

The landscape of uniquely shared archaic alleles in present-day human populations

Fernando Racimo^a, Davide Marnetto^b, Emilia Huerta-Sánchez^c

^a*Department of Integrative Biology, University of California Berkeley, CA, USA*

^b*Department of Molecular Biotechnology and Health Sciences, University of Torino, Turin, Italy*

^c*School of Natural Sciences, University of California Merced, CA, USA*

Abstract

Comparisons of DNA from archaic and modern humans show that these groups interbred, and in some cases received an evolutionary advantage from doing so. This process - adaptive introgression - may lead to a faster rate of adaptation than is predicted from models with mutation and selection alone. Within the last couple of years, a series of studies have identified regions of the genome that are likely examples of adaptive introgression. In many cases, once a region was ascertained as being introgressed, commonly used statistics based on both haplotype as well as allele frequency information were employed to test for positive selection. Introgression by itself, however, changes both the haplotype structure and the distribution of allele frequencies, thus confounding traditional tests for detecting positive selection. Therefore, patterns generated by introgression alone may lead to false inferences of positive selection. Here we explore models involving both introgression and positive selection to investigate the behavior of various statistics under adaptive introgression. In particular, we find that the number and allelic frequencies of sites that are uniquely shared between archaic humans and specific present-day populations are particularly useful for detecting adaptive introgression. We then examine the 1000 Genomes dataset to identify regions that were likely subject to adaptive introgression and discuss some of the most promising candidate genes located in these regions.

Keywords: Neanderthal, Denisova, Adaptive Introgression, Ancient DNA

Email address: fernandoracimo@gmail.com (Fernando Racimo)

1. Introduction

There is a growing body of evidence supporting the idea that certain modern human populations admixed with archaic groups of humans after expanding out of Africa. In particular, non-African populations have 1 – 2% Neanderthal ancestry [1, 2], while Melanesians and East Asians have 3% and 0.2% ancestry, respectively, from Denisovans [3, 4, 2].

Recently, it has become possible to identify the fragments of the human genome that were introgressed and survive in present-day individuals [5, 6, 2, 7]. Researchers have also detected which of these introgressed regions are present at high frequencies in some present-day non-Africans but not others. Some of these regions are likely to have undergone positive selection in those populations after they were introgressed, a phenomenon known as adaptive introgression (AI). One particularly striking example of AI is the gene *EPAS1* [8] which confers a selective advantage in Tibetans by making them less prone to hypoxia at high altitudes [9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16]. The selected Tibetan haplotype is known to have been introduced in the human gene pool by Denisovans or a population closely related to them [17, 18].

In this study, we use simulations to assess the power to detect AI using different summary statistics that do not require the introgressed fragments to be identified *a priori*. Some of these are inspired by the signatures observed in *EPAS1*, which contains an elevated number of sites with alleles uniquely shared between the Denisovan genome and Tibetans. We then apply these statistics to real human genomic data from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project [19], to detect AI in human populations, and find candidate genes. While these statistics are sensitive to adaptive introgression, they may also be sensitive to other phenomena that generate genomic patterns similar to those generated by AI, like ancestral population structure and incomplete lineage sorting. These processes, however, should not generate long regions of the genome where haplotypes from the source and the recipient population are highly similar. To assess whether the candidates we found are truly generated by AI, we explored the haplotype structure of some of the most promising candidates, and used a probabilistic method [20] that infers introgressed segments along the genome by looking at the spatial arrangement of SNPs that are consistent with introgression. This allows us to verify that the candidate regions contain introgressed haplotypes at high frequencies: a hallmark of AI.

2. Methods

2.1. Summary statistics sensitive to adaptive introgression

Several statistics have been previously deployed to detect AI events (reviewed in Racimo et al. [21]). We briefly describe these below, as well as three new statistics tailored specifically to find this signal (Table 1). One of the simplest approaches consists of applying the D statistic [1, 22] locally over windows of the genome. The D statistic was originally applied to compare a single human genome against another human genome, so as to detect excess shared ancestry between one of the genomes and a genome from an outgroup population. Application of this statistic comparing non-Africans and Africans served as one of the pieces of evidence in support of Neanderthal admixture into non-Africans. However, it can also be computed from large panels of multiple individuals instead of single genomes. This form of the D statistic has been applied locally over windows of the genome to detect regions of excess shared ancestry between an admixed population and a source population [23, 24].

The D statistic, however, can be confounded by local patterns of diversity, as regions of low diversity may artificially inflate the statistic even when a region was not adaptively introgressed. To correct for this, Martin et al. [25] developed a similar statistic called f_D which is less sensitive to differences in diversity along the genome. Both of these patterns exploit the excess relatedness between the admixed and the source population.

AI is also expected to increase linkage disequilibrium (LD), as an introgressed fragment that rises in frequency in the population will have several closely linked loci that together will be segregating at different frequencies than they were in the recipient population before admixture. Thus, two well-known statistics that are informative about the amount of LD in a region - D' and r^2 - could also be informative about adaptive introgression. To apply them over regions of the genome, we can take the average of each of the two statistics over all SNP pairs in a window. In the section below, we calculate these statistics in two ways: a) using the introgressed population only ($D'[\text{intro}]$ and $r^2[\text{intro}]$), and b) using the combination of the introgressed and the non-introgressed populations ($D'[\text{comb}]$ and $r^2[\text{comb}]$).

We also introduce three new statistics that one would expect, *a priori*, to be particularly effective at identifying windows of the genome that are likely to have undergone adaptive introgression. First, in a region under adaptive introgression, one would expect the divergence between an individual from

74 the source population and an admixed individual to be smaller than the
75 divergence between an individual from the source population and a non-
76 admixed individual. Thus, one could take the ratio of these two divergences
77 over windows of the genome. One can then take the average of this ratio
78 over all individuals in the admixed and non-admixed panels. This average
79 should be larger if the introgressed haplotype is present in a large number of
80 individuals of the admixed population. We call this statistic R_D .

81 Second, for a window of arbitrary size, let $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, y)$ be defined as
82 the number of sites where a sample C from an archaic source population
83 (which could be as small as a single diploid individual) has a particular allele
84 at frequency y, and that allele is at a frequency smaller than w in a sample A
85 of a population but larger than x in a sample B of another population (Figure
86 1). In other words, we are looking for sites that contain alleles shared between
87 an archaic human genome and a test population, but absent or at very low
88 frequencies in an outgroup (usually non-admixed) population. Below, we
89 denote panels A, B and C as the “outgroup”, “target” and “bait” panels,
90 respectively. For example, suppose we are looking for Neanderthal adaptive
91 introgression in the Han Chinese (CHB). In that case, we can consider CHB
92 as our target panel, and use Africans as the outgroup panel and a single
93 Neanderthal genome as the bait. If $U_{AFR,CHB,Nea}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%) = 4$ in a
94 window of the genome, that means there are 4 sites in that window where
95 the Neanderthal genome is homozygous for a particular allele and that allele
96 is present at a frequency smaller than 1% in Africans but larger than 20% in
97 Han Chinese. In other words, there are 4 sites that are uniquely shared at
98 more than 20% frequency between Han Chinese and Neanderthal, but not
99 with Africans.

100 This statistic can be further generalized if we have samples from two
101 different archaic populations (for example, a Neanderthal genome and a
102 Denisova genome). In that case, we can define $U_{A,B,C,D}(w, x, y, z)$ as the
103 number of sites where the archaic sample C has a particular allele at fre-
104 quency y and the archaic sample D has that allele at frequency z, while the
105 same allele is at a frequency smaller than w in an outgroup panel A and larger
106 than x in a target panel B (Figure S1). For example, if we were interested in
107 looking for Neanderthal-specific AI, we could set $y = 100\%$ and $z = 0\%$, to
108 find alleles uniquely shared with Neanderthal, but not Denisova. If we were
109 interested in archaic alleles shared with both Neanderthal and Denisova, we
110 could set $y = 100\%$ and $z = 100\%$.

111 Another statistic that we found to be useful for finding AI events is

112 $Q95_{A,B,C}(w, y)$, and is here defined as the 95th percentile of derived frequen-
 113 cies in an admixed sample B of all SNPs that have a derived allele frequency
 114 y in the archaic sample C, but where the derived allele is at a frequency
 115 smaller than w in a sample A of a non-admixed population (Figure 1). For
 116 example, $Q95_{AFR,CHB,Nea}(1\%, 100\%) = 0.65$ means that if one computes the
 117 95% quantile of all the Han Chinese derived allele frequencies of SNPs where
 118 the Neanderthal genome is homozygous derived and the derived allele has
 119 frequency smaller than 1% in Africans, that quantile will be equal to 0.65.
 120 As before, we can generalize this statistic if we have a sample D from a sec-
 121 ond archaic population. Then, $Q95_{A,B,C,D}(w, y, z)$ is the 95th percentile of
 122 derived frequencies in the sample B of all SNPs that have a derived allele
 123 frequency y in the archaic sample C and derived allele frequency z in the
 124 archaic sample D, but where the derived allele is at a frequency smaller than
 125 w in the sample A (Figure S1).

126 In the section below, we evaluate the sensitivity and specificity of all
 127 these statistics using simulations. We also evaluate the effect of adaptive
 128 introgression on a common statistic that is indicative of population variation
 129 - expected heterozygosity (Het), as this statistic was previously found to be
 130 affected by archaic introgression in a serial founder model of human history
 131 [26]. We measured Het as the average of $2 * p * (1 - p)$ over all sites in a window,
 132 where p is the sample derived allele frequency in the introgressed population.

133 2.2. Simulations

134 None of these statistics have been explicitly vetted under scenarios of AI
 135 so far, though the performance of D and f_D has been previously evaluated for
 136 detecting local introgression [25]. Therefore, we aimed to test how each of the
 137 statistics described above performed in detecting AI. We began by simulating
 138 a three population tree in Slim [27] with constant $N_e = 10,000$, mutation rate
 139 equal to $1.5 * 10^{-8}$ per bp per generation, recombination rate equal to 10^{-8}
 140 per bp per generation, and split times emulating the African-Eurasian and
 141 Neanderthal-modern human split times (4,000 and 16,000 generations ago,
 142 respectively). We allowed for admixture between the most distantly diverged
 143 population and one of the closely related sister populations, at different rates:
 144 2%, 10% and 25% (Figure 2.A). This is meant to represent Neanderthal ad-
 145 mixture into Eurasians, with Africans as the non-admixed population. Under
 146 each of the three admixture rate scenarios, we simulated regions that were
 147 evolving neutrally, regions where the central SNP was under weak positive

additive selection ($s = 0.01$) and regions with a central SNP under strong selection ($s = 0.1$).

We also tested how the statistics perform at detecting adaptive introgression when the alternative model is not a neutral introgression model, but a neutral model with ancestral structure (Figure 2.G). We followed a model described in Huerta-Sanchez et al (2014) and simulated a population in which an African population splits from archaic humans before Eurasians, but is allowed to exchange migrants with them. Afterwards, we split Eurasians and archaic humans. At that point, we stop the previous migration and only allow for migration between the Eurasian and African populations until the present, at double the previous rate. This is meant to generate loci where Eurasians and archaic humans share a more recent common ancestor with each other than with Africans, but because of ancient shared ancestry, not recent introgression. We simulated 3 scenarios, in which we set the per-generation ancient(recent) migration rate to be 0.01(0.02), 0.001(0.002) and 0.0001(0.0002). We call these the strong-, medium-, and weak-migration scenarios, respectively. The stronger the migration, the weaker the ancestral structure, as archaic-shared segments in Eurasians will tend to be removed by migration with Africans.

2.3. Plotting haplotype structure

The *Haplostrips* software (Marnetto et al. in prep.) was used to produce plots of haplotypes at candidate regions for AI. This software displays each SNP within a predefined region as a column, while each row represents a phased haplotype: the result is a heatmap. Each haplotype is labeled with a color that corresponds to the 1000 Genomes panel of its carrier individual. The haplotypes were first hierarchically clustered via the single agglomerative method based on Manhattan distances, using the *stats* library in R. The resulting dendrogram of haplotypes was then re-ordered by decreasing similarity to a reference sequence constructed so that it contains all the derived alleles found in the archaic genome (Altai Neanderthal or Denisova). The reordering is performed using the minimum distance method, so that haplotypes with more derived alleles shared with the archaic population are at the top of the plot. Derived alleles are represented as black spots and ancestral alleles are represented as white spots. Variant positions were filtered out when the site in the archaic genome had mapping quality less than 30 or genotype quality less than 40, or if the minor allele had a population

184 frequency smaller than 5% in each of the present-day human populations
185 included in the plot.

186 2.4. Hidden Markov Model

187 As haplotypes could look archaic simply because of ancestral structure
188 or incomplete lineage sorting, we used a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) de-
189 scribed in ref. [20] (which assumes an exponential distribution of admixture
190 tract lengths [28, 29]), in order to verify that our candidate regions truly had
191 archaic introgressed segments. This procedure also allowed us to confirm
192 which of the archaic genomes was closest to the original source of introgres-
193 sion, as using a distant archaic source as input (for example, the Denisova
194 genome when the true source is closest to the Neanderthal genome) pro-
195 duced shorter or less frequent inferred segments in the HMM output than
196 when using the closer source genome.

197 The HMM we used requires us to specify a prior for the admixture rate.
198 We tried two priors: 2% and 50%. The first was chosen because it is consis-
199 tent with the genome-wide admixture rate for Neanderthals into Eurasians.
200 The second, larger, value was chosen because each candidate region should *a*
201 *priori* have a larger probability of being admixed, as they were found using
202 statistics that are indicative of admixture in the first place. We observe al-
203 most no differences in the number of haplotypes inferred using either value.
204 However, the larger prior leads to longer and less fragmented introgressed
205 chunks, as the HMM is less likely to transition into a non-introgressed state
206 between two introgressed states, so all figures we show below were obtained
207 using a 50% admixture prior. The admixture time was set to 1,900 gen-
208 erations ago and the recombination rate was set to $2.3 * 10^{-8}$ per bp per
209 generation. A tract was called as introgressed if the posterior probability for
210 introgression was higher than 90%.

211 2.5. Testing for enrichment in genic regions

212 To test for whether uniquely shared archaic alleles at high frequencies were
213 enriched in genic regions of the genome, we looked at archaic alleles at high
214 frequency in any of the Non-African panels that were also at low frequency
215 ($< 1\%$) in Africans. As background, we used all archaic alleles that were at
216 any frequency larger than 0 in the same Non-African populations, and that
217 were also at low frequency in Africans. We then tested whether the high-
218 frequency archaic alleles tended to occur in genic regions more often than
219 expected.

SNPs in introgressed blocks will tend to cluster together and have similar allele frequencies, which could cause a spurious enrichment signal. To correct for the fact that SNPs at similar allele frequencies will cluster together (as they will tend to co-occur in the same haplotypes), we performed linkage disequilibrium (LD) pruning using two methods. In one (called “LD-1”), we downloaded the approximately independent European LD blocks published in ref. [30]. For each set of high frequency derived sites, we randomly sampled one SNP from each block. In a different approach (called “LD-2”), for each set of high frequency derived sites, we subsampled SNPs such that each SNP was at least 200 kb apart from each other. We then tested these two types of LD-pruned SNP sets against 1000 SNP sets of equal length that were also LD-pruned and that were obtained randomizing frequencies and collecting SNPs in the same ways as described above.

3. Results

3.1. Simulations

3.1.1. Statistics based on shared allele configurations

We tested the performance of the statistics described above under scenarios of adaptive introgression. Figures S2, S3 and S4 show the distribution of statistics that rely on patterns of shared allele configurations between source and introgressed populations (H_{et} , D , f_D , $U_{A,B,C}$, $Q95_{A,B,C}$ and R_D), for different choices of the selection coefficient s , and under 2%, 10% and 25% admixture rates, respectively. For $Q95_{A,B,C}(w, 100\%)$ and $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, 100\%)$, we tested different choices of w (1%, 10%) and x (0%, 20%, 50% and 80%). Some statistics, like $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ and f_D show strong separation between the selection regimes. For example, with an admixture rate of 2%, $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ has 100% sensitivity at a specificity of 99%, for both $s=0.1$ and $s=0.01$.

Other statistics are not as effective, however. For example, $U_{A,B,C}(1\%, 0\%, 100\%)$ shows some power when the admixture rate is low (2%), but almost no power when the admixture rate is high (25%). This is because setting the test population archaic allele frequency minimum threshold at $x = 0\%$ means that any site with some archaic allele in the test panel will be counted, regardless of the allele frequency, so long as the archaic allele is at low frequency in the outgroup panel. At high admixture rates, low- and medium-frequency archaic alleles would naturally occur under neutrality, so they would not be informative about AI.

3.1.2. LD-based statistics

In turn, Figure S5 shows the distribution of LD-based statistics under different selection and admixture rate regimes. Note that while $D'[\text{intro}]$, $D'[\text{comb}]$ and $r^2[\text{comb}]$ are generally increased by adaptive introgression, this is not the case with $r^2[\text{intro}]$ under strong selection and admixture regimes. This is because r^2 will tend to decrease if the minor allele frequency is very small, which will occur if this frequency is only measured in the population undergoing adaptive introgression. In general, these statistics are not as powerful for detecting AI as allele configuration statistics like U or $Q95$.

3.1.3. Receiving operator curves

In Figures 3 and S6, we plot receiving operator curves (ROC) of all these statistics, for various selection and admixture regimes. In general, $Q_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$, $Q_{A,B,C}(10\%, 100\%)$ and f_D are very powerful statistics for detecting AI. The number of uniquely shared sites $U_{A,B,C}(x, y, z)$ is also powerful, so long as the population in the target panel (y) is large. Additionally, for different choices of y , using $w = 1\%$ yields a more powerful statistic than using $w = 10\%$.

3.1.4. Joint distributions

We were also interested in the joint distribution of pairs of these statistics. Figure S7 shows the joint distribution of $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ in the y-axis and four other statistics (R_D , Het , D and f_D) in the x-axis, under different admixture and selection regimes. One can observe, for example, that while $Q_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ increases with increasing selection intensity and admixture rates, Het increases with increasing admixture rates, but decreases with increasing selection intensity. Thus, under AI the two forces cancel each other out, and we obtain a similar value of Het as under neutrality. Furthermore, the joint distributions of $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ and f_D or R_D show particularly good separation among the different AI scenarios.

Another joint distribution that is especially good at separating different AI regimes is the combination of $Q95_{A,B,C}(w, 100\%)$ and $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, 100\%)$. In Figure 4, we show this joint distribution, for different choices of w (1%, 10%) and x (20%, 50%). Here, with increasing intensity of selection and admixture, the number of uniquely shared sites and the quantile statistic increase, but the quantile statistic tends to only reach high values when selection is strong, even if admixture rates are low.

3.1.5. *Alternative demographic scenarios*

We evaluated the performance of our statistics under various alternative demographic scenarios. First, we simulated a 5X bottleneck occurring in population B 1,600 generations before the admixture event, and lasting 200 generations, to observe its effects on the power of the statistics for detecting AI (Figure 2.B). Though we observe a reduction in power - most evident in the heterozygosity statistics - none of the statistics are very strongly affected by this event (Figure S8). We also simulated a bottleneck of equal size but occurring after the admixture event - starting 1,400 generations ago, and lasting 200 generations (Figure 2.C). In this case, the sensitivity of all the statistics is strongly reduced when the admixture rate is low (Figure S9). For example, when looking at the raw values of the $U_{A,B,C}$ and $Q95_{A,B,C}$ statistics, we observe that for low admixture rates the distribution under selection has more overlap with the distribution under neutrality, which explains the low power (Figures S10, S11). Additionally, $U_{A,B,C}$ seems to display more elevated values under neutrality than in the constant population size model. However, the relative performance of each statistic with respect to all the others does not appear to change much (Figure S9).

We next explored a model where the introgressed haplotype was not immediately adaptive in the Eurasian population, but instead underwent an intermediate period of neutral drift, before it becomes advantageous (Figure 2.D). In such a situation, our power to detect AI is reduced, for all statistics (Figure S12). This is particularly an issue when the admixture rate is low, as in those cases the starting frequency of the selected allele in the Eurasian population is low, so it is more likely to drift to extinction during the neutral period, before it can become advantageous.

We also evaluated the performance of our statistics under selective scenarios that did not involve adaptive introgression, to check which of them were sensitive to these models and which were not. Under a model of selection from de novo mutation (SDN, Figure 2.E), in which a single mutation appears in the receiving population after the admixture event, the heterozygosity and linkage disequilibrium statistics ($r^2[intro]$ and $D'[intro]$) are the most sensitive ones (Figure S13). This is expected, given that classical selective sweeps are known to strongly affect patterns of heterozygosity and linkage disequilibrium in the neighborhood of the selected site [31, 32, 33]. Since all other statistics have very poor sensitivity to detect SDN, we expect to be able to distinguish signatures generated from SDN and AI.

We also simulated a model of selection from standing variation (Figure 2.F), by randomly selecting 20% of haplotypes within the introgressing population to be advantageous, after the introgression event had already occurred. In this case, all statistics perform poorly, especially when admixture is low. Interestingly, when admixture is high (Figure S14), $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ and $U_{A,B,C}(1\%, 0\%, 100\%)$ are the best performing statistics. This is likely because some of the haplotypes that are randomly chosen to be selected also happen to be ancestrally polymorphic and present in the archaic humans.

When we set ancestral structure to be our null model, we observe different behaviors depending on the strength of the migration rates. When the migration rates are strong (Figure S15), we have excellent power to detect AI with several statistics, including $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$, D , f_D , R_D and $U_{A,B,C}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%)$. When the rates are of medium strength (Figure S16), the power is slightly reduced, but the same statistics are the ones that perform best. When the migration rates are weak - meaning ancestral structure is very strong - $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%, 100\%)$ loses power, and the best-performing statistics are R_D , D and f_D (Figure S17). We note, though, that the genome-wide D observed under this last ancestral structure model ($D = 0.24$) is much more extreme than the genome-wide D observed empirically between any Eurasian population and Neanderthals or Denisovans, suggesting that if there was ancestral structure between archaic and modern humans, it was likely not of this magnitude.

3.2. Global features of uniquely shared archaic alleles

Before identifying candidate genes for adaptive introgression, we investigated the frequency and number of uniquely shared sites at the genome-wide level. Specifically, we wanted to know whether human populations varied in the number of sites with uniquely shared archaic alleles, and whether they also varied in the frequency distribution of these alleles. Therefore, we computed $U_{A,B,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$ and $Q95_{A,B,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ for different choices of x , y and z . We used each of the non-African panels in the 1000 Genomes Project phase 3 data [19] as the “test” panel (B), and chose the outgroup panel (A) to be the combination of all African populations (YRI, LWK, GWD, MSL, ESN), excluding admixed African-Americans. When setting $x = 0\%$ (i.e. not imposing a frequency cutoff in the target panel B), South Asians as a target population show the largest number of archaic alleles (Figure 5.A). However, East Asians have a larger number of high-frequency uniquely shared archaic alleles than Europeans and South Asians, for both

365 $x = 20\%$ and $x = 50\%$ (Figure 5.B-C). Population-specific D-statistics (us-
 366 ing YRI as the non-admixed population) also follow this trend (Figure S18)
 367 and we observe this pattern when looking only at the X chromosome as well
 368 (Figure S19). These results hold in comparisons with both archaic human
 369 genomes, but we observe a stronger signal when looking at Neanderthal-
 370 specific shared alleles. To correct for the fact that some panels have more
 371 segregating sites than others (and may therefore have more archaic-like seg-
 372 regating sites), we also scaled the number of uniquely shared sites by the
 373 total number of segregating sites per population panel (Figure 5.D-F), and
 374 we see in general the same patterns, with the exception of a Peruvian panel,
 375 which we discuss further below. We also observe similar patterns when calcu-
 376 lating $Q95_{A,B,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ genome-wide (Figure S20). The elevation in
 377 $U_{A,B,Nea,Den}$ and $Q95_{A,B,Nea,Den}$ in East Asians may result from higher levels
 378 of archaic ancestry in East Asians than in Europeans [34], and agrees with
 379 studies indicating that more than one pulse of admixture likely occurred in
 380 East Asians [35, 36].

381 Surprisingly, the Peruvians (PEL) harbor the largest amount of high fre-
 382 quency mutations of archaic origin than any other single population, espe-
 383 cially when using Neanderthals as bait (Figures 5.B-C,S19). It is unclear
 384 whether this signal is due to increased drift or selection in this population.
 385 Skoglund et al. [37] argue via simulations that if one analyzes a popula-
 386 tion with high amounts of recent genetic drift and excludes SNPs where the
 387 minor allele is at low frequency, some statistics that are meant to detect
 388 archaic ancestry - like D - may be artificially inflated. Our filtering proce-
 389 dure to select uniquely shared archaic alleles necessarily excludes sites where
 390 the archaic allele is at low frequency in the target panel, and the PEL panel
 391 comes from a population with a history of low effective population sizes (high
 392 drift) relative to other Non-Africans [19], which could explain this pattern.
 393 This could also explain why the effect is not seen when $x = 0\%$ (Figure 5.A),
 394 or when computing D-statistics (Figure S18), both of which include sites
 395 with low-frequency alleles in their computation. Additionally, scaling the
 396 uniquely shared sites by the total number of segregating sites per population
 397 panel mitigates (but does not completely erase) this pattern. After scaling,
 398 PEL shows levels of archaic allele sharing within the range of the East Asian
 399 populations at $x = 20\%$ (Figure 5.E), but is still the panel with the largest
 400 number of archaic sites at $x = 50\%$ (Figure 5.F).

401 Additionally, we plotted the values of $U_{AFR,X,Nea,Den}(w, 1\%, y, z)$ and $Q95_{AFR,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$
 402 jointly for each population X, under different frequency cutoffs w . When

403 $w = 0\%$, there is a generally inversely proportional relationship between the
 404 two scores (Figure S21), but this becomes a directly proportional relation-
 405 ship when $w = 20\%$ (Figure 6) or $w = 50\%$ (Figure S25). Here, we also
 406 clearly observe that PEL is an extreme region with respect to both the num-
 407 ber and frequency of archaic shared derived alleles, and that East Asian and
 408 American populations have more high-frequency archaic shared alleles than
 409 Europeans.

410 We checked via simulations if the observed excess of high frequency ar-
 411 chaic derived mutations in Americans and especially Peruvians could be
 412 caused by genetic drift, as a consequence of the bottleneck that occurred in
 413 the ancestors of Native Americans as they crossed Beringia. We observe that
 414 if the introgressed population B undergoes a bottleneck, this can lead to a
 415 larger number of $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, y, z)$ for large values of x (Figure S10,S11,S22).
 416 Indeed, population structure analyses of the 1000 Genomes samples suggest
 417 that Peruvians have the largest amount of Native American ancestry [19]
 418 and show a bottleneck with a lack of recent population growth, which could
 419 explain this pattern. We also observe an increase in the variance of the dis-
 420 tribution of U and $Q95$ in the presence of a bottleneck, especially when long
 421 and severe (Figures S23, S24).

422 3.3. Candidate regions for adaptive introgression

423 To identify adaptively introgressed regions of the genome, we computed
 424 $U_{A,B,C,D}(w, x, y, z)$ and $Q95_{A,B,C,D}(w, y, z)$ in 40kb non-overlapping windows
 425 along the genome, using the low-coverage sequencing data from phase 3 of
 426 the 1000 Genomes Project [19]. We used this window size because the mean
 427 length of introgressed haplotypes found in ref. [2] was 44,078 bp (Supple-
 428 mentary Information 13), and 40kb is well over the length needed to reject
 429 incomplete lineage sorting [17]. Our motivation was to find regions under
 430 AI in a particular panel B, using panel A as a non-introgressed out-group
 431 (generally Africans, unless otherwise stated). We used the high-coverage Al-
 432 tai Neanderthal genome [2] as bait panel C and the high-coverage Denisova
 433 genome [4] as bait panel D. We deployed these statistics in three ways: a)
 434 to look for Neanderthal-specific AI, we set $y = 100\%$ and $z = 0\%$; b) to
 435 look for Denisova-specific AI, we set $y = 0\%$ and $z = 100\%$; c) to look for
 436 AI matching both of the archaic genomes, we set $y = 100\%$ and $z = 100\%$
 437 (Figure S1, Table S3). To try to determine the adaptive pressure behind the
 438 putative AI event, we obtained all the CCDS-verified genes located inside
 439 each window [38].

For guidance as to how high a value of U and $Q95$ we would expect under neutrality, we used the simulations from Figure 2 to obtain 95% empirical quantiles of the distribution of these scores under neutrality. Tables S1 and S2 show the 95% quantiles for these two statistics under various models of adaptive introgression and ancestral structure, for different choices of parameter values (see Methods Section). When examining our candidates for AI below, we focused on windows whose values for $U_{A,B,Nea,Den}(w, y, z)$ and $Q95_{A,B,Nea,Den}(w, x, y, z)$ were both in the 99.9% quantile of their respective genome-wide distributions, and also verified that these values would be statistically significant at the 5% level under a simple model of neutral admixture.

We also calculated D and f_D along the same windows (using Africans as the non-admixed population), and saw good agreement with the new statistics presented here (Table S3). Finally, we validated the regions most likely to have been adaptively introgressed by searching for archaic tracts of introgression within them that were at high frequency, using a Hidden Markov Model (see below).

3.3.1. Continental populations

When focusing on adaptive introgression in continental populations, we first looked for uniquely shared archaic alleles specific to Europeans that were absent or almost absent ($< 1\%$ frequency) in Africans and East Asians. Conversely, we also looked for uniquely shared archaic alleles in East Asians, which were absent or almost absent in Africans and Europeans. In this continental survey, we ignored Latin American populations as they have high amounts of European and African ancestry, which could confound our analyses. Figure 7 shows the number of sites with uniquely shared alleles for increasing frequency cutoffs in the introgressed population, and for different types of archaic alleles (Neanderthal-specific, Denisova-specific or common to both archaic humans). In other words, we calculated $U_{AFR,EUR,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR,EAS,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$ for different values of x (0%, 20%, 50% and 80%) and different choices of y and z , depending on which type of archaic alleles we were looking for. We observe that the regions in the extreme of the distributions for $x = 50\%$ corresponded very well to genes that had been previously found to be candidates for adaptive introgression from archaic humans in these populations, using more complex probabilistic methods [6, 5] or gene-centric approaches [39]. These include *BNC2* (involved in skin pigmentation [40, 41]), *POU2F3* (involved in skin keratinocyte differentiation

[42, 43]), *HYAL2* (involved in the response to UV radiation on human keratinocytes [44]), *SIPA1L2* (involved in neuronal signaling [45]) and *CHMP1A* (a regulator of cerebellar development [46]). To be more rigorous in our search for adaptive introgression, we looked at the joint distribution of the U statistic and the $Q95$ statistic for the same choices of w , y and z , and then selected the regions that were in the 99.9% quantiles of the distributions of both statistics (Figures 8, S26, S27). We find that the strongest candidates here are *BNC2*, *POU2F3*, *SIPA1L2* and the *HYAL2* region.

We also scanned for regions of the genome where South Asians (SAS) had uniquely shared archaic alleles at high frequency, which were absent or almost absent in Europeans, East Asians and Africans. In this case, we focused on $x = 20\%$ because we found that $x = 50\%$ left us with no candidate regions. Among the candidate regions sharing a large number of high-frequency Neanderthal alleles in South Asians, we find genes *ASTN2*, *SFMBT1*, *MUSTN1* and *MAML2* (Figure S28). *ASTN2* is involved in neuronal migration [47] and is associated with schizophrenia [48, 49]. *SFMBT1* is involved in myogenesis [50] and is associated with hydrocephalus [51]. *MUSTN1* plays a role in the regeneration of the musculoskeletal system [52]. Finally, *MAML2* codes for a signaling protein [53, 54], and is associated with cutaneous carcinoma [55] and lacrimal gland cancer [56].

3.3.2. Eurasia

We then looked for AI in all Eurasians (EUA=EUR+SAS+EAS, ignoring American populations) using Africans as the non-admixed population (AFR, ignoring admixed African-Americans). Figure 8 shows the extreme outlier regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both $U_{EUA,AFR,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, y, z)$ and $Q95_{EUA,AFR,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$, while Figure S29 shows the entire distribution. We focused on $x = 20\%$ because we found that $x = 50\%$ left us with almost no candidate regions. In this case, the region with by far the largest number of uniquely shared archaic alleles is the one containing genes *OAS1* and *OAS3*, involved in innate immunity [57, 58, 59, 60]. This region was previously identified as a candidate for AI from Neanderthals in non-Africans [61]. Another region that we recover and was previously identified as a candidate for AI is the one containing genes *TLR1* and *TLR6* [62, 63]. These genes are also involved in innate immunity and have been shown to be under positive selection in some non-African populations [64, 65].

Interestingly, we find that a very strong candidate region in Eurasia contains genes *TBX15* and *WARS2*. This region has been associated with a

variety of traits, including adipose tissue differentiation [66], body fat distribution [67, 68, 69, 70], hair pigmentation [71], facial morphology [72, 73], ear morphology [74], stature [73] and skeletal development [75, 73]. It was previously identified as being under positive selection in Greenlanders [76], and it shows particularly striking signatures of adaptive introgression, so we devote a separate study to its analysis [77].

3.3.3. Population-specific signals of adaptive introgression

To identify population-specific signals of AI, we looked for archaic alleles at high frequency in a particular non-African panel X, which were also at less than 1% frequency in all other non-African and African panels, excluding X (Table S3). This is a very restrictive requirement, and indeed, we only find a few windows in a single panel (PEL) with archaic alleles at more than 20% frequency, at sites where the archaic alleles is at less than 1% frequency in all other panels. One of the regions with the largest number of uniquely shared Neanderthal sites in PEL contains gene *CHD2*, which codes for a DNA helicase [78] involved in myogenesis (UniProtKB by similarity), and that is associated with epilepsy [79, 80].

3.3.4. Shared signals among populations

In the previous section, we focused on regions where archaic alleles were uniquely at high frequencies in particular populations, but at low frequencies in all other populations. This precludes us from detecting AI regions that are shared across more than one non-African population. To address this, we conditioned on observing the archaic allele at less than 1% frequency in a non-admixed outgroup panel composed of all the African panels (YRI, LWK, GWD, MSL, ESN), excluding African-Americans, and then looked for archaic alleles at high frequency in particular non-African populations. Unlike the previous section, we did not condition on the archaic allele being at low frequency in other non-African populations as well. The whole joint distributions of U and Q_{95} for this choice of parameters for each non-African panel are shown in figs. S30 to S48, while regions in the 99.9% quantile for both statistics are shown in Figure 8.

Here, we recapitulate many of the findings from our Eurasian and continental-specific analyses above, like *TLR1/TLR6*, *BNC2*, *OAS1/OAS3*, *POU2F3*, *LIPA* and *TBX15/WARS2* (Figure 8). For example, just as we found that *POU2F3* was an extreme region in the East Asian (EAS) continental panel, we separately find that almost all populations composing that panel (CHB,

550 KHV, CHS, CDX, JPT) have archaic alleles in that region at disproportion-
 551 ately high frequency, relative to their frequency in Africans. Additionally
 552 though, we can learn things we would not have detected at the continental
 553 level. For example, the Bengali from Bangladesh (BEB) - a South Asian
 554 population - also have archaic alleles at very high frequencies in this region.

555 We detected several genes that appear to show signatures of AI across
 556 various populations (Figures 8). One of the most extreme examples is a 120
 557 kb region containing the *LARS* gene, with 76 uniquely shared Neanderthal
 558 alleles at $< 1\%$ frequency in Africans and $> 50\%$ frequency in Peruvians,
 559 which are also at $> 20\%$ frequency in Mexicans. *LARS* codes for a leucin-
 560 tRNA synthetase [81], and is associated with liver failure syndrome [82].
 561 Additionally, a region containing gene *ZFHX3* displays an elevated number
 562 of uniquely shared Neanderthal sites in PEL, and we also observe this when
 563 looking more broadly at East Asians (EAS) and - based on the patterns of
 564 inferred introgressed tracts (see below) - in various American (AMR) pop-
 565 ulations as well. *ZFHX3* is involved in the inhibition of estrogen receptor-
 566 mediated transcription [83] and has been associated with prostate cancer
 567 [84].

568 We also find several Neanderthal-specific uniquely shared sites in Ameri-
 569 can panels (PEL, CLM, MXL) in a region previously identified as harboring
 570 a risk haplotype for type 2 diabetes (chr17:6880001-6960000) [85]. This is
 571 consistent with previous findings suggesting the risk haplotype was intro-
 572 gressed from Neanderthals and is specifically present at high frequencies in
 573 Latin Americans [85]. The region contains gene *SLC16A11*, whose expres-
 574 sion is known to alter lipid metabolism [85]. We also find that the genes
 575 *FAP/IFIH1* have signals consistent with AI, particularly in PEL. This re-
 576 gion has been previously associated with type 1 diabetes [86, 87]. A previous
 577 analysis of this region has suggested that the divergent haplotypes in it re-
 578 sulted from ancestral structure or balancing selection in Africa, followed by
 579 local episodes of positive selection in Europe, Asia and the Americas [88]. A
 580 more recent analysis has found this as a region of archaic AI in Melanesians
 581 as well [7].

582 Another interesting candidate region contains two genes involved in lipid
 583 metabolism: *LIPA* and *CH25H*. We find a 40 kb region with 11 uniquely
 584 shared Denisovan alleles that are at low ($< 1\%$) frequency in Africans and at
 585 very high ($> 50\%$) frequency in various South and East Asian populations
 586 (JPT, KHV, CHB, CHS, CDX and BEB). The Q95 and D statistics in this
 587 region are also high across all of these populations, and we also find this

588 region to have extreme values of these statistics in our broader Eurasian scan.
 589 The *LIPA* gene codes for a lipase [89] and is associated with cholesterol ester
 590 storage disease [90] and Wolman disease [91]. In turn, the *CH25H* gene codes
 591 for a membrane hydroxylase involved in the metabolism of cholesterol [92]
 592 and associated with Alzheimer’s disease [93] and antiviral activity [94].

593 Finally, we find a region harboring between 3 and 10 uniquely shared
 594 Neanderthal alleles (depending on the panel used) in various non-African
 595 populations. This region was identified earlier by ref. [5] and contains genes
 596 *PPDPF*, *PTK6* and *HELZ2*. *PPDPF* codes for a probable regulator of pan-
 597 creas development (UniProtKB by similarity). *PTK6* codes for an epithelial
 598 signal transducer [95] and *HELZ2* codes for a helicase that works as a tran-
 599 scriptional coactivator for nuclear receptors [96, 97].

600 3.4. The X chromosome

601 Previous studies have observed lower levels of archaic introgression in
 602 the X chromosome relative to the autosomes [5, 6]. Here, we observe a
 603 similar trend: compared to the autosomes, the X chromosome contains a
 604 smaller number of windows with sites that are uniquely shared with archaic
 605 humans (Figure 7). For example, for $w = 1\%$ and $x = 20\%$, we observe
 606 that, in Europeans, 0.4% of all windows in the autosomes have at least one
 607 uniquely shared site with Neanderthals or Denisovans, while only 0.05% of
 608 all windows in the X chromosome have at least one uniquely shared site (P
 609 $= 4.985 \times 10^{-4}$, chi-squared test assuming independence between windows).
 610 The same pattern is observed in East Asians ($P = 1.852 \times 10^{-8}$).

611 Nevertheless, we do identify some regions in the X chromosome exhibiting
 612 high values for both $U_{A,B,C,D}(w, x, y, z)$ and $Q95_{A,B,C,D}(w, y, z)$. For example,
 613 a region containing gene *DHRX* contains a uniquely shared site where a
 614 Neanderthal allele is at $< 1\%$ frequency in Africans, but at $> 50\%$ frequency
 615 in a British panel (GBR). Another region contains gene *DMD* and harbors
 616 two uniquely shared sites where two archaic (Denisovan/Neanderthal) alleles
 617 are also at low ($< 1\%$) frequency in Africans but at $> 50\%$ frequency in
 618 Peruvians. *DHRX* codes for an oxidoreductase enzyme [98], while *DMD* is
 619 a well-known gene because mutations in it cause muscular dystrophy [99], and
 620 was also previously identified as having signatures of archaic introgression in
 621 non-Africans [100].

622 3.5. Introgressed haplotypes in candidate loci

623 We inspected the haplotype patterns of candidate loci with support in
 624 favor of AI. We displayed the haplotypes for selected populations at seven
 625 regions: *POU2F3* (Figure 9.A), *BNC2* (Figure 9.B), *OAS1* (Figure 9.C),
 626 *LARS* (Figure 9.D), *FAP/IFIH1* (Figure 9.E), *LIPA* (Figure 9.F) and *SLC16A11*
 627 (Figure S49.C). We included continental populations that show a large num-
 628 ber of uniquely shared archaic alleles, and included YRI as a representative
 629 African population. We then ordered the haplotypes by similarity to the
 630 closest archaic genome (Altai Neanderthal or Denisova) (Figure 9). As can
 631 be observed, all these regions tend to show sharp distinctions between the
 632 putatively introgressed haplotypes and the non-introgressed ones. This is
 633 also evident when looking at the cumulative number of differences of each
 634 haplotype to the closest archaic haplotype, where we see a sharp rise in the
 635 number of differences, indicating strong differentiation between the two sets
 636 of haplotypes. Additionally, the YRI haplotypes tend to predominantly be-
 637 long to the non-introgressed group, as expected.

638 3.5.1. Consequences of relaxing the outgroup frequency cutoff

639 When using a more lenient cutoff for the outgroup panel (10% maximum
 640 frequency, rather than 1%), we find a few genes that display values of the
 641 U statistic that are suggestive of AI, and that have been previously found
 642 to be under strong positive selection in particular human populations [101,
 643 102]. The most striking examples are *TYRP1* in EUR (using EAS+AFR
 644 as outgroup) and *OCA2* in EAS (using EUR+AFR as outgroup)(Table S3).
 645 Both of these genes are involved in pigmentation. We caution, however, that
 646 the reason why they carry archaic alleles at high frequency may simply be
 647 because their respective selective sweeps pushed an allele that was segregating
 648 in both archaic and modern humans to high frequency in modern humans,
 649 but not necessarily via introgression.

650 In fact, *TYRP1* only stands out as an extreme region for the number of
 651 archaic shared alleles in EUR when using the lenient 10% cutoff, but not
 652 when using the more stringent 1% cutoff. When looking at these SNPs in
 653 more detail, we find that their allele frequency in Africans ($\sim 20\%$) is even
 654 higher than in East Asians ($\sim 1\%$), largely reflecting population differen-
 655 tiation across Eurasia due to positive selection [102], rather than adaptive
 656 introgression. When exploring the haplotype structure of this gene (Figure
 657 S49.B), we find one haplotype that shows similarities to archaic humans but
 658 is at low frequency. In the combined YRI+EUR panel, just 6.37% of all

haplotypes have 36 or less differences to the Neanderthal genome, and this number is roughly the point of transition between the archaic-like and the non-archaic-like haplotypes (Figures S49.B). There is a second - more frequent - haplotype that is more distinct from archaic humans but present at high frequency in Europeans. The uniquely shared sites obtained using the lenient ($< 10\%$) allele frequency outgroup cutoff are tagging both haplotypes together, rather than just the highly differentiated archaic-like haplotype.

OCA2 has several sites with uniquely shared alleles in EAS (AFR+EUR as outgroup) when using the lenient 10% cutoff, but only a few (2) shared archaic sites when using the $< 1\%$ outgroup frequency cutoff. When exploring the haplotype structure of this gene, we fail to find a clear-cut differentiation between putatively introgressed and non-introgressed haplotypes, so the evidence for adaptive introgression in this region is also weak. *OCA2* does not show a large number of differences between the haplotypes that are closer to the archaic humans (Figure S49.A). A close inspection of its haplotype structure shows that *OCA2* does not show a large number of differences between the haplotypes that are closer and those that are distant from the archaic humans (Figure S49.A).

Finally, using the lenient outgroup cutoff of $< 10\%$ and a target cutoff of $> 20\%$, we find the gene with the highest number of uniquely shared sites among all the populations and cutoffs we tested: *MUC19*. This region is rather impressive in containing 115 sites where the archaic alleles are shared between the Mexican panel (MXL) and the Denisovan genome at more than 20% frequency, when using all populations that are not MXL as the outgroup. However, the actual proportion of individuals that contain a Denisova-like haplotype (though highly differentiated from the rest of present-day human haplotypes) is very small. Only 11.86% of haplotypes in the combined YRI+AMR panel show 69 differences or less to the closest archaic genome (Denisova), and the next closest haplotype has 134 differences (Figure S49.D).

Overall, a finer investigation of these three cases suggests that using a lenient outgroup frequency cutoff may lead to misleading inferences. Nevertheless, the haplotype structure of these genes and their relationship to their archaic human counterparts are quite unusual. It remains to be determined whether these patterns could be caused by either positive selection or introgression alone, or whether a combination of these or other demographic forces is required to explain them.

696 3.6. Inferred introgressed tracts

697 We used a HMM [20] to verify that the strongest candidate regions ef-
 698 fectively contained archaic segments of a length that would be consistent
 699 with introgression after the divergence between archaic and modern hu-
 700 mans. For each region, we used the closest archaic genome (Altai Nean-
 701 derthal or Denisova) as the putative source of introgression. We then plotted
 702 the inferred segments in non-African continental populations for genes with
 703 strong evidence for AI. Among these, genes with Neanderthal as the closest
 704 source (figs. S50 to S57) include: *POU2F3* (EAS,SAS), *BNC2* (EUR), *OAS1*
 705 (Eurasians), *LARS* (AMR), *FAP/IFIH1* (PEL), *CHD2* (PEL), *TLR1-6* (EAS)
 706 and *ZFHX3* (PEL). Genes with Denisova as the closest source (figs. S58
 707 and S59) include: *LIPA* (EAS, SAS, AMR) and *MUSTN1* (SAS).

708 3.7. Testing for enrichment in genic regions

709 We aimed to test whether uniquely shared archaic alleles at high fre-
 710 quencies were enriched in genic regions of the genome. SNPs in introgressed
 711 blocks will tend to cluster together and have similar allele frequencies, which
 712 could cause a spurious enrichment signal. Therefore, we performed two types
 713 of LD pruning, which we described in the Methods section.

714 Regardless of which LD method we used, we find no significant enrich-
 715 ment in genic regions for high-frequency ($> 50\%$) Neanderthal alleles (LD-1
 716 $P=352$, LD-2 $P=0.161$) or Denisovan alleles (LD-1 $P=0.348$, LD-2 $P=0.192$).
 717 Similarly, we find no enrichment for medium-to-high-frequency ($> 20\%$) Ne-
 718 anderthal alleles (LD-1 $P=0.553$, LD-2 $P=0.874$) or Denisovan alleles (LD-1
 719 $P=0.838$, LD-2 $P=0.44$).

720 4. Discussion

721 Here, we carried out one of the first investigations into the joint dynamics
 722 of archaic introgression and positive selection, to develop statistics that are
 723 informative of AI. We find that one of the most powerful ways to detect AI
 724 is to look at both the number and allele frequency of mutations that are
 725 uniquely shared between the introgressed and the archaic populations. Such
 726 mutations should be abundant and at high-frequencies in the introgressed
 727 population if AI occurred. In particular, we identified two novel summaries
 728 of the data that capture this pattern quite well: the statistics $Q95$ and U .
 729 These statistics can recover loci under AI and are easy to compute from
 730 genomic data, as they do not require phasing.

731 We have also studied the general landscape of archaic alleles and their
732 frequencies in present-day human populations. While scanning the present-
733 day human genomes from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project [19] using
734 these and other summary statistics, we were able to recapitulate previous AI
735 findings (like the *TLR* [62, 63] and *OAS* regions [61]) as well as identify new
736 candidate regions for AI in Eurasia (like the *LIPA* gene and the *FAP/IFIH1*
737 region). These mostly include genes involved in lipid metabolism, pigmen-
738 tation and innate immunity, as observed in previous studies [5, 6, 103]. Pheno-
739 typic changes in these systems may have allowed archaic humans to survive in
740 Eurasia during the Pleistocene, and may have been passed on to present-day
741 human populations during their expansion out of Africa.

742 When using more lenient definitions of what we consider to be “uniquely
743 shared archaic alleles” we find sites containing these alleles in genes that have
744 been previously found to be under positive selection (like *OCA2* and *TYRP1*)
745 but not necessarily under adaptive introgression. While these do not show as
746 strong signatures of adaptive introgression as genes like *BNC2* and *POU2F3*,
747 their curious haplotype patterns and their relationship to archaic genomes
748 warrants further exploration.

749 We tested whether uniquely shared archaics alleles at high frequencies
750 in non-Africans were significantly more likely to be found in genic regions,
751 relative to all shared archaic alleles, but did not find a significant enrichment.
752 Though this suggests archaic haplotypes subject to AI may not be preferen-
753 tially found near or inside genes, it may also be a product of a lack of power,
754 or of the fact that not all uniquely shared archaic alleles may be truly intro-
755 gressed. As mentioned before, some of these alleles may be present due to
756 incomplete lineage sorting, which could add noise to the test signal. A more
757 rigorous - and possibly more powerful - test could involve testing whether
758 HMM-inferred introgressed archaic segments at high frequency tend to be
759 found in genic regions, relative to all inferred introgressed archaic segments,
760 while controlling for features like the length of introgressed segments and the
761 sensitivity of the HMM to different regions of the genome. However, in this
762 study, we did not pursue this line of research further.

763 In this study, we have mostly focused on positive selection for archaic al-
764 leles. One should remember, though, that a larger proportion of introgressed
765 genetic material was likely maladaptive to modern humans, and therefore se-
766 lected against. Indeed, two recent studies have shown that negative selection
767 on archaic haplotypes may have reduced the initial proportion of archaic ma-
768 terial present in modern humans immediately after the hybridization event(s)

769 [104, 105].

770 Another caveat is that some regions of the genome display patterns that
771 could be consistent with multiple introgression events, followed by positive
772 selection on one or more distinct archaic haplotypes [62]. In this study, we
773 have simply focused on models with a single pulse of admixture, and have
774 not considered complex scenarios with multiple sources of introgression. Ad-
775 ditionally, the currently limited availability of high-coverage archaic human
776 genomes may prevent us from detecting AI events for which the source may
777 not have been closely related to the sequenced Denisovan or Altai Nean-
778 derthal genomes. This may include other Neanderthal or Denisovan subpop-
779 ulations, or other (as yet unsampled) archaic groups that may have lived in
780 Africa and Eurasia.

781 It is also worth noting that positive selection for archaic haplotypes may
782 be due to heterosis, rather than adaptation to particular environments [104].
783 That is, archaic alleles may not have been intrinsically beneficial, but simply
784 protective against deleterious recessive modern human alleles, and therefore
785 selected after their introduction into the modern human gene pool. The
786 degree of dominance of deleterious alleles in humans remains elusive, so it is
787 unclear how applicable this model would be to archaic admixture in humans.

788 Although many of the statistics we introduced in this study have their
789 draw-backs - notably their dependence on simulations to assess significance
790 - they highlight a characteristic signature left by AI in present-day human
791 genomes. Future avenues of research could involve developing ways to incor-
792 porate uniquely shared sites into a robust test of selection that specifically
793 targets regions under AI. For example, one could think about modifying
794 statistics based on local between-population population differentiation, like
795 PBS [9], so that they are only sensitive to allele frequency differences at sites
796 that show signatures of archaic introgression.

797 Finally, while this study has largely focused on human AI, several other
798 species also show suggestive signatures of AI [106]. Assessing the extent
799 and prevalence of AI and uniquely shared sites in other biological systems
800 could provide new insights into their biology and evolutionary history. This
801 may also serve to better understand how populations of organisms respond
802 to introgression events, and to derive general principles about the interplay
803 between admixture and natural selection.

804 5. Acknowledgments

805 We are grateful to Montgomery Slatkin, Rasmus Nielsen, Fergal P. Casey,
806 Kirk Lohmueller and Amy Ko for helpful advice and comments. E.H.S. is
807 supported by UC Merced start-up funds. D.M. is supported by a University
808 of Torino PhD Scholarship. F.R. is supported by N.I.H. grant R01HG003229
809 to Rasmus Nielsen.

810 6. References

- 811 [1] R. E. Green, J. Krause, A. W. Briggs, T. Maricic, U. Stenzel,
812 M. Kircher, N. Patterson, H. Li, W. Zhai, M. H.-Y. Fritz, et al., A
813 draft sequence of the neandertal genome, *science* 328 (2010) 710–722.
- 814 [2] K. Prüfer, F. Racimo, N. Patterson, F. Jay, S. Sankararaman,
815 S. Sawyer, A. Heinze, G. Renaud, P. H. Sudmant, C. de Filippo, et al.,
816 The complete genome sequence of a neanderthal from the altai moun-
817 tains, *Nature* 505 (2014) 43–49.
- 818 [3] D. Reich, R. E. Green, M. Kircher, J. Krause, N. Patterson, E. Y.
819 Durand, B. Viola, A. W. Briggs, U. Stenzel, P. L. Johnson, et al.,
820 Genetic history of an archaic hominin group from denisova cave in
821 siberia, *Nature* 468 (2010) 1053–1060.
- 822 [4] M. Meyer, M. Kircher, M.-T. Gansauge, H. Li, F. Racimo, S. Mallick,
823 J. G. Schraiber, F. Jay, K. Prüfer, C. de Filippo, et al., A high-coverage
824 genome sequence from an archaic denisovan individual, *Science* 338
825 (2012) 222–226.
- 826 [5] S. Sankararaman, S. Mallick, M. Dannemann, K. Prüfer, J. Kelso,
827 S. Pääbo, N. Patterson, D. Reich, The genomic landscape of nean-
828 derthal ancestry in present-day humans, *Nature* 507 (2014) 354–357.
- 829 [6] B. Vernot, J. M. Akey, Resurrecting surviving neandertal lineages from
830 modern human genomes, *Science* 343 (2014) 1017–1021.
- 831 [7] B. Vernot, S. Tucci, J. Kelso, J. G. Schraiber, A. B. Wolf, R. M. Git-
832 telman, M. Dannemann, S. Grote, R. C. McCoy, H. Norton, L. B.
833 Scheinfeldt, D. A. Merriwether, G. Koki, J. S. Friedlaender, J. Wake-
834 field, S. Pääbo, J. M. Akey, Excavating neandertal and denisovan dna
835 from the genomes of melanesian individuals, *Science* (2016).

- 836 [8] C.-J. Hu, L.-Y. Wang, L. A. Chodosh, B. Keith, M. C. Simon, Differen-
837 tial roles of hypoxia-inducible factor 1α (hif- 1α) and hif- 2α in hypoxic
838 gene regulation, *Molecular and cellular biology* 23 (2003) 9361–9374.
- 839 [9] X. Yi, Y. Liang, E. Huerta-Sanchez, X. Jin, Z. X. P. Cuo, J. E. Pool,
840 X. Xu, H. Jiang, N. Vinckenbosch, T. S. Korneliussen, et al., Sequenc-
841 ing of 50 human exomes reveals adaptation to high altitude, *Science*
842 329 (2010) 75–78.
- 843 [10] A. Bigham, M. Bauchet, D. Pinto, X. Mao, J. M. Akey, R. Mei, S. W.
844 Scherer, C. G. Julian, M. J. Wilson, D. L. Herráez, et al., Identifying
845 signatures of natural selection in tibetan and andean populations using
846 dense genome scan data, *PLoS Genet* 6 (2010) e1001116.
- 847 [11] C. M. Beall, G. L. Cavalleri, L. Deng, R. C. Elston, Y. Gao, J. Knight,
848 C. Li, J. C. Li, Y. Liang, M. McCormack, et al., Natural selection on
849 *epas1* (hif 2α) associated with low hemoglobin concentration in tibetan
850 highlanders, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 107
851 (2010) 11459–11464.
- 852 [12] Y. Peng, Z. Yang, H. Zhang, C. Cui, X. Qi, X. Luo, X. Tao, T. Wu,
853 H. Chen, H. Shi, et al., Genetic variations in tibetan populations
854 and high-altitude adaptation at the himalayas, *Molecular biology and*
855 *evolution* 28 (2011) 1075–1081.
- 856 [13] S. Xu, S. Li, Y. Yang, J. Tan, H. Lou, W. Jin, L. Yang, X. Pan,
857 J. Wang, Y. Shen, et al., A genome-wide search for signals of high-
858 altitude adaptation in tibetans, *Molecular biology and evolution* 28
859 (2011) 1003–1011.
- 860 [14] B. Wang, Y.-B. Zhang, F. Zhang, H. Lin, X. Wang, N. Wan, Z. Ye,
861 H. Weng, L. Zhang, X. Li, et al., On the origin of tibetans and their
862 genetic basis in adapting high-altitude environments, *PLoS One* 6
863 (2011) e17002.
- 864 [15] C. Jeong, G. Alkorta-Aranburu, B. Basnyat, M. Neupane, D. B. Witon-
865 sky, J. K. Pritchard, C. M. Beall, A. Di Rienzo, Admixture facilitates
866 genetic adaptations to high altitude in tibet, *Nature communications*
867 5 (2014).

- 868 [16] S. Hackinger, T. Kraaijenbrink, Y. Xue, M. Mezzavilla, G. van Driem,
869 M. A. Jobling, P. de Knijff, C. Tyler-Smith, Q. Ayub, et al., Wide dis-
870 tribution and altitude correlation of an archaic high-altitude-adaptive
871 epas1 haplotype in the himalayas, *Human genetics* (2016) 1–10.
- 872 [17] E. Huerta-Sánchez, X. Jin, Z. Bianba, B. M. Peter, N. Vinckenbosch,
873 Y. Liang, X. Yi, M. He, M. Somel, P. Ni, et al., Altitude adaptation
874 in tibetans caused by introgression of denisovan-like dna, *Nature* 512
875 (2014) 194–197.
- 876 [18] E. Huerta-Sanchez, F. P. Casey, Archaic inheritance: supporting high
877 altitude life in tibet, *Journal of Applied Physiology* (2015) jap–00322.
- 878 [19] A. Auton, et al., A global reference for human genetic variation, *Nature*
879 526 (2015) 68–74.
- 880 [20] A. Seguin-Orlando, T. S. Korneliussen, M. Sikora, A.-S. Malaspinas,
881 A. Manica, I. Moltke, A. Albrechtsen, A. Ko, A. Margaryan, V. Moi-
882 seyev, et al., Genomic structure in europeans dating back at least
883 36,200 years, *Science* 346 (2014) 1113–1118.
- 884 [21] F. Racimo, S. Sankararaman, R. Nielsen, E. Huerta-Sánchez, Evidence
885 for archaic adaptive introgression in humans, *Nature Reviews Genetics*
886 16 (2015) 359–371.
- 887 [22] E. Y. Durand, N. Patterson, D. Reich, M. Slatkin, Testing for ancient
888 admixture between closely related populations, *Molecular biology and*
889 *evolution* 28 (2011) 2239–2252.
- 890 [23] M. R. Kronforst, M. E. Hansen, N. G. Crawford, J. R. Gallant,
891 W. Zhang, R. J. Kulathinal, D. D. Kapan, S. P. Mullen, Hybridization
892 reveals the evolving genomic architecture of speciation, *Cell reports* 5
893 (2013) 666–677.
- 894 [24] J. Smith, M. R. Kronforst, Do heliconius butterfly species exchange
895 mimicry alleles?, *Biology letters* 9 (2013) 20130503.
- 896 [25] S. H. Martin, J. W. Davey, C. D. Jiggins, Evaluating the use of abba-
897 baba statistics to locate introgressed loci, *Molecular biology and evo-*
898 *lution* 32 (2015) 244–257.

- 899 [26] M. DeGiorgio, M. Jakobsson, N. A. Rosenberg, Explaining world-
900 wide patterns of human genetic variation using a coalescent-based se-
901 rial founder model of migration outward from africa, *Proceedings of*
902 *the National Academy of Sciences* 106 (2009) 16057–16062.
- 903 [27] P. W. Messer, Slim: simulating evolution with selection and linkage,
904 *Genetics* 194 (2013) 1037–1039.
- 905 [28] J. E. Pool, R. Nielsen, Inference of historical changes in migration rate
906 from the lengths of migrant tracts, *Genetics* 181 (2009) 711–719.
- 907 [29] S. Gravel, Population genetics models of local ancestry, *Genetics* 191
908 (2012) 607–619.
- 909 [30] T. Berisa, J. K. Pickrell, Approximately independent linkage disequilib-
910 rium blocks in human populations, *Bioinformatics* 32 (2016) 283–285.
- 911 [31] N. H. Barton, The effect of hitch-hiking on neutral genealogies, *Ge-
912 netical Research* 72 (1998) 123–133.
- 913 [32] Y. Kim, W. Stephan, Detecting a local signature of genetic hitchhiking
914 along a recombining chromosome, *Genetics* 160 (2002) 765–777.
- 915 [33] Y. Kim, R. Nielsen, Linkage disequilibrium as a signature of selective
916 sweeps, *Genetics* 167 (2004) 1513–1524.
- 917 [34] J. D. Wall, M. A. Yang, F. Jay, S. K. Kim, E. Y. Durand, L. S. Stevison,
918 C. Gignoux, A. Woerner, M. F. Hammer, M. Slatkin, Higher levels of
919 neanderthal ancestry in east asians than in europeans, *Genetics* 194
920 (2013) 199–209.
- 921 [35] B. Vernot, J. M. Akey, Complex history of admixture between modern
922 humans and neandertals, *The American Journal of Human Genetics*
923 96 (2015) 448–453.
- 924 [36] B. Y. Kim, K. E. Lohmueller, Selection and reduced population size
925 cannot explain higher amounts of neandertal ancestry in east asian
926 than in european human populations, *The American Journal of Human*
927 *Genetics* (2015).
- 928 [37] P. Skoglund, M. Jakobsson, Archaic human ancestry in east asia, *Pro-
929 ceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 108 (2011) 18301–18306.

- [38] K. D. Pruitt, J. Harrow, R. A. Harte, C. Wallin, M. Diekhans, D. R. Maglott, S. Searle, C. M. Farrell, J. E. Loveland, B. J. Ruef, et al., The consensus coding sequence (ccds) project: Identifying a common protein-coding gene set for the human and mouse genomes, *Genome research* 19 (2009) 1316–1323.
- [39] Q. Ding, Y. Hu, S. Xu, J. Wang, L. Jin, Neanderthal introgression at chromosome 3p21. 31 was under positive natural selection in east asians, *Molecular biology and evolution* (2013) mst260.
- [40] A. Vanhoutteghem, P. Djian, Basonuclins 1 and 2, whose genes share a common origin, are proteins with widely different properties and functions, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 103 (2006) 12423–12428.
- [41] L. C. Jacobs, A. Wollstein, O. Lao, A. Hofman, C. C. Klaver, A. G. Uitterlinden, T. Nijsten, M. Kayser, F. Liu, Comprehensive candidate gene study highlights *ugt1a* and *bnc2* as new genes determining continuous skin color variation in europeans, *Human genetics* 132 (2013) 147–158.
- [42] A. Cabral, D. F. Fischer, W. P. Vermeij, C. Backendorf, Distinct functional interactions of human *skn-1* isoforms with *ese-1* during keratinocyte terminal differentiation, *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 278 (2003) 17792–17799.
- [43] H. Takemoto, K. Tamai, E. Akasaka, D. Rokunohe, N. Takiyoshi, N. Umegaki, K. Nakajima, T. Aizu, T. Kaneko, H. Nakano, et al., Relation between the expression levels of the *pou* transcription factors *skn-1a* and *skn-1n* and keratinocyte differentiation, *Journal of dermatological science* 60 (2010) 203–205.
- [44] M. Hašová, T. Crhák, B. Šafránková, J. Dvořáková, T. Muthný, V. Velebný, L. Kubala, Hyaluronan minimizes effects of uv irradiation on human keratinocytes, *Archives of dermatological research* 303 (2011) 277–284.
- [45] C. Spilker, M. R. Kreutz, Rapgaps in brain: multipurpose players in neuronal rap signalling, *European Journal of Neuroscience* 32 (2010) 1–9.

- 963 [46] G. H. Mochida, V. S. Ganesh, M. I. de Michelena, H. Dias, K. D.
964 Atabay, K. L. Kathrein, H.-T. Huang, R. S. Hill, J. M. Felie, D. Rakiec,
965 et al., Chmp1a encodes an essential regulator of bmi1-ink4a in cere-
966 bellar development, *Nature genetics* 44 (2012) 1260–1264.
- 967 [47] P. M. Wilson, R. H. Fryer, Y. Fang, M. E. Hatten, Astn2, a novel
968 member of the astrotactin gene family, regulates the trafficking of astn1
969 during glial-guided neuronal migration, *The Journal of Neuroscience*
970 30 (2010) 8529–8540.
- 971 [48] T. Vrijenhoek, J. E. Buizer-Voskamp, I. van der Stelt, E. Strengman,
972 G. Risk, C. Sabatti, A. G. van Kessel, H. G. Brunner, R. A. Ophoff,
973 J. A. Veltman, et al., Recurrent cnvs disrupt three candidate genes in
974 schizophrenia patients, *The American Journal of Human Genetics* 83
975 (2008) 504–510.
- 976 [49] K.-S. Wang, X.-F. Liu, N. Aragam, A genome-wide meta-analysis
977 identifies novel loci associated with schizophrenia and bipolar disorder,
978 *Schizophrenia research* 124 (2010) 192–199.
- 979 [50] S. Lin, H. Shen, J.-L. Li, S. Tang, Y. Gu, Z. Chen, C. Hu, J. C.
980 Rice, J. Lu, L. Wu, Proteomic and functional analyses reveal the role
981 of chromatin reader sfmbt1 in regulating epigenetic silencing and the
982 myogenic gene program, *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 288 (2013)
983 6238–6247.
- 984 [51] T. Kato, H. Sato, M. Emi, T. Seino, S. Arawaka, C. Iseki, Y. Takahashi,
985 M. Wada, T. Kawanami, Segmental copy number loss of sfmbt1 gene in
986 elderly individuals with ventriculomegaly: a community-based study,
987 *Internal Medicine* 50 (2011) 297–303.
- 988 [52] M. Krause, J. Moradi, S. Coleman, D. D’Souza, C. Liu, M. Kronen-
989 berg, D. Rowe, T. Hawke, M. Hadjiargyrou, A novel gfp reporter mouse
990 reveals mustn1 expression in adult regenerating skeletal muscle, acti-
991 vated satellite cells and differentiating myoblasts, *Acta Physiologica*
992 208 (2013) 180–190.
- 993 [53] L. Wu, J. Liu, P. Gao, M. Nakamura, Y. Cao, H. Shen, J. D. Griffin,
994 Transforming activity of mect1-maml2 fusion oncoprotein is mediated

- 995 by constitutive creb activation, *The EMBO journal* 24 (2005) 2391–
996 2402.
- 997 [54] S.-E. Lin, T. Oyama, T. Nagase, K. Harigaya, M. Kitagawa, Identifica-
998 tion of new human mastermind proteins defines a family that consists of
999 positive regulators for notch signaling, *Journal of Biological Chemistry*
1000 277 (2002) 50612–50620.
- 1001 [55] M. Winnes, L. Mölne, M. Suurküla, Y. Andrén, F. Persson, F. Enlund,
1002 G. Stenman, Frequent fusion of the *crtc1* and *maml2* genes in clear cell
1003 variants of cutaneous hidradenomas, *Genes, Chromosomes and Cancer*
1004 46 (2007) 559–563.
- 1005 [56] S. L. Von Holstein, A. Fehr, S. Heegaard, M. H. Therkildsen, G. Sten-
1006 man, *Crtc1-maml2* gene fusion in mucoepidermoid carcinoma of the
1007 lacrimal gland, *Oncology reports* 27 (2012) 1413–1416.
- 1008 [57] E. Hamano, M. Hijikata, S. Itoyama, T. Quy, N. C. Phi, H. T. Long,
1009 V. Van Ban, I. Matsushita, H. Yanai, F. Kirikae, et al., Polymorphisms
1010 of interferon-inducible genes *oas-1* and *mxr* associated with sars in the
1011 vietnamese population, *Biochemical and biophysical research commu-*
1012 *nications* 329 (2005) 1234–1239.
- 1013 [58] J. K. Lim, A. Lisco, D. H. McDermott, L. Huynh, J. M. Ward, B. John-
1014 son, H. Johnson, J. Pape, G. A. Foster, D. Krysztof, et al., Genetic
1015 variation in *oas1* is a risk factor for initial infection with west nile virus
1016 in man (2009).
- 1017 [59] S. Knapp, L. Yee, A. Frodsham, B. Hennig, S. Hellier, L. Zhang,
1018 M. Wright, M. Chiaramonte, M. Graves, H. Thomas, et al., Poly-
1019 morphisms in interferon-induced genes and the outcome of hepatitis c
1020 virus infection: roles of *mxr*, *oas-1* and *pkrr*, *Genes and immunity* 4
1021 (2003) 411–419.
- 1022 [60] M. Fedetz, F. Matesanz, A. Caro-Maldonado, O. Fernandez,
1023 J. Tamayo, M. Guerrero, C. Delgado, J. López-Guerrero, A. Alcina,
1024 *Oas1* gene haplotype confers susceptibility to multiple sclerosis, *Tissue*
1025 *antigens* 68 (2006) 446–449.

- 1026 [61] F. L. Mendez, J. C. Watkins, M. F. Hammer, Neandertal origin of ge-
1027 netic variation at the cluster of oas immunity genes, *Molecular biology*
1028 and evolution 30 (2013) 798–801.
- 1029 [62] M. Dannemann, A. M. Andrés, J. Kelso, Introgression of neandertal-
1030 and denisovan-like haplotypes contributes to adaptive variation in hu-
1031 man toll-like receptors, *The American Journal of Human Genetics* 98
1032 (2016) 22–33.
- 1033 [63] M. Deschamps, G. Laval, M. Fagny, Y. Itan, L. Abel, J.-L. Casanova,
1034 E. Patin, L. Quintana-Murci, Genomic signatures of selective pressures
1035 and introgression from archaic hominins at human innate immunity
1036 genes, *The American Journal of Human Genetics* 98 (2016) 5–21.
- 1037 [64] S. Akira, S. Uematsu, O. Takeuchi, Pathogen recognition and innate
1038 immunity, *Cell* 124 (2006) 783–801.
- 1039 [65] L. B. Barreiro, M. Ben-Ali, H. Quach, G. Laval, E. Patin, J. K. Pickrell,
1040 C. Bouchier, M. Tichit, O. Neyrolles, B. Gicquel, et al., Evolutionary
1041 dynamics of human toll-like receptors and their different contributions
1042 to host defense, *PLoS Genet* 5 (2009) e1000562.
- 1043 [66] V. Gburcik, W. P. Cawthorn, J. Nedergaard, J. A. Timmons, B. Can-
1044 non, An essential role for tbx15 in the differentiation of brown and
1045 brite but not white adipocytes, *American Journal of Physiology-*
1046 *Endocrinology and Metabolism* 303 (2012) E1053–E1060.
- 1047 [67] I. M. Heid, A. U. Jackson, J. C. Randall, T. W. Winkler, L. Qi,
1048 V. Steinthorsdottir, G. Thorleifsson, M. C. Zillikens, E. K. Speliotes,
1049 R. Mägi, et al., Meta-analysis identifies 13 new loci associated with
1050 waist-hip ratio and reveals sexual dimorphism in the genetic basis of
1051 fat distribution, *Nature genetics* 42 (2010) 949–960.
- 1052 [68] C.-T. Liu, M. L. Buchkovich, T. W. Winkler, I. M. Heid, I. Borecki,
1053 C. S. Fox, K. L. Mohlke, K. E. North, L. A. Cupples, A. A. A. G.
1054 Consortium, et al., Multi-ethnic fine-mapping of 14 central adiposity
1055 loci, *Human molecular genetics* (2014) ddu183.
- 1056 [69] C.-T. Liu, K. L. Monda, K. C. Taylor, L. Lange, E. W. Demerath,
1057 W. Palmas, M. K. Wojczynski, J. C. Ellis, M. Z. Vitolins, S. Liu, et al.,

- 1058 Genome-wide association of body fat distribution in african ancestry
1059 populations suggests new loci, PLoS Genet 9 (2013) e1003681.
- 1060 [70] D. Shungin, T. W. Winkler, D. C. Croteau-Chonka, T. Ferreira, A. E.
1061 Locke, R. Mägi, R. J. Strawbridge, T. H. Pers, K. Fischer, A. E. Justice,
1062 et al., New genetic loci link adipose and insulin biology to body fat
1063 distribution, Nature 518 (2015) 187–196.
- 1064 [71] S. Candille, C. D. Van Raamsdonk, C. Chen, S. Kuijper, Y. Chen-
1065 Tsai, A. Russ, F. Meijlink, G. S. Barsh, Dorsoventral patterning of the
1066 mouse coat by *tbx15*, PLoS biology 2 (2004) E3–E3.
- 1067 [72] L. F. Pallares, P. Carbonetto, S. Gopalakrishnan, C. C. Parker, C. L.
1068 Ackert-Bicknell, A. A. Palmer, D. Tautz, Mapping of craniofacial traits
1069 in outbred mice identifies major developmental genes involved in shape
1070 determination, PLoS Genet 11 (2015) e1005607.
- 1071 [73] E. Lausch, P. Hermanns, H. F. Farin, Y. Alanay, S. Unger, S. Nikkel,
1072 C. Steinwender, G. Scherer, J. Spranger, B. Zabel, et al., *Tbx15* muta-
1073 tions cause craniofacial dysmorphism, hypoplasia of scapula and pelvis,
1074 and short stature in cousin syndrome, The American Journal of Human
1075 Genetics 83 (2008) 649–655.
- 1076 [74] G. Curry, Genetical and developmental studies on droopy-eared mice,
1077 Journal of embryology and experimental morphology 7 (1959) 39–65.
- 1078 [75] M. K. Singh, M. Petry, B. Haenig, B. Lescher, M. Leitges, A. Kispert,
1079 The t-box transcription factor *tbx15* is required for skeletal develop-
1080 ment, Mechanisms of development 122 (2005) 131–144.
- 1081 [76] M. Fumagalli, I. Moltke, N. Grarup, F. Racimo, P. Bjerregaard, M. E.
1082 Jørgensen, T. S. Korneliussen, P. Gerbault, L. Skotte, A. Linneberg,
1083 et al., Greenlandic inuit show genetic signatures of diet and climate
1084 adaptation, Science 349 (2015) 1343–1347.
- 1085 [77] F. Racimo, D. Gokhman, M. Fumagalli, T. Hansen, I. Moltke, A. Al-
1086 brechtsen, L. Carmel, E. Huerta-Sanchez, R. Nielsen, Archaic adaptive
1087 introgression in *tbx15*/*wars2*, bioRxiv (2015) 033928.

- 1088 [78] T. Woodage, M. A. Basrai, A. D. Baxevanis, P. Hieter, F. S. Collins,
1089 Characterization of the chd family of proteins, Proceedings of The
1090 National Academy of Sciences 94 (1997) 11472–11477.
- 1091 [79] A. Rauch, D. Wieczorek, E. Graf, T. Wieland, S. Ende, T. Schwarz-
1092 mayr, B. Albrecht, D. Bartholdi, J. Beygo, N. Di Donato, et al., Range
1093 of genetic mutations associated with severe non-syndromic sporadic in-
1094 tellectual disability: an exome sequencing study, The Lancet 380 (2012)
1095 1674–1682.
- 1096 [80] G. L. Carvill, S. B. Heavin, S. C. Yendle, J. M. McMahon, B. J. O’Roak,
1097 J. Cook, A. Khan, M. O. Dorschner, M. Weaver, S. Calvert, et al.,
1098 Targeted resequencing in epileptic encephalopathies identifies de novo
1099 mutations in chd2 and syngap1, Nature genetics 45 (2013) 825–830.
- 1100 [81] R. E. Giles, N. Shimizu, F. H. Ruddle, Assignment of a human genetic
1101 locus to chromosome 5 which corrects the heat sensitive lesion asso-
1102 ciated with reduced leucyl-trna synthetase activity in ts025cl chinese
1103 hamster cells, Somatic cell genetics 6 (1980) 667–687.
- 1104 [82] J. P. Casey, P. McGettigan, N. Lynam-Lennon, M. McDermott, R. Re-
1105 gan, J. Conroy, B. Bourke, J. O’Sullivan, E. Crushell, S. Lynch, et al.,
1106 Identification of a mutation in lars as a novel cause of infantile hep-
1107 atopathy, Molecular genetics and metabolism 106 (2012) 351–358.
- 1108 [83] X.-Y. Dong, X. Sun, P. Guo, Q. Li, M. Sasahara, Y. Ishii, J.-T. Dong,
1109 Atbfl inhibits estrogen receptor (er) function by selectively competing
1110 with aib1 for binding to the er in er-positive breast cancer cells, Journal
1111 of Biological Chemistry 285 (2010) 32801–32809.
- 1112 [84] X. Sun, H. F. Frierson, C. Chen, C. Li, Q. Ran, K. B. Otto, B. M.
1113 Cantarel, R. L. Vessella, A. C. Gao, J. Petros, et al., Frequent somatic
1114 mutations of the transcription factor atbfl in human prostate cancer,
1115 Nature genetics 37 (2005) 407–412.
- 1116 [85] S. T. . D. Consortium, et al., Sequence variants in slc16a11 are a
1117 common risk factor for type 2 diabetes in mexico, Nature 506 (2014)
1118 97–101.

- 1119 [86] H.-Q. Qu, L. Marchand, R. Grabs, C. Polychronakos, The association
1120 between the ifih1 locus and type 1 diabetes, *Diabetologia* 51 (2008)
1121 473–475.
- 1122 [87] S. Liu, H. Wang, Y. Jin, R. Podolsky, M. P. L. Reddy, J. Pedersen,
1123 B. Bode, J. Reed, D. Steed, S. Anderson, et al., Ifih1 polymorphisms are
1124 significantly associated with type 1 diabetes and ifih1 gene expression
1125 in peripheral blood mononuclear cells, *Human molecular genetics* 18
1126 (2009) 358–365.
- 1127 [88] M. Fumagalli, R. Cagliani, S. Riva, U. Pozzoli, M. Biasin, L. Piacentini,
1128 G. P. Comi, N. Bresolin, M. Clerici, M. Sironi, Population genetics of
1129 ifih1: ancient population structure, local selection, and implications for
1130 susceptibility to type 1 diabetes, *Molecular biology and evolution* 27
1131 (2010) 2555–2566.
- 1132 [89] T. G. Warner, L. M. Dambach, J. H. Shin, J. S. O’Brien, Separation
1133 and characterization of the acid lipase and neutral esterases from
1134 human liver., *American journal of human genetics* 32 (1980) 869.
- 1135 [90] H. Klima, K. Ullrich, C. Aslanidis, P. Fehring, K. Lackner,
1136 G. Schmitz, A splice junction mutation causes deletion of a 72-
1137 base exon from the mRNA for lysosomal acid lipase in a patient with
1138 cholesteryl ester storage disease., *Journal of Clinical Investigation* 92
1139 (1993) 2713.
- 1140 [91] C. Aslanidis, S. Ries, P. Fehring, C. Büchler, H. Klima, G. Schmitz,
1141 Genetic and biochemical evidence that cesd and wolman disease are
1142 distinguished by residual lysosomal acid lipase activity, *Genomics* 33
1143 (1996) 85–93.
- 1144 [92] E. G. Lund, T. A. Kerr, J. Sakai, W.-P. Li, D. W. Russell, cDNA
1145 cloning of mouse and human cholesterol 25-hydroxylases, polytopic
1146 membrane proteins that synthesize a potent oxysterol regulator of lipid
1147 metabolism, *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 273 (1998) 34316–34327.
- 1148 [93] N. Shibata, T. Kawarai, J. H. Lee, H.-S. Lee, E. Shibata, C. Sato,
1149 Y. Liang, R. Duara, R. P. Mayeux, P. H. St George-Hyslop, et al.,
1150 Association studies of cholesterol metabolism genes (ch25h, abca1 and
1151 ch24h) in alzheimer’s disease, *Neuroscience letters* 391 (2006) 142–146.

- 1152 [94] S.-Y. Liu, R. Aliyari, K. Chikere, G. Li, M. D. Marsden, J. K. Smith,
1153 O. Pernet, H. Guo, R. Nusbaum, J. A. Zack, et al., Interferon-inducible
1154 cholesterol-25-hydroxylase broadly inhibits viral entry by production of
1155 25-hydroxycholesterol, *Immunity* 38 (2013) 92–105.
- 1156 [95] T. Kamalati, H. E. Jolin, P. J. Mitchell, K. T. Barker, L. E. Jack-
1157 son, C. J. Dean, M. J. Page, B. A. Gusterson, M. R. Crompton, Brk,
1158 a breast tumor-derived non-receptor protein-tyrosine kinase, sensitizes
1159 mammary epithelial cells to epidermal growth factor, *Journal of Bio-
1160 logical Chemistry* 271 (1996) 30956–30963.
- 1161 [96] S. Surapureddi, S. Yu, H. Bu, T. Hashimoto, A. V. Yeldandi,
1162 P. Kashireddy, M. Cherkaoui-Malki, C. Qi, Y.-J. Zhu, M. S. Rao, et al.,
1163 Identification of a transcriptionally active peroxisome proliferator-
1164 activated receptor α -interacting cofactor complex in rat liver and char-
1165 acterization of pric285 as a coactivator, *Proceedings of the National
1166 Academy of Sciences* 99 (2002) 11836–11841.
- 1167 [97] T. Tomaru, T. Satoh, S. Yoshino, T. Ishizuka, K. Hashimoto, T. Mon-
1168 den, M. Yamada, M. Mori, Isolation and characterization of a tran-
1169 scriptional cofactor and its novel isoform that bind the deoxyribonucleic
1170 acid-binding domain of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ ,
1171 *Endocrinology* 147 (2006) 377–388.
- 1172 [98] B. Persson, Y. Kallberg, J. E. Bray, E. Bruford, S. L. Dellaporta, A. D.
1173 Favia, R. G. Duarte, H. Jörnvall, K. L. Kavanagh, N. Kedishvili, et al.,
1174 The sdr (short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase and related enzymes)
1175 nomenclature initiative, *Chemico-biological interactions* 178 (2009) 94–
1176 98.
- 1177 [99] D. S. Wood, M. Zeviani, A. Prella, E. Bonilla, G. Salviati, A. F. Mi-
1178 randa, S. DiMauro, L. P. Rowland, Is nebulin the defective gene prod-
1179 uct in duchenne muscular dystrophy?, *N Engl J Med* 1987 (1987)
1180 107–108.
- 1181 [100] V. Yotova, J.-F. Lefebvre, C. Moreau, E. Gbeha, K. Hovhannesyan,
1182 S. Bourgeois, S. Bédarida, L. Azevedo, A. Amorim, T. Sarkisian, et al.,
1183 An x-linked haplotype of neandertal origin is present among all non-
1184 african populations, *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 28 (2011) 1957–
1185 1962.

- 1186 [101] B. F. Voight, S. Kudaravalli, X. Wen, J. K. Pritchard, A map of recent
1187 positive selection in the human genome, *PLoS Biol* 4 (2006) e72.
- 1188 [102] J. K. Pickrell, G. Coop, J. Novembre, S. Kudaravalli, J. Z. Li, D. Ab-
1189 sher, B. S. Srinivasan, G. S. Barsh, R. M. Myers, M. W. Feldman,
1190 et al., Signals of recent positive selection in a worldwide sample of
1191 human populations, *Genome research* 19 (2009) 826–837.
- 1192 [103] E. E. Khrameeva, K. Bozek, L. He, Z. Yan, X. Jiang, Y. Wei, K. Tang,
1193 M. S. Gelfand, K. Prufer, J. Kelso, et al., Neanderthal ancestry drives
1194 evolution of lipid catabolism in contemporary europeans, *Nature com-
1195 munications* 5 (2014).
- 1196 [104] K. Harris, R. Nielsen, The genetic cost of neanderthal introgression,
1197 *bioRxiv* (2015) 030387.
- 1198 [105] I. Juric, S. Aeschbacher, G. Coop, The strength of selection against
1199 neanderthal introgression, *bioRxiv* (2015) 030148.
- 1200 [106] P. W. Hedrick, Adaptive introgression in animals: examples and com-
1201 parison to new mutation and standing variation as sources of adaptive
1202 variation, *Molecular ecology* 22 (2013) 4606–4618.
- 1203 [107] J. F. Crow, M. Kimura, et al., An introduction to population genetics
1204 theory., *An introduction to population genetics theory.* (1970).
- 1205 [108] R. Lewontin, The interaction of selection and linkage. i. general con-
1206 siderations; heterotic models, *Genetics* 49 (1964) 49.
- 1207 [109] W. Hill, A. Robertson, Linkage disequilibrium in finite populations,
1208 *Theoretical and Applied Genetics* 38 (1968) 226–231.

1209 7. Tables

Table 1: Summary statistics mentioned in the main text.

Statistic	Explanation	Reference
D	D-statistic: measures excess allele sharing between a test population and an outgroup using a sister population that is more closely related to the test than the outgroup	[1][22]
f_D	Similar to the D-statistic, but serves to better control for local variation in diversity patterns if one is interested in finding loci with excess ancestry from an admixing population.	[25]
R_D	Average ratio of the divergence between an individual from the source population and an individual from the admixed population, and the divergence between an individual from the source population and an individual from the non-admixed population. This is computed by taking the average over all pairs of admixed and non-admixed individuals.	This study
$U_{A,B,C}(w, x, y)$	Number of sites in which any allele is at a frequency lower than w in panel B , higher than x in panel B and equal to y in panel C .	This study
$U_{A,B,C,D}(w, x, y, z)$	Number of sites in which any allele is at a frequency lower than w in panel A , higher than x in panel B , equal to y in panel C and equal to z in panel D .	This study
$Q95_{A,B,C}(w, y)$	95% quantile of the distribution of derived allele frequencies in panel B , for sites where the derived allele is at a frequency lower than w in panel A and equal to y in panel C .	This study
$Q95_{A,B,C,D}(w, y, z)$	95% quantile of the distribution of derived allele frequencies in panel B , for sites where the derived allele is at a frequency lower than w in panel A , equal to y in panel C and equal to z in panel D .	This study
Het	Expected heterozygosity, measured as the average of $2p(1-p)$ over all sites in a window, where p is the frequency of an arbitrarily chosen allele.	[107]
$D'[intro]$	A measure of linkage disequilibrium. Computed as D/D_{max} where $D = p_{XY} - p_X p_Y$, p_{XY} is the frequency of haplotype XY , p_X is the frequency of allele X , p_Y is the frequency of allele Y , and D_{max} is the maximum theoretical value that D can take. $D'[intro]$ is computed only using frequencies from the introgressed panel.	[108]
$D'[comb]$	D' computed using haplotype and allele frequencies from the combination of the introgressed and non-introgressed panels.	[108]
$r^2[intro]$	A measure of linkage disequilibrium. Computed as $D^2/(p_X(1-p_X)p_Y(1-p_Y))$. $r^2[intro]$ is computed only using frequencies from the introgressed panel.	[109]
$r^2[comb]$	r^2 computed using haplotype and allele frequencies from the combination of the introgressed and non-introgressed panels.	[109]

1210 8. Figures

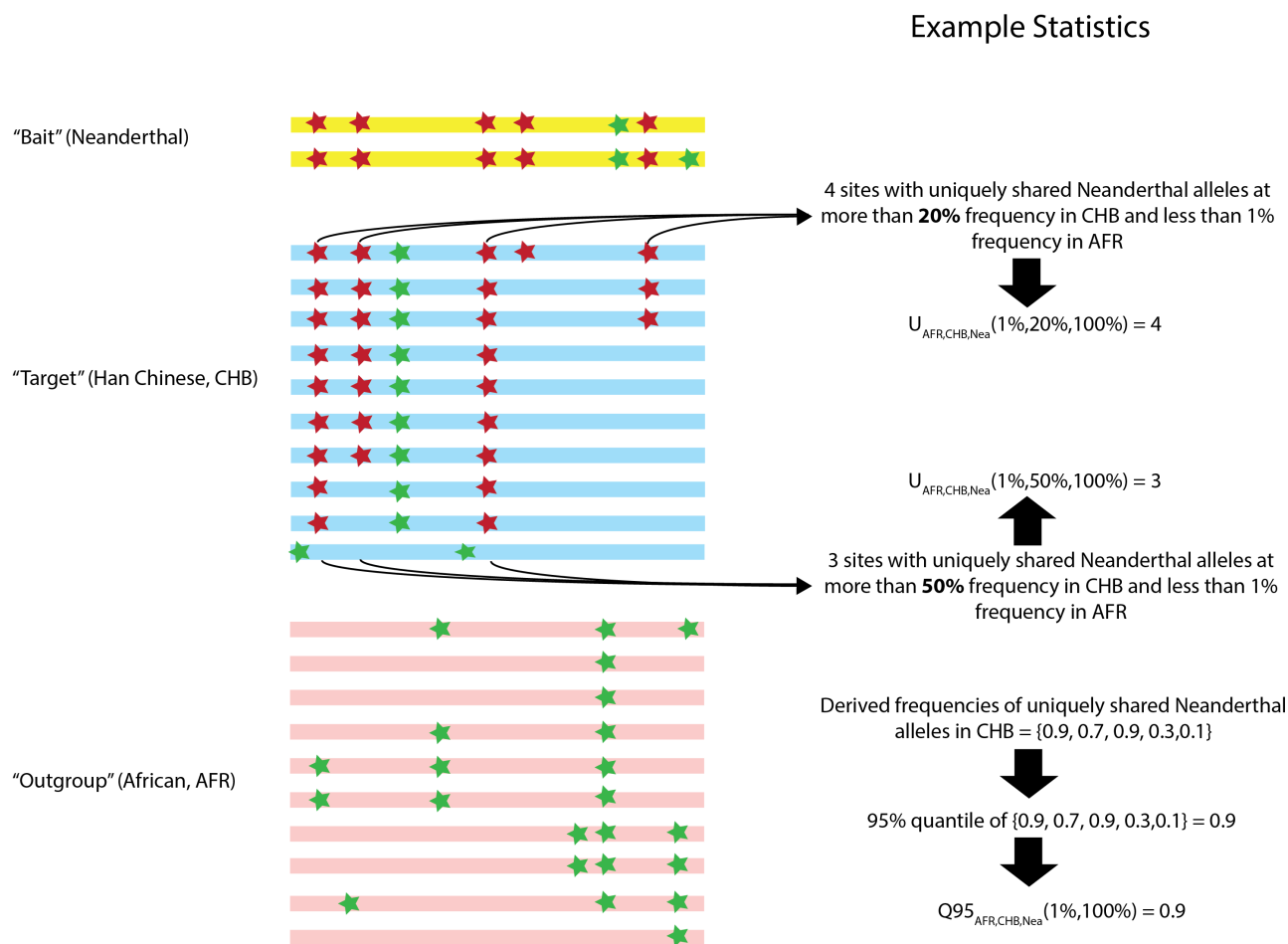


Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the way the $U_{A,B,C}$ and $Q95_{A,B,C}$ statistics are calculated.

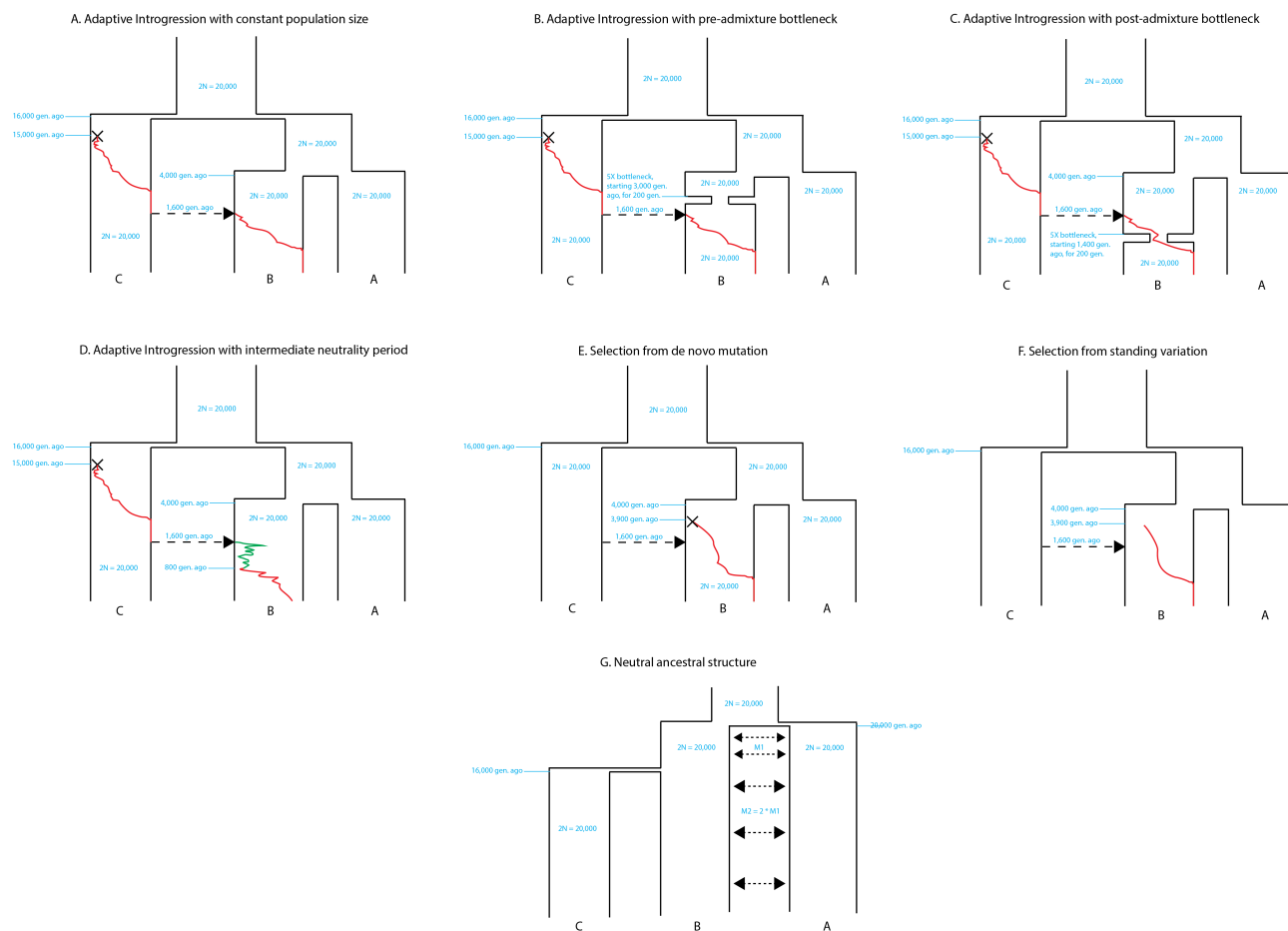


Figure 2: Demographic models described in the main text.

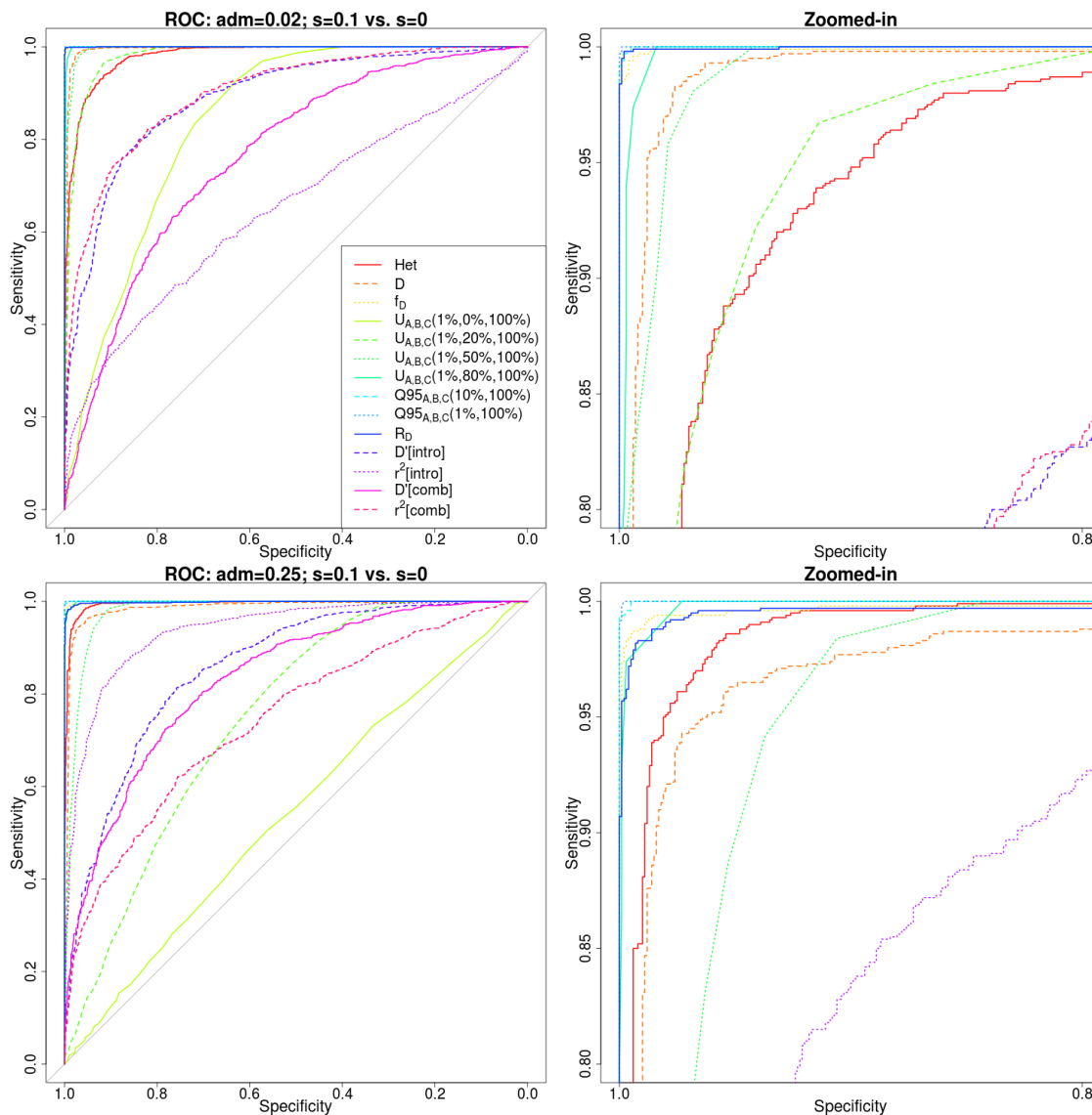


Figure 3: Receiver operating characteristic curves for a scenario of adaptive introgression ($s=0.1$) compared to a scenario of neutrality ($s=0$), using 1,000 simulations for each case. Populations A and B split from each other 4,000 generations ago, and their ancestral population split from population C 16,000 generations ago. Population sizes were constant and set at $2N = 20,000$. The admixture event occurred 1,600 generations ago from population C to population B, at rate 2% (top panels) or 25% (bottom panels). The right panels are zoomed-in versions of the left panels.

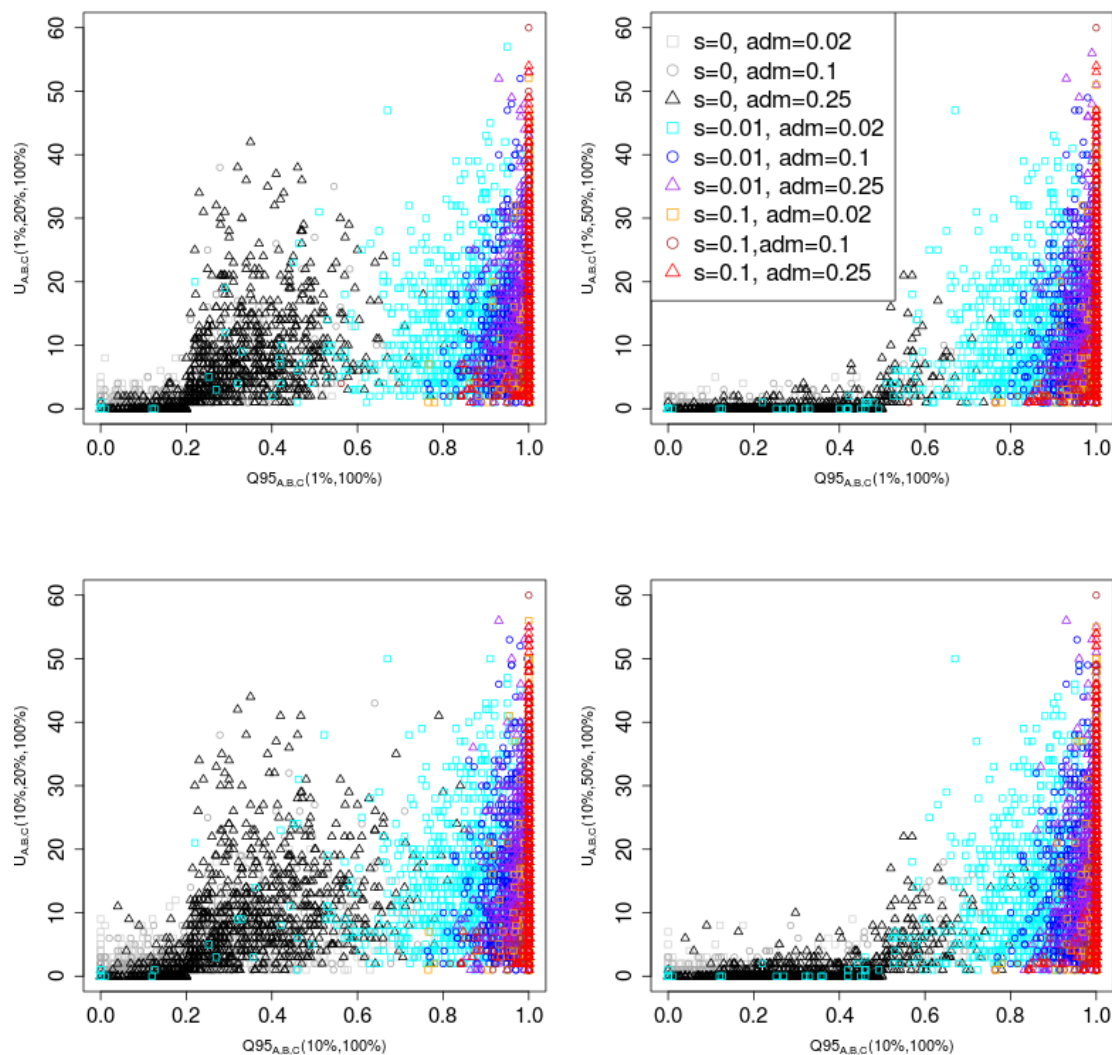


Figure 4: Joint distribution of $Q95_{A,B,C}(w, y)$ and $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, y)$ for different choices of w (1%, 10%) and x (20%, 50%). We set y to 100% in all cases. 100 individuals were sampled from panel A, 100 from panel B and 2 from panel C. The demographic parameters were the same as in Figure 3.

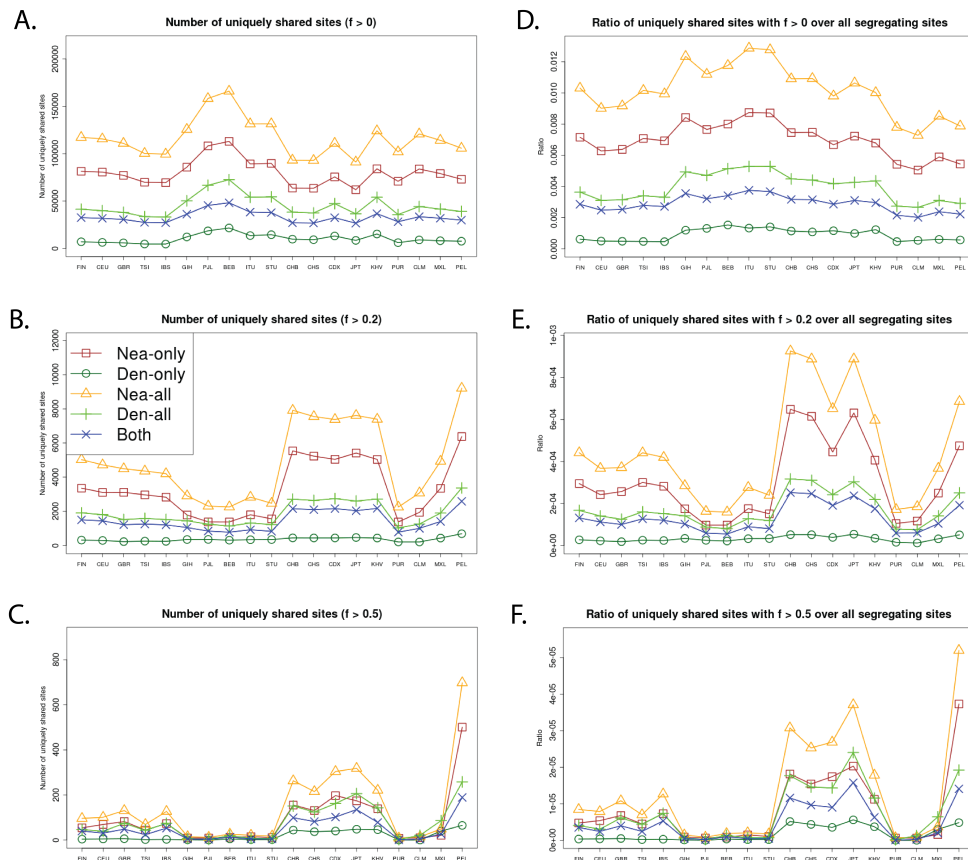


Figure 5: We computed the number of uniquely shared sites in the autosomes and the X chromosome between particular archaic humans and different choices of present-day non-African panels X (x-axis) from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project. We used a shared frequency cutoff of 0% (A), 20% (B) and 50% (C). Nea-only = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 0\%)$. Den-only = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 0\%, 100\%)$. Nea-all = $U_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$. Den-all = $U_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$. Both = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 100\%)$. Finally, we scaled each of the statistics from panels A-C by the number of segregating sites in each 1000 Genomes population panel, yielding panels D-F.

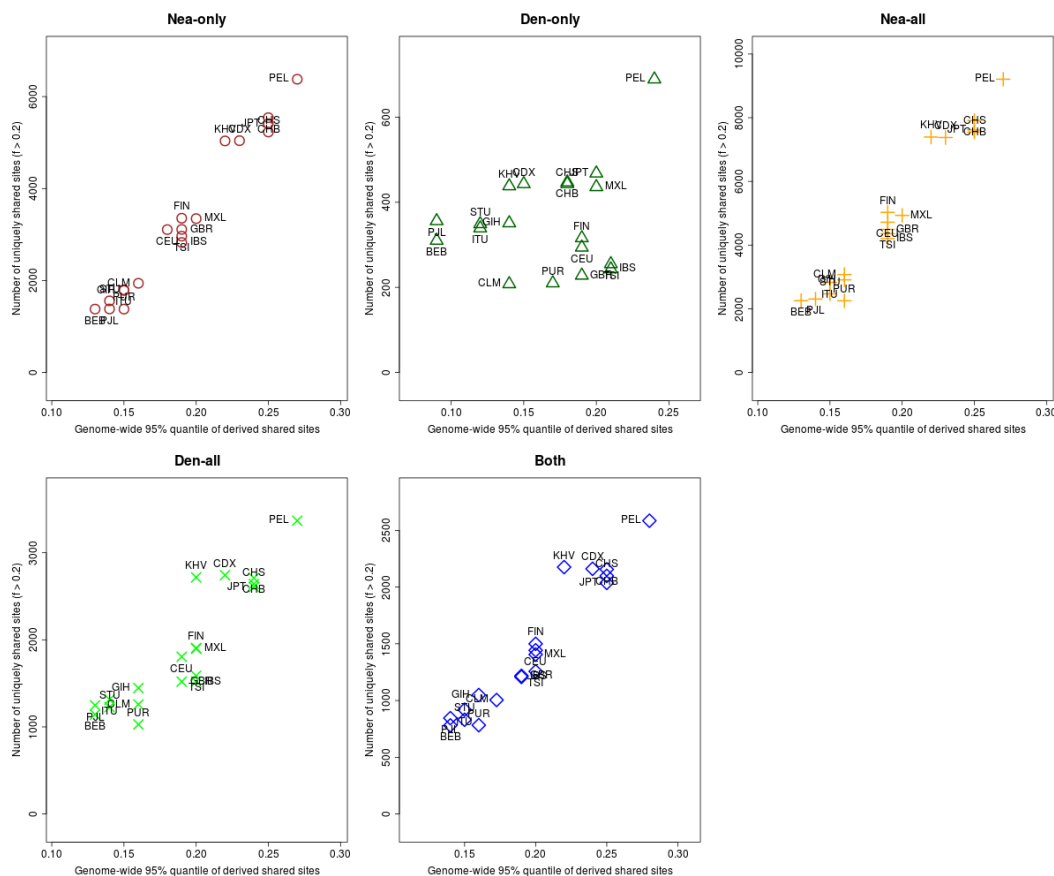


Figure 6: For each population panel from the 1000 Genomes Project, we jointly plotted the U and $Q95$ statistics with an archaic frequency cutoff of $> 20\%$ within each population. $\text{Nea-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 0\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 0\%)$. $\text{Den-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 0\%, 100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 0\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Nea-all} = U_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Den-all} = U_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Both} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 100\%)$.

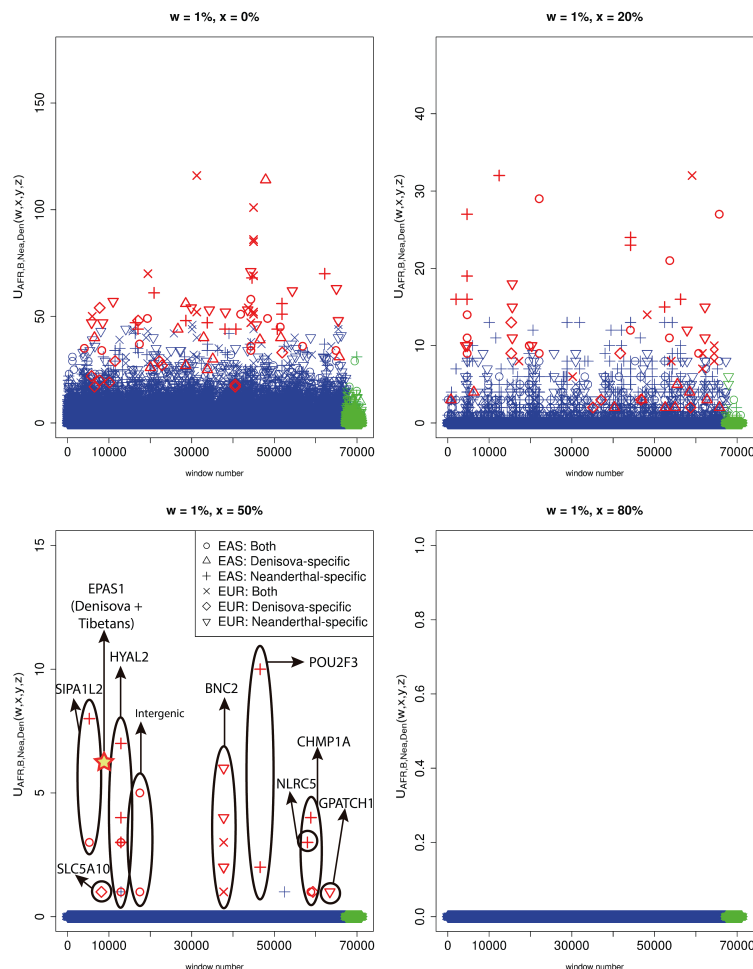


Figure 7: We partitioned the genome into non-overlapping windows of 40kb. Within each window, we computed $U_{EUR,Out,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$ and $U_{EAS,Out,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, where Out=EAS+AFR for EUR as the target introgressed population, and Out=EUR+AFR for EAS as the target introgressed population. We searched for Neanderthal-specific alleles ($y = 100\%$, $z = 0\%$), Denisovan-specific alleles ($y = 0\%$, $z = 100\%$) and alleles present in both archaic genomes ($y = 100\%$, $z = 100\%$) that were uniquely shared with either EUR or EAS at various frequencies ($z=0\%$, $z=20\%$, $z=50\%$ and $z=80\%$). Windows that fall within the upper tail of the distribution for each modern-archaic population pair are colored in red ($P < 0.001$ / number of pairs tested) and those that do not are colored in blue, except for those in the X chromosome, which are in green. Ovals drawn around multiple points contain multiple windows with uniquely shared alleles that are contiguous. For comparison, the number of high frequency uniquely shared sites between Denisova and Tibetans is also shown [17], although Tibetans are not included in the 1000 Genomes data and the region is 32 kb long, so this may be an underestimate.

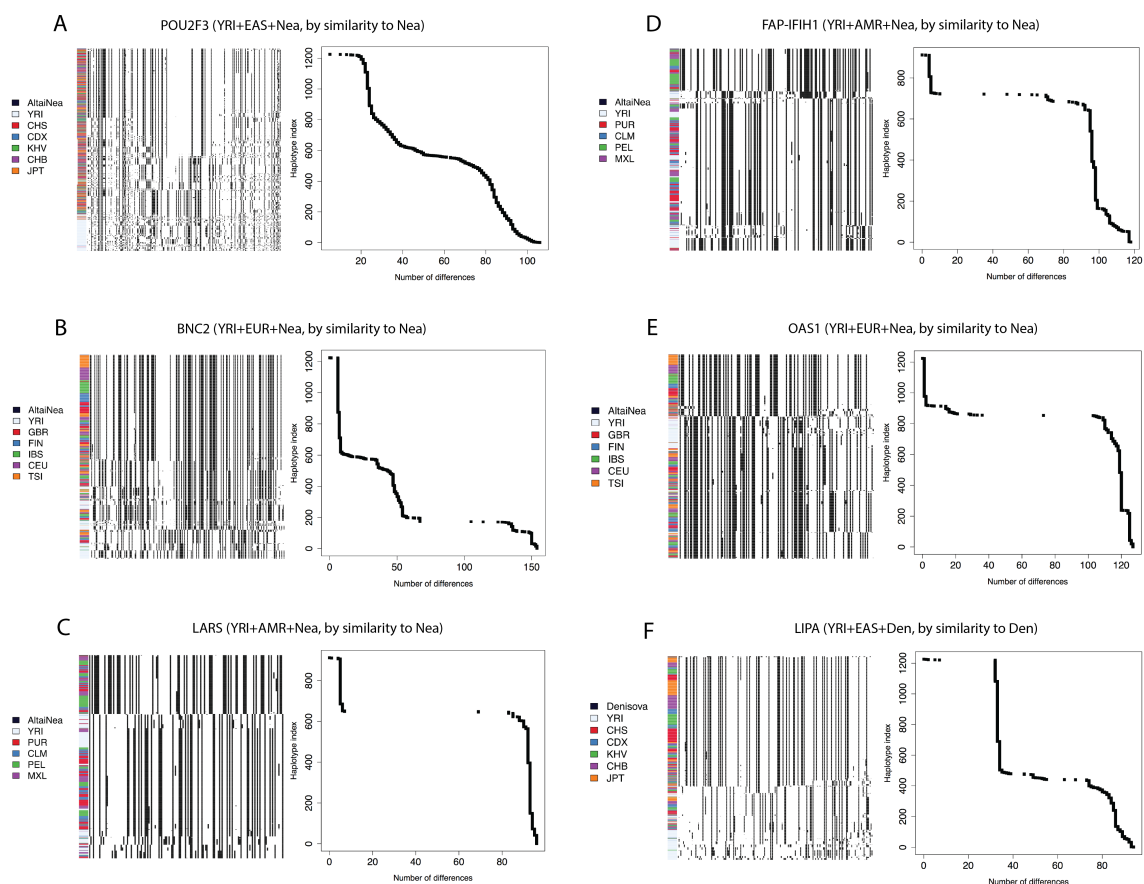


Figure 9: We explored the haplotype structure of six candidate regions with strong evidence for AI. For each region, we applied a clustering algorithm to the haplotypes of particular human populations and then ordered the clusters by decreasing similarity to the archaic human genome with the larger number of uniquely shared sites (see Methods Section). We also plotted the number of differences to the archaic genome for each human haplotype and sorted them simply by decreasing similarity. In the latter case, no clustering was performed, so the rows in the cumulative difference plots do not necessarily correspond to the rows in the adjacent haplotype structure plots. *POU2F3*: chr11:120120001-120200000. *BNC2*: chr9:16720001-16760000. *LARS*: chr5:145480001-145520000. *FAP/IFIH1*: chr2:163040001-163120000. *OAS1*: chr12:113360001-113400000. *LIPA*: chr10:90920001-90980000.

1211 9. Supplementary Tables

Table S1: 95% quantiles of the $U_{A,B,C}$ statistic in a 40 kb window, under different demographic scenarios and archaic allele frequency cutoffs in the outgroup (A) and target (B) population panels. The demographic scenarios correspond to scenarios A, B, C and G from Figure 2. The bottlenecks were 5X and lasted 200 generations.

Max. outgroup freq.	Min. target freq.	Scenario	95% quantile under neutrality
0.01	0.8	Admixture (2%)	0
0.01	0.8	Admixture (10%)	0
0.01	0.8	Admixture (25%)	0
0.01	0.8	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0
0.01	0.8	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	1
0.01	0.8	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	18
0.01	0.8	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	0
0.01	0.8	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	0
0.01	0.8	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	0.05
0.01	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	0
0.01	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	0
0.01	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	0
0.01	0.5	Admixture (2%)	2
0.01	0.5	Admixture (10%)	2
0.01	0.5	Admixture (25%)	5
0.01	0.5	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0
0.01	0.5	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	5
0.01	0.5	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	22
0.01	0.5	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	2
0.01	0.5	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	2
0.01	0.5	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	8
0.01	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	2
0.01	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	2
0.01	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	6
0.01	0.2	Admixture (2%)	6
0.01	0.2	Admixture (10%)	13
0.01	0.2	Admixture (25%)	29.05
0.01	0.2	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0
0.01	0.2	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	9.05
0.01	0.2	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	25
0.01	0.2	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	6
0.01	0.2	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	17
0.01	0.2	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	30
0.01	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	8
0.01	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	13.05
0.01	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	29
0.01	0	Admixture (2%)	24
0.01	0	Admixture (10%)	37
0.01	0	Admixture (25%)	39
0.01	0	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	3
0.01	0	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	12.05
0.01	0	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	27
0.01	0	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	21
0.01	0	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	34
0.01	0	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	38
0.01	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	28
0.01	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	34.05

0.01	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	37.05
0.1	0.8	Admixture (2%)	0
0.1	0.8	Admixture (10%)	2
0.1	0.8	Admixture (25%)	2
0.1	0.8	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0
0.1	0.8	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	11
0.1	0.8	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	23.05
0.1	0.8	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	0
0.1	0.8	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	2
0.1	0.8	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	2
0.1	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	1
0.1	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	2
0.1	0.8	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	2
0.1	0.5	Admixture (2%)	5
0.1	0.5	Admixture (10%)	6
0.1	0.5	Admixture (25%)	12
0.1	0.5	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0
0.1	0.5	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	17
0.1	0.5	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	29
0.1	0.5	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	6
0.1	0.5	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	7
0.1	0.5	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	12
0.1	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	6
0.1	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	6.05
0.1	0.5	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	12
0.1	0.2	Admixture (2%)	12
0.1	0.2	Admixture (10%)	18.05
0.1	0.2	Admixture (25%)	35
0.1	0.2	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	4
0.1	0.2	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	21
0.1	0.2	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	32.05
0.1	0.2	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	14
0.1	0.2	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	22
0.1	0.2	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	37
0.1	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	14
0.1	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	20
0.1	0.2	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	37
0.1	0	Admixture (2%)	29
0.1	0	Admixture (10%)	44
0.1	0	Admixture (25%)	45
0.1	0	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	11
0.1	0	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	25
0.1	0	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	34
0.1	0	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	28
0.1	0	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	40
0.1	0	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	44
0.1	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	35
0.1	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	41
0.1	0	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	45

Table S2: 95% quantiles of the $Q95_{A,B,C}$ statistic in a 40 kb window, under different demographic scenarios and archaic allele frequency cutoffs in the outgroup (A) population panel. The demographic scenarios correspond to scenarios A, B, C and G from Figure 2.

Max. outgroup freq.	Scenario	95% quantile under neutrality
0.01	Admixture (2%)	0.28
0.01	Admixture (10%)	0.37
0.01	Admixture (25%)	0.54
0.01	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0.04
0.01	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	0.67
0.01	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	1
0.01	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	0.31
0.01	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	0.44
0.01	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	0.6
0.01	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	0.28
0.01	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	0.42
0.01	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	0.55
0.1	Admixture (2%)	0.47
0.1	Admixture (10%)	0.51
0.1	Admixture (25%)	0.63
0.1	Ancestral Structure (strong mig.)	0.25
0.1	Ancestral Structure (medium mig.)	0.91
0.1	Ancestral Structure (weak mig.)	1
0.1	Admixture (2%), then bottleneck	0.53
0.1	Admixture (10%), then bottleneck	0.58
0.1	Admixture (25%), then bottleneck	0.67
0.1	Bottleneck, then admixture (2%)	0.47
0.1	Bottleneck, then admixture (10%)	0.53
0.1	Bottleneck, then admixture (25%)	0.66

Table S3: 40 kb windows that lie in the highest 99.9% quantile of both $U_{A,B,Nea,Den}$ and $Q95_{A,B,Nea,Den}$ for various outgroup panels A and target panels B, using an outgroup maximum frequency cutoff of 1%, and using different target allele frequency cutoffs (20%, 50%). For each region, we also show other statistics indicative of AI for reference. We partitioned the 1000 Genomes panels into outgroup panel A and target panel B in different ways (column “Mode”), depending on the signals we were looking for. These modes of partitioning are as follows. “Populations” = outgroup panel was the combination of all the populations that were not the target panel. “PopulationsB” = outgroup panel was the combination of all African panels (excluding admixed African-Americans), while target panel was one of the non-African panels. “Continents” = target panel was either the EUR continental panel (in which case the outgroup was AFR+EAS) or the EAS continental panel (in which case the outgroup was AFR+EUR). “ContinentsB” = target panel was the EUR continental panel (in which case the outgroup was AFR+EAS+SAS) or the EAS continental panel (in which case the outgroup was AFR+EUR+SAS) or the SAS continental panel (in which case the outgroup was AFR+EUR+EAS). “Eurasia” = target panel was EUR+EAS, while outgroup panel was AFR.

https://www.dropbox.com/s/p9k94i2c50rincq/Extreme_gene_table.xlsx?dl=0

1212 10. Supplementary Figures

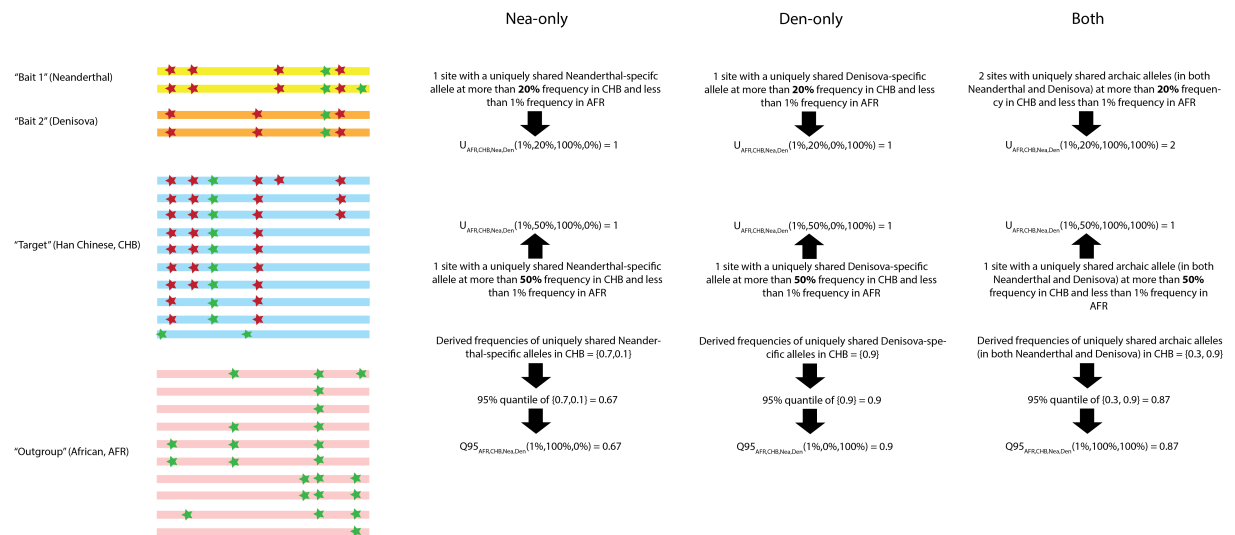


Figure S1: Schematic illustration of the way the $U_{A,B,C,D}$ and $Q95_{A,B,C,D}$ statistics are calculated.

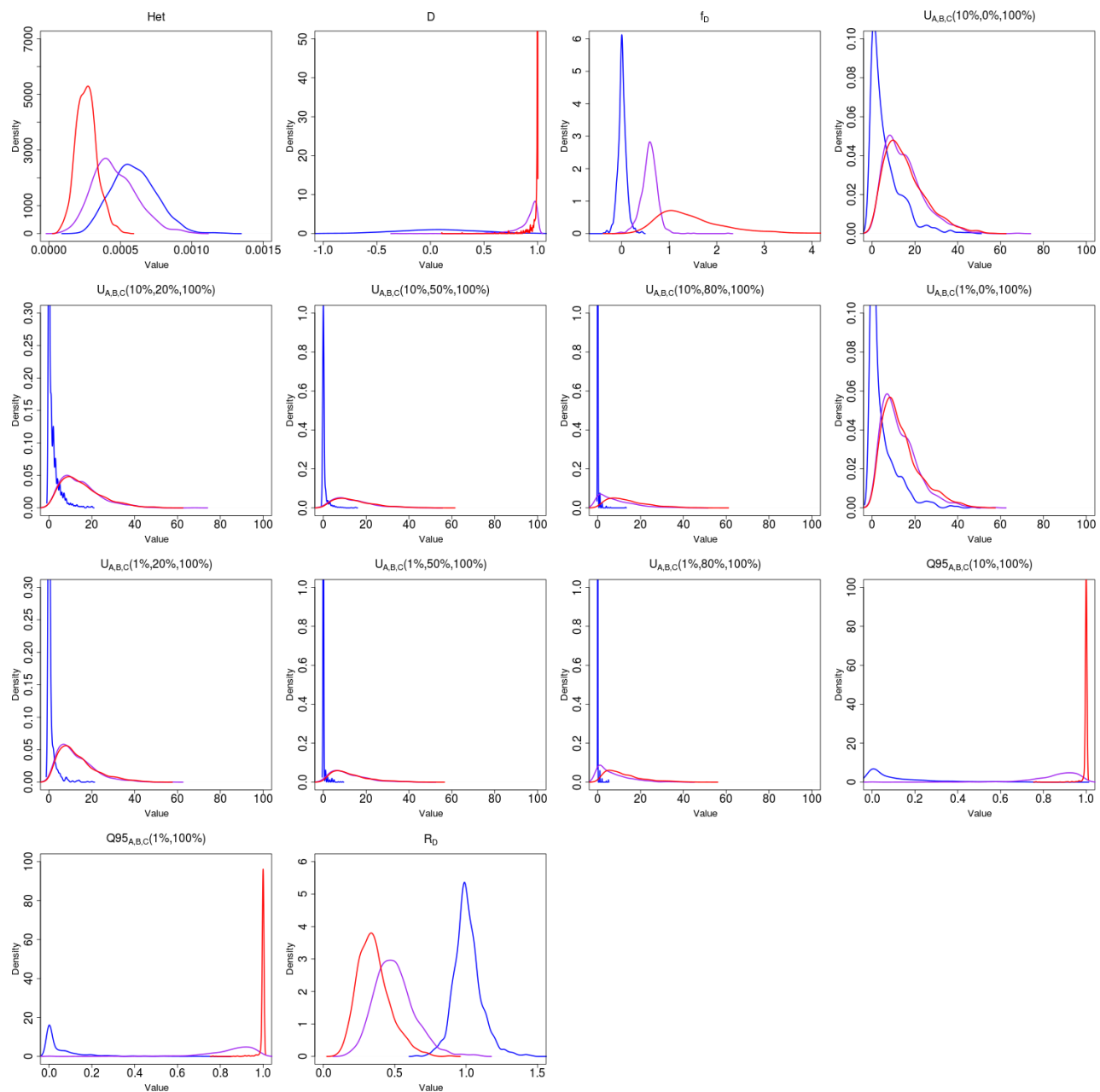


Figure S2: Density of various statistics meant to detect genetic patterns left by adaptive introgression, for three scenarios: neutrality ($s=0$) in blue, weak adaptive introgression ($s=0.01$) in purple and strong adaptive introgression ($s=0.1$) in red. The demography was the same as in Figure 3 and the admixture rate was set at 2%. See Table 1 for a definition of the statistics shown.

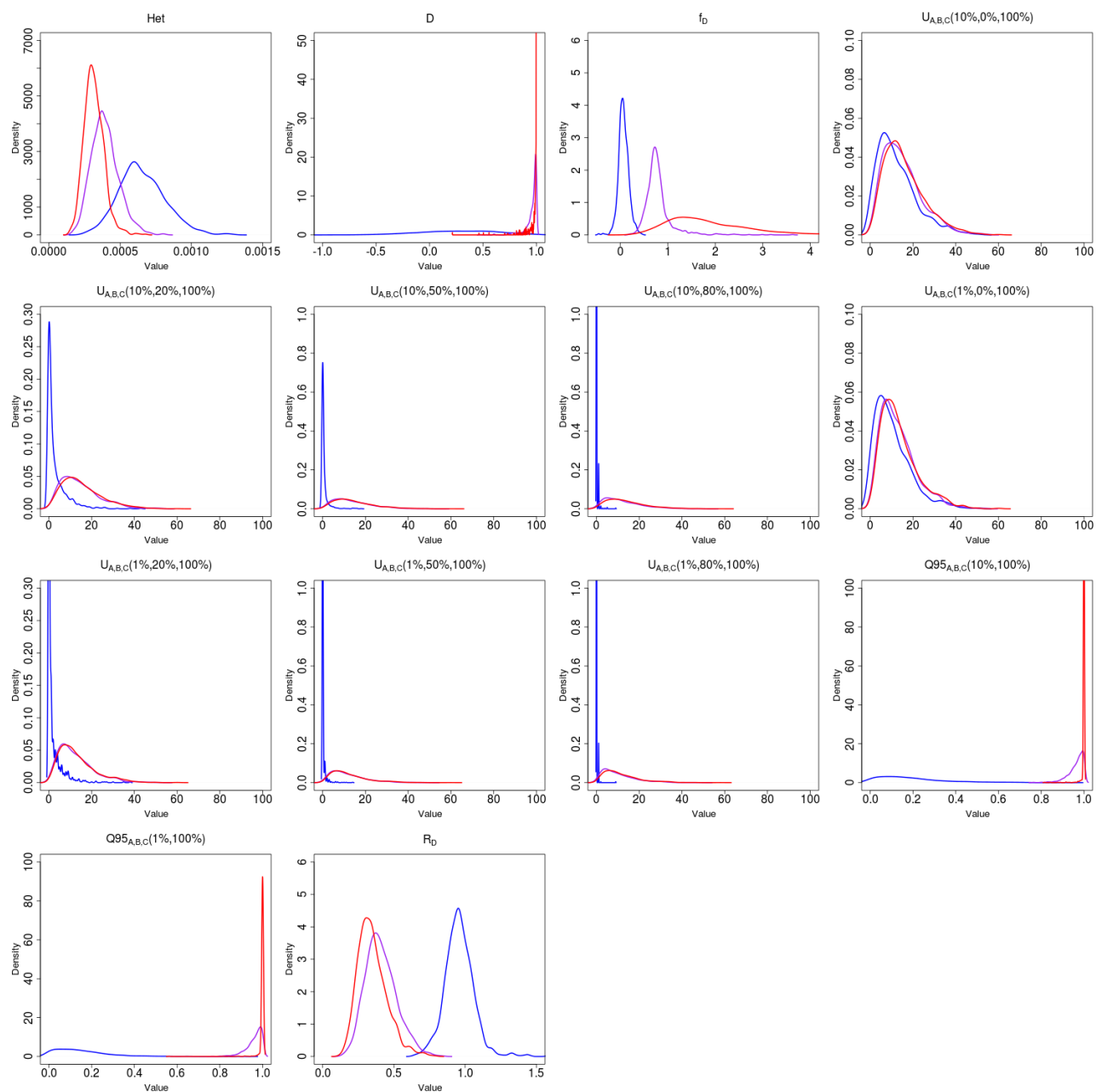


Figure S3: Density of various statistics meant to detect genetic patterns left by adaptive introgression, for three scenarios: neutrality ($s=0$) in blue, weak adaptive introgression ($s=0.01$) in purple and strong adaptive introgression ($s=0.1$) in red. The demography was the same as in Figure 3 and the admixture rate was set at 10%. See Table 1 for a definition of the statistics shown.

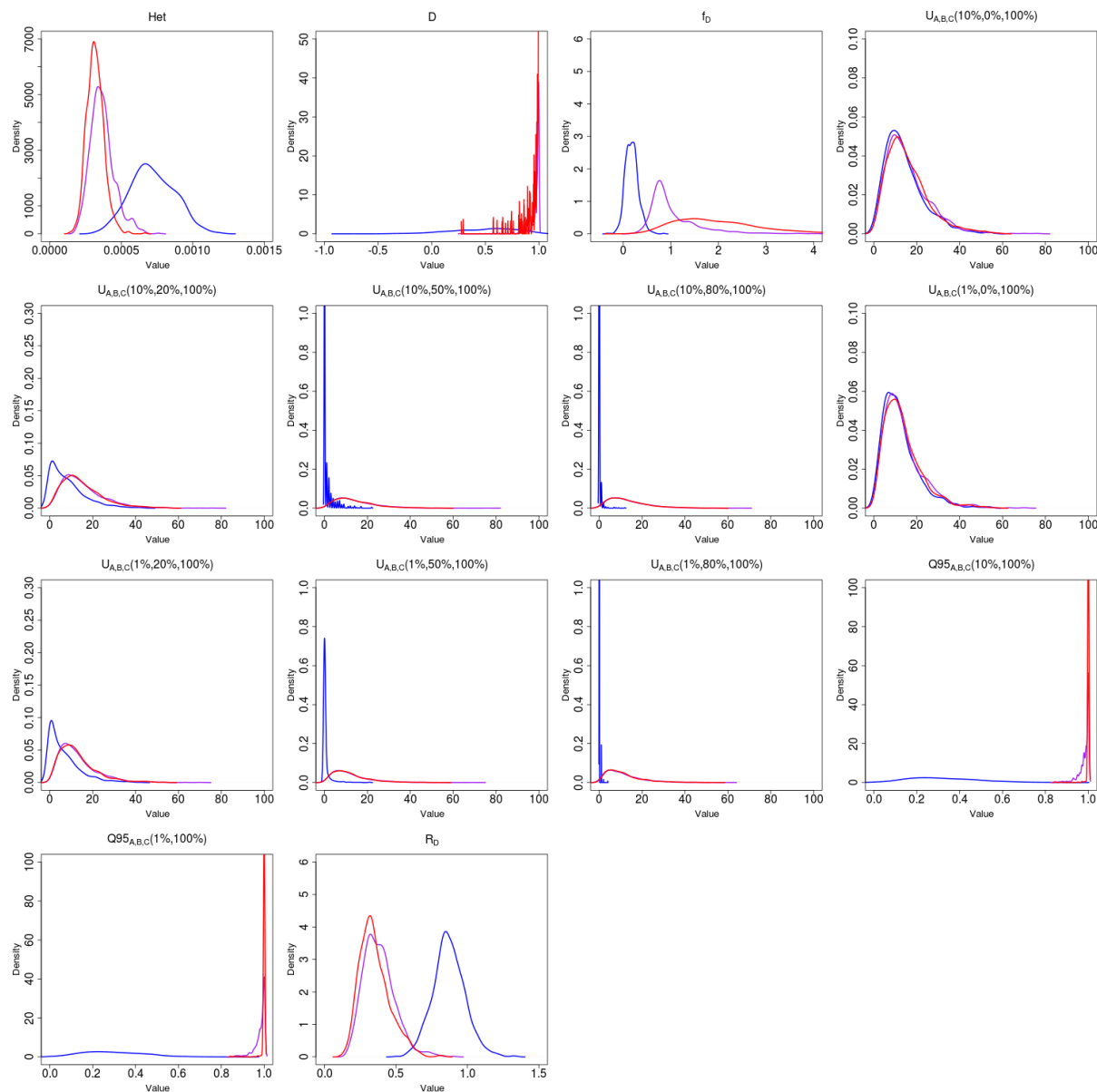


Figure S4: Density of various statistics meant to detect genetic patterns left by adaptive introgression, for three scenarios: neutrality ($s=0$) in blue, weak adaptive introgression ($s=0.01$) in purple and strong adaptive introgression ($s=0.1$) in red. The demography was the same as in Figure 3 and the admixture rate was set at 25%. See Table 1 for a definition of the statistics shown.

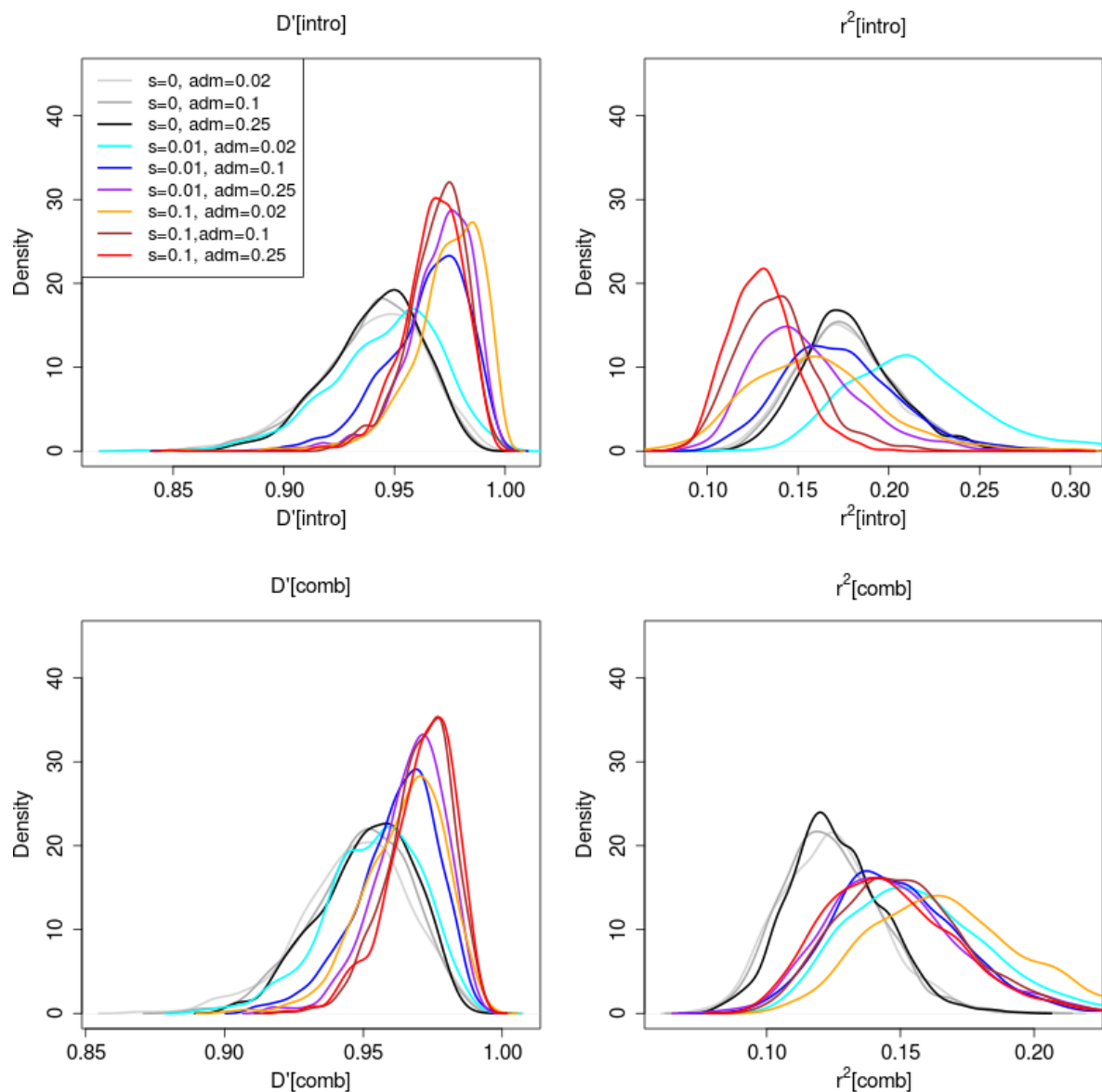


Figure S5: Density of statistics that detect patterns of linkage disequilibrium for various neutral and adaptive introgression scenarios. See Table 1 for a definition of the statistics shown.

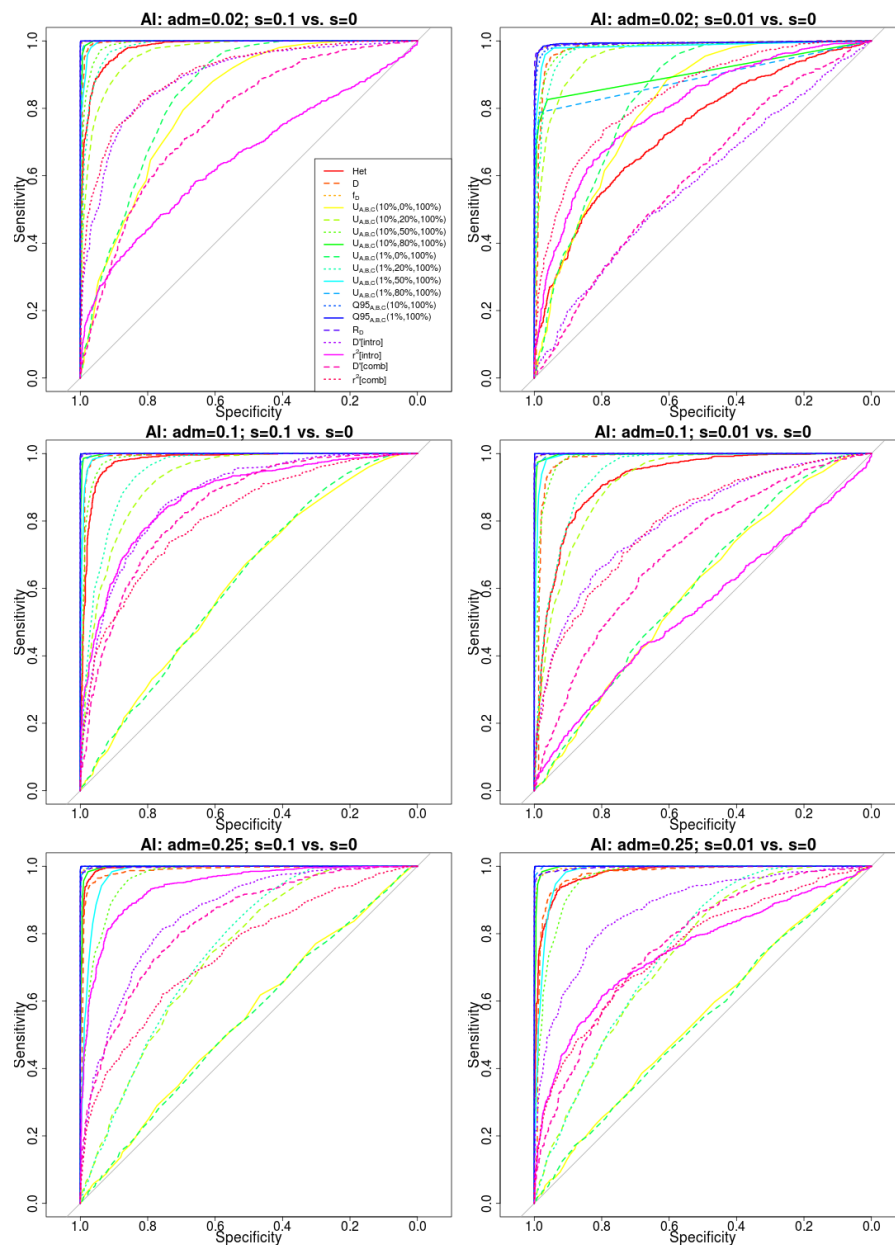


Figure S6: Receiver operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression with constant population size, using 1,000 simulations of adaptive introgression, under various selection ($s=0.1$, $s=0.01$) and admixture rate (2%, 10%, 25%) regimes. Populations A and B split from each other 4,000 generations ago, and their ancestral population split from population C 16,000 generations ago. Population sizes were set at $2N = 20,000$. The admixture event occurred 1,600 generations ago from population C into population B,

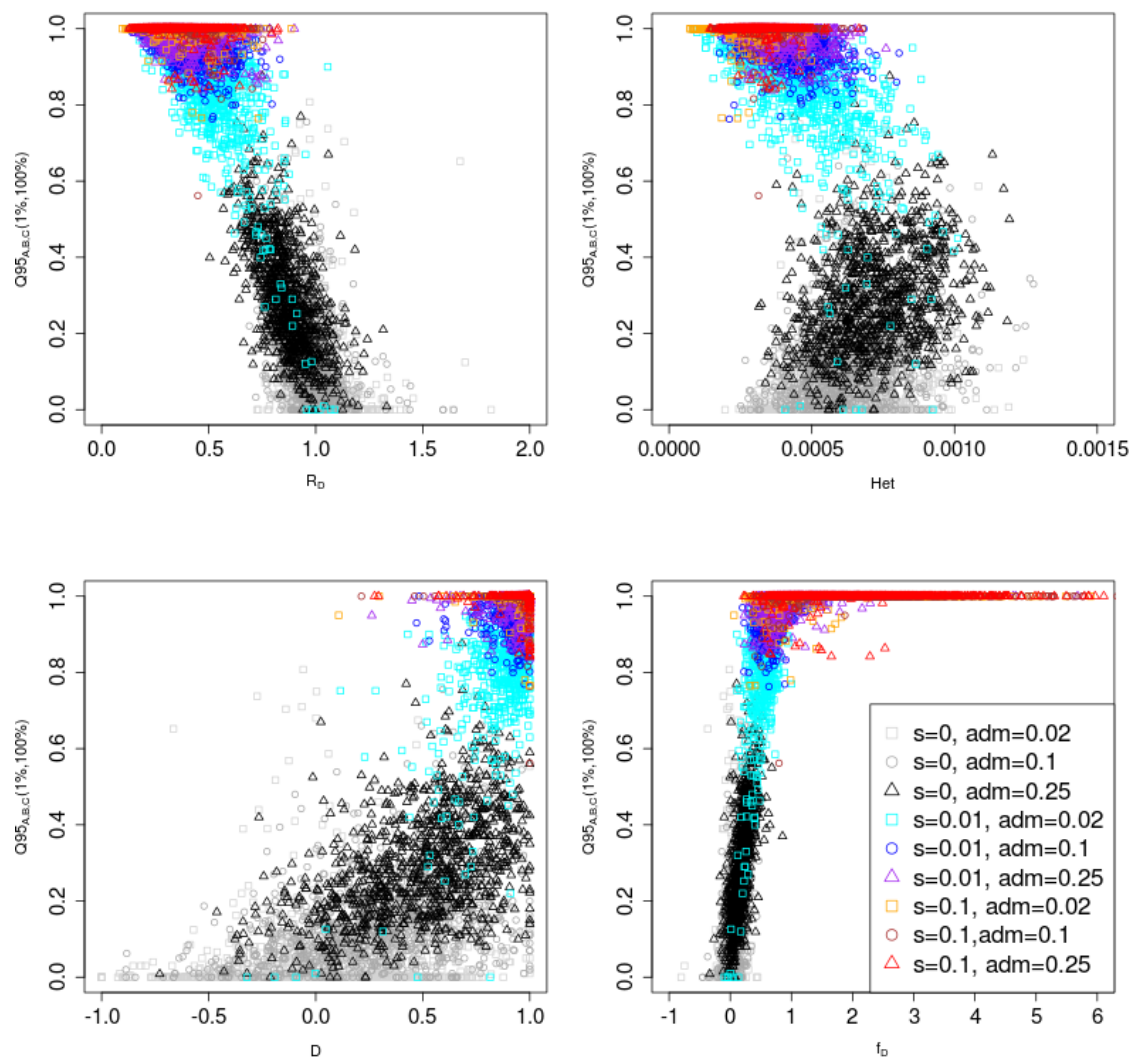


Figure S7: Joint distribution of $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%,100\%)$ and other statistics (R_D , Het , D and f_D). 100 individuals were sampled from panel A, 100 from panel B and 2 from panel C. The demographic parameters were the same as in Figure 3.

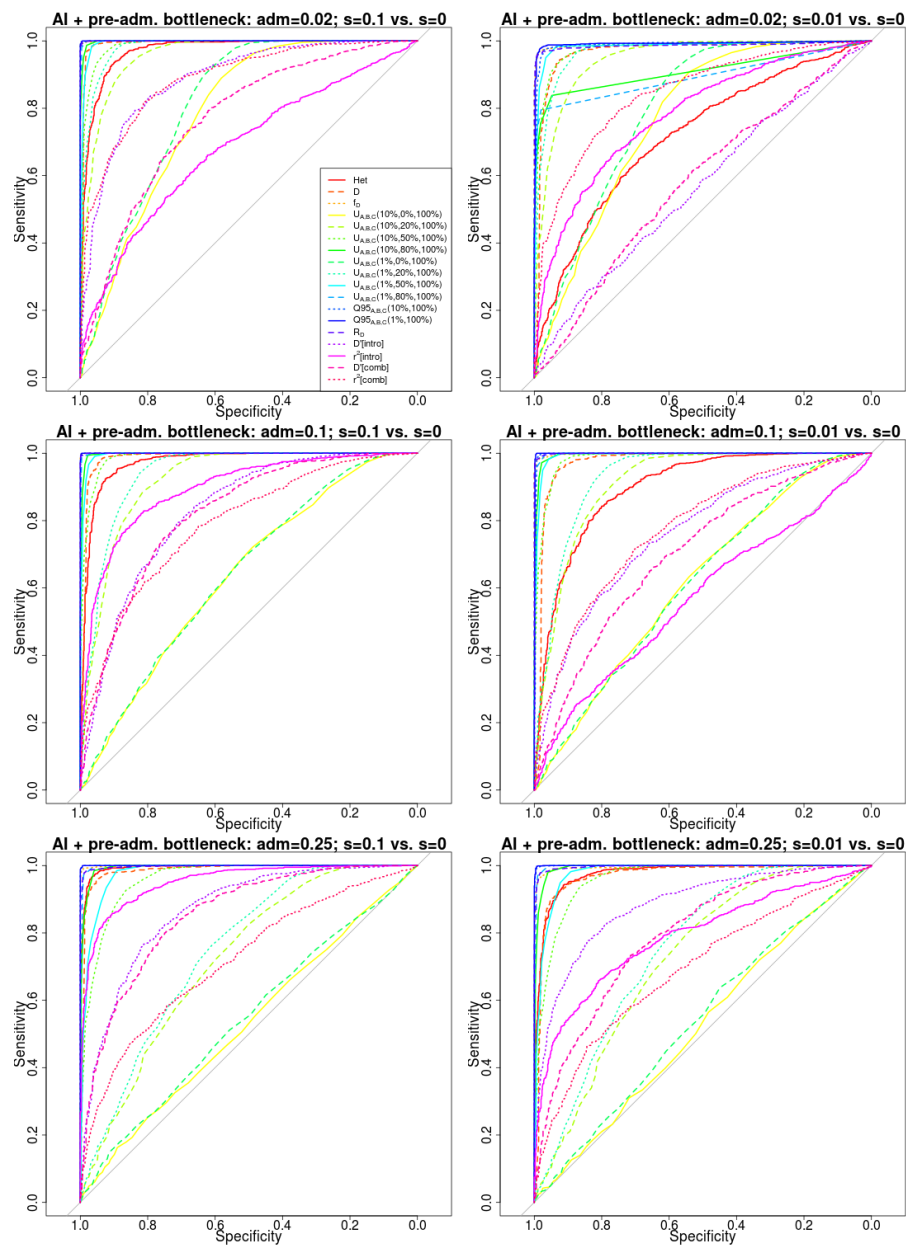


Figure S8: Receiver operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression with a pre-admixture bottleneck, using 1,000 simulations under adaptive introgression. We simulated the same demography as in Figure 3, but also included a 5X bottleneck in population *B* after the introgression event, starting 3,000 generations ago and finishing 2,800 generations ago.

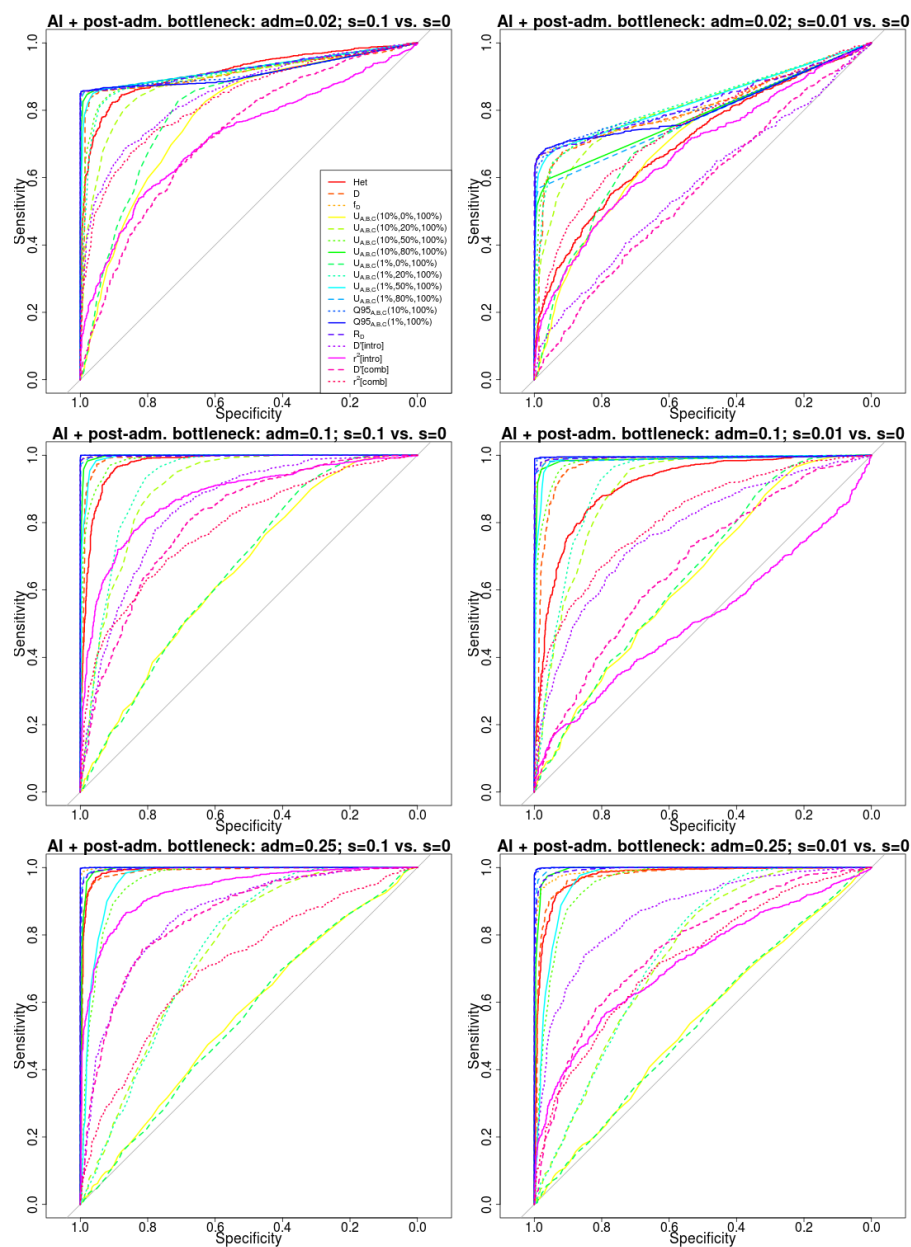


Figure S9: Receiver operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression with a post-admixture bottleneck, using 1,000 simulations under adaptive introgression. We simulated the same demography as in Figure 3, but also included a 5X bottleneck in population B after the introgression event, starting 1,400 generations ago and finishing 1,200 generations ago.

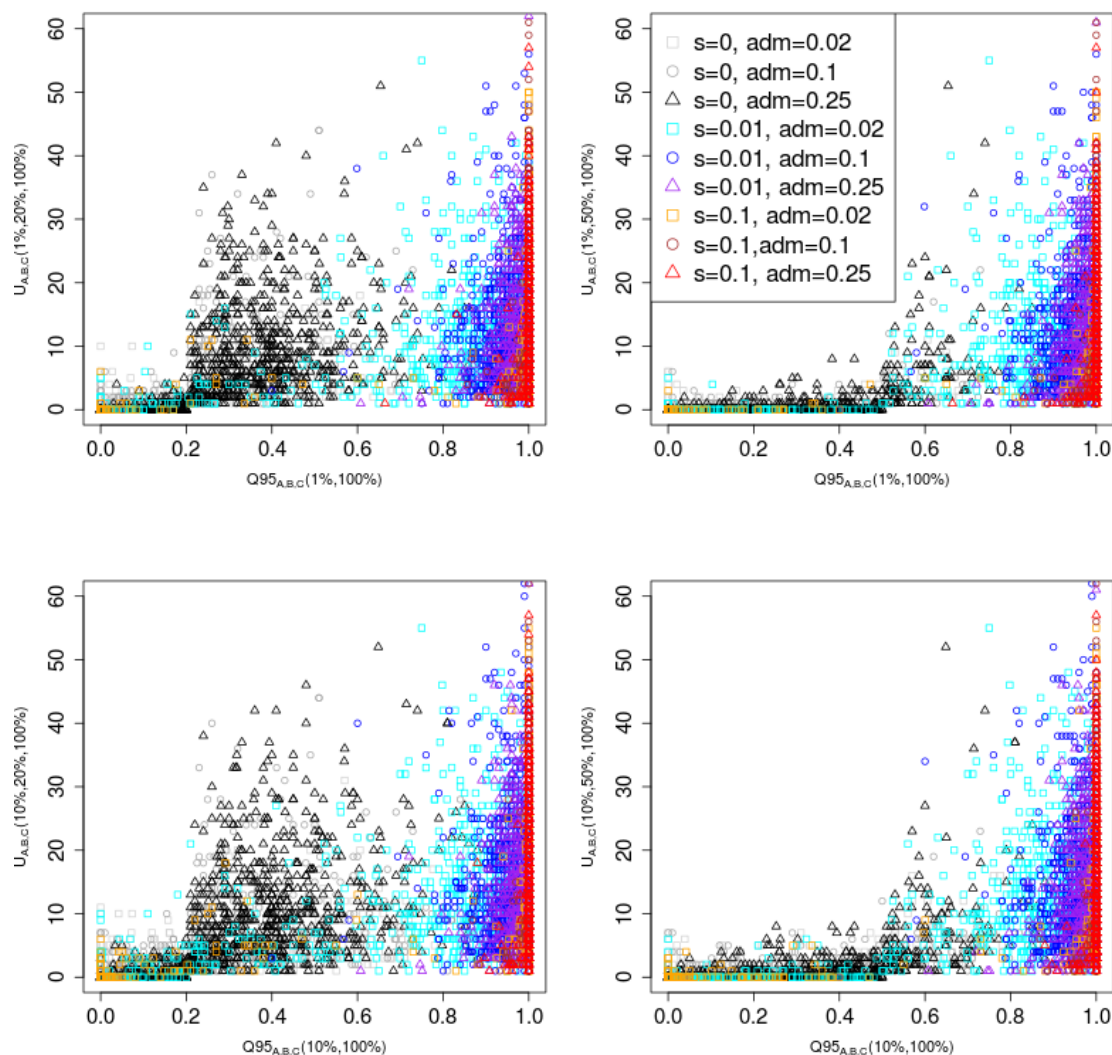


Figure S10: Joint distribution of $Q95_{A,B,C}(w, y)$ and $U_{A,B,C}(w, x, y)$ for different choices of w (1%, 10%) and x (20%, 50%). We set y to 100% in all cases. 100 individuals were sampled from panel A, 100 from panel B and 2 from panel C. In this case, we included a 5X bottleneck in population B after the introgression event, starting 1,400 generations ago and finishing 1,200 generations ago.

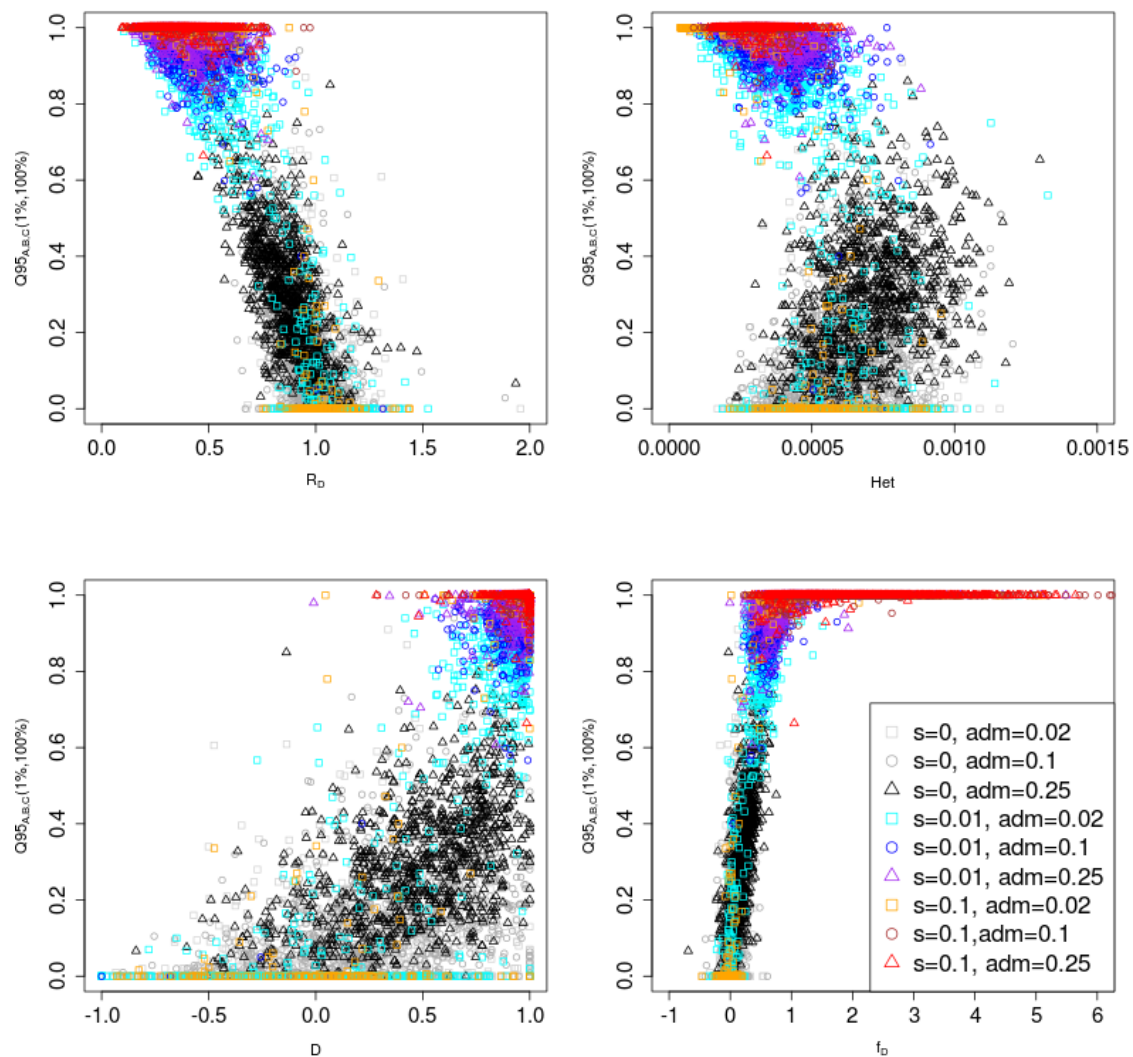


Figure S11: Joint distribution of $Q95_{A,B,C}(1\%,100\%)$ and other statistics (R_D , Het , D and f_D). 100 individuals were sampled from panel A, 100 from panel B and 2 from panel C. In this case, we included a 5X bottleneck in population B after the introgression event, starting 1,400 generations ago and finishing 1,200 generations ago.

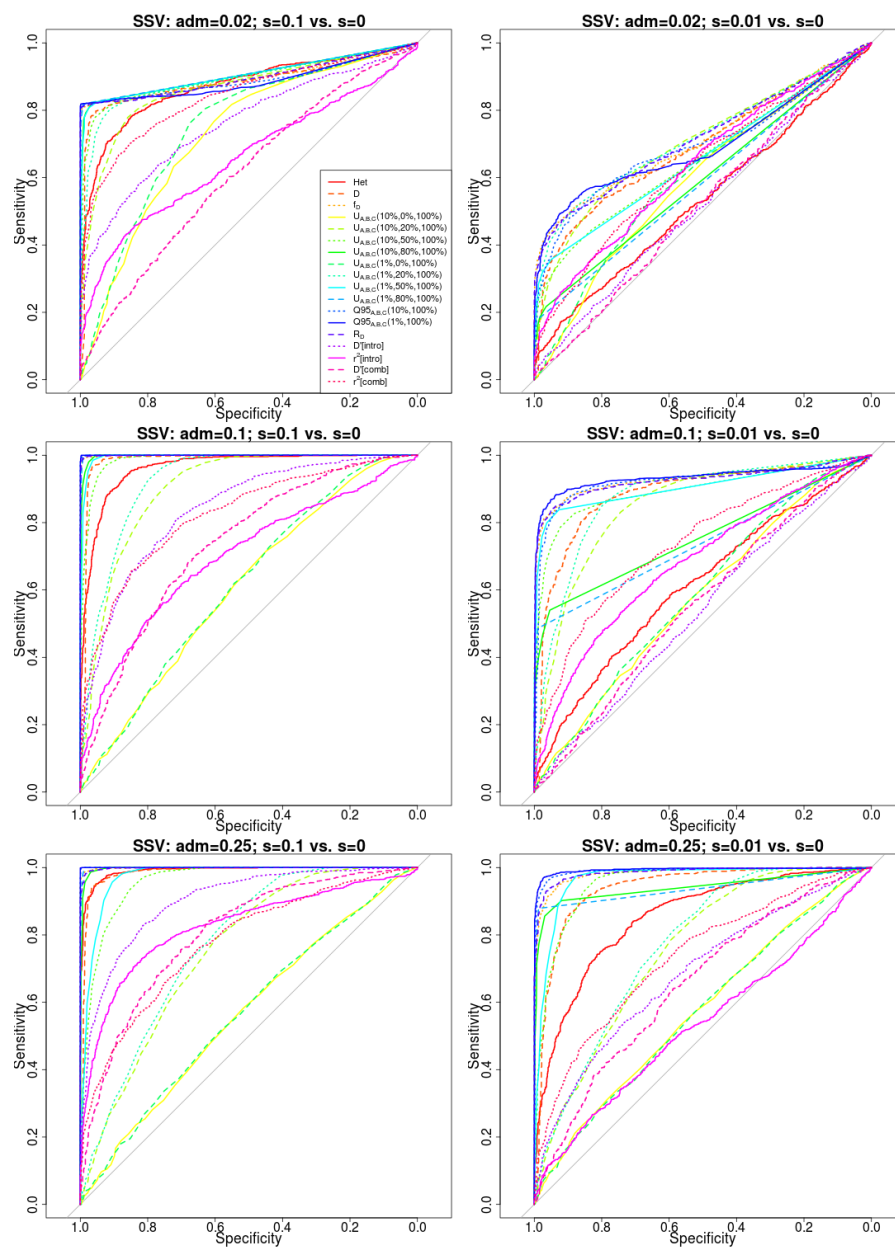


Figure S12: Receiver operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression with an intermediate neutrality period. We simulated the same demography as in Figure 3, but changed the selection coefficient of the beneficial variant to be 0 right after the introgression event (1,600 generations ago). If still present in population *B*, the variant regained its original coefficient 800 generations ago.

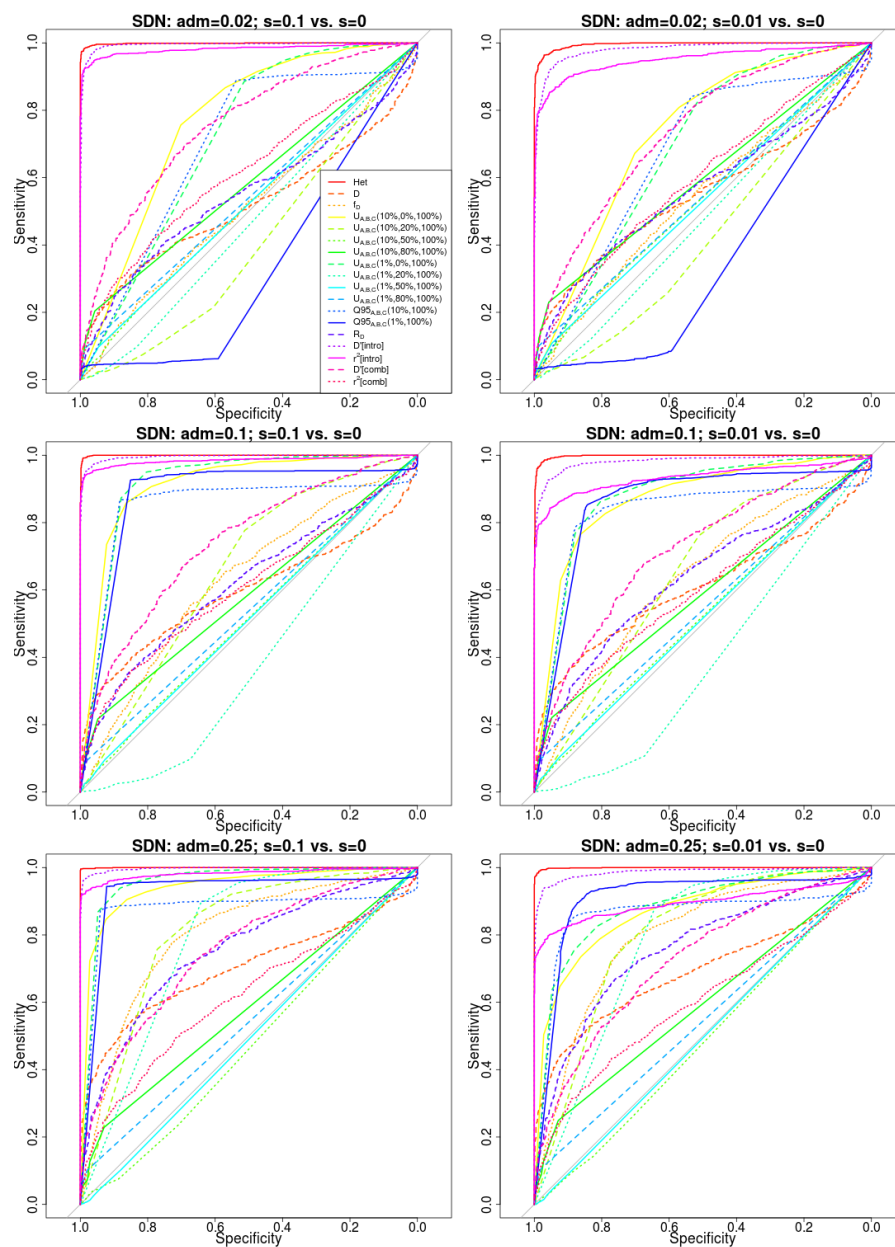


Figure S13: Receiver operating characteristic curves for a selective sweep from de novo mutation. We simulated the same demography as in Figure 3, but rather than introducing the beneficial variant in the introgressed population via admixture from an archaic population, we introduced it by mutation in the introgressed population (B) 3,900 generations ago.

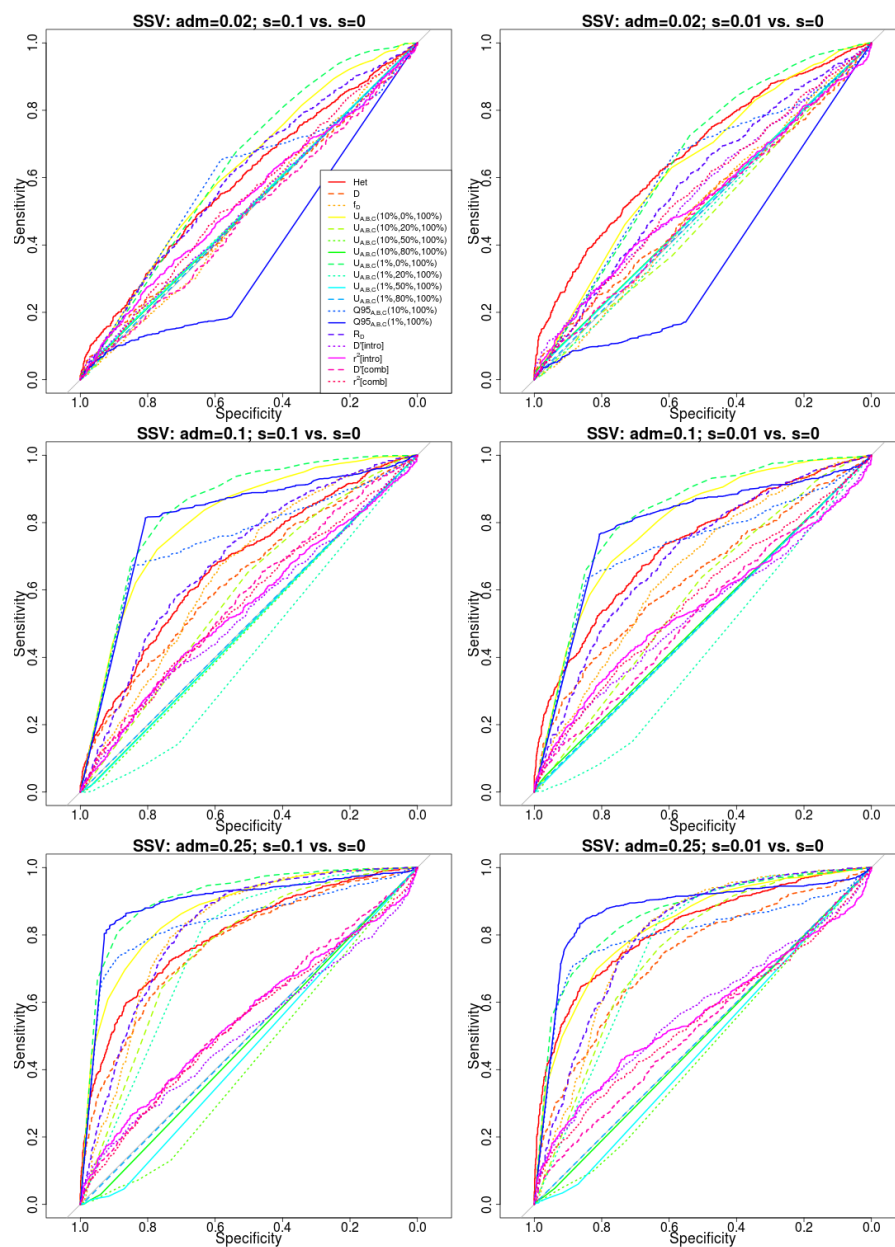


Figure S14: Receiver operating characteristic curves for selection from standing variation. We simulated the same demography as in Figure 3, but rather than introducing the beneficial variant in the introgressed population via admixture from an archaic population, we introduced it with a starting frequency of 20% in the introgressed population (B) 3,900 generations ago.

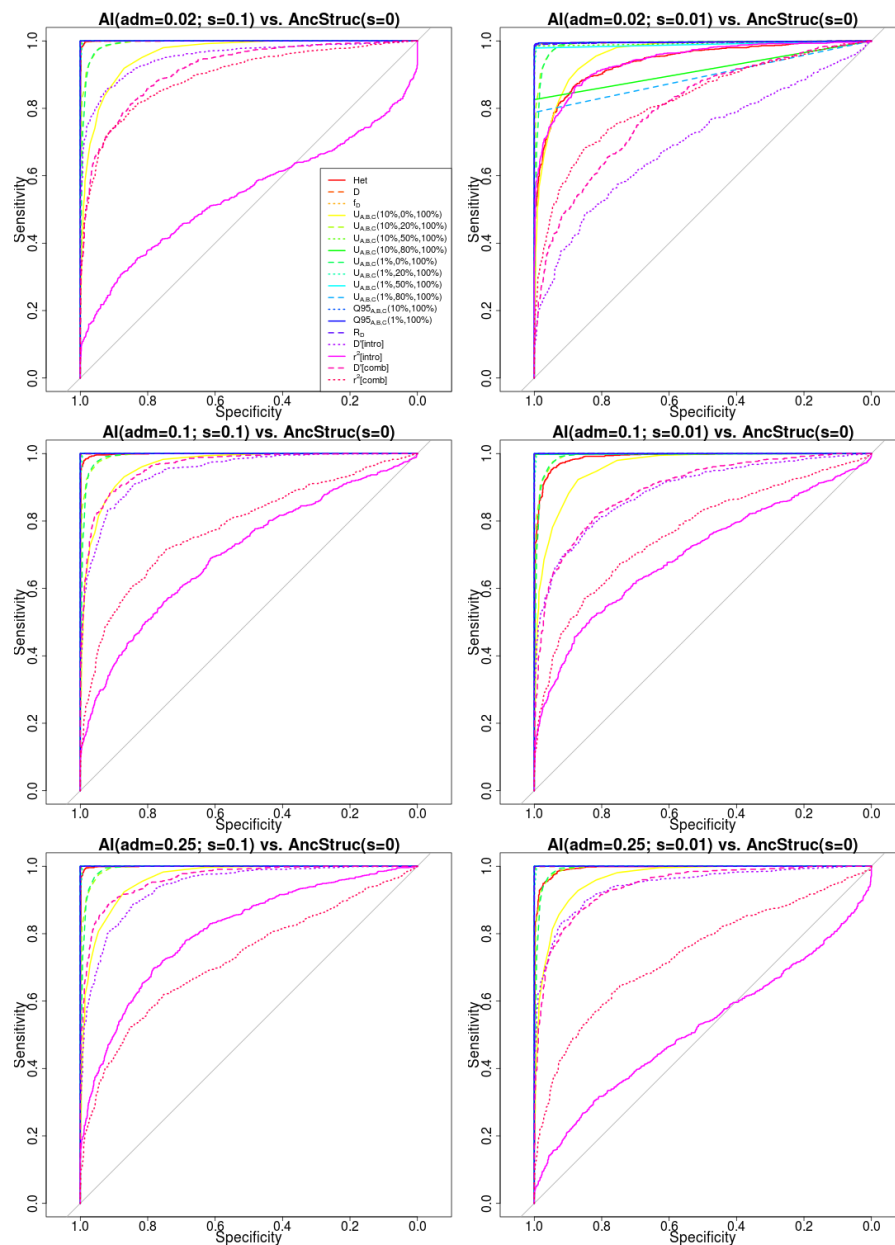


Figure S15: Receiving operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression against a neutral ancestral structure model with strong migration rates. The demographic scenario for adaptive introgression was the same as in Figure 3. For a description of the ancestral structure model, see main text.

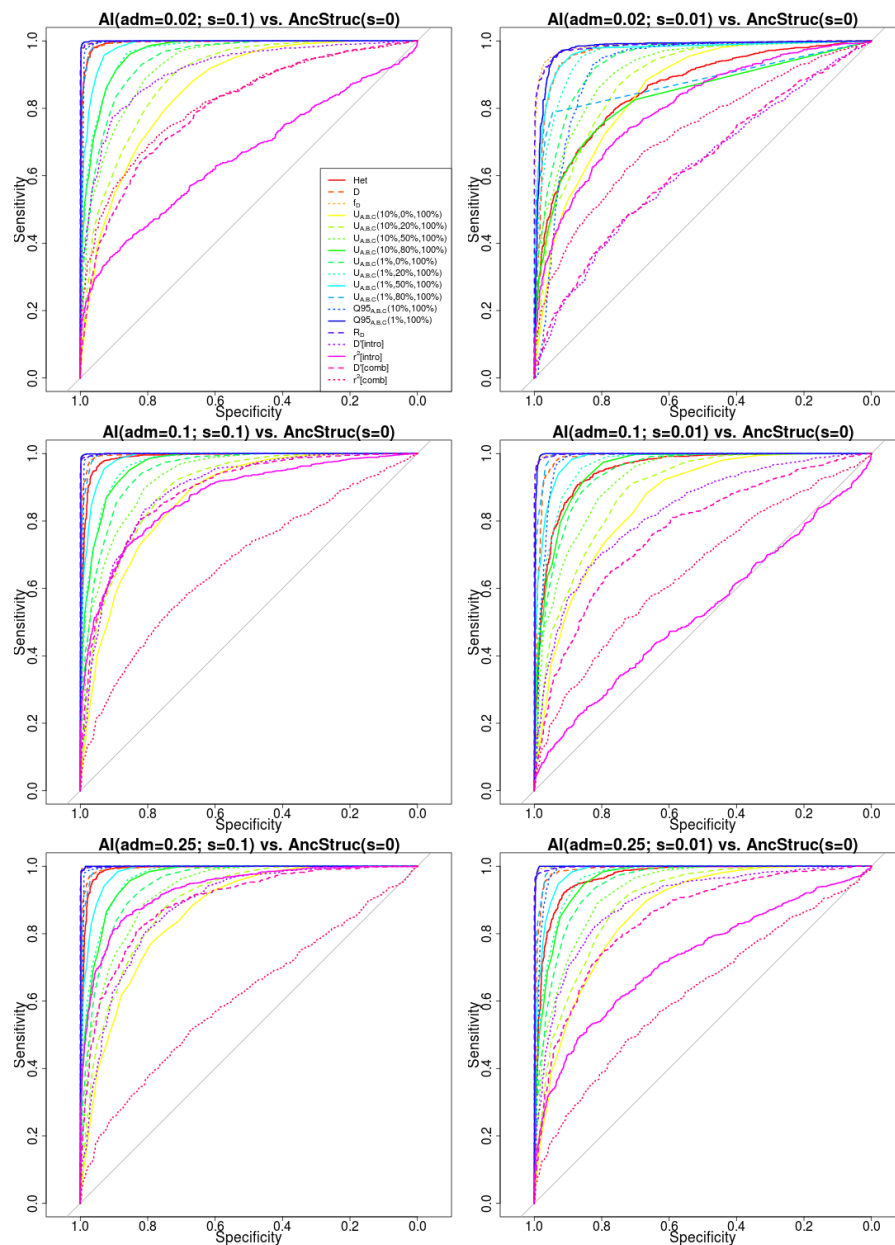


Figure S16: Receiving operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression against a neutral ancestral structure model with intermediate migration rates. The demographic scenario for adaptive introgression was the same as in Figure 3. For a description of the ancestral structure model, see main text.

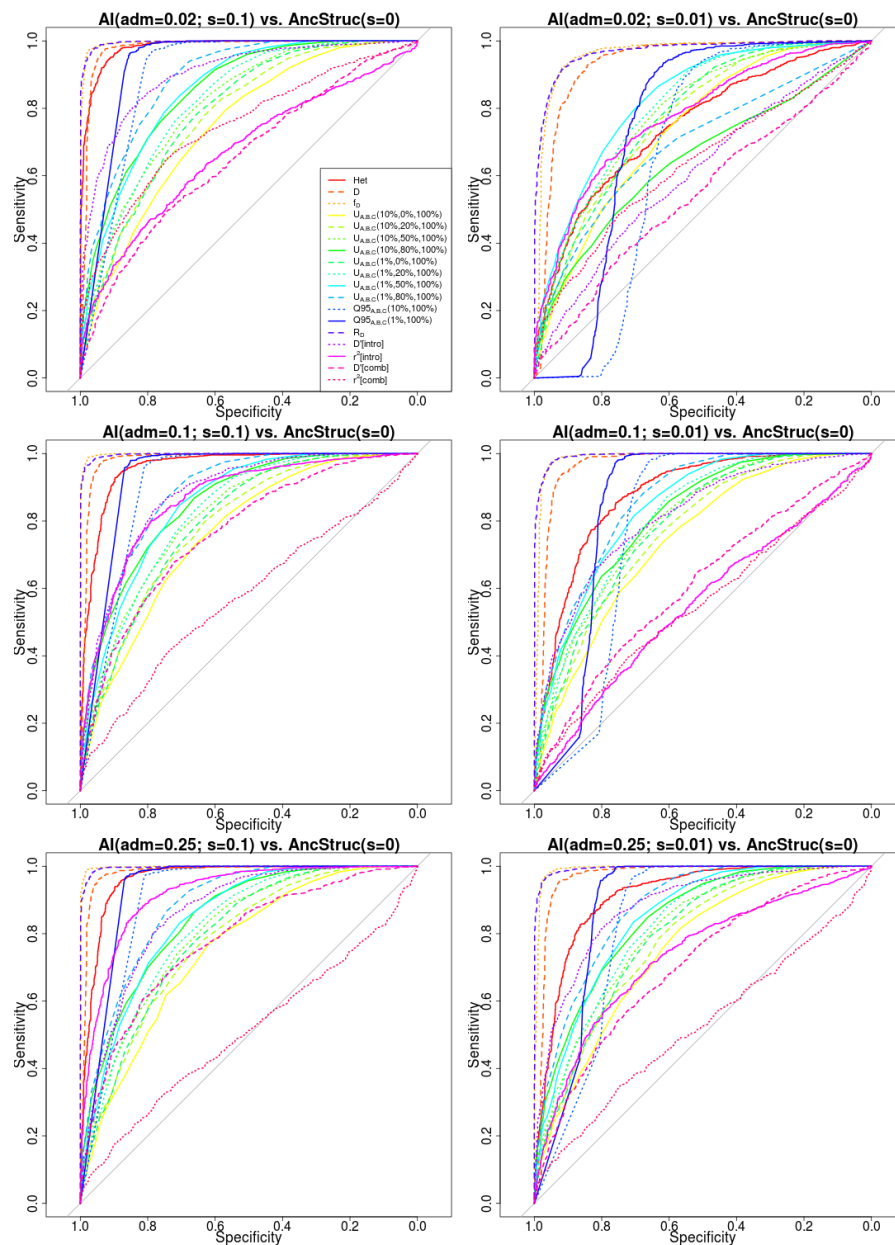


Figure S17: Receiving operating characteristic curves for adaptive introgression against a neutral ancestral structure model with weak migration rates. The demographic scenario for adaptive introgression was the same as in Figure 3. For a description of the ancestral structure model, see main text.

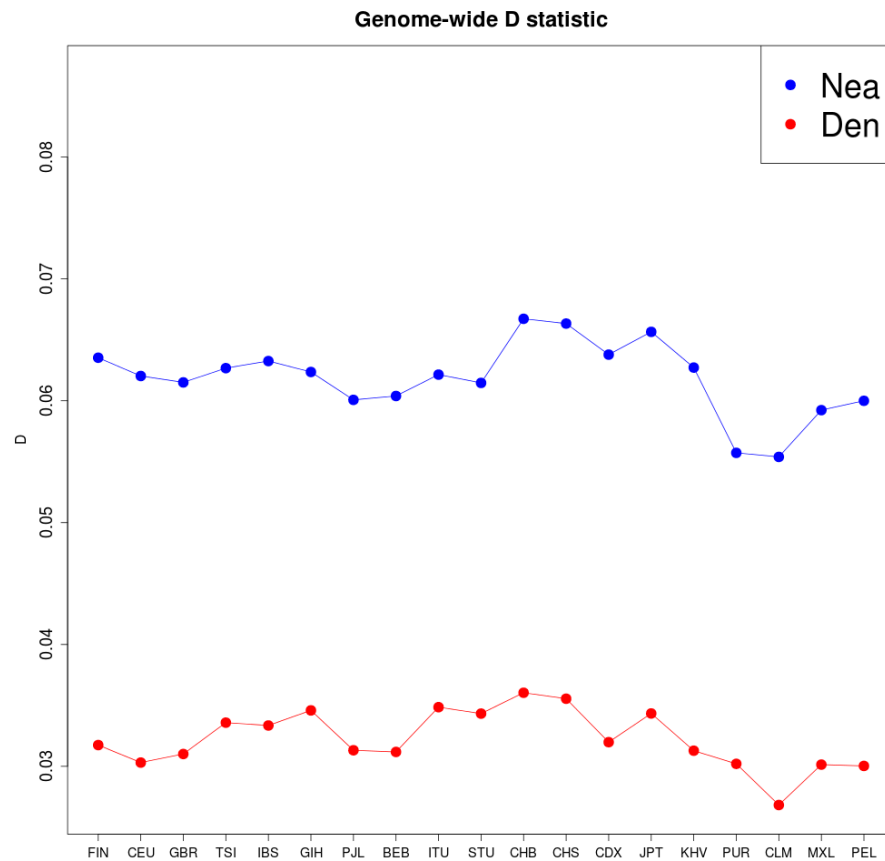


Figure S18: We computed $D(X, YRI, Y, \text{Chimpanzee})$ for different choices of present-day human panels X (x-axis) from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project, and for two high-coverage archaic human genomes Y : Altai Neanderthal (blue) and Denisova (red). The low value of the right-most panel is due to that panel being composed of African-Americans, which have a higher proportion of African ancestry than the other panels.

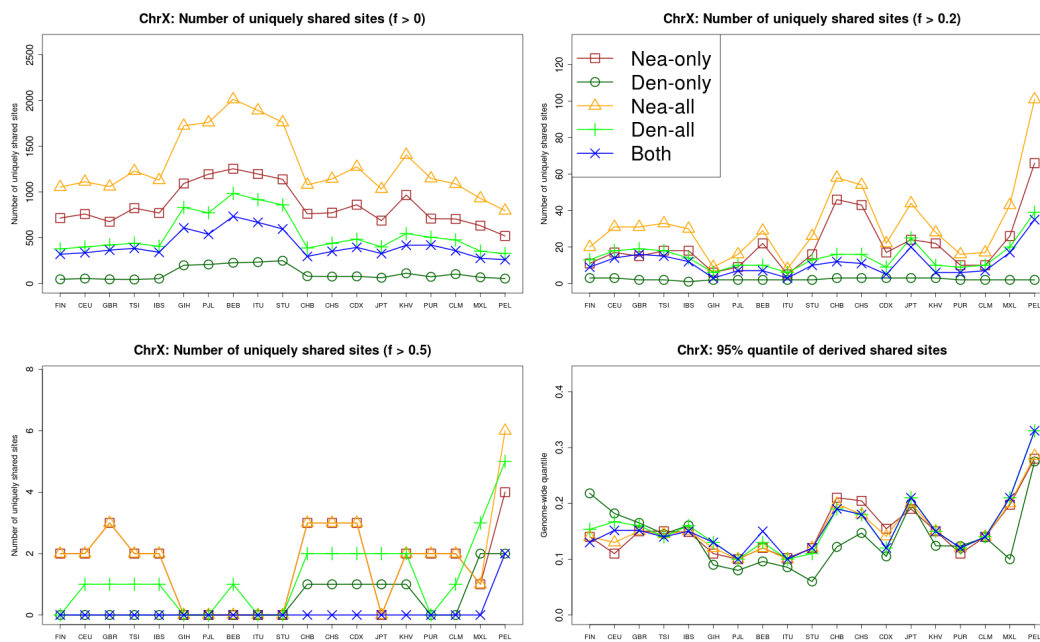


Figure S19: We computed the number of uniquely shared sites in the X chromosome between particular archaic humans genomes and different choices of present-day non-African human panels X (x-axis) from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project, using a shared frequency cutoff of 0% (top-left panel), 20% (top-right panel) and 50% (bottom-left panel). Nea-only = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 0\%)$. Den-only = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 0\%, 100\%)$. Nea-all = $U_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$. Den-all = $U_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%)$. Both = $U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 20\%, 100\%, 100\%)$. We also computed the quantile statistics $Q95$ for different choices of present-day non-African human panels (x-axis) from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project (bottom-right panel). Nea-only = $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 0\%)$. Den-only = $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 0\%, 100\%)$. Nea-all = $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 100\%)$. Den-all = $Q95_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%)$. Both = $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 100\%)$.

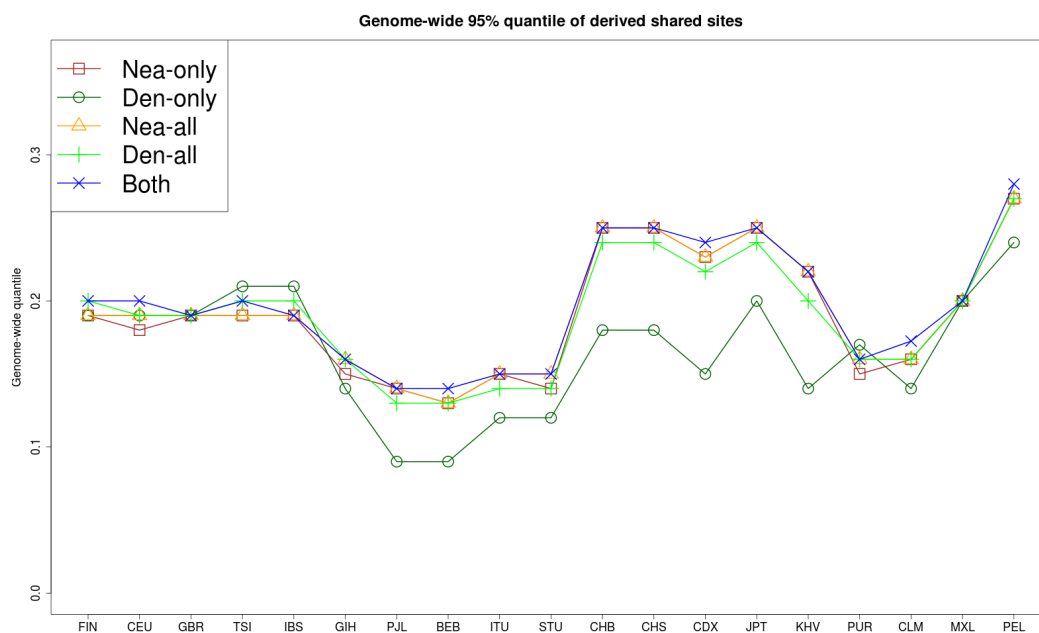


Figure S20: We computed the quantile statistics Q_{95} for different choices of present-day non-African human panels (x-axis) from phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes Project (D). Nea-only = $Q_{95}^{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,100\%,0\%)$. Den-only = $Q_{95}^{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,0\%,100\%)$. Nea-all = $Q_{95}^{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%,100\%)$. Den-all = $Q_{95}^{Afr,X,Den}(1\%,100\%)$. Both = $Q_{95}^{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,100\%,100\%)$.

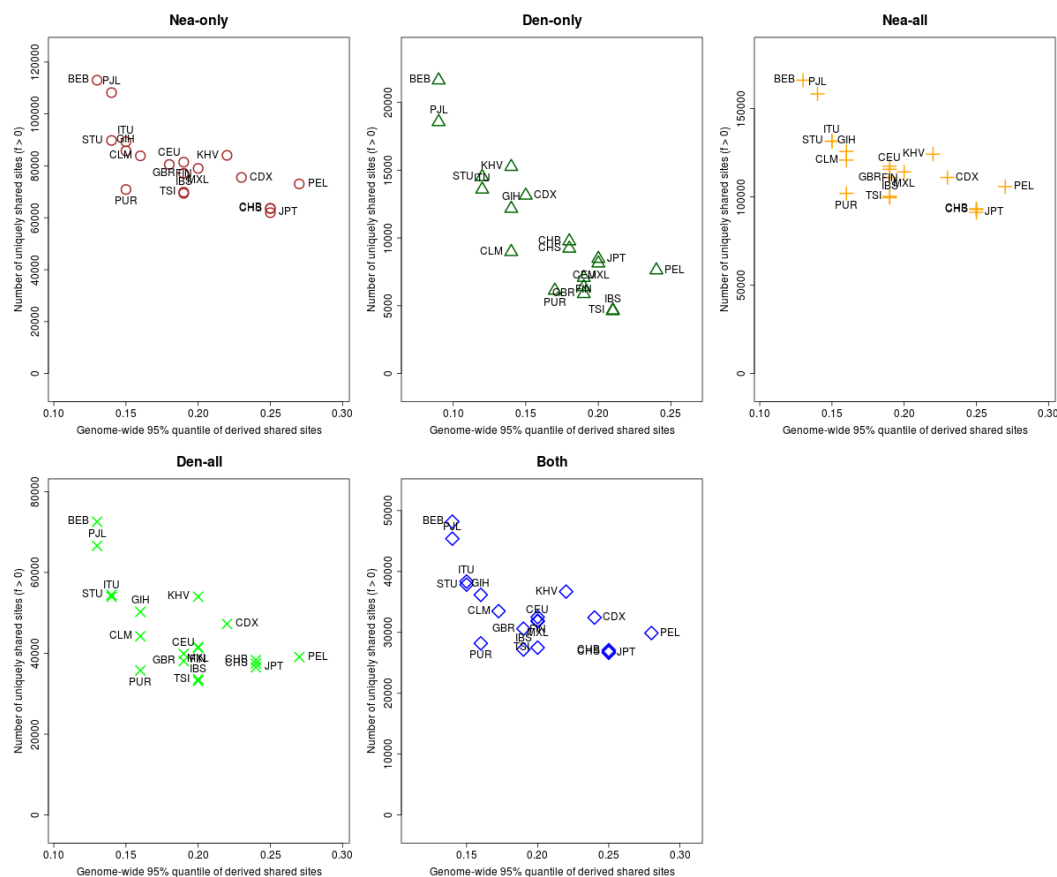


Figure S21: For each population panel from the 1000 Genomes Project, we jointly plotted the U and $Q95$ statistics with an archaic frequency cutoff of $> 0\%$ within each population. $\text{Nea-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,0\%,100\%,0\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,100\%,0\%)$. $\text{Den-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,0\%,0\%,100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,0\%,100\%)$. $\text{Nea-all} = U_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%,0\%,100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%,100\%)$. $\text{Den-all} = U_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%,0\%,100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%,100\%)$. $\text{Both} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,0\%,100\%,100\%)$ and $Q95_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%,100\%,100\%)$.

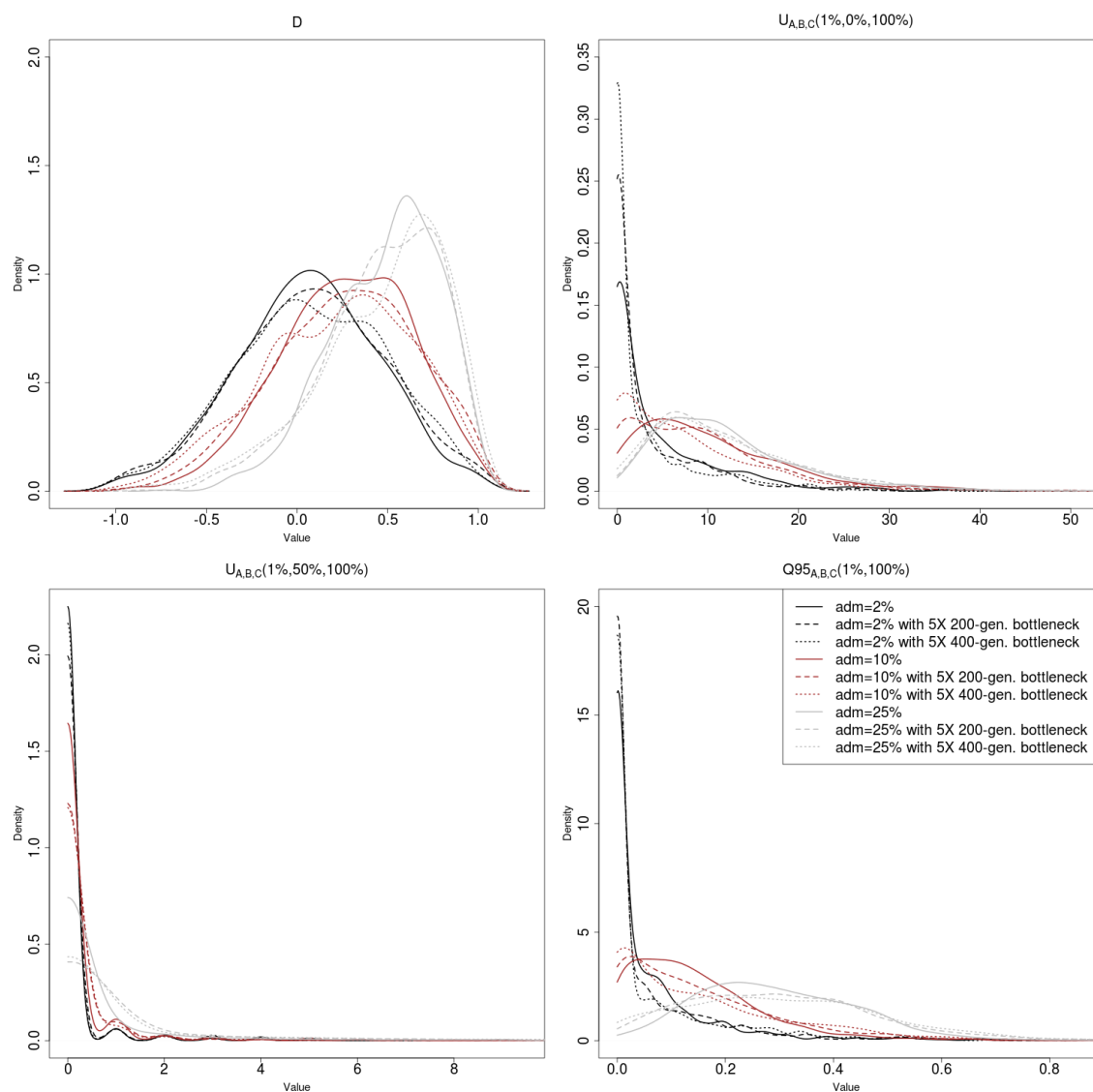


Figure S22: Effect of bottlenecks on the distribution of various statistics under introgression and neutrality.

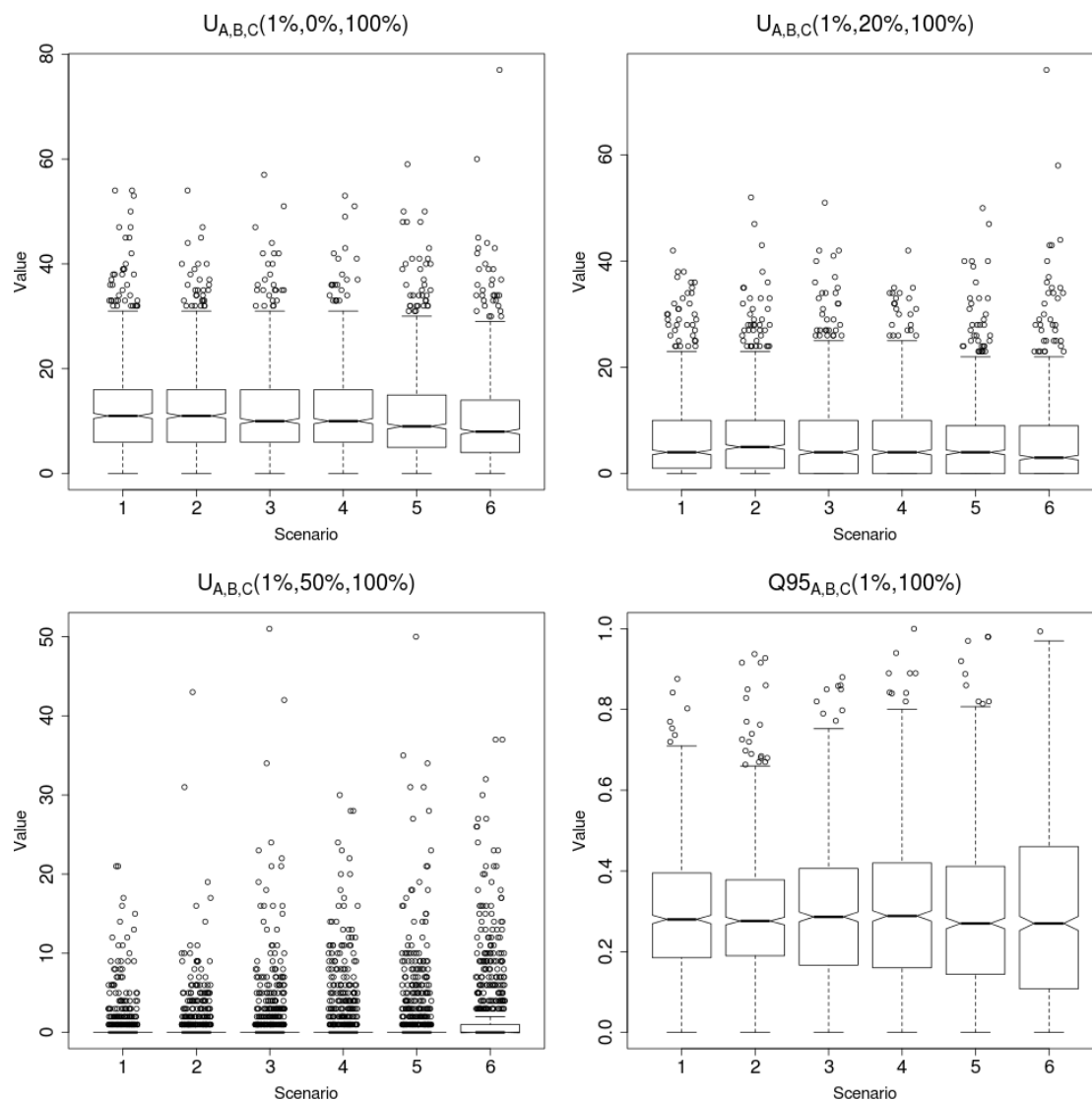


Figure S23: Boxplots showing the effect of different types of bottlenecks on the distribution of U and $Q95$ under neutrality. We performed 1,000 simulations for each of 6 different 3-population scenarios with 25% admixture from population C into population B, following the models described in Figure 2. Scenario 1: Constant population size (Figure 2.A). Scenario 2: Pre-admixture 5X bottleneck for 200 generations (Figure 2.B). Scenario 3: Post-admixture 5X bottleneck for 200 generations (Figure 2.C). Scenario 4: Post-admixture 5X bottleneck for 400 generations. Scenario 5: Post-admixture 10X bottleneck for 200 generations. Scenario 6: Post-admixture 10X bottleneck for 400 generations.

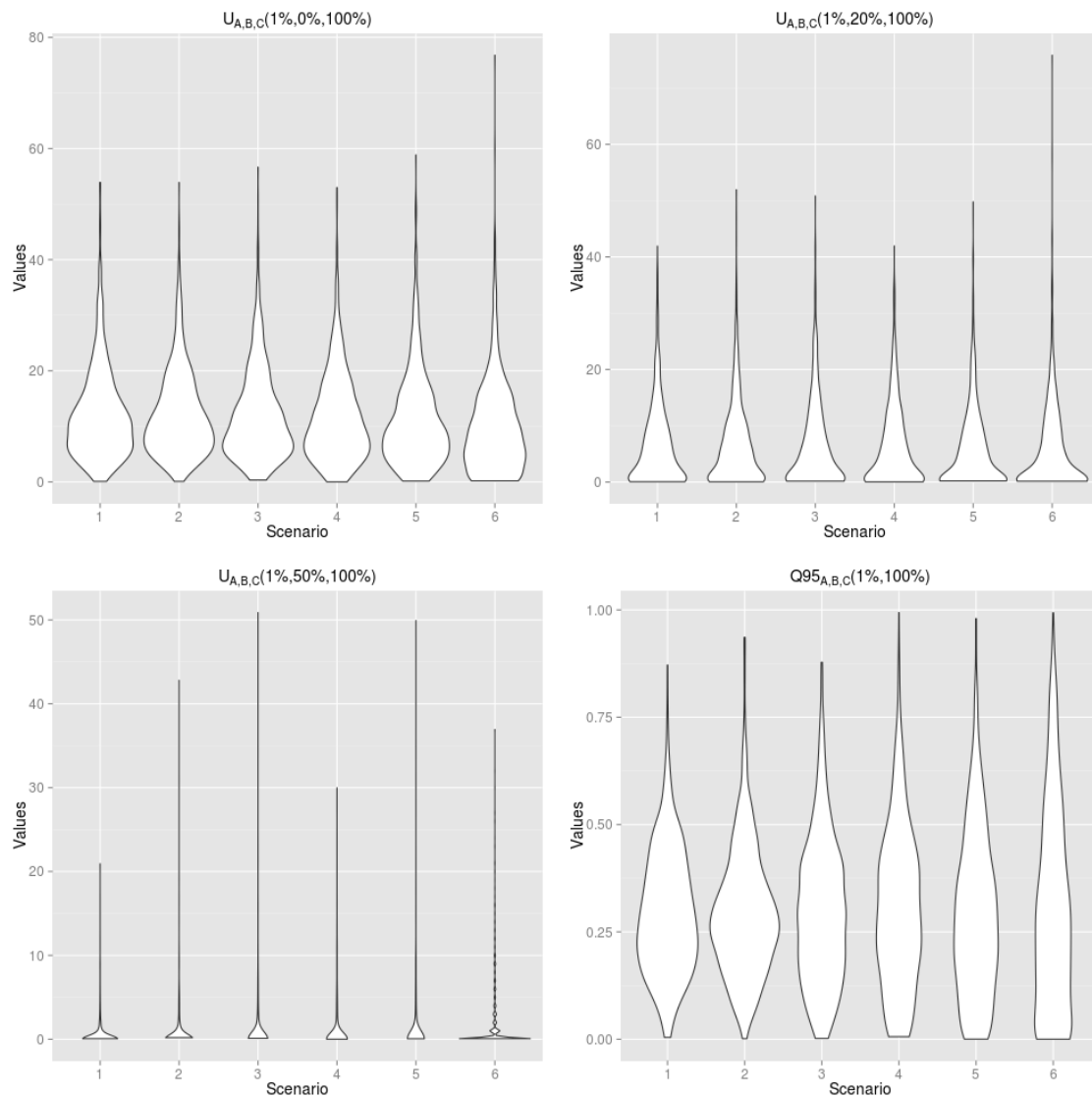


Figure S24: Violin plots showing the effect of different types of bottlenecks on the distribution of U and $Q95$ under neutrality (this is the same data as Figure S23). We performed 1,000 simulations for each of 6 different 3-population scenarios with 25% admixture from population C into population B, following the models described in Figure 2. Scenario 1: Constant population size (Figure 2.A). Scenario 2: Pre-admixture 5X bottleneck for 200 generations (Figure 2.B). Scenario 3: Post-admixture 5X bottleneck for 200 generations (Figure 2.C). Scenario 4: Post-admixture 5X bottleneck for 400 generations. Scenario 5: Post-admixture 10X bottleneck for 200 generations. Scenario 6: Post-admixture 10X bottleneck for 400 generations.

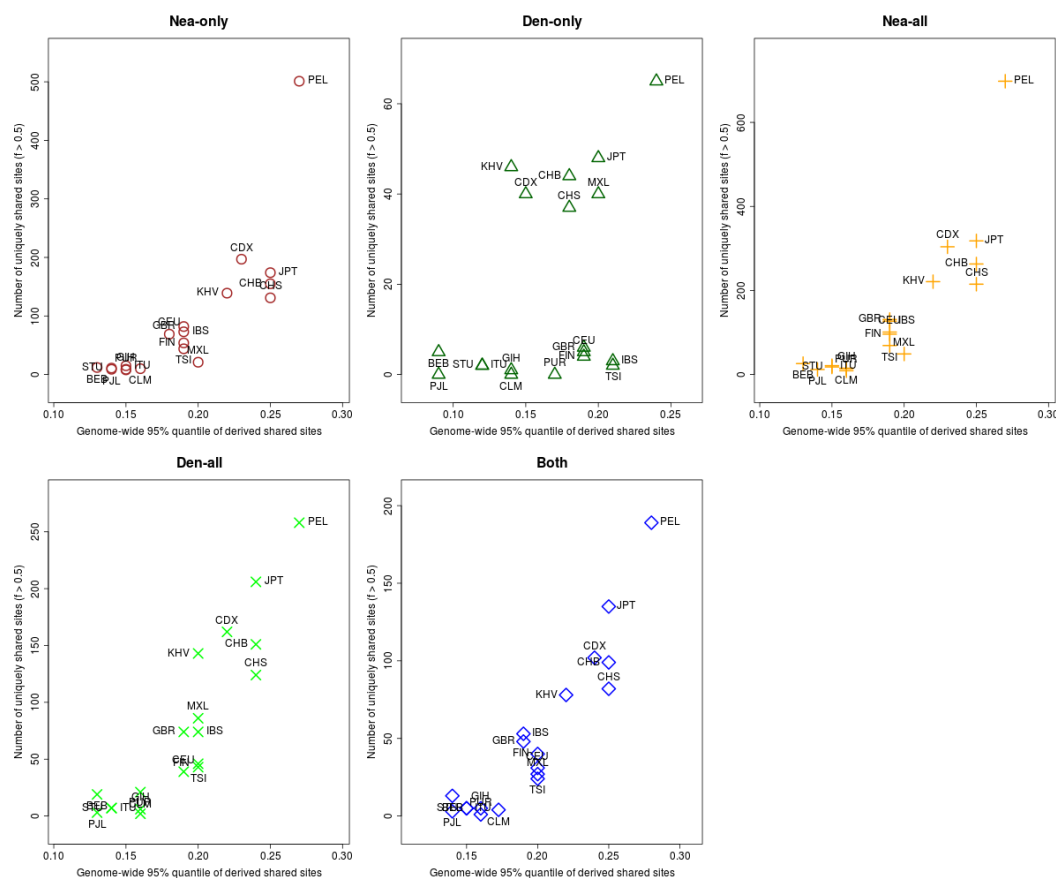


Figure S25: For each population panel from the 1000 Genomes Project, we jointly plotted the U and Q_{95} statistics with an archaic frequency cutoff of $> 50\%$ within each population. $\text{Nea-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%, 0\%)$ and $Q_{95Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 0\%)$. $\text{Den-only} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 50\%, 0\%, 100\%)$ and $Q_{95Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 0\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Nea-all} = U_{Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%)$ and $Q_{95Afr,X,Nea}(1\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Den-all} = U_{Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%)$ and $Q_{95Afr,X,Den}(1\%, 100\%)$. $\text{Both} = U_{Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 50\%, 100\%, 100\%)$ and $Q_{95Afr,X,Nea,Den}(1\%, 100\%, 100\%)$.

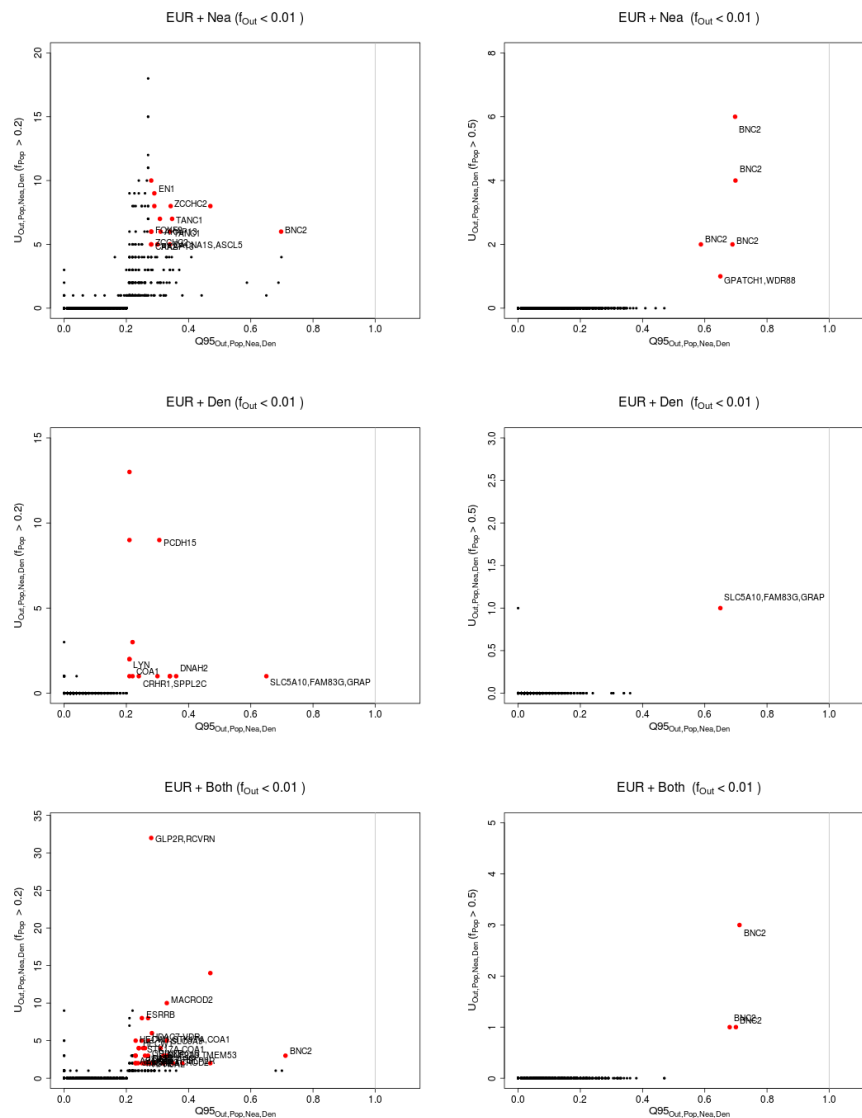


Figure S27: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in an European (EUR) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{EAS+AFR, EUR, Nea, Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{EAS+AFR, EUR, Nea, Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

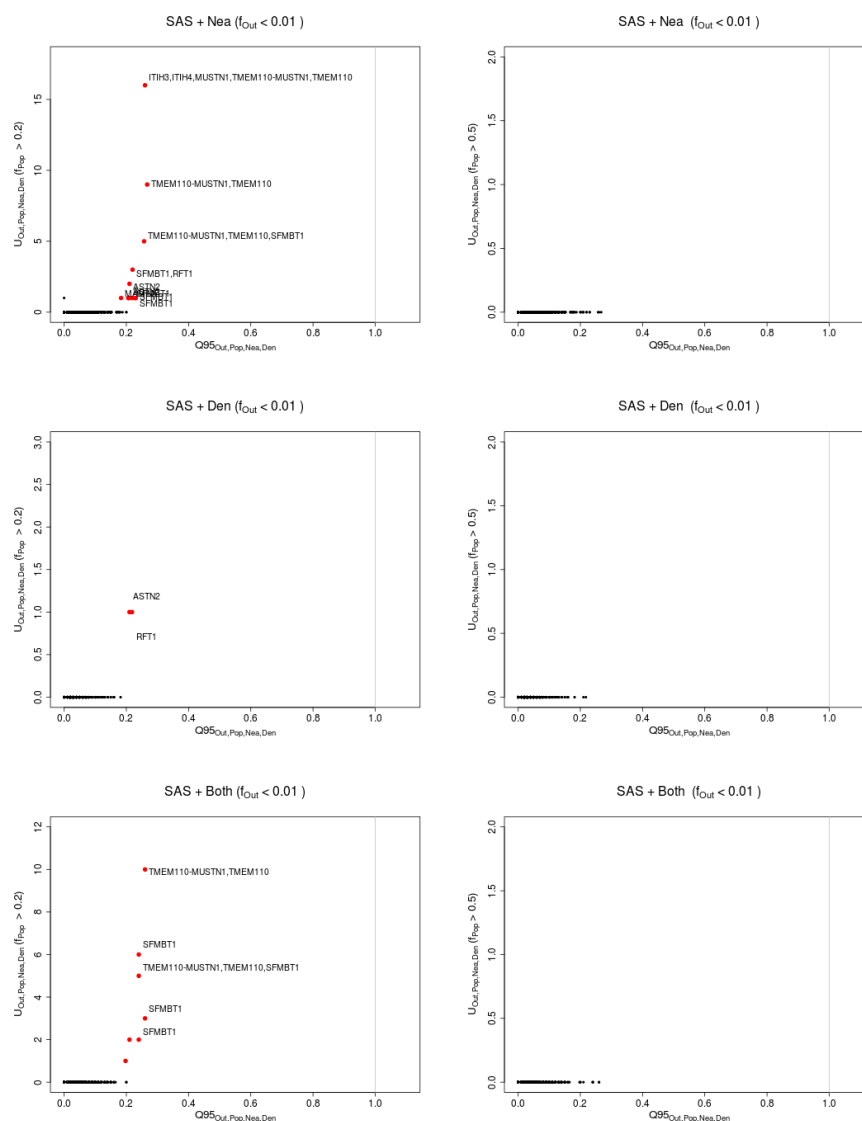


Figure S28: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a South Asian (SAS) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{EAS+EUR+AFR,SAS,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{EAS+EUR+AFR,SAS,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

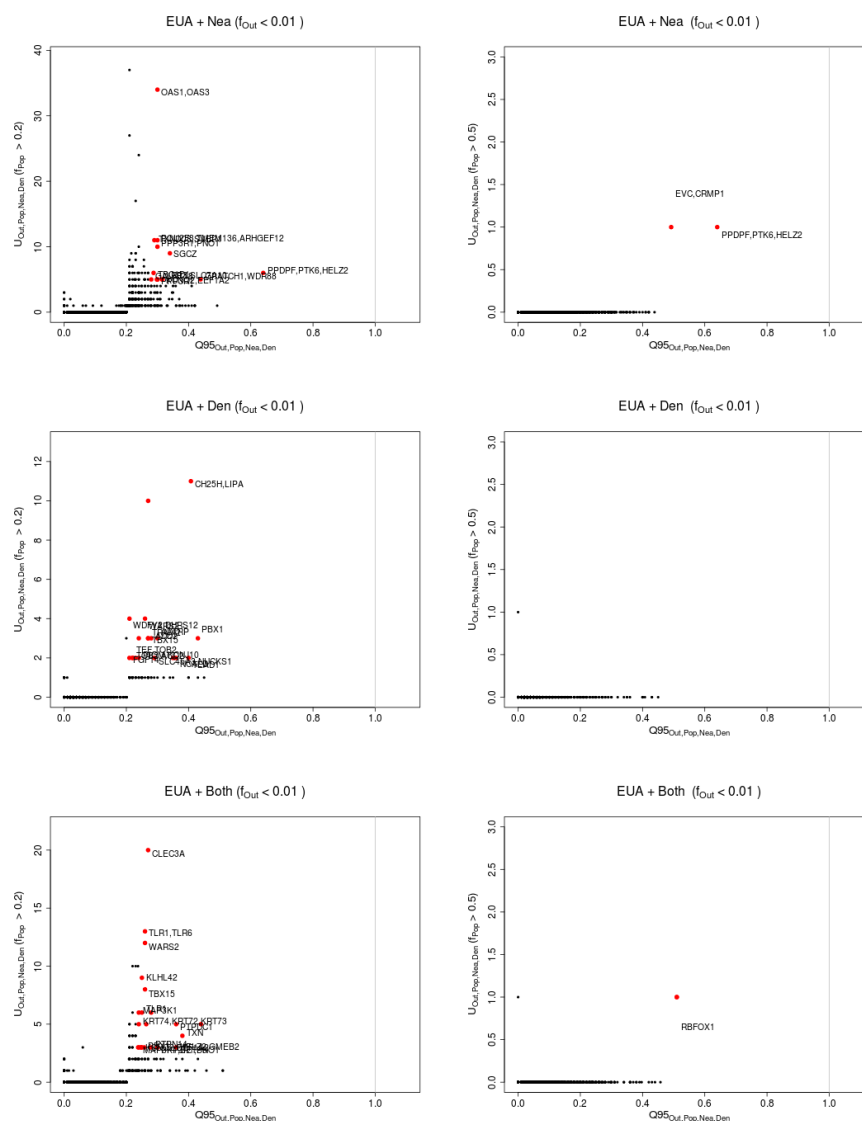


Figure S29: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Eurasian (EUA=EUR+SAS+EAS) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR, EUR+SAS+EAS, Nea, Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR, EUR+SAS+EAS, Nea, Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

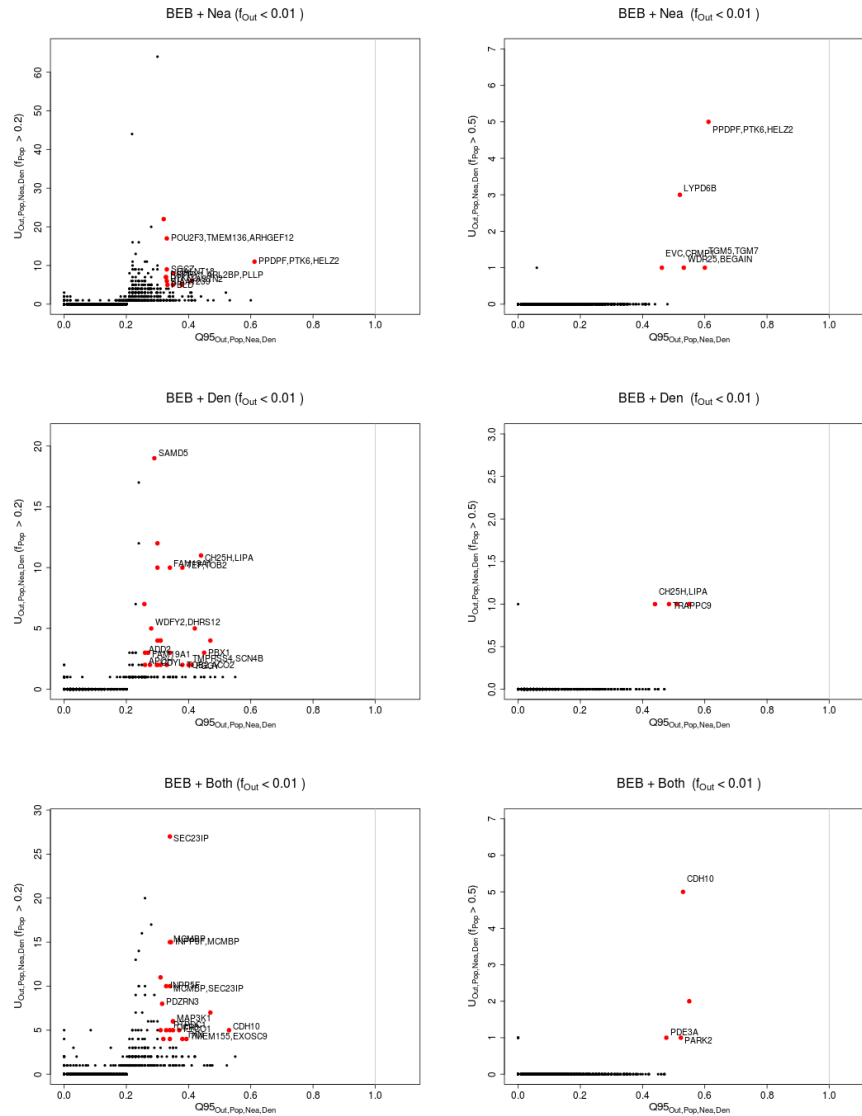


Figure S30: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Bengali (BEB) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,BEB,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{AFR,BEB,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

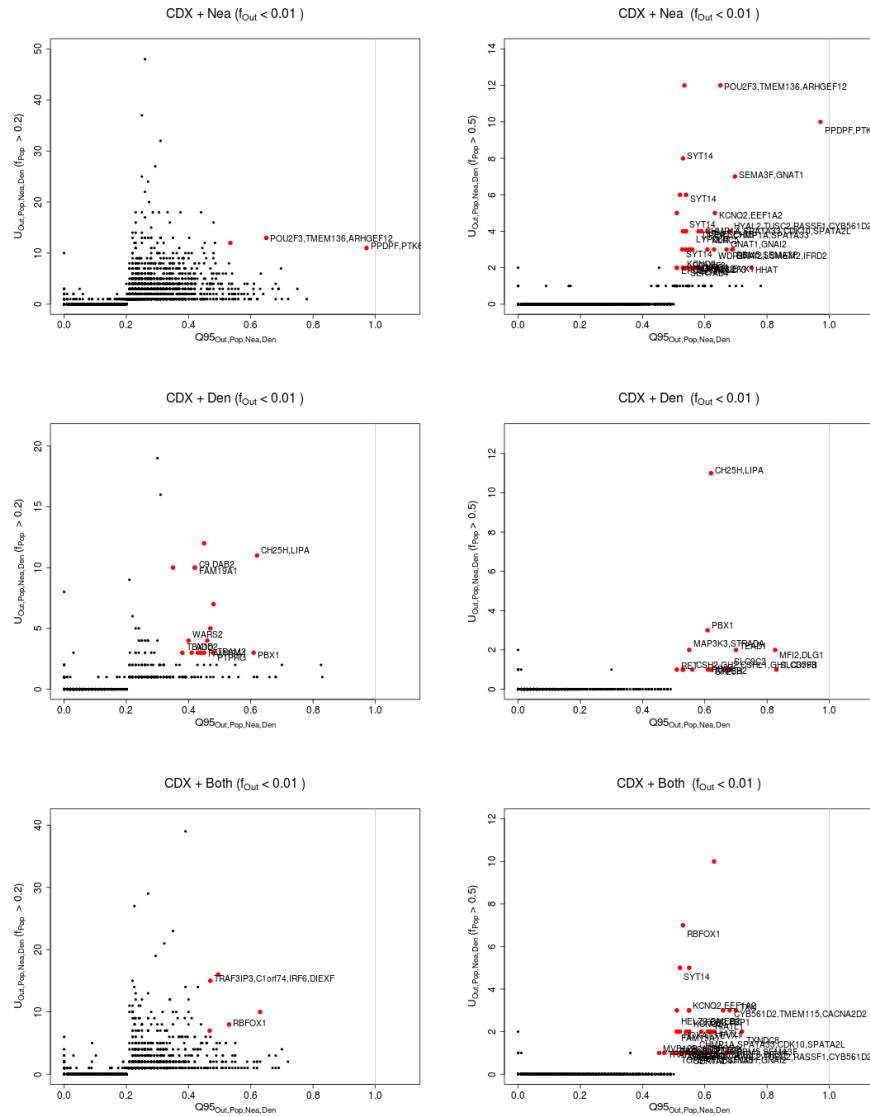


Figure S31: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Chinese Dai (CDX) panel. Joint distribution of $Q_{95AFR,CDX,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR,CDX,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

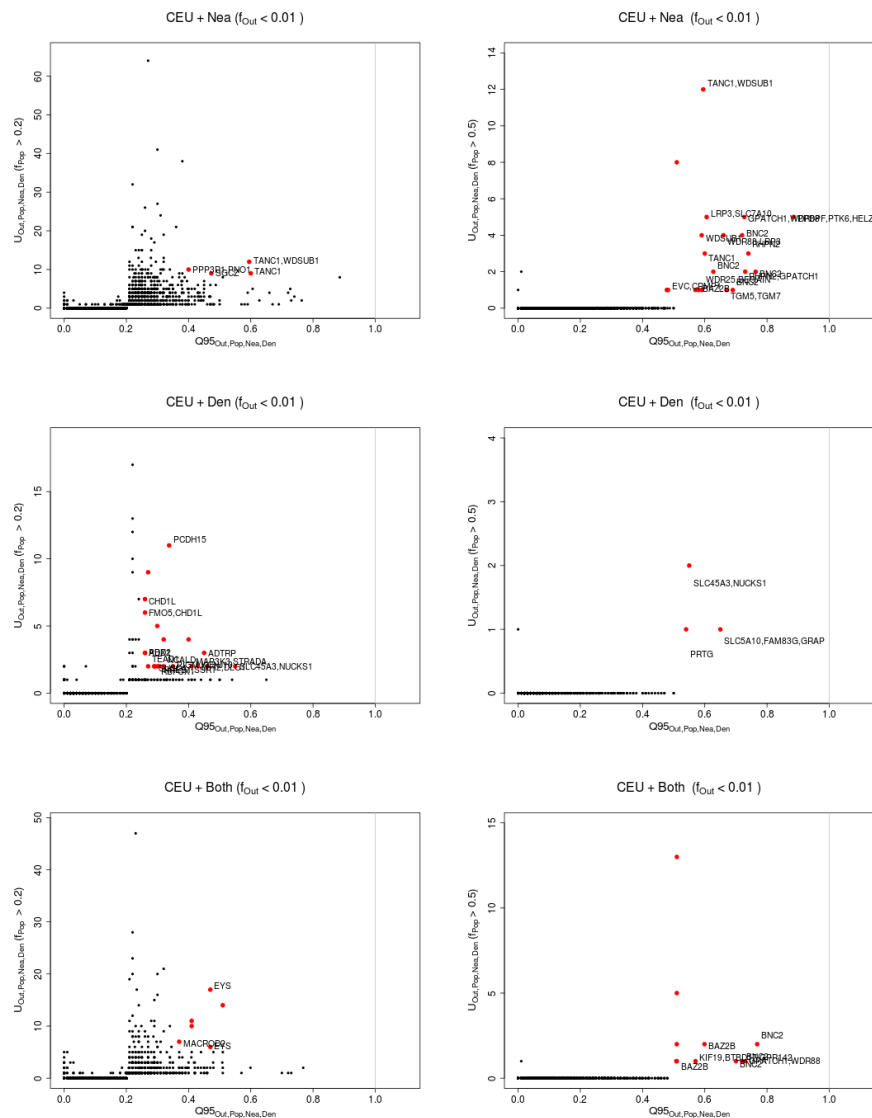


Figure S32: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Central European (CEU) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,CEU,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{AFR,CEU,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

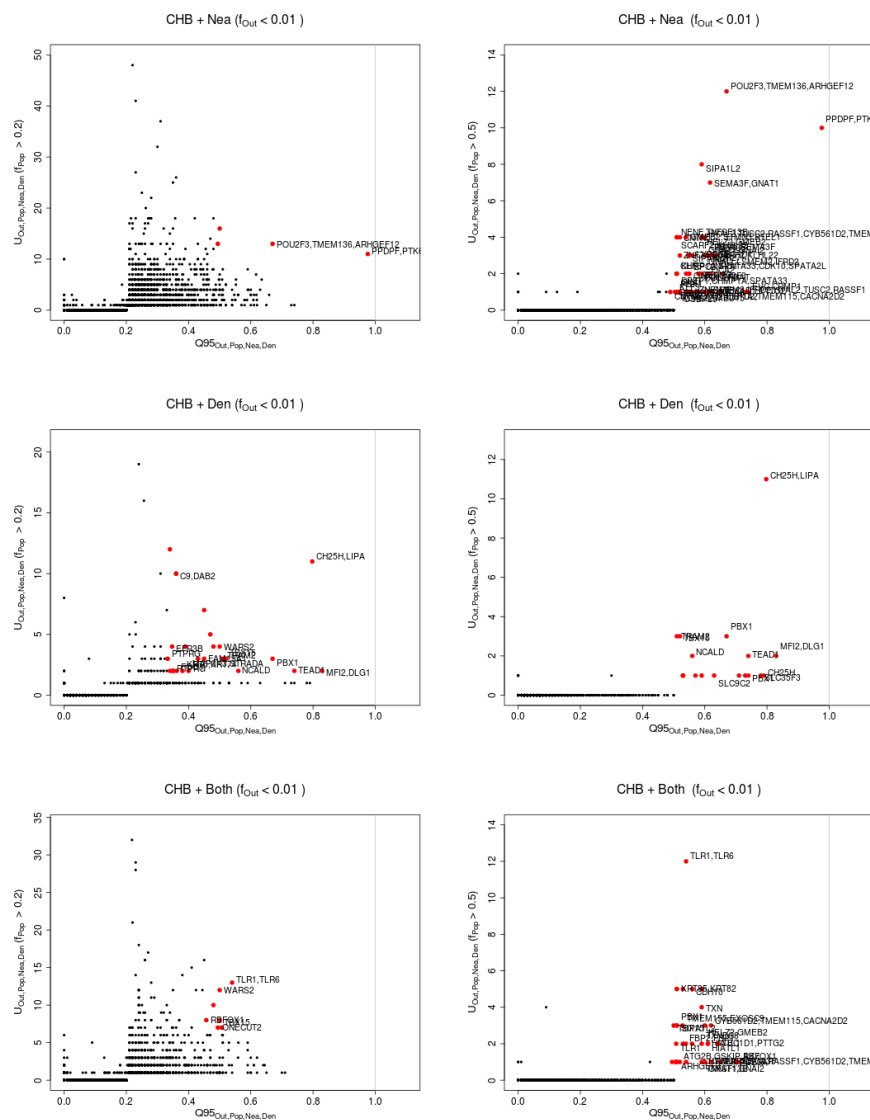


Figure S33: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Han Chinese (CHB) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,CHB,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR,CHB,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

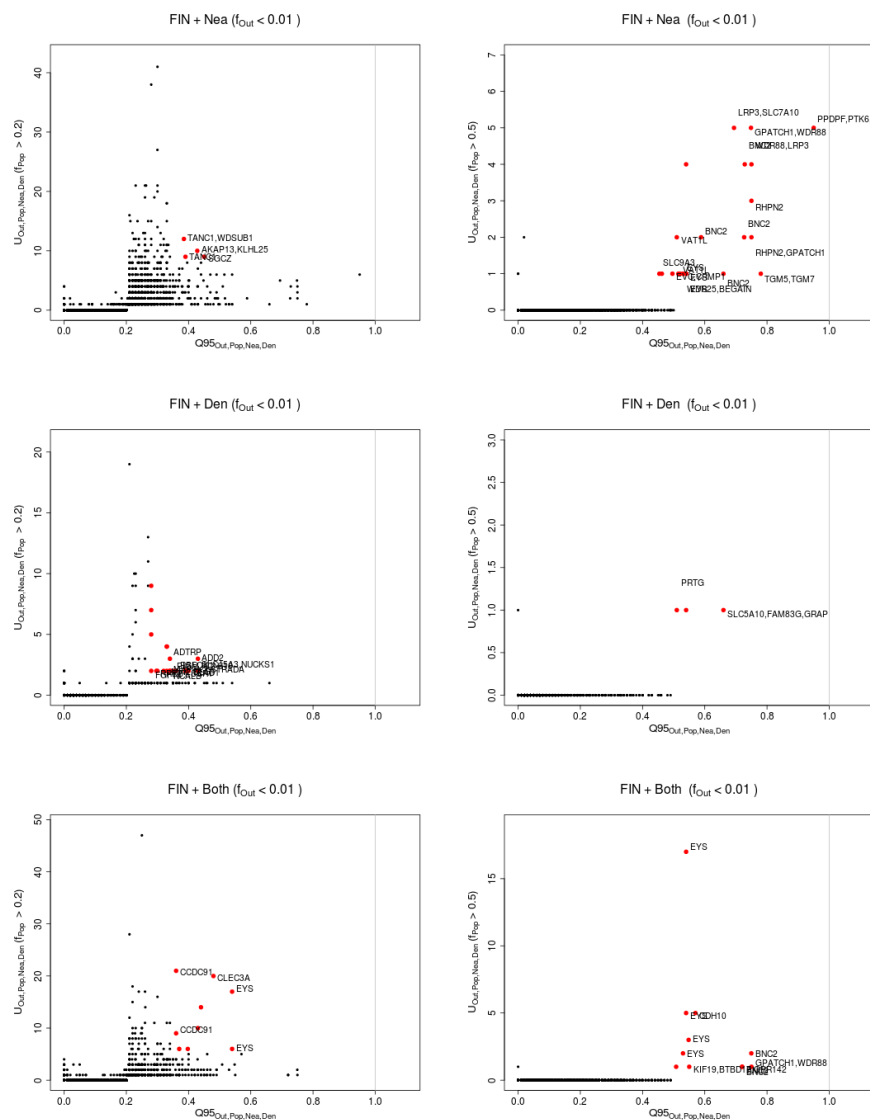


Figure S36: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Finnish (FIN) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,FIN,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{AFR,FIN,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

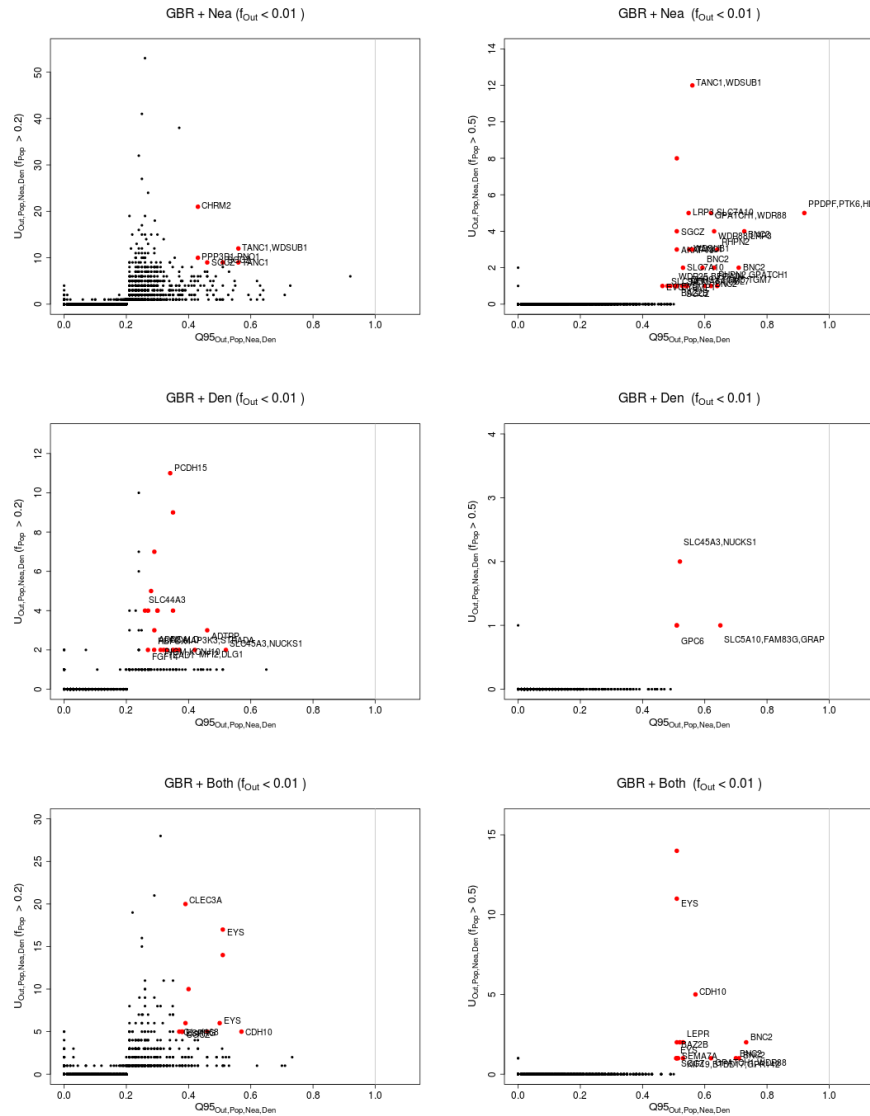


Figure S37: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a British (GBR) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,GBR,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR,GBR,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

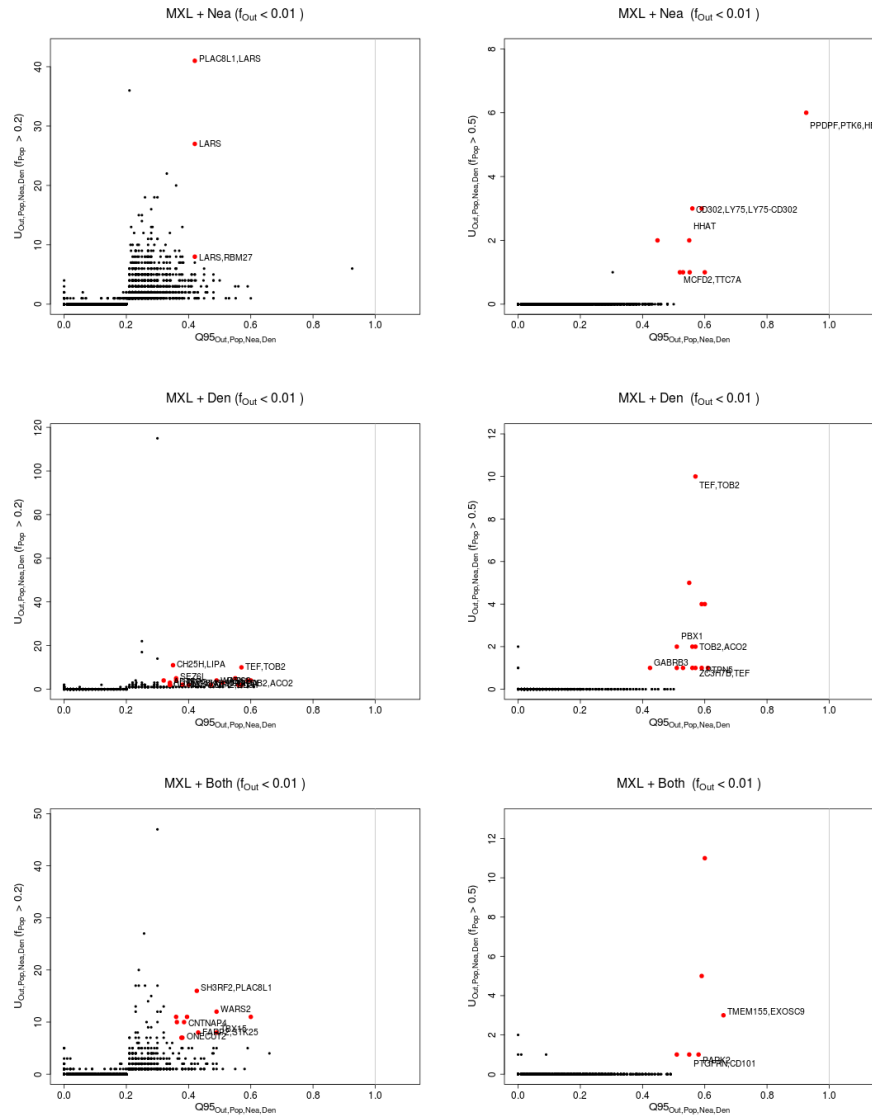


Figure S43: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Mexican (MXL) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR, MXL, Nea, Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR, MXL, Nea, Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

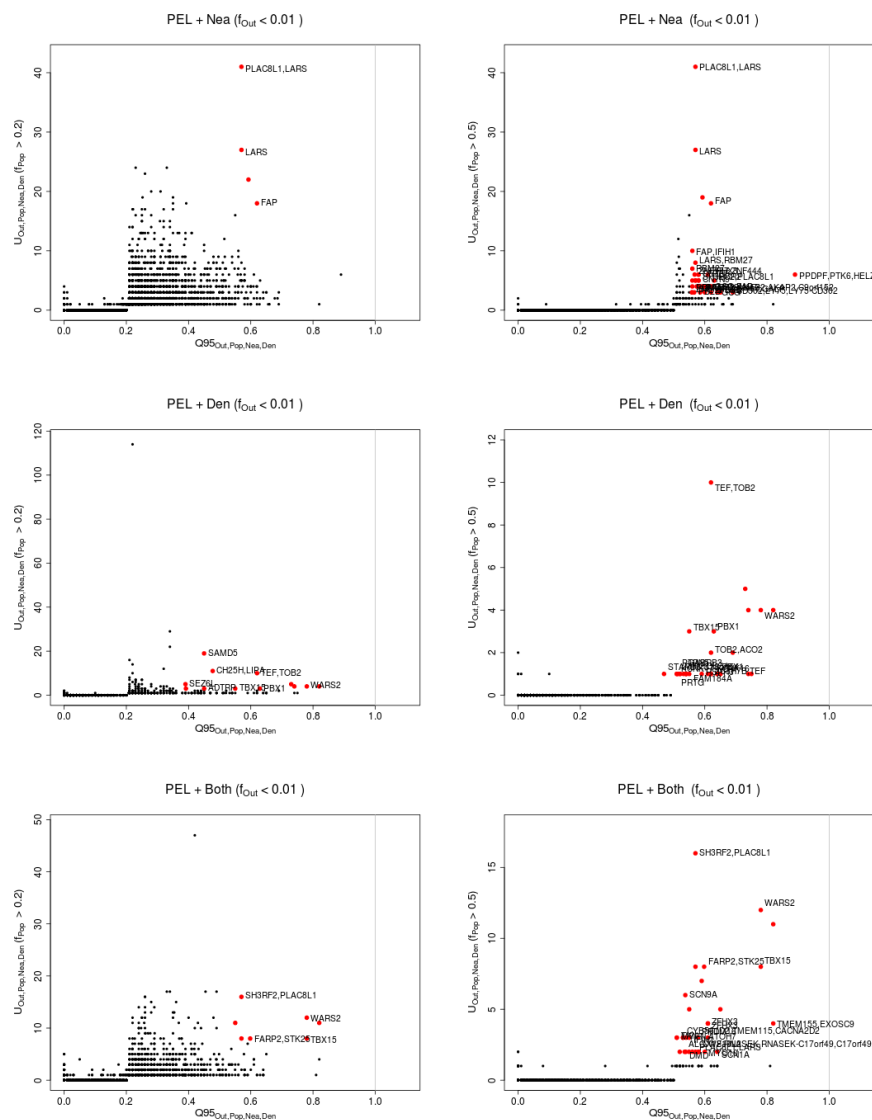


Figure S44: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Peruvian (PEL) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,PEL,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{AFR,PEL,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

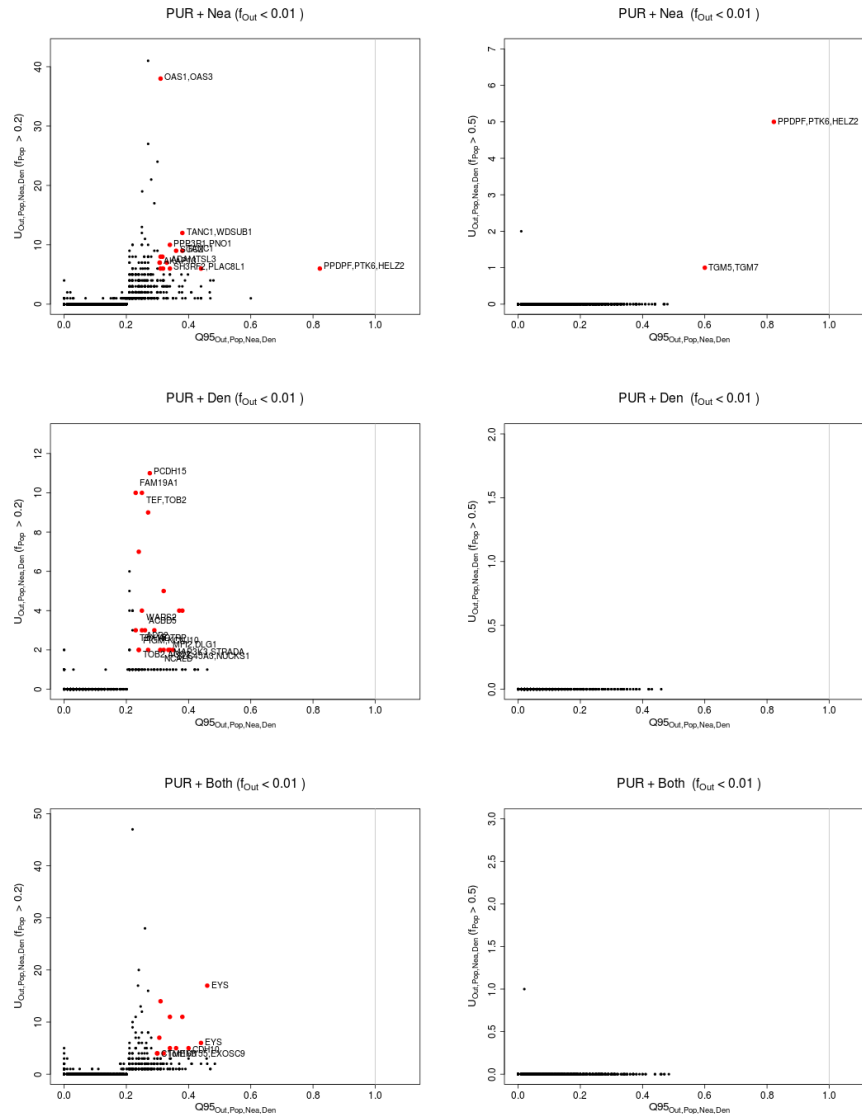


Figure S46: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Puerto Rican (PUR) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,PUR,Nea,Den}(1\%, y, z)$ and $U_{AFR,PUR,Nea,Den}(1\%, x, y, z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

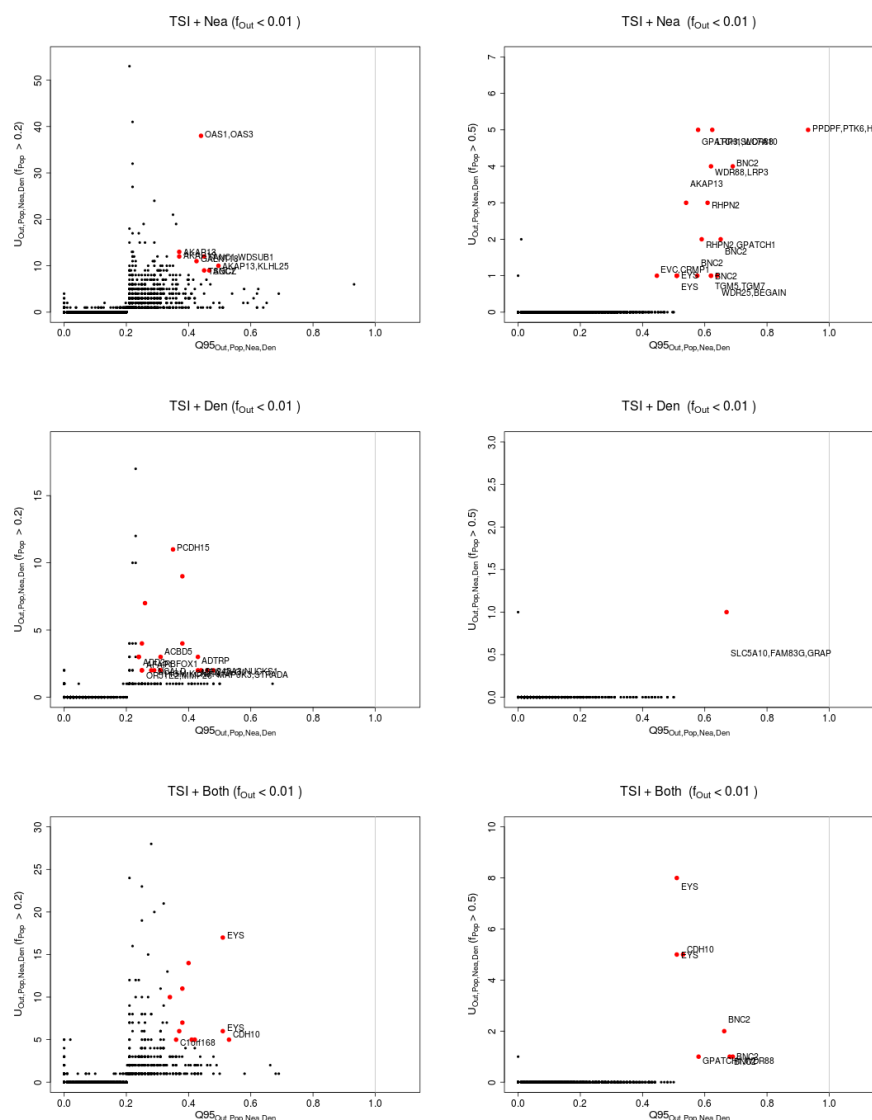


Figure S48: Uniquely shared archaic alleles in a Toscani (TSI) panel. Joint distribution of $Q95_{AFR,TSI,Nea,Den}(1\%,y,z)$ and $U_{AFR,TSI,Nea,Den}(1\%,x,y,z)$, for 40kb non-overlapping regions along the genome, using two choices of x (20% in left column panels, 50% in right column panels). Red dots refer to regions that are in the 99.9% quantiles for both statistics. Neanderthal-specific shared alleles are displayed in the top panels, Denisovan-specific shared alleles are displayed in the middle-row panels, and alleles shared with both archaic human genome are displayed in the bottom panels.

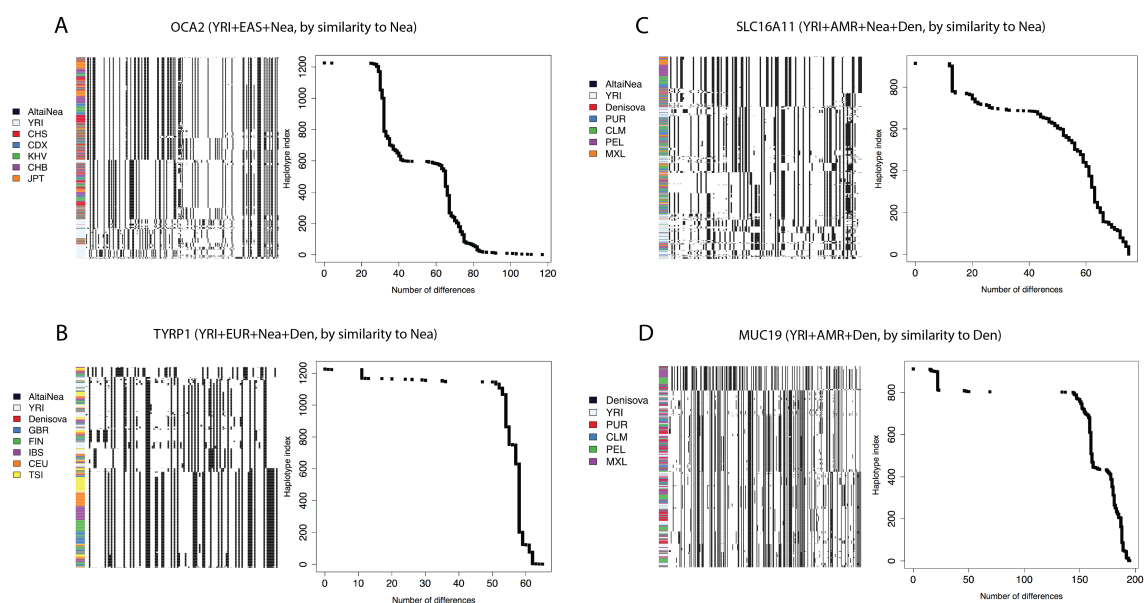


Figure S49: We explored the haplotype structure of *OCA2*, *TYRP1*, *SLC16A11* and *MUC19*. We applied a clustering algorithm to the haplotypes of particular human populations and then ordered the clusters by decreasing similarity to the archaic human genome with the larger number of uniquely shared sites. We also plotted the number of differences to the closest archaic haplotype for each human haplotype and sorted them simply by decreasing similarity. Note that, in the latter case, no clustering was performed, so the rows in the cumulative difference plots do not necessarily correspond to the rows in the adjacent haplotype structure plots. *OCA2*: chr15:28160001-28200000. *TYRP1*: chr9:12680001-12720000. *SLC16A11*: chr17:6880001-6960000. *MUC19*: chr12:40800001-40840000.

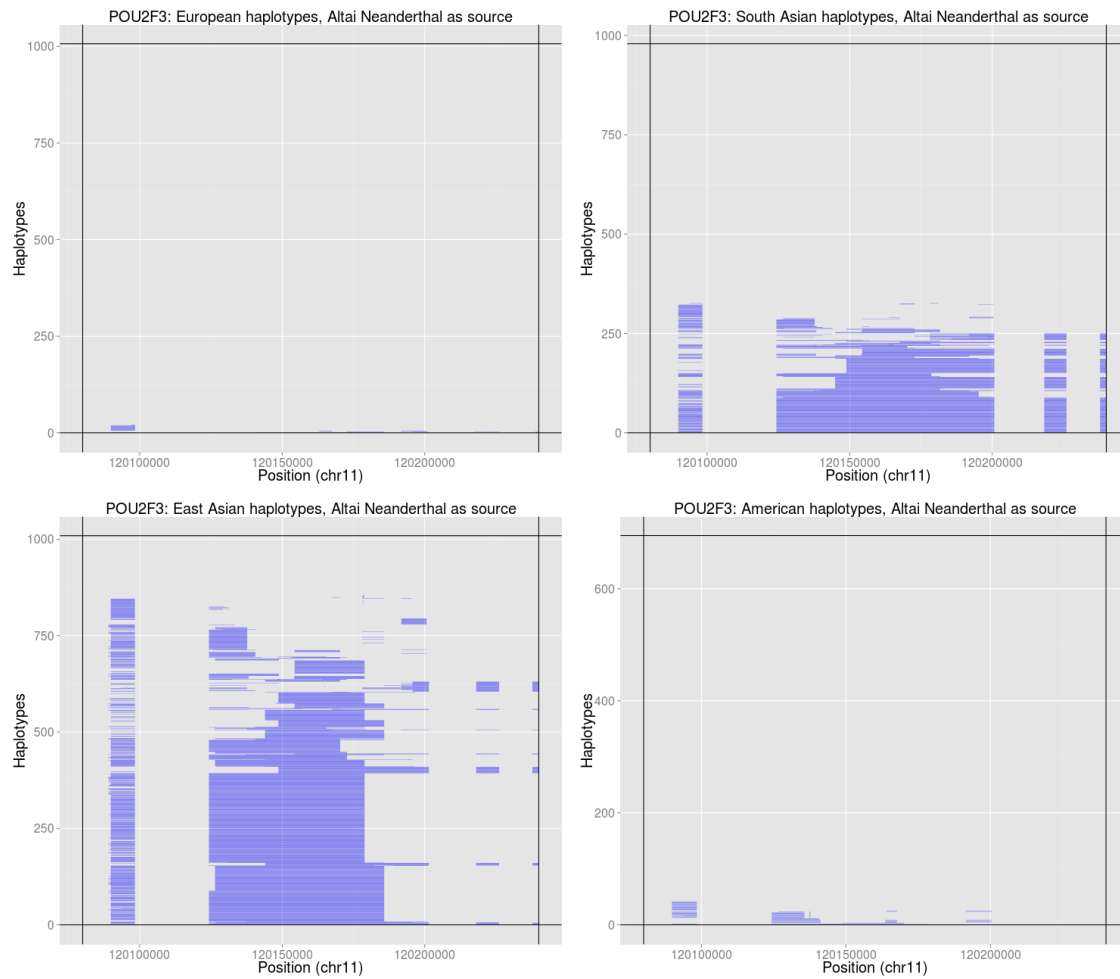


Figure S50: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *POU2F3* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

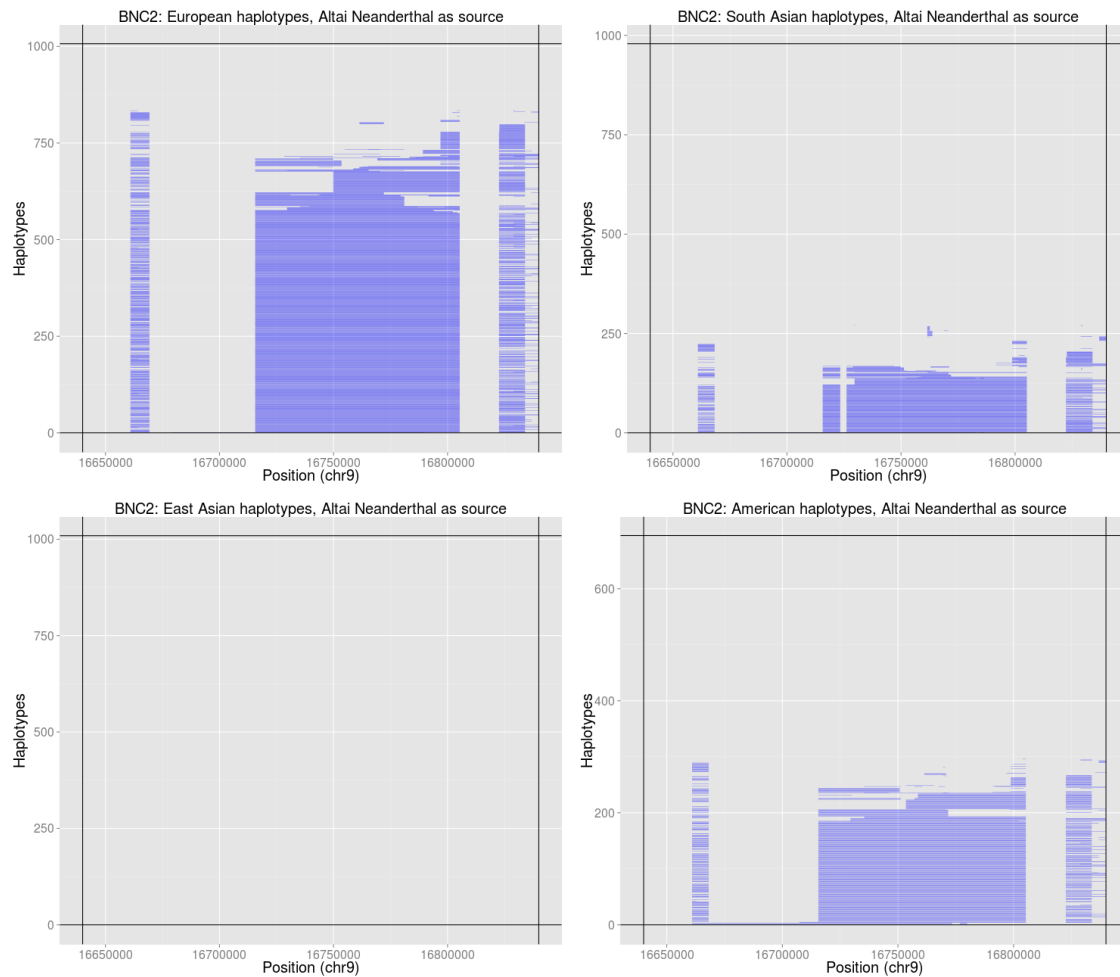


Figure S51: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *BNC2* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

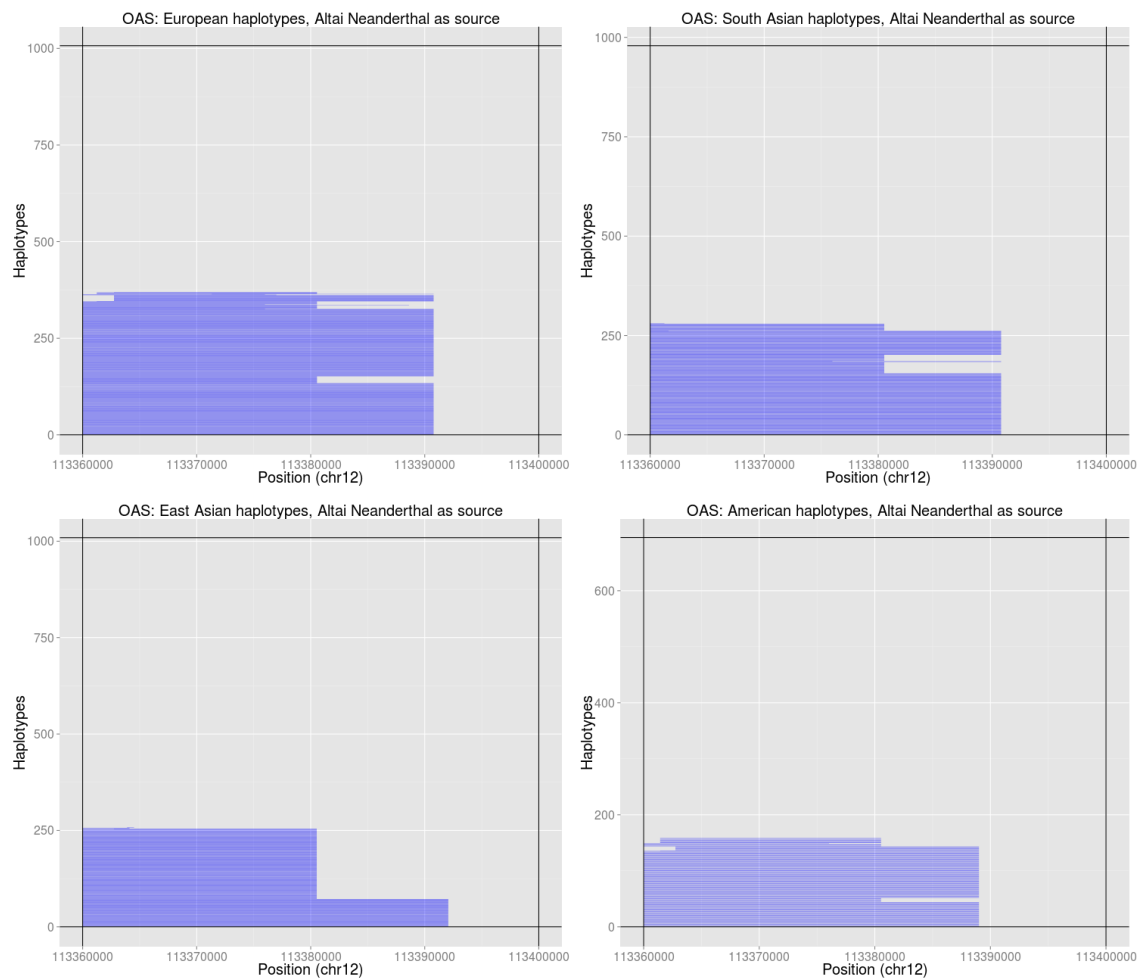


Figure S52: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *OAS* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

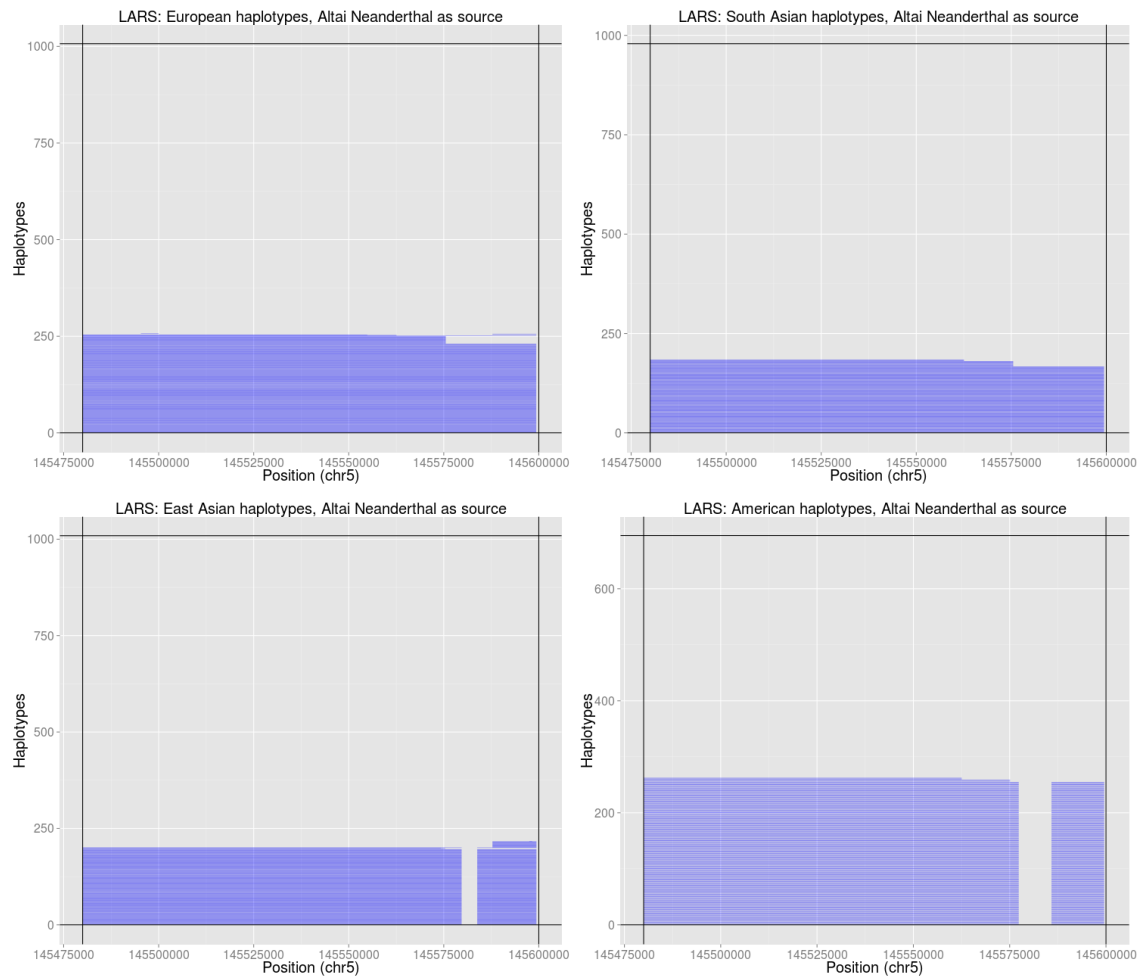


Figure S53: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *LARS* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

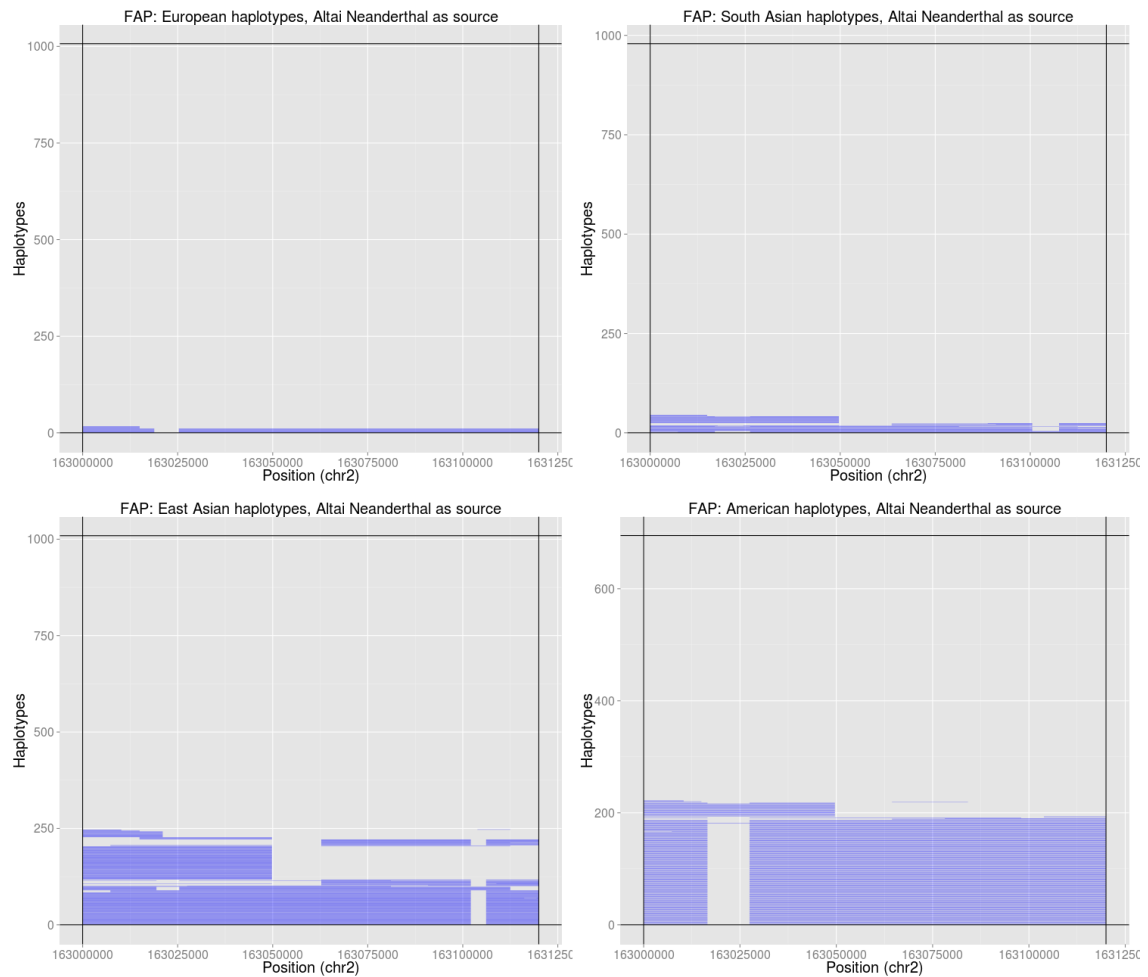


Figure S54: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *FAP/IFIH1* region, using the Altai Neanderthal as the archaic source.

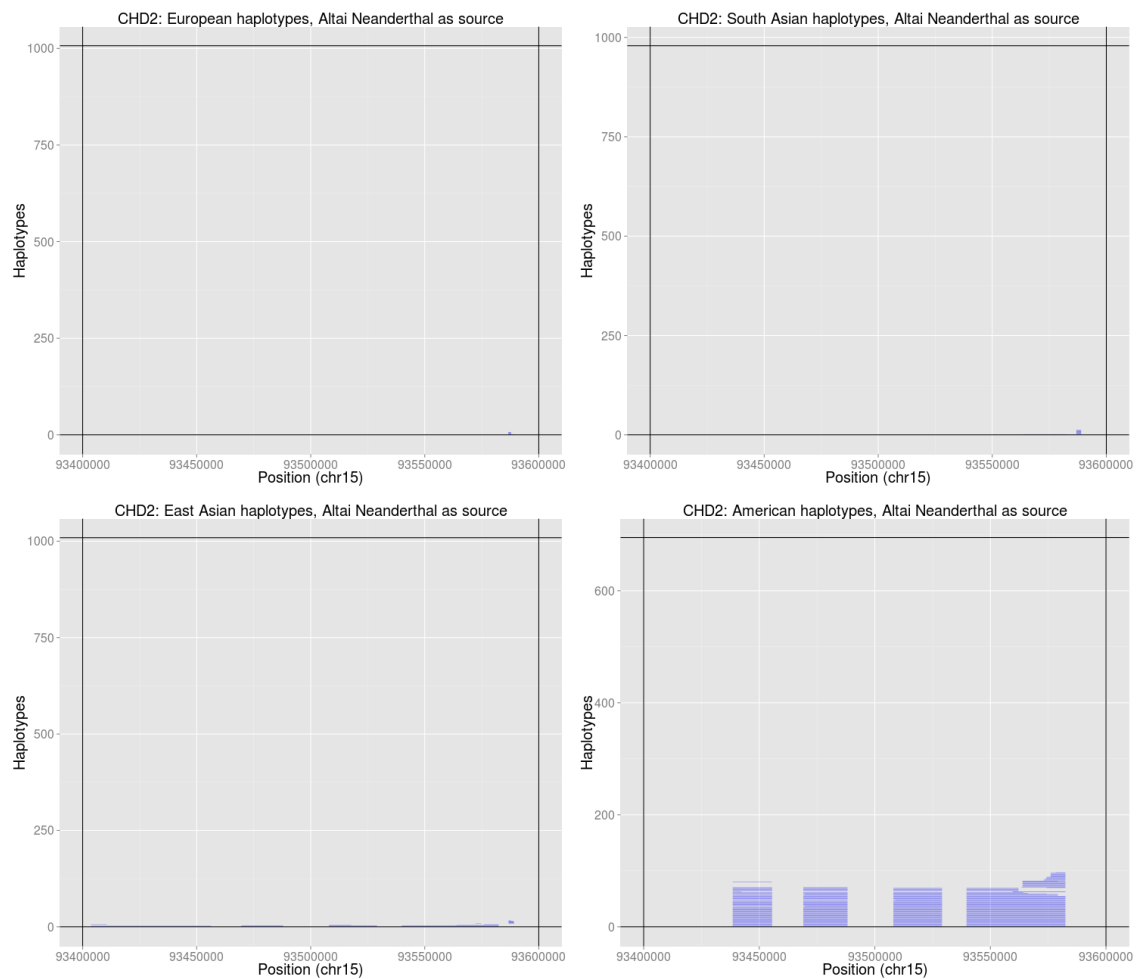


Figure S55: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *CHD2* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

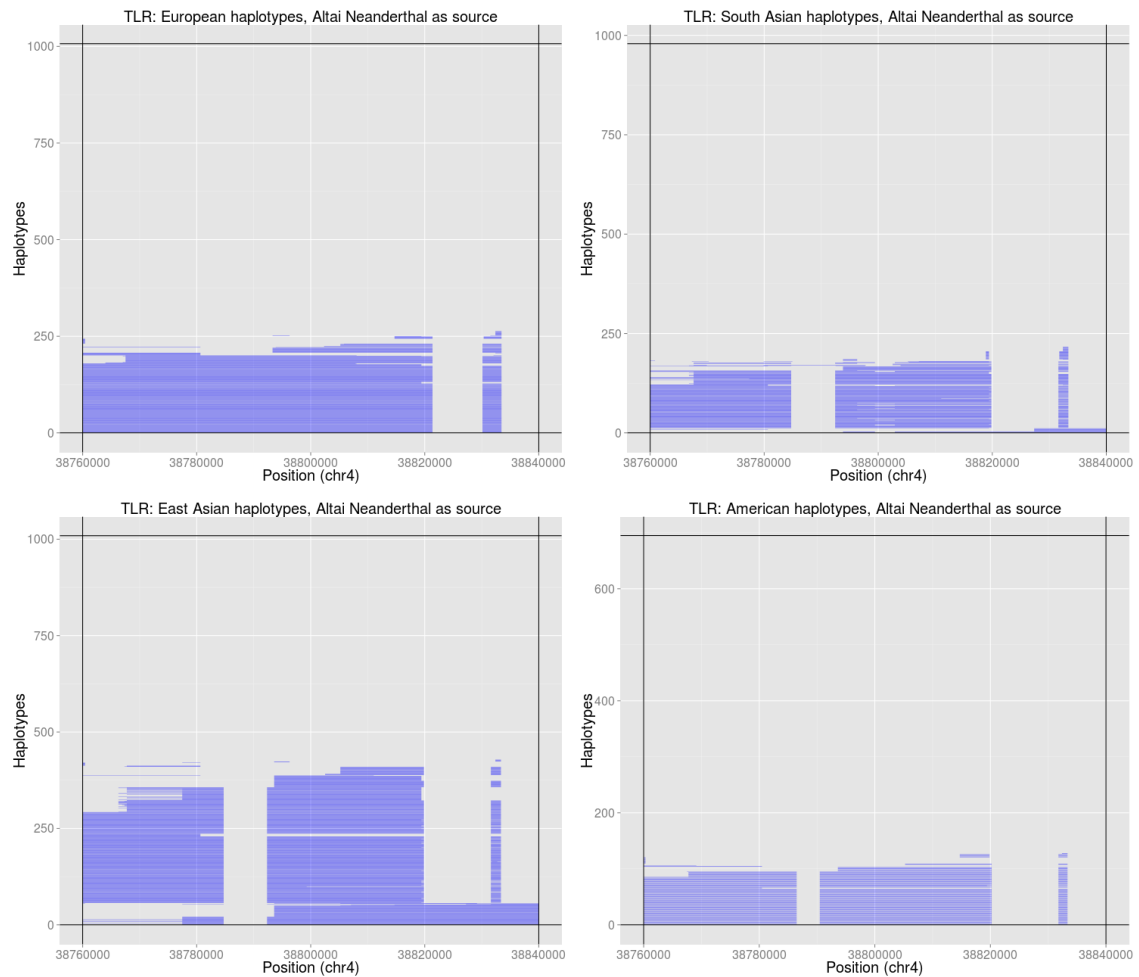


Figure S56: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *TLR1-6* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

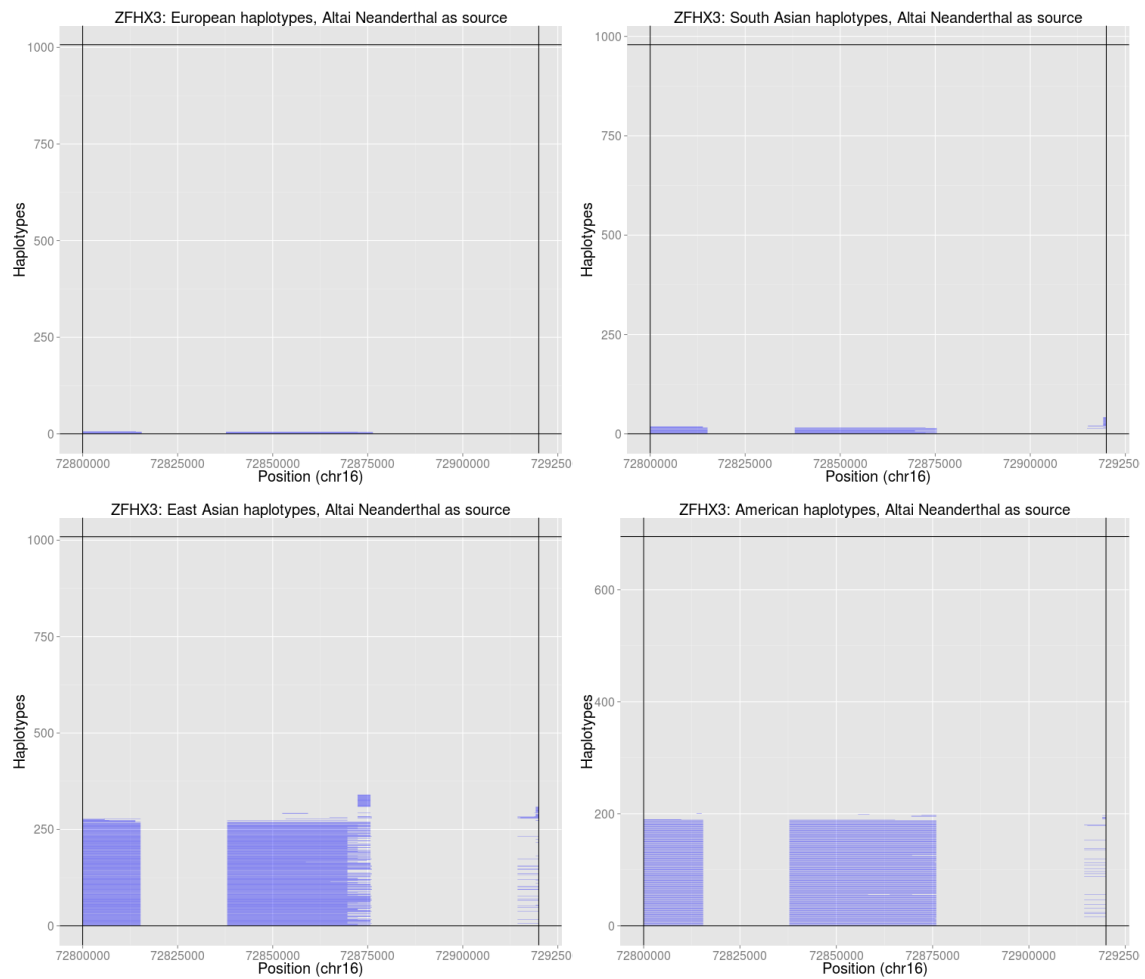


Figure S57: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *ZFX3* region, using the Altai Neanderthal genome as the archaic source.

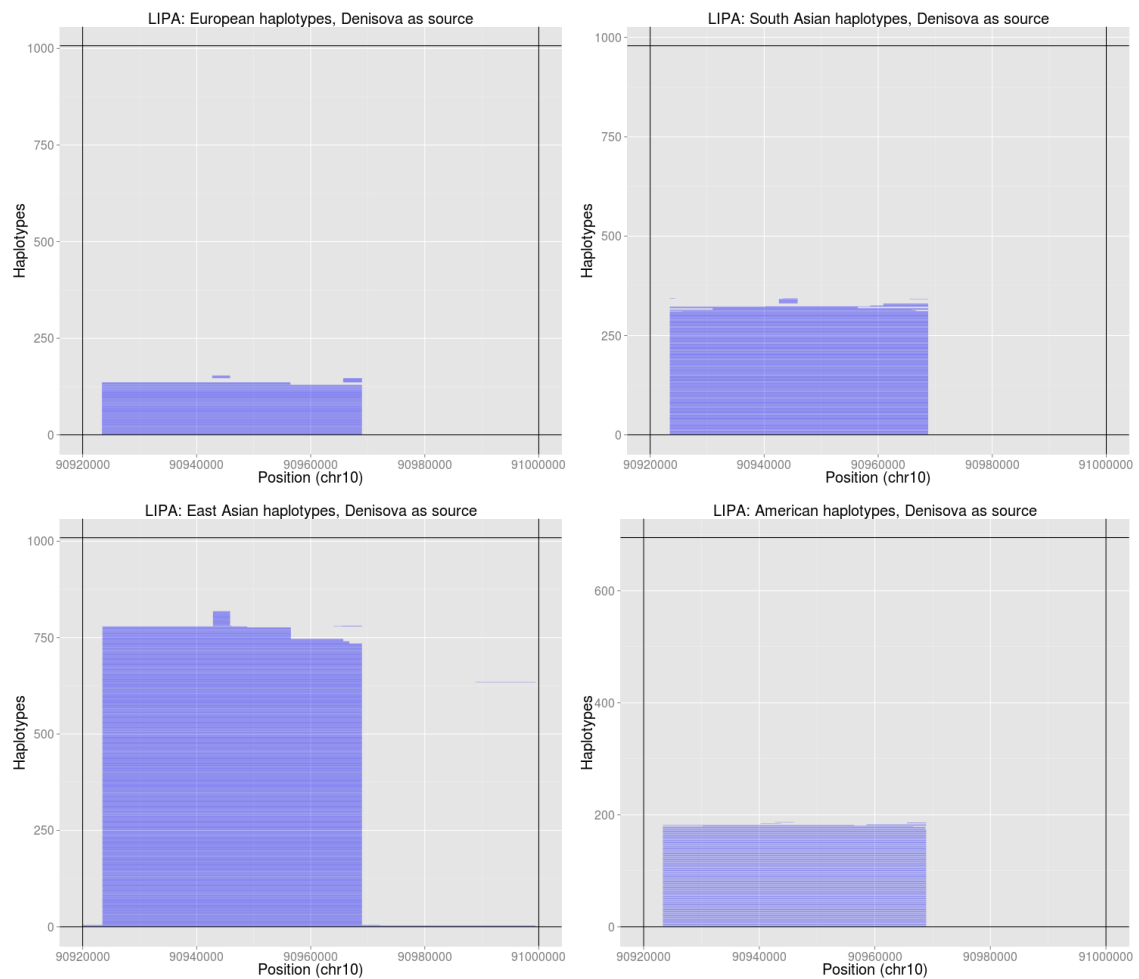


Figure S58: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *LIPA* region, using the Denisova genome as the archaic source.

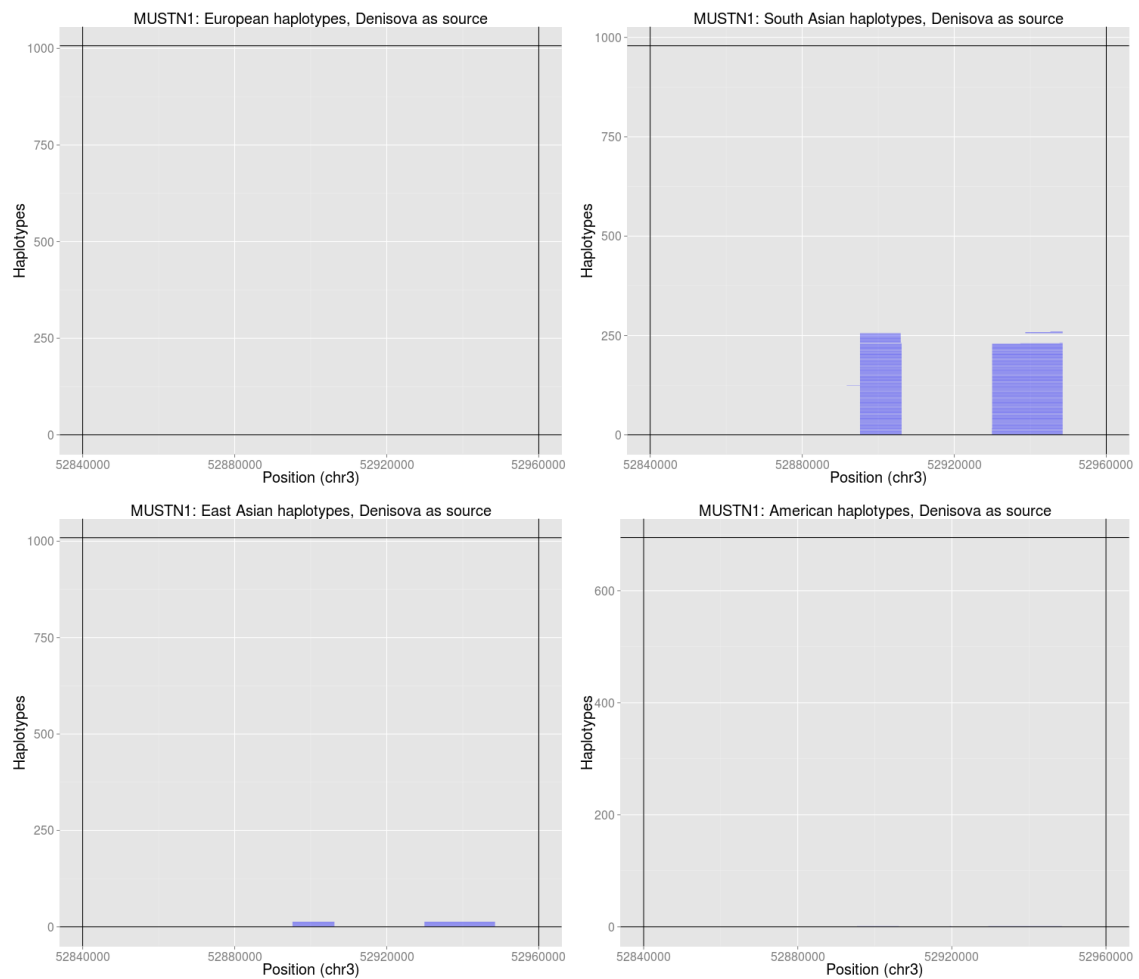


Figure S59: Introgressed tracks inferred in the four Non-African 1000 Genomes continental panels by an HMM [20] in the *MUSTN1* region, using the Denisova genome as the archaic source.