1	Article (Methods)
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3	Reconstruction of haplotype-blocks selected during experimental
4	evolution
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6	Susanne U. Franssen ¹ , Nicholas H. Barton ² , Christian Schlötterer* ¹
7	
8	¹ Institut für Populationsgenetik, Vetmeduni Vienna, Vienna, Austria
9	² Institute of Science and Technology Austria (IST Austria), Klosterneuburg, Austria
10	
11	* Corresponding author
12	Email: christian.schloetterer@vetmeduni.ac.at (CS)
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Abstract

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The genetic analysis of experimentally evolving populations typically relies on short reads from pooled individuals (Pool-Seq). While this method provides reliable allele frequency estimates, the underlying haplotype structure remains poorly characterized. With small population sizes and adaptive variants that start from low frequencies, the interpretation of selection signatures in most evolve and resequencing studies remains challenging. To facilitate the characterization of selection targets, we propose a new approach that reconstructs selected haplotypes from replicated time series, using Pool-Seq data. We identify selected haplotypes through the correlated frequencies of alleles carried by them. Computer simulations indicate that selected haplotype-blocks of several Mb can be reconstructed with high confidence and low error rates, even when allele frequencies change only by 20% across three replicates. Applying this method to real data from *D. melanogaster* populations adapting to a hot environment, we identify a selected haplotype-block of 6.93 Mb. We confirm the presence of this haplotype-block in evolved populations by experimental haplotyping, demonstrating the power and accuracy of our haplotype reconstruction from Pool-Seq data. We propose that the combination of allele frequency estimates with haplotype information will provide the key to understanding the dynamics of adaptive alleles.

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Introduction

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The combination of experimental evolution with whole genome resequencing, called "Evolve and Resequence" (E&R) (Turner et al. 2011), is a widely used approach to study genotype-phenotype maps or to characterize adaptive variation (Long et al. 2015; Schlötterer et al. 2015). To date, E&R has been used for diverse taxonomic groups ranging from viruses (Sanjuán et al. 2005), through bacteria (Masri et al. 2015) and yeast (Lang and Desai 2014) to higher eukaryotic systems (*reviewed in* Schlötterer et al. 2015).

In microbes, experimental evolution typically starts from a single genotype and adaptation is based on novel mutations. In contrast, multicellular experimental evolution studies use substantially smaller population sizes; adaptation occurs from standing variation, which is shuffled during the experiment by recombination (Teotónio et al. 2009; Burke et al. 2010; Burke et al. 2014; Sheng et al. 2015).

The emerging picture from eukaryotic E&R studies (e.g. Turner et al. 2011; OrozcoterWengel et al. 2012; Turner and Miller 2012; Remolina et al. 2012; Tobler et al. 2014; Martins et al. 2014; Reed et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015; Jha et al. 2015) is that very many putative candidate loci are identified, which have more pronounced allele frequency changes than expected under neutrality. Nevertheless, the candidates are too numerous to be direct targets of selection (Nuzhdin and Turner 2013). Consequently the localization of causative variants has been difficult (Schlötterer et al. 2015), with the exception of a few studies, where the underlying trait architecture suggests a simple genetic basis (e.g. Martins et al. 2014). Several computer simulation studies have explored possible improvements to the experimental design of E&R and concluded that the key to reliable identification of targets of selection is to reduce linkage disequilibrium (LD). This can be achieved by several means, including more founding haplotypes, larger population sizes, more generations, and more replicates (Kofler and Schlötterer 2013; Baldwin-Brown et al. 2014). Furthermore, alternating generations with and without selection can also increase recombination thereby reducing LD (Kessner and Novembre 2015).

A particularly challenging case is when selected alleles in the founder population reside only on a single haplotype. Since the number of recombination events during typical E&R studies is relatively small, this results in long-range hitchhiking among all SNPs associated with the selected haplotype. While the general problem had been described before (e.g. Logeswaran and Barton 2011), two studies recently demonstrated this

prevalence of false positives due to long-range hitchhiking in E&R studies (Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015). Tobler et al. (2014) recognized the importance of long-range hitchhiking through the presence of neutral sites among candidate SNPs. Franssen et al. (2015) identified such selected haplotype-blocks by mapping candidate SNPs to founder chromosomes, which showed a strong and consistent allele frequency change of these block specific SNPs across replicates. In total, 17 haplotype-blocks sized up to a few Mb were detected (Franssen et al. 2015). This illustrates the importance of initial associations / linkage between alleles in the founder population. If haplotype-blocks sized up to a few Mb are carrying a selected variant and stay intact over a few tens of generations, hitchhiking variants will be distributed over the entire haplotype-block. The density of singleton markers in the founder population, i.e. markers in LD to the selected allele that are hitchhiking, can vary locally depending on the shape of the underlying genealogy. Thus, the power to identify haplotype-blocks may also vary along the chromosome.

While Franssen et al. (2015) have shown that haplotype-blocks can be identified from a subset of the founder chromosomes, it is clear that the efficiency of this approach depends on the fraction of the founder chromosomes for which sequence information is available. A second, less obvious limitation comes from the presence of identity by descent (IBD) regions in natural populations. Although linkage disequilibrium in natural *D. melanogaster* populations is restricted to 100-200 bp (Mackay et al. 2012; Langley et al. 2012; Franssen et al. 2015), it has also been shown that long stretches of sequence identity between different haplotypes can nevertheless be detected (IBD regions) (Langley et al. 2012; Pool et al. 2012). If a neutral haplotype carries a low frequency IBD region, which is shared with a haplotype carrying a beneficial mutation close to but outside the IBD region, the neutral haplotype will show the selection signature for the shared region, despite no target of selection being located on that specific haplotype (S1 Fig). Thus, if only a subset of the founder haplotypes is sequenced, following the

haplotype specific markers of only a subset of haplotypes could identify rising blocks that are due to hitchhikers with a selected site on an unknown haplotype. While the complete sequencing of all founder chromosomes would avoid such errors, the sequencing costs could become prohibitive, in particular when recommendations to increase the number of founder haplotypes (Kofler and Schlötterer 2013; Baldwin-Brown et al. 2014) are being followed. Moreover, if founder populations are established from natural populations or only recently established isofemale lines, that are not completely inbred, sequencing of all segregating founder chromosomes is technically impossible.

Previous approaches to infer haplotype information from Pool-Seq data in experimental evolution studies estimate local frequencies of known founder haplotypes using regression (Long et al. 2011), a hidden Markov model (Cubillos et al. 2013), maximum likelihood estimation (Kessner et al. 2013) and a system of linear equations (Cao and Sun 2015). These methods, however, rely on the complete knowledge of experimental founder haplotypes (Cubillos et al. 2013) and / or are limited to haplotype frequency estimation for a restricted window size as error rates increase with within-window recombination (Long et al. 2011; Kessner et al. 2013; Cao and Sun 2015).

Here, we propose a new strategy to reconstruct selected haplotype-blocks of founder haplotypes without the necessity for sequencing founder chromosomes individually. Taking advantage of correlated allele frequency trajectories of hitchhiking SNPs that start from low frequencies, we identify sets of markers that are linked in the founding population. We show that such clusters are detected for large genomic regions spanning several Mb. We test our method on simulated data and in an E&R experiment with *Drosophila melanogaster*. Both computer simulations and experimental data indicate that the new approach of haplotype reconstruction has minimal error rates and provides a valuable tool for analyzing Pool-Seq data in experimental evolution studies.

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New Approaches

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Concept of haplotype reconstruction

Experimental evolution studies using outcrossing organisms typically have moderate population sizes, start from a limited set of different founder haplotypes, frequently present in multiple copies, and are exposed to selection for a limited number of generations, usually less than 100 (reviewed in Schlötterer et al. 2015). This setup limits the number of recombination events during the experiment, and causes pronounced haplotype structures in evolving populations. In absence of recombination, the frequencies of all SNPs specific to a given founder haplotype are correlated throughout the experiment. Thus, within the limits of accuracy of the allele frequency estimate, it is possible to identify blocks of founder haplotypes, i.e. haplotype-blocks, in replicated time series data through correlated allele frequency changes. The accuracy of the haplotype reconstruction increases with the magnitude of frequency changes throughout the experiment, as this improves the signal to noise ratio. Haplotypes carrying a selected allele are expected to change more in frequency during the experiment than the remaining ones. Thus, they are not only more interesting, but also easier to reconstruct. Typical evolve and resequence studies uncover more than 10⁶ SNPs, which makes it challenging to determine the correlation of all SNP pairs in the data set. Hence, we prioritize the SNPs by 1) focusing only on initially low frequency SNPs, since haplotypespecific SNPs are most informative, and 2) initially analyzing only SNPs located in a window. The choice of the window size depends on the number of recombination events during the experiment, with the preferred window size and recombination frequency being negatively correlated. To extend a haplotype beyond the initial window, we perform a sliding window analysis and link haplotypes detected in two overlapping windows if they share SNPs. Our method is implemented in the R package haploReconstruct (Materials & Methods).

Results

Proof of principle

We determined the validity of our approach by simulating two independently selected sites in five replicates, each with 400 homozygous individuals founded by 200 different haplotypes, i.e. 200 different founder haplotypes, each present in 4 copies. Both selected alleles were unique to one of the 200 founder haplotypes and ca. 1 Mb apart from each other. The second selected allele was included to account for the possibility that more than one target of selection is segregating, which complicates the reconstruction of selected haplotypes. For simplicity, we concentrated on the performance of our approach to reconstruct of one of the selected haplotypes.

In all five replicates the focal selected allele continuously increased in frequency until generation 60 (Fig 1). As expected from the stochasticity of recombination, the genomic region affected by the spread of the beneficial allele varies in width and results in varying trajectories of the founder haplotype carrying the selected allele along the chromosome as well as among replicates (Fig 1 A). Applying our algorithm for the reconstruction of the focal selected haplotype, we successfully reconstructed a 7.57 Mb region consisting of 1,347 markers (Fig 1 B). In this region, 100% of the block markers were correct alleles of the corresponding founder haplotype and the inferred haplotype trajectory matched the simulated data (Fig 1 A vs. B), indicating that a selected haplotype can be identified with high confidence.

Validation based on simulated data

The accuracy of the haplotype-block reconstruction depends on many specifics of the experiment, such as strength of selection, population size and duration of the experiment.

To account for the impact of these (typically unknown) parameters on the haplotype reconstruction procedure, we simulated a range of parameter combinations. Each produced time series datasets with two independently selected alleles. The selected alleles were separated by about 1Mb and each was located on a single, but different founder haplotype (see Materials & Methods). Haplotype-blocks were then reconstructed from these simulated data, using different values for eight reconstruction parameters (Table 1) and different sequencing coverages. The accuracy of haplotype reconstruction was most strongly affected by the reconstruction parameters: the minimum frequency change (minfreqchange) in a minimum number of replicates (minrepl) and the minimum correlation (min.cl.cor) between markers in a local cluster (Fig 2). The percentage of reconstructions with negligible error rates (correct allele fraction >0.99) increased with the minimum frequency change in more replicates and with higher correlation within local clusters. A frequency increase of at least 0.15 in 3 replicates and cluster correlation of at least 0.7 resulted in more than 90% high quality reconstructions. To obtain a similar reconstruction quality with only two replicates, a frequency increase of at least 0.2 and a cluster correlation of 0.8 was required. Importantly, low quality reconstructions were typically occurring in only a few of the 82 simulation scenarios evaluated (S2 Fig). The remaining reconstruction parameters had only subtle effects on the accuracy of the reconstructed haplotype-blocks. Generally, error rates of the inferred haplotype-blocks decreased with lower starting frequencies, smaller window size, higher sequencing coverage, more intersecting markers for cluster elongation, more time points and the minimum cluster size (S3 A-E Fig). It is important to note that the influence of these parameters is particularly pronounced for 2 replicates and smaller minimum cluster correlations (S3 Fig). In reconstructions with three increasing replicates and minimum cluster correlations of at least 0.7 the remaining parameters had almost no effect on accuracy (S3 Fig). For subsequent analyses, we focused on parameter combinations with a correlation of at

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least 0.7 and at least 20% frequency change since these result in very reliable reconstructions (Fig 2).

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Alternative approaches to evaluate the quality of reconstructed blocks are the block length and the accuracy of the inferred haplotype frequencies throughout the experiment. The length of the selected haplotype block that can be reconstructed is important to determine the entire region affected by hitchhiking, and to locate targets of selection based on haplotype trajectories. We found a tradeoff between haplotype-block length and block accuracy. Parameter values for the minimum starting frequency, window size and sequencing coverage that yield a higher fraction of correctly called haplotype-block alleles generally resulted in slightly shorter blocks, while the influence of the minimum cluster size and intersection was negligible (S4 A-E Fig). Increasing the number of time points did not only result in higher quality reconstructions but also slightly longer blocks (S4 F Fig). While more relaxed parameter settings often increased the reconstructed block length up to several Mb, the loss in accuracy was typically negligible (S4 and S5 Figs, S1 Table). One important application of haplotype-block reconstruction is the inference of haplotype trajectories along the chromosome. Thus, we also determined how well haplotype frequencies were inferred by the mean squared error of true versus estimated frequencies across windows (see Materials & Methods). We noted that a large contribution to the mean squared error came from alleles that were incorrectly classified as haplotype specific. Reconstructions with minimum cluster correlation of at least 0.7 in 2 or 3 replicates with minimum allele frequency changes of at least 0.2 almost exclusively contained correctly called alleles ($\geq 82.2\%$ or $\geq 91\%$, respectively). Nevertheless, a small subset of them had high mean squared errors in haplotype frequency estimates for at least one replicate (≥ 0.1, S6 Fig). In most cases such inaccurate reconstructions could be largely avoided when the minimum cluster correlation was increased to 0.8 (S6 Fig. e.g. sim 19, 39, 51). A closer inspection showed that errors in calling haplotye-specific alleles can be due to 1) higher frequency markers shared with another haplotype, and 2) incorrectly linking the two independently selected haplotypes. A particularly challenging case arose for simulation 51, where in one replicate both selected alleles recombined into a single haplotype at an early time point (S7 A Fig). Nevertheless, in this case the inaccurate reconstructions were almost entirely eliminated by increasing the minimum cluster correlation (S6 Fig, S7 B-C Fig).

Application to experimental data

We applied our haplotype-block reconstruction method to time series data for one chromosome arm, from an ongoing laboratory natural selection experiment with *D. melanogaster* (Orozco-terWengel et al. 2012; Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015). The analysis of real data is more complex than our computer simulations, since multiple SNPs may be selected and the targets of selection are not known. Thus, we compared the haplotype reconstruction for several reliable parameter combinations (see above) and focused on those haplotypes carrying at least one outlier (i.e. candidate SNP) identified by the Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) test (see Materials & Methods, Franssen et al. 2015). Genome-wide block reconstructions were quite consistent among the different parameter settings (S8 Fig). All six parameter combinations identified the same major block, which differed only slightly in length (6.30 – 6.93 Mb) and harbored 88-99% identical marker SNPs for reconstructions with the same maximum starting frequency (Fig 3, Table 2).

We used 24 full genome haplotype sequences from generation F67 of replicate 2 (Franssen et al. 2015) to validate the reconstructed haplotype-block. While evolved haplotypes are recombinants of original founder haplotypes, long consecutive stretches of marker alleles spanning an entire reconstructed block within an evolved haplotype imply correct inference of a block from a founder haplotype (Fig 4). Following this rationale, we compared the reconstructed haplotype-block to the evolved haplotypes that

shared the longest stretches of identical markers and obtained an empirical error rate for the inferred haplotype. Depending on the reconstruction parameter, the error rate ranged from 0.46% to 0.87% (Table 2). This result clearly indicates that we correctly identified the haplotype in the founder population, which carried at least one beneficial allele and increased in frequency during the experiment.

Avoiding false signals of selection due to IBD segments

We compared the haplotype-block reconstructed from correlated allele frequency changes to the one obtained by mapping candidate SNPs onto a subset of founder haplotypes (Franssen et al. 2015) (Fig 5). Blocks identified in both analyses (new block based on parameter set P6, S1 Table) correspond to a region in founder haplotype B.19 and start at the same genomic position (2R, 22,338), but the reconstructed block is 2.84 Mb longer (2R, 4,116,872 vs. 6,952,744). In the overlapping region both blocks are identical (error rate 1/139), but the remaining 2.84 Mb of the reconstructed block are clearly different from the homologous region of haplotype B.19 from the founder population (Fig 5). This raises the question which of the two backgrounds – the newly reconstructed block or the background of founder haplotype B.19 – is associated with the selected site.

For validation of the reconstructed founder block we only sequenced haplotypes from one evolved replicate (Fig 4, Table 2). Hence, it may be possible that the reconstructed haplotype does not represent a founder haplotype, but one generated by recombination during the experiment. Thus, we plotted the trajectory of the entire haplotype in all five replicates and found that the entire reconstructed haplotype increases in frequency (Fig 3), indicating that the reconstructed haplotype was present in the founder population and carried the selected allele. In contrast, the frequency increase of the founder haplotype B.19 is restricted to the IBD region (Franssen et al. 2015). If haplotype B.19 also carried the beneficial allele, then the frequency increase would not be restricted to

the IBD region, but would also extend to the flanking sequence (see also S1 Fig).

Therefore, we conclude that the target of selection is located outside of the IBD region on the reconstructed haplotype-block.

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Discussion

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Incorporating linkage information to map targets of selection in E&R data

While most E&R studies assume independence among SNPs (e.g. Turner et al. 2011; Burke et al. 2010; Orozco-terWengel et al. 2012; Topa et al. 2015), it has been recognized that the inclusion of linkage information could improve the mapping of selection targets. Kessner and Novembre (2015) used linkage information from the founder haplotypes to determine haplotype frequencies in moderately sized (200 kb) windows for the evolved populations. The increase in accuracy of their approach stems from a more accurate frequency estimate compared to single marker analyses. In another recent approach Terhorst et al. (2015) describe a multi-locus model of selection for replicated time-series data. Here, a small number of SNPs adjacent to each focal SNP are used to increase the information content of the data by taking into account the local haplotype structure and recombination. While this improves the inference of the selected SNP, the actual haplotype structure in the evolved populations is a nuisance parameter and remains ultimately unknown. Our approach differs from these two methods by primarily focusing on the reconstruction of selected haplotypes. Furthermore, we validate for the first time reconstructed haplotypes experimentally by sequencing evolved flies. We anticipate that time series trajectories of selected haplotypes will not only facilitate the mapping of targets of selection, but also provide the unique opportunity to match the observed patterns against the expectations of classic population genetics models.

Impact of IBD regions

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Natural *D. melanogaster* populations have low levels of linkage disequilibrium (Mackay et 328 329 al. 2012; Langley et al. 2012; Franssen et al. 2015). Nevertheless, it is becoming 330 increasingly clear that large genomic regions can be shared among individuals from the 331 same population. Such regions of identity by descent (IBD) are due to sampling of related 332 individuals, which is to be expected from local population structure. In the context of 333 adaptation, however, they have a severe impact on the mapping of selected alleles. The 334 comparison of the reconstructed haplotype to the haplotype-block identified from a 335 subset of the founder chromosomes (Franssen et al. 2015) is a particularly good demonstration of how IBD blocks could result in wrong conclusions. Since the selected 336 chromosome shared a large IBD region with another chromosome, which does not 337 include the target of selection, the IBD region may be incorrectly identified as the target 338 339 of selection if the selected haplotype is not known. While sequencing of all founder 340 haplotypes would avoid this problem, previous suggestions to increase the number of 341 founder haplotypes for a reliable mapping of selection targets (Kofler and Schlötterer 342 2013; Baldwin-Brown et al. 2014) argue against this strategy. Furthermore, experiments 343 starting from freshly established isofemale lines contain multiple haplotypes (at least 4 344 with their resulting recombinants), which further complicates the inference of founder haplotypes. The haplotype reconstruction method introduced here seems a more 345 346 promising and resource efficient approach. 347 One further challenge of IBD regions for the reconstruction of selected haplotypes arises 348 when they are shared between the selected chromosome and multiple non-selected 349 haplotypes resulting in an intermediate frequency of the IBD region. In this setting, the 350 selected haplotype will not carry any haplotype specific markers in the IBD region and 351 thus prevent the extension of the haplotype-block across the IBD region. Therefore, it is 352 possible that the length of the selected haplotype-block is severely underestimated.

Limitations of the haplotype reconstruction

Our approach to reconstruct haplotypes is targeted at selected alleles that are present at low frequencies in the founder population. While this seems to be the predominant genomic response in *D. melanogaster* populations adapting to hot environments (Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015), other studies have found that selected alleles are at intermediate frequencies (e.g. Turner et al. 2011; Turner and Miller 2012). Such common alleles are expected to occur in multiple chromosomal backgrounds with few sites being in high LD, which results in fewer hitchhikers obscuring signal from the selection targets (e.g. S33 Fig in Kofler and Schlötterer 2013). The reconstruction of high frequency selected clusters may therefore be more limited. On the other hand, if only a small number of high frequency candidate SNPs emerge from the analysis, the identification of the actual targets of selection is substantially simplified relative to cases of low starting frequencies.

Materials and Methods

Haplotype reconstruction based on correlated marker dynamics

The reconstruction of founder haplotypes rising in frequency during experimental evolution with the *haploReconstruct* software tool (XX will be available at CRAN) consists of four main steps: 1) data upload and allele polarization, 2) data filtering, 3) marker clustering in sliding-windows and 4) cluster extension to generate haplotype-blocks across multiple windows (Table 1).

The underlying principle of the method is the clustering of linked alleles in the founder population, based on frequency trajectories across multiple time points and replicates. When reconstructing founder haplotypes, haplotype specific markers (i.e. singleton markers of the founder population) carry the strongest signal, as their trajectories mirror exclusively the trajectory of their respective haplotype. Therefore replicated, genomewide time series data are initially polarized for the minor allele using the estimated allele

frequencies in the founder population (step 1). Next, SNPs are filtered for informative alleles defining a maximum frequency of the minor allele ("max.minor.freq") in the starting population and a minimum frequency change ("minfreqchange") in a minimum number of replicates ("minrepl") (step 2). The maximum frequency ensures that only alleles with high information content with respect to the true haplotype frequency are included, while the minimum frequency changes ensure that trajectories are specific to a rising haplotype. For each overlapping sliding-window (parameter "winsize") pair-wise correlations between SNPs are estimated. This is achieved by 1) square root transformation of the frequency data, 2) scaling transformed frequencies for each SNP to a mean of zero and a variance of one. These two transformations are performed for data normalization prior to estimating the pair-wise correlations between SNPs with Pearson's correlation coefficient. Correlations are subsequently transformed to into distances (1 – correlation). Clusters are determined based on the distance matrix with the average linkage clustering algorithm using the minimum average correlation ("min.cl.cor") parameter as cutoff to build clusters (R package stats, hclust(..., method="average"), cutree(...)). Resulting clusters with fewer than the minimum number of markers ("min.cl.size") are discarded (step 3). Finally, clusters are elongated across overlapping windows (overlap = window size / 2) based on a minimum number of identical markers ("min.inter"): all clusters identified for two overlapping windows are tested pair-wise and a local cluster is combined across both windows if at least "min.inter" markers are identical. If allele frequencies are available for several time points, subsets can be chosen with the "use.libs" option. We generated a pseudo-code of the reconstruction algorithm for more clarity of the reconstruction procedure (Text S1, supplemental material). The source code of the R package *haploReconstruct* is available at XXCRAN addressXX.

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Validation of haploReconstruct on simulated data

Simulation of time series data. We explored the properties of our haplotype-block reconstruction using computer simulations and different settings for the main reconstruction parameters: max.minor.freq, minfreqchange, minrepl, winsize, min.cl.cor, min.cl.size, min.inter, use.libs (specification of time points and replicates to be used for reconstruction) and different sequencing coverages. Since for real data many important parameters are not known, we simulated 100 time series data sets based on a range of parameters and used these data to determine the influence of the reconstruction parameters on the accuracy of reconstruction. Specifically, we used mimicrEE (Kofler and Schlötterer 2013) to perform forward simulations based on a founder population generated from 200 different *D. melanogaster* haplotypes of chromosomal arm 2R from the DGRP lines (Mackay et al. 2012). Simulations included two selected sites in the middle of the chromosomal arm that are separated by approximately 1Mb. Each selected allele was unique to one of the 200 different founder haplotypes. Two independently selected sites in close proximity on different chromosomal backgrounds were simulated to create similar trajectories that have to be differentiated by the clustering method. For the validation of this method, however, we concentrated on the reconstruction performance of only one focal selected haplotype. In total we simulated 100 time series data sets for 80 generations and five replicates each. Thus, the simulations matched closely the experimental data from Orozco-terWengel et al. (2012); Tobler et al. (2014); Franssen et al. (2015). For each data set (five replicates over 80 generations) we randomly picked one effective population size N_e {200 or 400} and a selection coefficient {0.1 - 0.2} with complete dominance (heterozygous effect, h=1). For both selected sites, the selection coefficients were independently drawn. Simulation parameters were chosen to match previous estimates of N_e (Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015) and result in long range hitchhiking (S9 Fig).

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Haplotype reconstruction on simulated data. For each of the 100 simulations we first tested if the selected site had survived the initial drift phase at the low initial population

frequency. The selected site was still present in at least 2 or 3 replicates (frequency ≥ 0.1 until generation 60) in 82 and 57 simulation sets, respectively. For each of the 82 simulation sets, in which the selected site had survived the drift phase, 800 haplotype reconstruction runs were performed, 200 for each of 4 different coverages, i.e. 30, 60, 90 and infinite (i.e. true frequency without sampling error). We modeled the variation of Pool-Seq at a given coverage by binomial sampling using all chromosomes in the population. For each reconstruction, parameter values were randomly chosen from the following parameter ranges: winsize $\in \{0.5, 1, 2\}$ Mb, min.cl.cor $\in \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8\}$, min.cl.size $\in \{4, 8\}$, min.inter $\in \{2, 4\}$, use.libs $\in \{20-40-60, 10-20-30-40-50-60, 20-40-60-60, 10-20-30-40-50-60, 20-40-60-60, 10-20-30-40-50-60, 20-40-60-60, 10-20-30-40-50-60, 20-40-60-60, 20-40-60$ 80, 60} and max.minor.freq $\in \{0.005, 0.01, 0.015, 0.02, 0.025, 0.03\}$ (equivalent to the presence in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 different founder haplotypes, respectively). The minimum number of replicates (minrepl) was set to 2 when the selected site remained in 2 replicates only and was randomly chosen from {2, 3} when it survived initial drift in at least 3 replicates. Minimum frequency changes (minfreqchange) were randomly chosen from {0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3} until the requirement was fulfilled for the selected site in the corresponding minimum number of replicates. This procedure ensured exclusion of parameter combinations for which no haplotype-block reconstruction is possible since the extent of hitchhiking is small / negligible.

Performance measures for reconstructed haplotype-blocks. We measured the performance of haplotype-block reconstruction as the fraction of alleles in the reconstructed haplotype-block (consisting only of markers, which are at a low frequency in the founder population) that had the same character state in the selected haplotype. As in a reconstruction run multiple blocks – including neutral ones – may be reconstructed, we compared the reconstructed haplotype that shared most of 14 singleton markers flanking the selected allele with the selected haplotype to evaluate the quality of the haplotype reconstruction. Note that this accuracy measure does not relate to the full sequence, but only to those SNPs, which were assigned to the haplotype-block.

In addition to the total number of markers shared with the selected haplotype, we also measured the accuracy of the estimated haplotype-block frequency since alleles assigned to the selected haplotype may additionally occur on other haplotypes, which adds noise to the estimated frequencies. We determined the mean squared error between the true haplotype frequency and the frequency of the corresponding reconstructed haplotype. True haplotype frequencies were determined by the mean frequency of unique haplotype markers for non-overlapping windows (window size = "winsize"/2) at generation F60. To account for sampling variation, we calculated the true mean for each coverage separately. Mean deviations in frequency across windows were calculated for each replicate by the mean squared error. We denoted the largest deviation across replicates as "max(sqDiff)".

Application of halpoReconstruct to experimental data

The accuracy of the haplotype-block reconstruction was also tested on replicated time series data from an experimental evolution study with *D. melanogaster* populations adapting to a new high temperature regime using Pool-Seq data. In total, 14 samples from 5 experimental replicates were used: time points F0, F15, F37 and F59 for the first three and F15 from additional two replicates (data taken from: Orozco-terWengel et al. 2012; Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015). A synchronized file containing genome-wide allele counts of all 14 population samples (sync format see Kofler et al. 2011) was obtained as described in Franssen et al. (2015). Haplotype-reconstruction was performed with *haploReconstruct* in R (R Development Core Team 2008) for chromosomal arm 2R and several parameters settings (S8 Fig). Reconstructed haplotype-blocks were filtered to contain at least one putatively selected site identified by an independent single-locus test for selection (see below for details). Haplotype-blocks were validated using 24 experimentally phased haplotypes from generation F67, replicate 2 (Franssen et al. 2015).

Independent single-locus test for selection. CMH tests were performed as an outlier test for pair-wise comparisons between the experimental starting population and each of the evolved time points at generation F15, F37 and F59 (Franssen et al. 2015). Tests always included replicates 1-3 for euchromatic SNPs. Putative targets of selection were among the top 2,000 ranked SNPs in either of the three comparisons (Orozco-terWengel et al. 2012; Tobler et al. 2014). Note that neutral simulations consistently suggested that 2,000 candidate SNPs are a conservative estimate for the number of loci affected by selection (Orozco-terWengel et al. 2012; Tobler et al. 2014; Franssen et al. 2015).

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Author contributions

SUF, NHB and CS conceived the study. SUF performed the data analysis. SUF and CS wrote the manuscript.

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513 Fig 1. Visualization and reconstruction of a selected haplotype. The genome-wide frequency of SNPs specific for a selected haplotype is shown for chromosomal arm 2R in 514 515 D. melanogaster in 5 different replicates (R1-R5) for simulated E&R data: A) The true 516 frequency of the selected haplotype using only unique markers of the single founder 517 haplotype that carries the selected allele (s_{focal}=0.1915) for frequency estimation at a 518 sequencing coverage of 90. B) Frequencies of the identical selected haplotype as in A) but 519 estimated by the markers of the corresponding reconstructed haplotype-block 520 (parameters: minfreqchange=0.2, minrepl=3, max.minor.freq=4/200, winsize=0.5Mb, 521 use.libs=10-20-30-40-50-60, min.cl.cor=0.7, min.cl.size=4, min.inter=2) using the same 522 sequencing coverage of 90. The position of the selected site is indicated by a vertical black 523 line. Single dots represent mean frequencies for overlapping windows of 5 markers. Simulation 524 parameters, parameters for haplotype-block reconstruction and 525 reconstruction performance are summarized in S1 Table.

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Fig 2. Fraction of correct alleles in reconstructed haplotype-blocks for different **reconstruction parameters.** The performance of haplotype reconstruction is determined for 200 randomly chosen reconstruction parameter combinations for each of four different sequencing coverages (30, 60, 90 and infinite) and 82 simulated E&R datasets, where a single founder haplotype is selected (see Materials & Methods). The percentage of reconstructions of the focal selected haplotype with a fraction >0.99 of correctly reconstructed alleles is shown in response to the three parameters with the largest influence on reconstruction performance: the minimum correlation within a cluster and the minimum frequency change in a minimum number of replicates. The data are summarized across the remaining parameters: max.minor.freq, use.libs, winsize, min.cl.size, min.inter and different sequencing coverages. Smaller frequency changes in fewer replicates and usage of low cluster correlations increase error rates in reconstructed blocks. Importantly, if a minimum frequency change of 0.2 in at least 3 replicates is required and minimum cluster correlations of 0.7 are used, errors rates are negligible, regardless of all other parameters tested.

Fig 3. Trajectory of a putatively selected haplotype-block, reconstructed from experimental data in *D. melanogaster*. The frequencies of SNPs specific for this haplotype are shown for chromosomal arm 2R in 5 different replicates (R1-R5). Single dots represent mean frequencies for overlapping windows of 5 markers. Parameters for haplotype-block reconstruction and reconstruction performance are summarized in table S1, parameter set 6. Despite only a single time point was available for replicate number 4 and 5, it is apparent that at generation 15 in these replicates the same haplotype increased in frequency.

Fig 4. Validation of a reconstructed haplotype-block using 24 experimentally determined haplotypes from a replicate population evolved for 67 generations.

Rows are labeled with the respective haplotype ID or indicated as the reconstructed

block (hbr, highlighted by a black frame, reconstruction parameters P6). Each column indicates a single marker; alleles shared with the reconstructed haplotype are colored in red, the alternative alleles in cyan. Missing information is shown in gray. Haplotype R2.2, R2.5 and R2.15 cover the full length of the reconstructed haplotype indicating that the 6.93 Mb haplotype block was correctly reconstructed.

Fig 5. Comparison of a reconstructed haplotype-block to an experimentally determined subset of founder haplotypes suggests the presence of IBD segments.

Reconstructed haplotype-block 1 of parameter set 6 is visualized together with 24 of a total of \sim 113 founder haplotypes. Rows are labeled with the respective haplotype ID or indicated as the reconstructed block (hbr, highlighted by a black frame). Coloring indicates the haplotype-block allele (red), the alternate alleles (green, blue) or an unknown nucleotide (gray). Columns correspond to positions of hbr marker alleles. In the first half of the region (indicated by an arrow on the x axis), where a rising haplotype-block was identified for B.19 in a previous approach (Franssen et al. 2015), the newly reconstructed block and the previous block are identical, while they are clearly different in the second half.

Table 1. Parameters for haplotype-block reconstruction. Note: parameter base.pops is not variable for a given experiment as SNP frequency estimates of the founder population are mandatory.

Re	con	str	uctio	n	para	<u>meters</u>
					•	

1) Allele polarization

Specification of the sequencing libraries of the experimental founder population. They are used for allele polarization to the minor allele in the founder population.

2) SNP Filtering

base.pops

Maximum minor allele frequency in the founder population. Only SNPs with max.minor.freq a starting frequency smaller or equal this value will be kept.

	Minimum frequency change of an allele between the starting frequency and			
	Minimum frequency change of an allele between the starting frequency and			
	the frequency at any evolved time point in one replicate for a SNP to be			
minfreqchange	kept.			
	The minimum number of replicate populations with the specified minimum			
minrepl	frequency change.			
	Specification of the libraries (replicate and time point), for which minimum frequency changes are tested and that are used for subsequent marker clustering. Note: If libraries of the experimental founder population are not			
	specified here they will not be used for marker clustering in the next step.			
	However, starting frequencies are always required and will be used for 1)			
use.libs	allele polarization and 2) estimation of minimum frequency changes.			
3) Marker clus	tering in sliding windows			
winsize	Window size of the local marker clustering in Mb.			
min.cl.cor	Minimum pair-wise correlation between SNPs in allele frequency trajectories, required to be grouped into one window-based cluster.			
min.cl.size	Minimum number of markers required for one window based cluster in order to be reported.			
4) Cluster extension across windows				
	Minimum number of markers that have to be shared between clusters of			
min.inter	overlapping windows in order to be extended into a larger haplotype-block.			

Table 2. Summary statistics for reconstructed haplotype-blocks for parameter sets that resulted in disjunct selected blocks. (see also S8 Fig)

							#	# occurrence	Mean experimental
Parameter		haplotype-	#	Start	End	Length	" marker	in F67 R2	error rate
set	Chr	block ID	marker	position	position	[bp]	/ Mb	haplotypes	[%]
P1	2R	1	168	197613	6493901	6.30	26.7	3 - 8	0.64
P2	2R	1	184	22338	6862392	6.84	26.9	3 - 8	0.69
Р3	2R	1	182	22338	6862392	6.84	26.6	3 - 8	0.61
P4	2R	1	383	22338	6952744	6.93	55.3	3 - 8	0.79
P5	2R	1	434	22338	6952744	6.93	62.6	3 - 8	0.87
P6	2R	1	322	22338	6952744	6.93	46.5	3 - 8	0.46

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