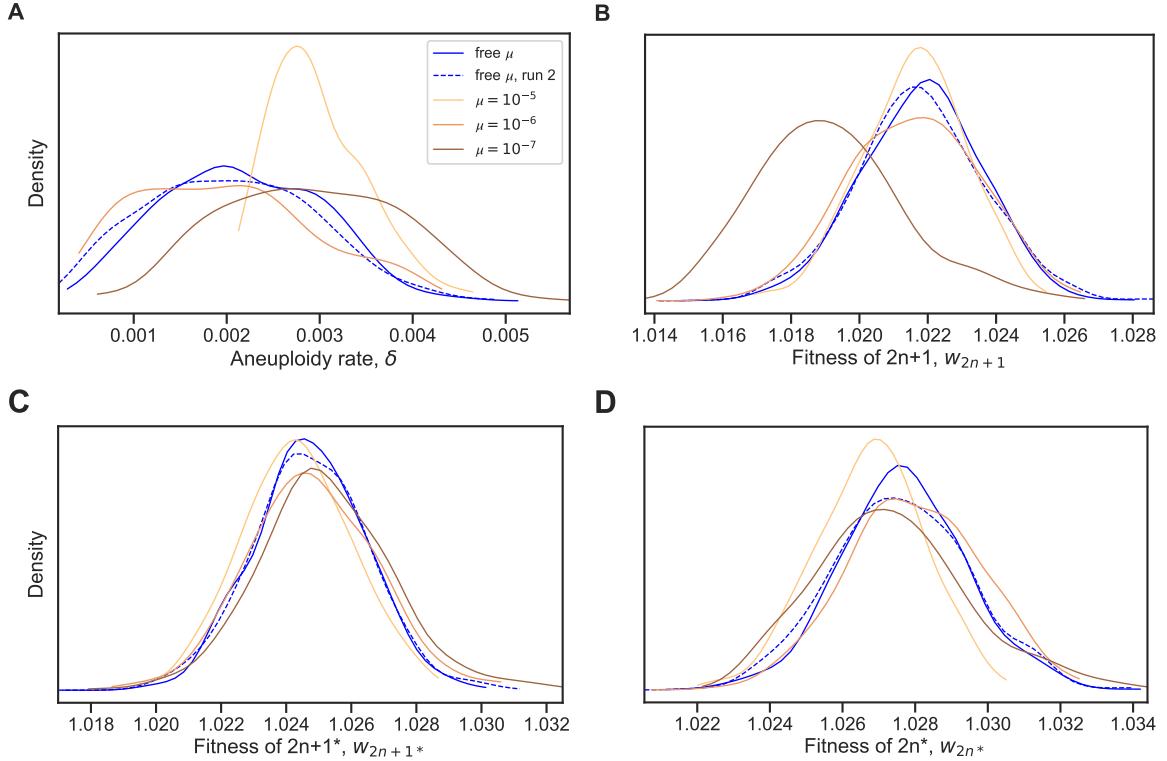
**Table S3: WAIC values for different  $\tau$  values.**

Model	WAIC
$\tau = 1$	-9
$\tau = 33/32$	-9
$\tau = 2$	-8
$\tau = 5$	-12
$\tau = 10$	-9
$\tau = 100$	-12

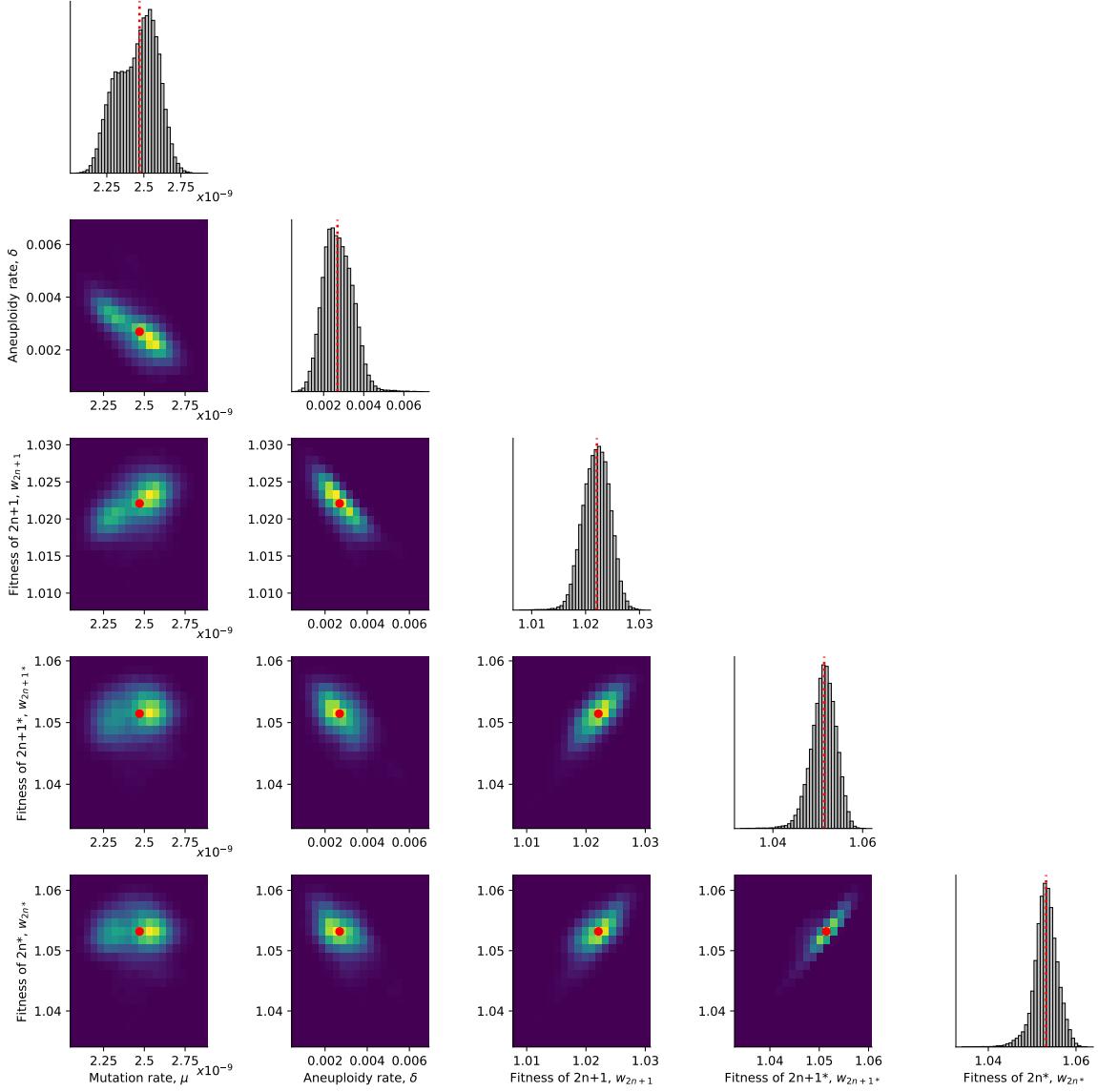
WAIC defined in eq. (6).



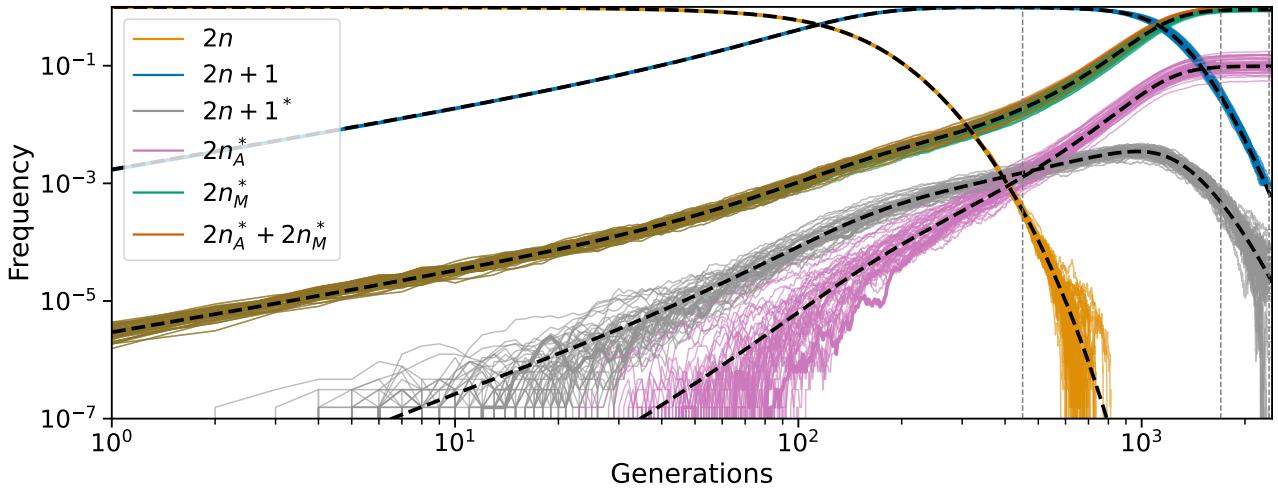
**Figure S6: Likelihood profiles.** Sensitivity of the model approximate likelihood,  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ , to changing a single parameter while the other parameters remain fixed at their MAP estimates. Dashed vertical line represents the MAP value. The prior distributions for the mutation rate and aneuploidy rate are  $\mu \sim U(10^{-9}, 10^{-5})$  and  $\delta \sim U(10^{-6}, 10^{-2})$ , respectively.



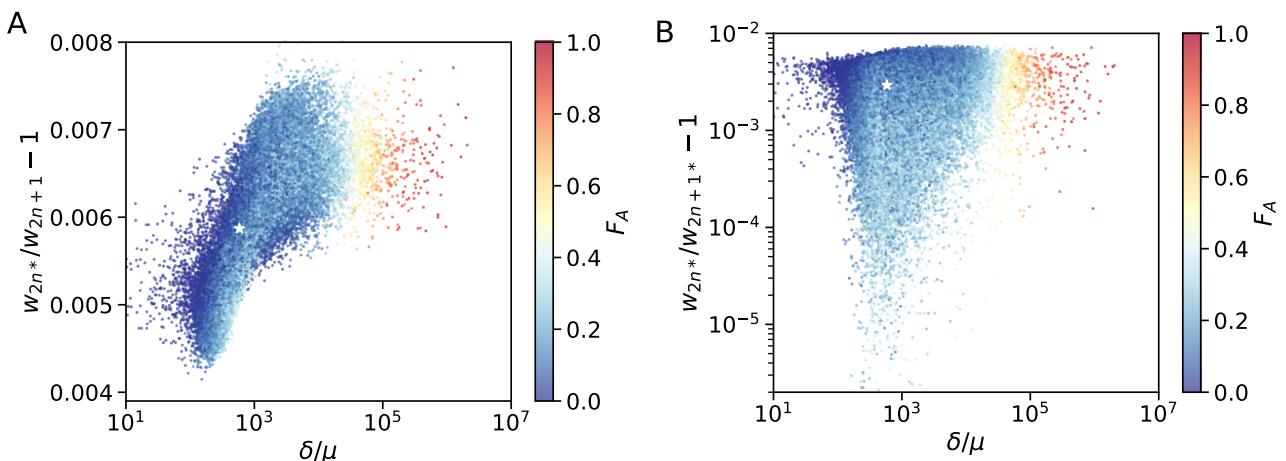
**Figure S7: Model with fixed mutation rate. (A-D)** The inferred posterior distributions for models with free and fixed mutation rate,  $\mu$ . The MAP (maximum a posteriori) and 50% HDI (highest density interval) for each model are: **free  $\mu$ , run 1:**  $\delta = 1.720 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $1.470 \cdot 10^{-3} - 2.786 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [1.021 – 1.023],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.025$  [1.024 – 1.026],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.028$  [1.026 – 1.029]; **free  $\mu$ , run 2:**  $\delta = 2.129 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $1.334 \cdot 10^{-3} - 2.695 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [1.02 – 1.023],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.025$  [1.023 – 1.026],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.028$  [1.026 – 1.029];  **$\mu = 10^{-5}$ :**  $\delta = 2.903 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $2.399 \cdot 10^{-3} - 3.156 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [1.021 – 1.023],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.024$  [1.023 – 1.025],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.027$  [1.026 – 1.028];  **$\mu = 10^{-6}$ :**  $\delta = 1.917 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $9.624 \cdot 10^{-4} - 2.447 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.022$  [1.02 – 1.023],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.025$  [1.023 – 1.026],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.028$  [1.027 – 1.029];  **$\mu = 10^{-7}$ :**  $\delta = 2.901 \cdot 10^{-3}$  [ $2.139 \cdot 10^{-3} - 3.671 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ],  $w_{2n+1} = 1.019$  [1.017 – 1.02],  $w_{2n+1^*} = 1.025$  [1.024 – 1.026],  $w_{2n^*} = 1.027$  [1.026 – 1.029].



**Figure S8: Posterior distribution of parameters inferred with the extended prior distribution.** On the diagonal, the inferred posterior distribution of each model parameter. Below the diagonal, the inferred joint posterior distribution of pairs of model parameters (dark purple and bright yellow for low and high density, respectively). Red markers and orange lines for the joint MAP estimate (which may differ from the marginal MAP, as the marginal distribution integrates over all other parameters).



**Figure S9: Posterior predicted genotype frequencies in log-log scale.** Frequency dynamics of the different genotypes with MAP parameter estimates, same as Figure 5A, but in log-log scale. Black dashed curves for a deterministic model without genetic drift. Clearly, appearance of  $2n+1$  and  $2n_M^*$  is deterministic. Appearance of  $2n+1^*$ , and therefore  $2n_A^*$ , is stochastic, however, the frequency dynamics are deterministic above a frequency of roughly 0.001. Note that the  $2n_M^*$  and the  $2n_A^* + 2n_M^*$  lines are overlapping for much of their trajectories.



**Figure S10: Posterior distribution of  $F_A$ .** (A,B)  $F_A$  values (color coded) as in Figure 5 for different parameter choices on the x- and y-axes. White star denotes the MAP estimate.