

Population Genetics and Signatures of Selection in Early Neolithic European Farmers

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Human expansion in the course of the Neolithic transition in western Eurasia has been one of
3 the major topics in ancient DNA (aDNA) research in the last ten years. Multiple studies have
4 shown that the spread of agriculture and animal husbandry from the Near East across Europe
5 was accompanied by large-scale human expansions. Moreover, changes in subsistence and
6 migration associated with the Neolithic transition have been hypothesized to involve genetic
7 adaptation. Here we present high quality genome-wide data from the Linear Pottery Culture
8 (LBK) site Derenburg Meerenstieg II (DER) (N=32 individuals) in Central Germany. Population
9 genetic analyses show that the DER individuals carried predominantly Anatolian Neolithic-like
10 ancestry and a very limited degree of local hunter-gatherer admixture, similar to other early
11 European farmers. Increasing the LBK cohort size to ~100 individuals allowed us to perform
12 various frequency- and haplotype-based analyses to investigate signatures of selection
13 associated with changes following the adoption of the Neolithic lifestyle. In addition, we
14 developed a new method called AIMLESS (*Admixture-informed Maximum-likelihood Estimation*
15 *for Selection Scans*) that allowed us test for selection signatures in an admixture-aware fashion.
16 Focusing on the intersection of results from these selection scans, we identified various loci
17 associated with immune function (*JAK1*, *HLA-DQB1*) and metabolism (*LMF1*, *LEPR*, *SORBS1*),
18 as well as skin color (*SLC24A5*, *CD82*) and folate synthesis (*MTHFR*, *NBPF3*). Our findings
19 shed light on the evolutionary pressures, such as infectious disease and changing diet, that
20 were faced by the early farmers of Western Eurasia.

21

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The Neolithic transition, a shift from a foraging to a farming-based subsistence, marks
3 one of the most substantial social, ecological and economic transformations in the prehistory of
4 West Eurasia. The process of neolithization has interested and fascinated archaeologists,
5 anthropologists, demographers, epidemiologists, specialists in evolutionary medicine, and the
6 general public for more than a hundred years (Bocquet-Appel and Bar-Yosef 2008; Bogucki
7 1999; Chamberlain 2006; Dawkins 1894; Johnson and Earle 2000; Lubbock 1866). In
8 retrospect, the Neolithic was a transformative period in which a mostly sedentary lifestyle,
9 domestication of plants and animals, and the associated relative independence from nature with
10 reliance on sustained food supplies came into being. A manufacturing economy with good
11 yields, surplus, and stockpiling caused an increase in fertility, with earlier age at weaning and
12 subsequent shorter birth intervals which brought about an exponential population increase
13 (Bocquet-Appel and Bar-Yosef 2008; Deevey 1960). The negative effects of neolithization
14 manifested in an increased prevalence and transmission of infectious, metabolic, and nutritional
15 deficiency diseases, favored by sedentary lifestyles, growing populations, and close contact with
16 domesticated animals (Barrett et al. 1998; Cordain 1999; Gering et al. 2019; Harper and
17 Armelagos 2010).

18 Archaeological research has shown that agriculture and animal husbandry originated in
19 the Near East around 10,000 BCE (Zeder 2011), from where these practices spread to North
20 Africa, Europe and South Asia. With the help of ancient DNA (aDNA) studies, it was shown that
21 the spread of agriculture across Europe was not a transfer of ideas and technologies, but was
22 instead mediated by the expansion of the early farmers, i.e. through demic diffusion (Gamba et
23 al. 2014; Haak et al. 2010; Haak et al. 2015; Hofmanova et al. 2016; Lazaridis et al. 2014a;
24 Mathieson et al. 2015; Skoglund et al. 2014; Skoglund et al. 2012). By ~6,000 BCE, sedentary
25 farming was established in the Aegean (Horejs et al. 2015), southeastern Europe and the
26 Carpathian Basin (Bánffy 2019), and direct connections have been established between the
27 early European farmers (EEF) from Neolithic Hungary and Greece and the early farmers from
28 western Anatolia (Hofmanova et al. 2016; Lazaridis et al. 2016; Lipson et al. 2017; Mathieson et
29 al. 2015). Confirming previous archaeological findings (Gronenborn 2014; Zvelebil 2001),
30 genetic studies have reported evidence for two routes of early farmer expansion from the Near
31 East: the inland Central European route; and the coastal (Mediterranean) route to western
32 Europe, Iberia (Brunel et al. 2020; Olalde et al. 2015; Rivollat et al. 2020), and eventually the
33 Atlantic Archipelago (Brace et al. 2019; Cassidy et al. 2016; Rohrlach et al. 2021).

1 The Linear Pottery Culture (or LBK after German *Linearbandkeramik*) is associated with
2 early accounts of farming in Neolithic Europe (Bánffy 2019; Petrasch 2020; Zvelebil 2004). The
3 LBK culture originated in the western Carpathian Basin in today's Hungary and Slovakia
4 between 5500 and 5400 BCE, and spread across the European loess plains to the Paris Basin
5 in Western Europe (Bickle 2009), and Ukraine in eastern Europe. Archaeologically, LBK
6 emerged from interactions between Starčevo-Körös-Criş complex farmers and local Mesolithic
7 hunter-gatherers (HGs) (Gronenborn 2007). Numerous LBK sites have been found in Central
8 Germany, particularly in the Mittelelbe-Saale (MES) region, a biogeographical region that was
9 attractive to the early Neolithic farmers due to its fertile soils, waterways and adequate levels of
10 precipitation.

11 The emergence of agriculture in Western Eurasia has been linked to new environmental
12 and cultural pressures. During this time, HG groups in the area of the Fertile Crescent
13 transitioned to a more sedentary lifestyle associated with increased population sizes, a change
14 in diet and, importantly, increased exposure to infectious diseases from animals, e.g.
15 *Salmonella enterica* (Armélagos et al. 1991; Barrett et al. 1998; Harper and Armélagos 2010;
16 Key et al. 2020). Successful settlement in new geographic regions, such as central Europe,
17 would have required rapid adaptation to new environmental, economic, and social conditions.
18 Lower meat consumption and increased caries lesions in teeth indicative of cereal consumption
19 have been reported for the early Neolithic compared to later time periods (Münster et al. 2018;
20 Nicklisch et al. 2016). Moreover, increased prevalence of *cribra orbitalia* and porotic
21 hyperostosis, which indicate either a significant burden of infectious diseases, low quality diet,
22 or a combination of both (Walker et al. 2009), was found at LBK sites (Ash et al. 2016; Nicklisch
23 2017). A previous study of selection in Europe, using aDNA, in general reported evidence of
24 selection for light skin color, infectious disease resistance, and fatty acid metabolism, among
25 other signals (Mathieson et al. 2015). Additionally, Neolithic Aegeans have been shown to carry
26 alleles associated with reduced skin pigmentation and type 2 diabetes susceptibility, and a
27 number of inflammatory disease-associated loci (Hofmanova et al. 2016). Taken together, early
28 Neolithic farmers likely faced selective pressures from the increased exposure to pathogens and
29 the change in diet.

30 Here we report new genome-wide data from human remains associated with an LBK
31 burial site Derenburg Meerestieg II (Wernigerode, Saxony-Anhalt, Germany). The Derenburg
32 (DER) burial ground is located in Saxony-Anhalt, close to the Holtemme tributary of the Bode
33 River, in the northern Harz foreland (Fig. 1). Previous studies using stable isotopes have shown
34 that mean adult human values for carbon and nitrogen isotopes were typical for the region and

1 suggested a mixed farming diet including domesticated plant and animal products (Münster et
2 al. 2018; Oelze et al. 2011). A previous study of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) lineages from the
3 EEF, including the individuals in this study, showed that the mtDNA haplogroups of LBK
4 individuals and their frequency distribution is more similar to the present-day population of
5 Anatolia and the Near East (Haak et al. 2010). This indirectly argued for demic diffusion from
6 Anatolia to Europe, and a degree of genetic continuity between the two regions, which was later
7 confirmed using genome-wide studies (Hofmanova et al. 2016; Lazaridis et al. 2016; Lipson et
8 al. 2017; Mathieson et al. 2015; Rivollat et al. 2020).

9 One of our aims was to provide an updated genomic portrait of DER in the context of
10 genome-wide variation of the EEF. We explored the genomic ancestry of LBK individuals
11 comparing them to other EEF and Anatolian Early farmers (AEF), as well as local European
12 Western Hunter-Gatherers (WHG) on a broader scale. We also investigated the intra-site
13 biological relatedness and explored the demography of LBK groups by comparing DER
14 individuals to previously published individuals from nearby sites, such as Halberstadt (only ~10-
15 15 km apart), and other LBK sites from Germany, Poland, Austria, and Hungary (Lipson et al.
16 2017; Mathieson et al. 2018; Rivollat et al. 2020).

17 **NEW APPROACHES**

18 Leveraging the substantially increased cohort size of the early European farmers, we
19 performed various scans of selection to determine specific genes and pathways that were under
20 selection in LBK individuals, as well as the early farmers in general. To our knowledge, genetic
21 adaptation associated with the Neolithic lifestyle has not been formally tested using aDNA. We
22 performed allele frequency- (LSBL and our own newly developed method called *Admixture-*
23 *informed Maximum-likelihood Estimation for Selection Scans* (AIMLESS)) and haplotype-based
24 selection scan (XP-EHH), and analyses of the HLA class I and II alleles, to investigate whether
25 the LBK population was under an evolutionary pressure as a result of the Neolithization and
26 population migration/expansion. Moreover, we performed selection tests comparing early farmer
27 individuals to modern-day African populations and the local HGs to test general adaptation to
28 the Neolithization in Western Eurasia.

29 The ability to detect true loci that are under selection is based on how well the population
30 structure is accounted for, especially in a test that depends on comparisons between
31 populations. Thus, we developed AIMLESS to test for selection in an ancestry-aware fashion.
32 This method is a modification of the admixture-aware linear model-based test developed by
33 Mathieson et al. (2015), however, our test is specifically designed for two population admixture
34 scenarios. AIMLESS is similar to other LRT-based tests such as *AdaptMix* (Mendoza-Revilla et

1 al. 2021) and Ohana (Cheng et al. 2022), but does not rely on *a priori* ancestry estimation, and
2 determines the mixture components for the ancestries considered for each SNP independently
3 instead of using a genome-wide estimate.

4 **RESULTS and DISCUSSION**

5 **Data generation and authentication.** We generated genome-wide single-nucleotide
6 polymorphism (SNP) capture data for ~1.24 million variant sites (1240k SNP array) across the
7 genome (Fu et al. 2015; Mathieson et al. 2015), mitochondrial genome capture (Maricic et al.
8 2010), Y-chromosome capture (YMCA) (Rohrlach et al. 2021) and 3Mb immune-capture data
9 (Immel et al. 2021) from N=32 individuals. In addition, we sequenced the complete genomes of
10 two DER individuals (DER002 2.26X and DER009 3.07X), and a local HG individual from Bad
11 Dürrenberg, Germany (BDB001 13x), for which genome-wide SNP capture data was previously
12 reported (Rivollat et al. 2020). A subset of DER individuals (N=10) was radiocarbon dated to ca.
13 5300-4800 cal. BCE (Sup. Table 1) or ~7000 years before present (BP), which is consistent with
14 the younger phase of the LBK period in Germany (Gronenborn et al. 2014).

15 The authenticity of human aDNA from the DER individuals was confirmed using
16 MapDamage (Ginolhac et al. 2011), wherein all aDNA fragments were shown to have
17 deamination patterns consistent with degradation over time, and unambiguous sex
18 determination. Male samples were checked for X chromosome contamination from modern
19 sources, using ANGSD (Korneliussen et al. 2014). Mitochondrial DNA contamination was
20 estimated using Schmutzi (Renaud et al. 2015) and contamMix (Fu et al. 2013). No significant
21 contamination (>5%) from modern sources was determined in the DER cohort (Sup. Table 2).
22 Based on the genetic sex determination, we identified 18 females and 14 males (54.5% female).

23 **Genome-wide data analysis.** We genotyped the 1240k SNP positions using
24 pileupCaller (<https://github.com/stschiff/sequenceTools/tree/master/src-pileupCaller>) obtaining
25 pseudohaploid calls for each variant position on the capture. We merged the 1240k SNPs with
26 the modern-day Human Origins dataset, as well as relevant ancient samples
27 ([https://reich.hms.harvard.edu/allen-ancient-dna-resource-aadr-downloadable-genotypes-
28 present-day-and-ancient-dna-data](https://reich.hms.harvard.edu/allen-ancient-dna-resource-aadr-downloadable-genotypes-present-day-and-ancient-dna-data), version 44.3), to perform a Principal Component Analysis
29 (PCA). Due to the incomplete nature of the ancient data, ancient individuals were projected onto
30 the genetic variation of 1363 modern West Eurasians (Fig. 1A). Based on the position in PC
31 space, we found that the DER individuals fall together with published LBK individuals, as well as
32 contemporaneous early Neolithic individuals from southeastern Europe and western Anatolia
33 (Fig. 1A). We then performed an unsupervised ADMIXTURE analysis and found that at K=12

1 DER represent a mixture of an ancestry component maximized in Anatolian Neolithic individuals
2 and a smaller proportion of ancestry component maximized in WHG (Fig. 1B).

3 Following the PCA and ADMIXTURE analyses, we calculated various F-statistics to
4 formally test the ancestry components identified in the admixture analysis and inferred from the
5 position on the PCA plot. We first performed an f_4 -test of the form $f_4(\text{Mbuti}, \text{HG}; \text{DER},$
6 $\text{Anatolia_N})$ in order to test whether DER individuals carried additional HG ancestry compared
7 to Anatolia_N (Fig. 2A). Significantly negative f_4 -values ($|Z| > 3$) for models in which
8 England_Mesolithic, Villabruna, Loschbour HG, France_Rochedane, and France_Chaudardes
9 were used as HG, indicated excess WHG ancestry in DER. We also obtained a significantly
10 negative f_4 -value for the Iron Gates HGs (Mathieson et al. 2018).

11 In a follow-up f_4 -analysis of the form $f_4(\text{Mbuti}, \text{HG}; \text{EEF}, \text{Anatolia_N})$ we iterated through
12 a number of EEF groups and tested the following two HG sources specifically: Loschbour HG
13 (WHG) and Iron Gates HGs (Sup. Fig. 1). Additionally, we tested BDB001 (Rivollat et al. 2020)
14 as a local HG ancestry proxy from the MES region. The DER individuals showed significantly
15 negative f_4 -results suggesting more HG ancestry compared to Anatolia_N in the first two cases
16 (Loschbour HG and Iron Gates), but not for the local HG proxy BDB001. This suggests that
17 DER individuals had received additional HG admixture upon their expansion into Europe, but
18 not HG ancestry immediately related to the local BDB001 source. When comparing all LBK
19 groups, many were cladal with Anatolia_N, indicating a rather swift expansion with only
20 occasional contribution of additional (and local) HG ancestry.

21 In turn, when comparing the HG sources to each other, we could not identify which
22 source contributed the most to DER (Sup. Fig. 2). However, we did see an increased affinity of
23 DER to the Loschbour HG representing the WHG ancestry, compared to Iron Gates HGs who
24 have additional eastern HG ancestry (Sup. Fig. 2) (Mathieson et al. 2018).

25 We then used qpAdm to quantify the relative contribution of HG ancestry represented by
26 the Loschbour HG and the Anatolia_N ancestry represented by Neolithic individuals from
27 Barcin, western Anatolia (Mathieson et al. 2015). When modelled individually, we found that
28 DER individuals had between 0%-20% (SE 6.6%) European HG ancestry (Fig. 2B, Sup. Table
29 3). When modeled as a group, we found that on average DER individuals had ~7% HG and
30 ~93% western Anatolian Neolithic ancestries, indicating limited HG contribution (Fig. 2C).

31 Using the same set of sources (Anatolia_N and Loschbour HG), we estimated the time
32 of admixture between the Anatolian farmers and WHG using DATES v. 753 (Moorjani et al.
33 2016) to have occurred 24.286 +/- 2.784 generations ago (Sup. Fig. 3), or ~680 calendar years
34 before the time of the DER individuals assuming a generation time of 28 years (Fenner 2005),

1 which falls at the beginning of the Starčevo-Körös-Criş complex (~6,200-5,200 BCE) of the
2 southeastern European Neolithic (Porčić et al. 2020).

3 According to both the model-free ADMIXTURE and the qpAdm results with a defined set
4 of sources, we can show very limited HG ancestry influx in the DER LBK group in addition to the
5 HG ancestry already carried by Anatolian farmers. This suggests minimal interaction between
6 European HG and expanding early LBK farmers from southeastern Europe during the Neolithic,
7 corroborating findings by other studies (Lipson et al. 2017; Mathieson et al. 2018; Rivollat et al.
8 2020).

9 **Uniparentally inherited markers.** Mitochondrial DNA and Y-chromosome haplogroups
10 of the DER individuals are generally consistent with the genetic variation reported from early
11 Neolithic farmers (Sup. Table 1) (Brandt et al. 2013; Szecsenyi-Nagy et al. 2015), and the
12 mitochondrial genomes match the HVR-I haplotypes reported earlier (Haak et al. 2010). We
13 primarily found G2a2 and H2 Y haplogroups associated with Neolithic farmers (Haak et al.
14 2015; Lacan et al. 2011; Rivollat et al. 2020; Rohrlach et al. 2021). We also observed one male
15 with the Y-chromosome I haplotype that is generally common among European HGs and
16 therefore considered as a signal of male HG ancestry contribution, but also reported in lower
17 frequency from Iberian and French Neolithic individuals (Lipson et al. 2017; Rivollat et al. 2020).

18 **Biological Relatedness.** Based on the analysis of biological relatedness via READ
19 (Monroy Kuhn et al. 2018) and IcMLkin (Lipatov et al. 2015), we identified three first degree
20 relationships (two-parent offspring, one sibling pair) and second-degree related pairs (Sup.
21 Table 1). The mother-daughter pair (DER019 mature female - DER018 infant) was buried in the
22 same grave, while the mother-son pair (DER022 mature female - DER011 mature male) was
23 not. Despite the integration of contextual anthropological and archaeological evidence such as
24 age-at-death and uniparentally-inherited haplogroups, we were not able to construct the true
25 single pedigree of the 2nd degree pairs, as several alternatives were possible.

26 We performed Wilcoxon Rank Sum tests on the mean measure of relatedness for each
27 individual to the rest of the group as calculated from READ to see whether there is a general
28 skew towards males or females from the site being more closely related to each other, which
29 would indicate either potential patri- or matrilocality. We compared the pair-wise relatedness of
30 all males to all females (p-value=0.34), all adult males to females (p-value=0.12), and the
31 subadults (p-value=0.35), none of which significantly differed from each other (Sup. Fig. 4).

32 We determined the degree of inbreeding in the DER cohort, and compared it to other
33 Neolithic EEF populations using hapROH 0.1a6 (Ringbauer et al. 2021). Based on the analysis
34 of runs of homozygosity (ROH), we found evidence of low levels of background relatedness as

1 indicated by low values for the sum of short ROH segments. Moreover, compared to other EEF
2 populations, we did not see different levels of inbreeding among individuals at DER (Fig. 2E). In
3 general, we found consistently low levels of inbreeding across all early Neolithic groups in
4 Central Europe, suggesting that early European farmers lived in larger groups or groups with an
5 extended mating network, and ultimately stemmed from a source deme with a large effective
6 population size (Ringbauer et al. 2020).

7 The biological relatedness at DER is similar to other LBK sites from Germany, e.g.
8 Halberstadt-Sonntagsfeld, where one first- and two first- or second-degree related pairs were
9 observed out of 24 total individuals (Lipson et al. 2017). Considering that the DER burial site is
10 archaeologically a closed find and that the temporal spread of the calibrated years before
11 present (calBP) is around 300 years, 6848.5-7141calBP (Sup. Table 1), the few first- and
12 second-degree relationships among a total of 32 genotyped DER individuals suggest that the
13 site was used over a longer period of time and not restricted to (a) particular biological kin
14 group(s).

15 ***LBK inter-site comparisons.*** We further tested the observations on LBK population
16 structure inferred from biological relatedness results using inbreeding coefficients and effective
17 population size comparisons of LBK sites in Germany with other already published EEFs. We
18 used READ (Monroy Kuhn et al. 2018) to test for relatedness between individuals from DER
19 and other LBK sites in Germany, mainly already published data from Halberstadt-Sonntagsfeld
20 (Germany_LBK_HBS, N=29) and Stuttgart-Mühlhausen (Germany_LBK_SMH, N=29) (Lipson et
21 al. 2017; Rivollat et al. 2020). In order to do this, we first estimated the median relatedness in
22 each German LBK group separately, and found them to be comparable to each other
23 (LBK_HBS = 0.24; LBK_SMH=0.25; LBK_DER=0.24). We then performed a joint biological
24 relatedness analysis of all German LBK sites using READ, and found no evidence of first- or
25 second-degree relatedness between individuals from different sites.

26 To investigate this further, we estimated the effective population size (N_e) in LBK as
27 implemented in (Fernandes et al. 2021). Using the maximum likelihood to fit N_e , we estimated
28 the effective population size to have been ~5000 individuals (3688–6778 95% CI) for all LBK
29 sites from Germany, which is consistent with effective population size estimates for a relatively
30 large population (Mele et al. 2012; Tenesa et al. 2007). Together with the results from our
31 analysis of the lack of inbreeding and inter-site biological relatedness, this further suggests that
32 the early Neolithic LBK farmers were part of a larger population, did not practice close
33 biologically related mating, and prevented inbreeding. In comparison, based on limited biological

1 relatedness among individuals in intramural burials, it has been suggested that Neolithic
2 Anatolia was not a strictly kin-based society (Pilloud and Larsen 2011; Yaka et al. 2021).

3 **Phenotypic analysis.** We determined genotype likelihoods for a select number of SNPs
4 associated with genetic adaptation, including lactase persistence, metabolic adaptation, among
5 others, as well as SNPs associated with phenotypic traits as determined by the H-IrisplexS
6 platform (Chaitanya et al. 2018; Walsh et al. 2014) (Sup. Fig. 5). Based on the analysis of the
7 SNPs associated with phenotypes, we see the highest frequencies of brown (33%) eye color,
8 intermediate skin color (21%) and brown (21%) hair color. We report these data being fully
9 aware of the fact that the analysis of phenotypic variation can be a contentious issue, due to the
10 fact that it was developed based on modern individuals of predominantly European ancestry,
11 and does not perform as well in admixed individuals and populations outside of Europe
12 (Dembinski and Picard 2014; 2016; Yun et al. 2014). Thus, we note that these data, and
13 specifically eye, skin, and hair color, are frequent requests of museums and other organizations
14 to illustrate reconstruction life histories of past societies.

15 **HLA class-I and II allele analysis.** HLA Class-I and II haplotypes in the DER individuals
16 were analyzed using Optitype (Szolek et al. 2014). Based on the analysis, we report the highest
17 allele frequencies for *HLA-A* to be A*24:02 (0.44) and A*02:01 (0.38), B*51:01 (0.31) and
18 B*27:05 (0.25) for *HLA-B*, and C*02:02 (0.25) and C*15:02 (0.23) for *HLA-C* (Sup. Tables 4 and
19 5). In comparison, Late Neolithic individuals from the Wartberg culture show similar distributions
20 of the HLA class I alleles, with HLA-B*27:05 at a frequency of 23% and HLA-C*02:02 at 17%
21 (Immel et al. 2019), which is higher than the modern frequencies of the two alleles in Europeans
22 being 3.73% (Wu et al. 2021) and 5.6% (UK pop 3 from (Gonzalez-Galarza et al. 2021)),
23 respectively. Interestingly, the two highest frequency *HLA-B* alleles in our sample, HLA-B*51:01
24 and HLA-B*27:05, have been associated with Behçet's disease susceptibility (Kirino et al. 2013;
25 Verity et al. 1999) and ankylosing spondylitis (AS) (Cauli et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2017;
26 International Genetics of Ankylosing Spondylitis et al. 2013). Based on the skeletal analysis of
27 the individuals, the carriers of the HLA allele B*27:05 among the DER individuals did not show
28 skeletal signs of AS, even though approximately 90% of the AS patients are HLA-B*27⁺
29 (Brewerton et al. 1973; Schlosstein et al. 1973; Woodrow and Eastmond 1978). While only 1-
30 5% of the HLA-B*27 positive individuals develop ankylosing spondylitis in the general population
31 (Reveille et al. 2010; van der Linden et al. 1983), it is recognized as one of the most important
32 monogenic associations for this disease known to date (Karnes et al. 2017; Reveille et al. 2010;
33 van der Linden et al. 1983). It is possible that some of the carriers in our sample could have still
34 developed the condition later in life (Feldtkeller et al. 2003). The most frequent HLA class II

1 alleles are HLA-DRB1*11:01 (0.42), -DRB3*02:02 (0.48), -DQA1*05:05 (0.44), and -
2 DQB1*03:01 (0.52) (Sup. Tables 4 and 5). All these alleles show similar frequencies as they are
3 all part of the same HLA class II haplotype (43.75%), which was reported in relatively high
4 frequencies in present-day central European populations such as Czech Republic (15.30%)
5 (Zajacova et al. 2016), but also in Nganasan from Siberia (18.80%) (Uinuk-Ool et al. 2004).

6 **Selection scans.** The transition from hunting and gathering to agriculture and animal
7 husbandry in the Neolithic has been linked to new selective pressures due to an increased
8 pathogen burden (Armelagos et al. 1991; Key et al. 2020) and a shift to a cereal-based diet
9 together with decreased nutritional diversity (Luca et al. 2010). We performed two types of
10 selection scans (frequency- and haplotype-based) to detect signatures of selection associated
11 with Neolithization in the newly generated DER cohort together with already published data. We
12 first describe the settings and cut-offs used in each analysis and then address the intersection
13 of the results in a joint discussion.

14 We first used a locus-specific branch length (LSBL) test for selection (Shriver et al.
15 2004). The LSBL test is based on the pair-wise genetic distances between three populations,
16 wherein each SNP is considered independently. SNPs with the longest F_{st} branches in one
17 population compared to the other two are considered as potential selection candidates. We
18 performed three different LSBL tests to determine whether the transition from hunting and
19 gathering to an agricultural lifestyle and the population expansion from the Near East was
20 associated with adaptation by natural selection to new environments in higher latitudes of
21 Europe and to the Neolithic way of life in general.

22 First, we compared three cohorts consisting of LBK (N=97), Neolithic individuals from
23 western Anatolia (N=37), and autochthonous HGs as local control group (N=86), (see Sup. Fig.
24 6 for the PCA with the individuals used in our cohorts, and Sup. Table 6 for the list of the
25 individuals). We chose to compare the LBK to the Anatolian farmers because these populations
26 are known to be closely related based on our PCA and Admixture analyses, as well as previous
27 studies (Lazaridis et al. 2016; Mathieson et al. 2015). SNPs with the largest pair-wise F_{st} values
28 between Anatolian farmers and the LBK, as well as between LBK and HGs were prioritized,
29 since these SNPs could indicate selection for the new environmental or lifestyle conditions
30 associated with the expansion into and across Europe, and ongoing Neolithization, respectively.
31 Based on the LSBL analysis, we prioritized N=9549 genetic loci under the empirical quantile <
32 0.01 (top 1%) that was calculated based on the distribution of the LSBL statistic following
33 previous studies (Bigham et al. 2010).

1 Second, to test for selection since the deeper split of LBK and Anatolia_N from WHG,
2 we merged the ancient farmer populations (LBK and Anatolia) into a single Early Farmer (EF)
3 group, and compared it to WHG, and modern Esan (ESN) individuals from the 1KG dataset
4 (Genomes Project et al. 2015) as a non-European farming group comparison. In a third
5 analogous LSBL analysis, we also compared EF to WHG and an African HG cohort represented
6 by Biaka and Mbuti from the SGDP and HGDP datasets, respectively (Bergström et al. 2020;
7 Mallick et al. 2016). During this deeper time frame we expect the Neolithization in Western
8 Eurasia to have had a substantial effect due to the change in subsistence and increased
9 population densities and disease susceptibility.

10 We also performed an ancestry-aware selection scan using our newly developed
11 method AIMLESS. For each position on the genome for which we had allele frequencies for all
12 three groups (LBK, Anatolia_N and WHG) we performed a maximum likelihood estimation
13 (MLE) of allele frequencies in the LBK based on the observed data (unconstrained model),
14 which we compared to the MLE based on the most likely admixture of Anatolia_N and WHG
15 ancestries (constrained model). We performed a likelihood ratio test comparing two models, and
16 determined p-values based on a chi-square distribution with 2 degrees of freedom, and
17 considered loci with $p\text{-value} < 1e-8$ as significant based on simulation studies (Sup. Figs. 7 and
18 8).

19 To look for more recent signals of adaptation (Szpiech and Hernandez 2014) to the
20 Neolithic lifestyle through the comparison of LBK to WHG, we also explored a haplotype-based
21 selection test called *Cross Population Extended Haplotype Homozygosity* (XP-EHH), which can
22 detect selective sweeps in one population compared to another (Sabeti et al. 2007). To do so,
23 we first used GLIMPSE (Rubinacci et al. 2021) to impute and phase the genome-wide data from
24 DER and already published LBK individuals (Lazaridis et al. 2014b; Lipson et al. 2017;
25 Mathieson et al. 2015; Rivollat et al. 2020), as well as Iron Gates HGs (Mathieson et al. 2018).
26 To understand the coverage cutoff for imputation, we performed a down-sampling experiment,
27 wherein we down-sampled a high-coverage (92x) 1240k SNP captured LBK individual from
28 Stuttgart Mühlhausen, which was obtained as a result of routinely using this library as positive
29 control in capture experiments. Based on our test of the genotype agreement between the
30 down-sampled and diploid data, we decided on a cutoff of 0.5x (LBK: N=31, Iron Gates: N=27)
31 for the inclusion of the imputed samples in the downstream selection scans with selscan
32 (Szpiech and Hernandez 2014) (Sup. Fig. 9). We identified 52,648 sites with the absolute
33 XPEHH value greater than 2.

1 Due to the limitations of missing data inherent in aDNA and to further overcome the
2 potential issue of false positive results based on imputation or factors like drift and population
3 structure, we prioritized results that were overlapping between XP-EHH, LSBL, and AIMLESS,
4 since it has been shown that a combination of multiple tests is more powerful to detect true
5 selection signals (Grossman et al. 2010). An important caveat is that we used the 1KG data as
6 modern reference panel (Genomes Project et al. 2015) to impute the ancient data. This is not
7 ideal since imputation with a modern reference can introduce spurious genotypes and make the
8 individuals imputed more similar to the reference panel used. We are also aware that the
9 European gene pool underwent further transformation during the Bronze Age (Allentoft et al.
10 2015; Haak et al. 2015). This is why the selection results based on imputed data have to be
11 analyzed and interpreted with caution.

12 As predicted, we identified many SNPs associated with immune function and
13 metabolism among the LSBL top 1% hits from the comparison of LBK vs. Anatolia_N and WHG
14 (Sup. Table 7). To determine if any biological pathways are over-represented among the top
15 SNPs identified by the LSBL test of LBK vs Anatolia_N and WHG, we used Gowinda (Kofler and
16 Schlotterer 2012) for a gene-set enrichment analysis. We identified 110 significant GO (Gene
17 Ontology) terms after a correction for multiple comparisons using the False Discovery Rate
18 (FDR) cutoff 0.05. Among the significant results, we found 8 out of 110 GO terms associated
19 with lipid metabolism (OR 1.82 compared to all GO terms) (GO0061365: positive regulation of
20 triglyceride lipase activity, GO0051006: positive regulation of lipoprotein lipase activity,
21 GO0060193: positive regulation of lipase activity, GO0015909: long-chain fatty acid transport,
22 GO0015908: fatty acid transport, among others) and 6 out of 110 with the immune system (OR
23 0.65 compared to all GO terms) (GO0006911: phagocytosis, GO0002376: immune system
24 process, GO0050900: leukocyte migration, GO0001776: leukocyte homeostasis, and others)
25 (Sup. Table 8). We summarized and visualized the GO terms with REVIGO (Supek et al. 2011)
26 using the default parameters (Sup. Fig. 10). Among the GO term 'superclusters' we identified:
27 'long-chain fatty acid transport', 'leukocyte homeostasis', 'positive regulation of lipoprotein lipase
28 activity', 'immune system process'.

29 Overall, we found 227 overlapping positions between the three LSBL tests (Sup. Tables
30 9-11). Notably, those included SNPs associated with *APOM* rs805297 (linked to rheumatoid
31 arthritis and lipid signaling), *BDNF* rs11030104 (BMI), *IGSF21* rs12031938 and *ILDR2*
32 rs10489574 (immune response), *LMF1* rs12933840 and rs8062983 (lipid metabolism), MHC
33 SNPs rs2844482 and rs9277027 (immune function), and *PDE2A* rs11235559 (susceptibility to
34 viral infections) (Fumagalli et al. 2010). Our findings from the LSBL comparisons highlight the

1 immune and lipid metabolism pathways as strong selection candidates. This is not surprising,
2 since immune function adaptation has been shown before in previous analyses of natural
3 selection in Western Europe from the Neolithic to modern time (Chekalin et al. 2019; Mathieson
4 et al. 2015). To our knowledge, this is the first time that the continuous selection on the
5 immunity related pathways is shown with regards to the Neolithic expansion from the Near East
6 to Europe.

7 Among the SNPs that were identified by the LSBL tests for deeper selection in the early
8 Neolithic farmers, we find loci associated with skin color (*SLC24A5*, *CD82*) adaptation and
9 folate synthesis (*MTHFR*, *NBPF3*) (Sup. Tables 9 and 10). Notably, *SLC24A5*, has been also
10 identified by previous studies of selection in Europeans using aDNA (Ju and Mathieson 2021;
11 Mathieson et al. 2015). Skin color variation is one of the most striking features of human
12 phenotypic diversity. Skin color is highly correlated with latitude and the resulting ultraviolet
13 radiation (UVR) intensity, and populations closer to the equator have darker skin color, while the
14 populations located away from the equator have lighter skin color (Jablonski and Chaplin 2000).
15 It has been long hypothesized that skin color variation has evolved as a balance between
16 vitamin D synthesis and folate synthesis, as well as skin cancer protection. On one hand,
17 vitamin D is synthesized upon UVR exposure (Jablonski and Chaplin 2010), and, on the other
18 hand, folate has to be protected from photolysis from UVR (He et al. 2009). Our findings support
19 the idea of coevolution of folate synthesis and lighter pigmentation in the EF, compared to the
20 HGs and the African outgroup populations. Moreover, our study narrows down the timing of
21 selection on *SLC24A5* to after the split between the European Hunter-Gatherers and the
22 ancestors of the early Neolithic farmers. Of note, European HGs are characterized by a darker
23 skin color, even though they occupied higher latitudes with low UVR exposure. The current
24 hypothesis is that the diet based on meat/fish served as a sufficient source of vitamin D in
25 higher latitudes for the HGs, similar to what has been shown in the Inuit and other Arctic
26 indigenous populations (Kolahdooz et al. 2013; Schaebel et al. 2015).

27 We analyzed SNPs that are associated with pigmentation in the ancient populations
28 separately (LBK, Anatolia_N, WHG) (Table 1), since we hypothesized that migration to a higher
29 latitude from Anatolia to central Europe could be associated with positive selection for light skin
30 color phenotype. Based on the comparison between LBK and Anatolia_N, we did not see a
31 major shift in skin color SNPs that are involved in determining lighter skin pigmentation,
32 suggesting that this adaptation already happened in Anatolia/the Near East during the transition
33 to a sedentary farming lifestyle.

1 The results from the XP-EHH test confirmed well-known selection signals linked to skin
2 color adaptation in the gene *SLC24A5* (Lamason et al. 2005) (Sup. Fig. 11). Selection signature
3 around the *SLC24A5* core SNP rs1426654 (xpehh=5.13) suggests that the haplotype that is
4 associated with lighter skin color is highly prevalent in the LBK individuals, and is also under
5 selection in the Iron Gates HGs. We also identified *FADS1* as a potential selection candidate by
6 the LSBL test comparing LBK individuals to Anatolia_N and WHG, and by XP-EHH for SNP
7 rs174546 (xpehh=-2.05) (Sup. Fig. 12). The *FADS1/FADS2* locus has been identified before by
8 previous studies of selection using ancient individuals. It has been shown that FADS was under
9 selection both before and after the Neolithic transition (Ye et al. 2017), with the ancestral allele
10 under selection before (Mathieson 2020) and the derived after (Martiniano et al. 2017).

11 A novel gene of interest that was also identified by both LSBL and XP-EHH is *LMF1*
12 (Fig. 4A). LMF1 or lipase maturation factor 1 is involved in the lipase system, and is required for
13 the maturation of the lipoprotein lipase, hepatic lipase, and endothelial lipase (for review see
14 (Peterfy 2012)). LMF1 activity is associated with levels of triglycerides, and its mutations are
15 linked to hypertriglyceridemia, or the presence of high levels of triglycerides, and lipase
16 deficiency (Peterfy et al. 2007). LMF1 is present at high levels in mice embryos, suggesting a
17 potential, although currently unknown, role in embryonic development (Ehrhardt et al. 2014).
18 Plant-based diets are characterized by a lower lipid content (Yokoyama et al. 2017), and
19 efficient lipid metabolism could have been under selection especially in LBK individuals, who
20 have been shown to have higher rates of caries than individuals in the Late Neolithic, indicative
21 of the reliance on cereals (Nicklisch et al. 2016). Another novel selection candidate is *JAK1* (Fig.
22 4B). The JAK-STAT pathway is involved in the tuning of immune response, and is associated
23 with immune disorders (Witalisz-Siepracka et al. 2018). Janus kinases are involved in immune
24 cell signaling, and complete deletions of Jak1 and Jak2 are not compatible with life in mice
25 (Ghoreschi et al. 2009). Polymorphisms in *JAK1* have been linked to blood cell type composition
26 (Astle et al. 2016), white blood cell count (Kichaev et al. 2019).

27 Lastly, we explored all 971 loci that are shared between the three selection tests
28 AIMLESS, XP-EHH and LSBL (LBK vs. Anatolia_N and HGs). These include SNPs associated
29 with *LEPR*, *IL13*, HLA-A, HLA-B, HLA-DQB2, *CHRAC1*, *BMP1*, *SORBS1*, *ELMO1*, and others
30 (Sup. Table 12, Fig. 3), among which SNPs associated with immune function and metabolism
31 such as *HLA-DQB1*, *SORBS1*, and *LEPR* stood out (Sup. Table 12). The HLA-DQ molecule is a
32 major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II protein, expressed in B lymphocytes, dendritic
33 cells, and macrophages. Diseases that are associated with the genes HLA-DQA1 and -DQB1
34 coding for HLA-DQ include Celiac Disease. (Megiorni and Pizzuti 2012; Zubillaga et al. 2002),

1 autoimmune diseases (Badenhoop et al. 1995; Spurkland et al. 1991), and viral resistance
2 (Huang et al. 2019). Interestingly, *HLA-DQB1* showed a strong signature of balancing selection
3 in regions where Celiac Disease is common (Sams and Hawks 2014; Solberg et al. 2008),
4 indicating its involvement in the response to pathogens, potentially offsetting the negative
5 selective pressures from Celiac Disease (Hale 2017). *SORBS1* is associated with obesity and
6 the development of type 1 and 2 diabetes (Germain et al. 2015; Lin et al. 2001), as well as
7 reduced Tuberculosis bacterial growth (Agrawal et al. 2016). *LEPR* encoding the leptin receptor
8 is another gene of interest, due to its association with obesity-related outcomes in modern
9 individuals (Clement et al. 1998; Farooqi et al. 2007), as well as its involvement in the immune
10 system (De Rosa et al. 2015). Importantly, *LEPR* has been reported as a selection candidate
11 using both ancient and modern data (Colbran et al. 2021; Voight et al. 2006).

12 **CONCLUSIONS**

13 On the basis of comparative analyses of genome-wide genetic variation at ~1.24M SNPs in
14 EEF, we find similar ancestry proportions at Derenburg Meerensstieg II, as we see in other LBK
15 sites across Germany and the broader LBK distribution zone (Hofmanova et al. 2016; Lipson et
16 al. 2017; Rivollat et al. 2020). Overall, we find that LBK individuals closely resemble western
17 Anatolian early Neolithic farmers, suggesting a rapid population expansion from western
18 Anatolia to Central Europe. Moreover, the results from our LBK individuals suggest that there
19 was no, or very limited, admixture between the local European HG and the incoming farmers
20 during the pioneer phase of the early Neolithic in Central Europe. We show that all early farmers
21 belonged to a relatively large source population compared to the local HGs, and found no signal
22 of recent inbreeding, which means that larger population sizes were initially maintained. The
23 relative genetic similarities between early farmers allowed us to group them together, leveraging
24 the increased cohort size for selection scans. Despite there being a limited difference in time
25 between the LBK and Anatolian Neolithic individuals, and potential ongoing gene flow from
26 Anatolia and southeastern Europe, the overlapping results of the three selection scans we
27 explored and of the HLA class-I and II analysis suggest that Early Neolithic individuals in central
28 Europe were experiencing an ongoing metabolic and immune function adaptation to the
29 Neolithic lifeways as a result of the increased disease burden in group sizes that exceeded
30 those of hunter-gatherers. Moreover, we see an adaptation to higher latitudes in Neolithic
31 individuals compared to modern Africans and HGs, as evidenced by allele frequency changes of
32 variants associated with pigmentation and folate synthesis. The Neolithization has been
33 considered one of the strongest natural selective forces acting on the human genome. Our
34 results show that there are multiple signals of selection that can be observed in the LBK and the

1 early farmers in general in association with the transition to an agricultural lifestyle and
2 sedentism. However, our findings also highlight the challenges of studying selection using
3 ancient DNA, especially in light of complex admixture or demographic histories and limited time
4 that elapsed since the split of populations under study. We also stress the need for increased
5 cohort sizes and refinement of statistical tools that can take these confounding factors into
6 account.

7

8 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

9 **Archaeological background/site description.** Located in the shadow of the Harz (Hercynian)
10 mountain range, the amount of precipitation in the area around DER in the Mittelelbe-Saale
11 region is just under 530 mm/a and the loess-shaped slope area is covered by thick layers of
12 topsoil, in some cases up to 1 meter, which has favored the preservation of skeletal material.
13 The archaeological site was excavated between 1997-1999, and represents a continuous
14 settlement from the Early (Linear Pottery Culture, LBK) and Middle Neolithic (Rössen,
15 Ammensleben) to Bronze and Iron Age (Fritsch et al. 2010). The LBK-associated graveyard
16 represents a closed find and encompassed 43 graves, as well as two separate graves outside
17 the graveyard. A total of 32 single grave, one double, one triple burial, two burials in settlement
18 pits, two burials with secondary inhumations, and one empty grave were found. The majority of
19 DER individuals were buried in East-West orientation in a varying flexed position, which was a
20 common practice in the Neolithic. Slightly more than half of the skeletons exhibited a very good
21 to moderate degrees of preservation (grade 1-3 = 100-50% preserved from skeleton), while
22 other burials were be poorly (grade 4 = 25-50%) or very poorly preserved (grade 5 = < 25%)
23 (Nicklisch 2017).

24 **Sample preparation.** Samples were processed using the following aDNA extraction protocol
25 (Velsko et al. 2020), with the UDG-half treatment. Samples (N=37) were first shotgun
26 sequenced followed by the 1240k capture on the samples (N=32) with more than 0.1%
27 endogenous DNA for select SNPs (Sup. Table 1). The raw fastq files were processed and
28 mapped to the human reference hs37d5 with default parameters from EAGER (Peltzer et al.
29 2016). Minimum mapping and base qualities of 30 were used.

30 **Contamination and ancient DNA authentication.** aDNA status was authenticated using
31 MapDamage2.0 (Jonsson et al. 2013). Two base pairs were trimmed from the UDG-half bam
32 files following the aDNA damage pattern using trimBam as implemented in BamUtil 1.0.13 (Jun
33 et al. 2015). X-chromosome contamination estimation in males was performed using ANGSD
34 (Korneliussen et al. 2014) following the software manual. First step: 'angsd -r X:5000000-

1 154900000 -doCounts 1 -iCounts 1 -minMapQ 30 -minQ 30', second step: 'contamination -a
2 angsdCounts -h HapMapChrX.gz 2> out'. Contamination estimates from samples with more
3 than ~200 SNPs on the X chromosome covered were considered as reliable (Sup. Table 1).
4 Mitochondrial DNA contamination was estimated using Schmutzi (Renaud et al. 2015) and
5 contamMix (Fu et al. 2013).

6 **Genotyping.** Pseudohaploid genotyping was performed using SAMtools mpileup (Li and Durbin
7 2009) and PileupCaller
8 (<https://github.com/stschiff/sequenceTools/blob/master/src/SequenceTools/PileupCaller.hs>)
9 for the 1240k sites. Pseudohaploid genotypes were merged with the Human Origin Affymetrix
10 dataset of modern individuals around the globe (Patterson et al. 2012), as well as published
11 ancient West Eurasian individuals ([https://reich.hms.harvard.edu/allen-ancient-dna-resource-](https://reich.hms.harvard.edu/allen-ancient-dna-resource-aadr-downloadable-genotypes-present-day-and-ancient-dna-data)
12 [aadr-downloadable-genotypes-present-day-and-ancient-dna-data](https://reich.hms.harvard.edu/allen-ancient-dna-resource-aadr-downloadable-genotypes-present-day-and-ancient-dna-data), version 44.3).

13 SmartPCA from EIGENSOFT v7.2.1 (<http://www.hsph.harvard.edu/alkes-price/software/>) was
14 used to perform a PCA projection of ancient samples on top of the variation of the modern data.
15 Unsupervised admixture was performed on k components from 1 to 17 with random seeding
16 after LD pruning in plink with the following settings (-indep-pairwise 200 25 0.4). Cross-
17 validation (CV) values were compared, and the k component 11 with the lowest CV error was
18 selected.

19 **F-statistics.** R package *admixr* was used to perform f-statistics and *qpAdm* (Petr et al. 2019).
20 We performed f4 tests to determine if there were differences in HG ancestry in the individuals
21 from DER compared to other EEF groups, as well as to test whether LBK individuals had
22 additional HG ancestry compared to individuals from Anatolia Neolithic (Bar8 and Bar31
23 (Hofmanova et al. 2016)). Based on the admixture analysis, we formally tested the admixture
24 components using *qpAdm* as implemented in the *admixr* package (Petr et al. 2019) using a 12
25 sample outgroup (Mbuti, Papuan, Onge, Han, Karitiana, Mota, Ust-Ishim, Russia_Mal'ta1,
26 Vestonice, CHG, Israel_Natufian, Villabruna) + additional European HG sources (Villabruna,
27 Russia_EHG, GoyetQ2). The admixture event between WHG and Anatolian farmers was
28 determined using DATES v. 753 (Moorjani et al. 2016).

29 **Biological relatedness and Runs of Homozygosity analyses.** READ (Monroy Kuhn et al.
30 2018) and lcMLkin (Lipatov et al. 2015), were used to perform tests of biological relatedness.
31 ROH analysis was performed using HapROH on samples with more than 600k SNPs based on
32 the 1240k capture (Ringbauer et al. 2020).

33 **Mitochondrial and Y haplotype analysis.** To determine mitochondrial DNA haplogroups, bam
34 files were mapped to the mtDNA rCRS sequence (Andrews et al. 1999). Haplogrep 2.0 was

1 used to assign mitochondrial haplogroups. Y-haplotype analysis was performed using the
2 method described in (Rohrlach et al. 2021).

3 **Shotgun data.** Three individuals (DER002, DER009, BDB001) were shotgun sequenced
4 (PE75) to high coverage.

5 **HLA typing.** A development version of OptiType 2 (Szolek et al. 2014) was used to determine
6 HLA Class I and II alleles from ≥ 30 bp single-end sequencing data retrieved from the
7 immunocapture libraries (<https://github.com/FRED-2/OptiType>, tag DER). Fifteen out of 432
8 allele calls were overruled in favor of runner-up alleles based on anomalous coverage patterns
9 induced by short reads cross-mapping with alleles of different loci.

10 **Selection scans.** LSBL (locus-specific branch length) was used on the 1240k genotype data to
11 determine sites in the genome that have undergone recent selective sweeps. This method relies
12 on pair-wise F_{st} values for three populations to identify loci with extreme F_{st} difference between
13 population of interest and two other groups used for comparison. Resulting LSBL values were
14 ranked and empirical p-values were determined. Resulting SNPs were annotated using the R
15 package BioMart (Durinck et al. 2009).

16 We also performed a pathway enrichment analysis using gowinda (Kofler and Schlotterer 2012)
17 comparing the top 1% LSBL hits to all loci analyzed (1240k SNPs after QC). This method
18 performs gene-set enrichment base on Gene Ontology (GO) classifications, and designed
19 specifically for GWA studies. Gowinda was designed to take into account the assumptions that
20 are often violated in genome-wide associations studies, such as longer genes having more
21 SNPs, and overlapping genes being sampled in clusters (Kofler and Schlotterer 2012). Gowinda
22 performs internal permutations by randomly sampling SNPs from the total set of SNPs. By
23 recording the associated genes and performing the permutation multiple times, gowinda
24 establishes an empirical null distribution, and the significant overrepresentation of candidate
25 SNPs is determined compared to the empirical null distribution (Kofler and Schlotterer 2012).

26
27

28

29 **AIMLESS Admixture-Informed Maximum-Likelihood Estimation for Selection Scans.**

30 For site i on the genome, we calculate the allele frequency for two source populations and a
31 target population, denoted $f_i^{S_1}$, $f_i^{S_2}$ and f_i^T , respectively. We then calculate the optimal value of
32 the mixing parameter $\hat{\gamma}_i \in [0,1]$ such that we minimize the value of the function

$$f(\gamma, f_i^T, f_i^{S_1}, f_i^{S_2}) = (f_i^T - [\gamma f_i^{S_1} + (1 - \gamma) f_i^{S_2}])^2,$$

1 and define the “constrained allele frequency estimator to be $\hat{f}_i^T = \hat{\gamma}_i f_i^{S_1} + (1 - \hat{\gamma}_i) f_i^{S_2}$. Note that if
2 $f_i^{S_1} = f_i^{S_2}$, then we simply let $\hat{\gamma}_i = 1$.

3 We then calculate log-likelihood values for the unconstrained model and the constrained model
4 assuming that $X_i \sim B(N_i, \hat{f}_i^T)$ for the constrained model, and that $X_i \sim B(N_i, f_i)$ for the
5 unconstrained model, denoted l_1 and l_0 . Naturally, as f_i is the maximum-likelihood estimator for
6 a binomial observation, $l_0 \geq l_1$.

7 Finally, we perform a likelihood ratio test (LRT), with test statistic $\Lambda_i = -2(l_1 - l_0)$, where $\Lambda_i \sim \chi^2$.
8 Via a simulation study based on the observed allele frequencies in Anatolia_N and WHG
9 populations, we identified a p-value cut-off of 1×10^{-8} that returned a false discovery rate of
10 zero, with the highest positive discovery rate.

11 Note that we filter sites for which we have observed allele counts from at least 10 individuals
12 from each population, and for which the allele frequency in the source populations is greater
13 than zero.

14 **Haplotype-based scan.** Genome-wide 1240k capture data from Derenburg, LBK and Iron
15 Gates HG individuals were imputed using GLIMPSE following the standard procedures
16 (Rubinacci et al. 2021). Genotype likelihoods were computed using bcftools mpileup (Li 2011).
17 The GLIMPSE_phase function was used to run imputation in chunks with window size of
18 2,000,000 bps and buffer size of 200000 bps. The chunks were then ligated using
19 GLIMPSE_ligate and haplotypes were sampled using GLIMPSE_sample. The 1000G reference
20 panel was used for imputation (Genomes Project et al. 2015). Samples with endogenous DNA
21 coverage on the 1240k capture of above 0.5x were included in the analysis. REHH package
22 was used to run haplotype-based selection scans (Gautier and Vitalis 2012).

23 **Data Availability.** Genomic data (BAM and fastq format) are available at the European
24 Nucleotide Archive under accession number PRJEB52488, genotypes in eigenstrat format can
25 be found at <https://edmond.mpdl.mpg.de/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.17617/3.HOKI5I>
26 The code for AIMLESS is available at
27 <https://edmond.mpdl.mpg.de/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.17617/3.HOKI5I>.

28
29

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11 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

12 Conceptualization: W.H., A.C.; Data generation: F.A., R.B.; Data curation: W.H., A.C.; Formal
13 analysis: A.C., A.B.R.; Funding acquisition: W.H., M.-F.D.; Investigation: A.C., W.H.; Writing –
14 Original Draft Preparation: A.C., W.H.; Writing – Review & Editing: A.C., W.H., A.B.R.

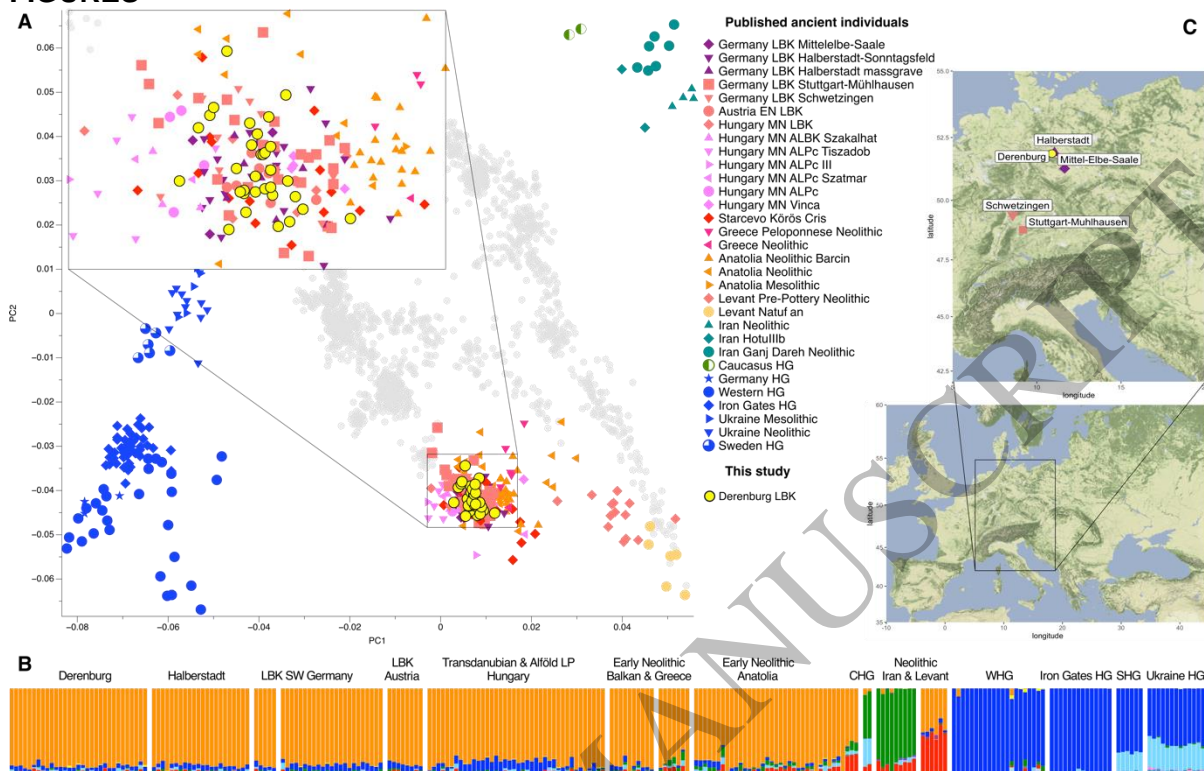
ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

1 **TABLE 1. SNPs associated with pigmentation and other phenotypes of interest.**

Gene	Phenotype	SNP	REF	ALT	EFF	LBK	Anatolia	WHG	AFR	EAS	EUR
<i>FADS1/FADS2</i>	Fatty Acid Metabolism	rs174546	C	T	T	0.70	0.71	0.97	0.02	0.57	0.35
<i>TYR</i>	Light Skin (WE)	rs10831496	A	G	A	0.28	0.42	0.13	0.17	0.25	0.68
<i>TYR</i>	Light Skin (WE)	rs1042602	A	C	A	0.17	0	0	0.01	0.00	0.37
<i>OCA2</i>	Light Skin (EE)	rs1800414	C	T	C	0	0	0	0.01	0.60	0
<i>OCA2</i>	Light Skin (WE)	rs1800404	C	T	T	0.73	0.85	0.83	0.13	0.39	0.79
<i>OCA2</i>	Blue Eyes (WE)	rs12913832	G	A	G	0.42	0.30	0.55	0.03	0.00	0.64
<i>APBA2</i>	Light Skin (WE)	rs4424881	C	T	C	0.90	0.95	0.71	0.10	0.45	0.87
<i>SLC24A5</i>	Light Skin (WE)	rs1426654	A	G	A	0.89	1	0.47	0.07	0.01	1.00
<i>SLC24A5</i>	Blue Eyes (WE)	rs2470102	A	G	A	0.90	1	0.44	0.07	0.25	0.99
<i>MC1R</i>	Light Skin (EE)	rs2228479	A	G	A	0.03	0	0.08	0.00	0.29	0.07
<i>MHC</i>	Immunity	rs2269424	A	G	A	0.73	0.89	0.68	0.01	0.14	0.26

1

FIGURES



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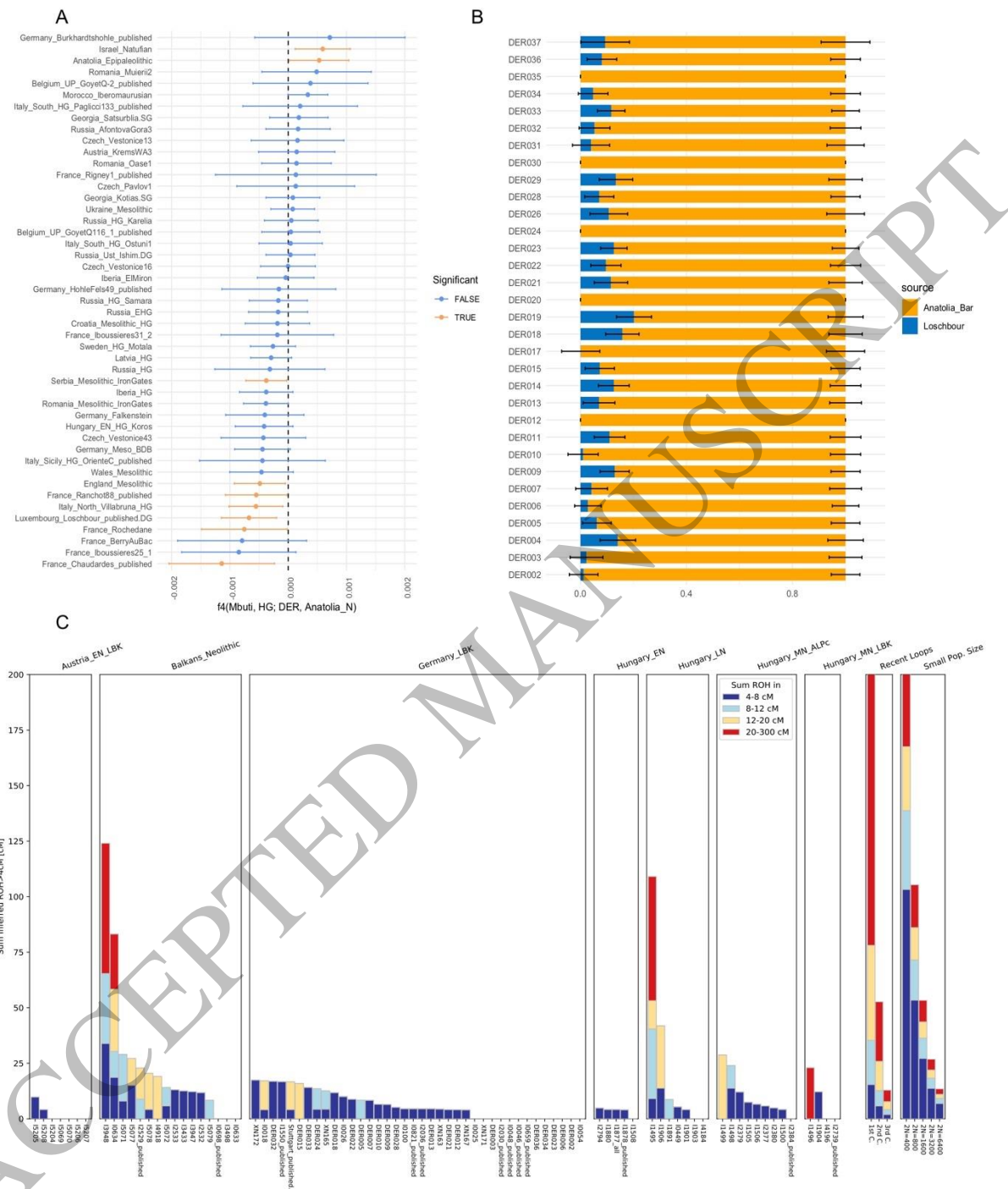
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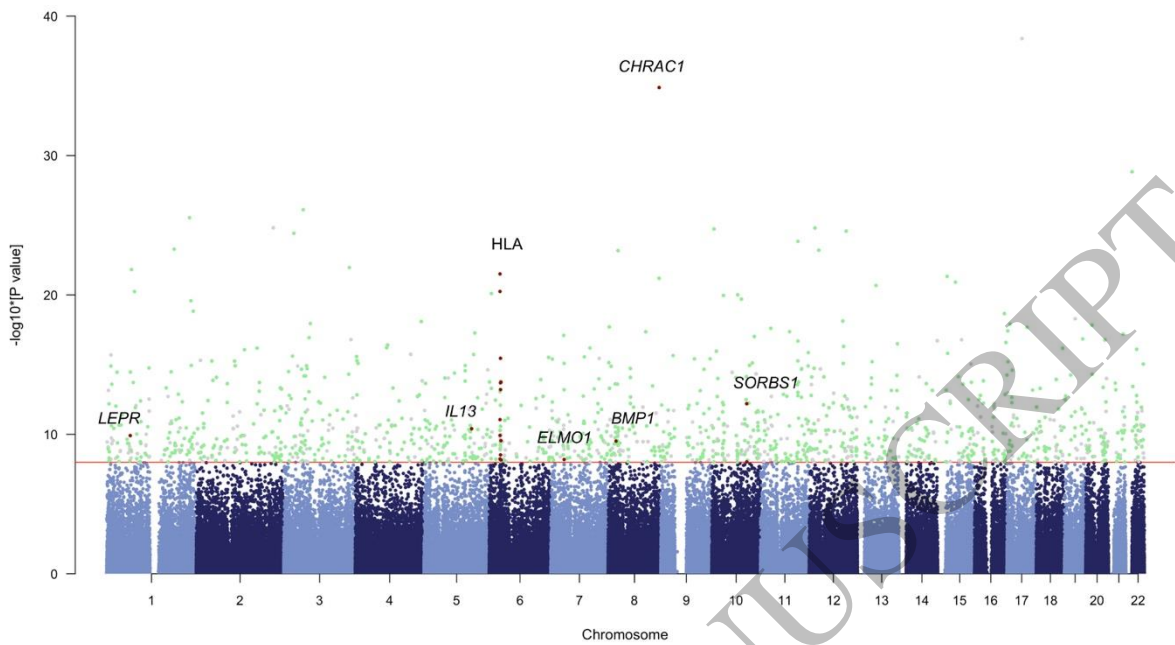
7

Figure 1. Population genetic analyses of LBK-associated individuals from Derenburg. A) Principal component analysis of DER individuals and relevant published ancient groups, projected on West Eurasian genetic variation. B) Unsupervised ADMIXTURE results (k=12) of a subset of individuals shown in panel A. C) Map of Europe and zoom in on LBK sites in today's Germany.

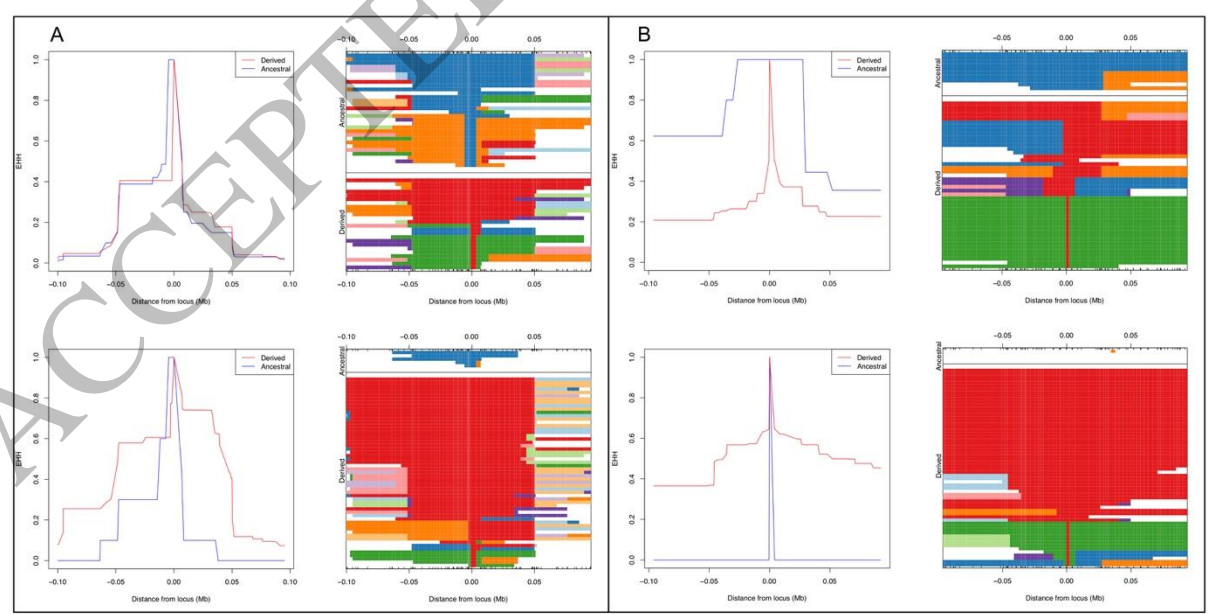
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1
2 **Figure 2. Hunter-Gatherer admixture modeling.** (A) F4 analysis of the form $f_4(\text{Mbuti, European_HG; DER, Anatolia}_N)$. Each hunter-gatherer individual tested is represented on the
3 y-axis. Tests with z-scores > 3 are shown in orange compared to rest in blue; (B) $qpAdm$ test
4 results for DER individuals using the Loschbour HG and Anatolia_N_Barcin individuals as
5 admixture sources. All models have p-values greater than 0.05, which indicates models that
6 cannot be rejected formally in case of $qpAdm$; (C) HapROH output for German LBK individuals
7 compared to EEF from Hungary, Austria, and the Balkans. Only samples with more than 400k
8 called 1240k SNPs were included.
9



1
2 **Figure 3. Manhattan plot of the results of the selection scans.** Chromosomes are shown on
3 the x axis, while the $-\log_{10}(\text{p-values})$ from AIMLESS are represented on the y axis. (A)
4 Significant loci that are shared between AIMLESS, LSBL (LBK vs Anatolia_N and HG), and XP-
5 EHH are highlighted in green. Loci that do not overlap between the three tests are shown in
6 grey. The loci related to immunity and metabolic pathways are highlighted in red.



12
13 **Figure 4. Extended haplotype homozygosity.** (A) LMF SNP rs12933840, (B) JAK1 SNP
14 rs3790541. Top panels show the EHH for the ancestral and the derived alleles for HG, and the
15 bottom panels for LBK.

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