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Tracing the ancestry of modern bread wheats.

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ABSTRACT - For more than 10,000 years, the selection of plant and animal traits that are better tailored for human use has shaped the development of civilizations. During this period, bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum***) emerged as one of the world's most important crops. We used exome sequencing of a world-wide panel of almost 500 genotypes selected from across the geographical range of the wheat species complex to explore how 10,000 years of hybridization, selection, adaptation and plant breeding shaped the genetic makeup of modern bread wheats. We observed considerable genetic variations at the genic, chromosomal and subgenomic levels deciphering the likely origins of modern day wheats, the consequences of range expansion and allelic variants selected since its domestication. Our data supports a reconciled model of wheat evolution and provides novel avenues for future breeding improvement.**

INTRODUCTION - Bread wheat has an allo-hexaploid genome consisting of three closely related subgenomes (AABBDD). It is proposed to have originated from two polyploidization events, (*i*) a tetraploidization some 0.5 million years before present (ybp) from the hybridization between wild *Triticum urartu* Tumanian ex Gandilvan (AA) and an undiscovered species of the *Aegilops speltoides* Tausch lineage (BB), followed by (*ii*) a hexaploidization some 10,000 ybp as a result of hybridization between a descendant of this original tetraploid hybrid (AABB) and the wild diploid *Aegilops tauschii* (Coss) (DD)**¹** . Archaeobotanical evidence suggests that the

resulting allo-hexaploid wheats were domesticated in the Fertile Crescent, a region extending from Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria to South-East Turkey, to northern Iraq and western Iran **2-5** . Modern cultivated bread wheats are therefore the product of at least 10,000 years of human selection during domestication and cultivation (improvement and breeding). Today they comprise high-yielding varieties adapted to a wide range of environments ranging from low humidity regions in Nigeria, Australia, India, and Egypt to high humidity regions like South America**⁶** *.*

RESULTS - In order to explore the origins and patterns of genetic diversity that exist within the currently accessible wheat gene pool, we assembled a worldwide panel of 487 genotypes that included wild diploid and tetraploid relatives, domesticated tetraploid and hexaploid landraces, old cultivars and modern elite cultivars (Table S1). Mapping exome capture sequence data**⁷** from these lines onto the 'Chinese Spring' reference genome sequence (IWGSC**⁸**) revealed 620,158 genetic variants (including 595,939 SNPs and InDels between hexaploid genotypes) distributed across 41,032 physically ordered wheat genes (Table S2). Equivalent sequence coverage at the chromosome and homoeologous gene/region levels (medians within one standard deviation) excluded bias in the detection and calling of structural variants (Figure S1). Furthermore, correlation between gene and structural variant distribution (r>82%) across the three subgenomes, expected from exome capture experiment, supports the lack of bias in genic variants detection at the chromosome level with a visible gradient from distal gene-rich regions to pericentromeric gene-poor regions (Figure S2). Both individual subgenomes (with a B>A>>D gradient) and chromosome compartments (with a telomere>core>>centromere gradient) exhibited differences in their content of structural variation (Figure S3). In summary, our variant dataset provides a comprehensive overview of wheat genomic diversity at various scales (gene, region, chromosome and genome), and represent a rich source of genetic information for exploitation by both the academic and agricultural research communities (Figure 1, circles #1 to #3).

Phylogenetic and principle component analyses revealed three major factors driving the partitioning of diversity within our panel (Figure 2): vernalization requirement (winter *vs* spring), historical groups (groups I to IV, oldest to newest: old landraces to modern elite lines) and geographical origin (Europe, Asia, Oceania, Africa and America), Figure 2A and Figure S4. Among the 11 major tree clades chosen on the criteria of size, representativeness and statistical support, permutation tests for the conservation of clade monophyly significantly confirmed a strong grouping for all three dimensions (p-value<10e-6). However, the deep structure of the phylogeny is centered around continental difference, and subsequently more recent shifts in growth habit traits (such as vernalization requirement) resulting from intense selection for yield in modern wheat breeding practices. Superimposing both country and continent of origin onto the phylogenetic clusters suggests that the observed genetic diversity is mainly structured along an east-west axis consistent with established routes of human migration out of the Fertile Crescent. Two paths to Western Europe follow an inland (*via* Anatolia and the Balkans to Central Europe) and coastal (*via* Egypt to the Maghreb and Iberian Peninsula) route, complemented by two additional paths north-east and along the Inner Asian Mountain Corridor, followed by further colonization events in American, Oceanian, African territories (Figure 2B, Figure S5) **⁹** .

We next explored selection footprints resulting from domestication (comparing wild and domesticated wheats) and breeding (comparing historical bread wheat groups I to IV) using a sliding-window (as opposed to genecentric) approach to deciphering local reduction in diversity and taking into account the geographical structuring of the wheat panel (Figure 1 circles #4 and #5). For the detection of domestication signals, we computed the nucleotide diversity per site (Tajima's π) over non-overlapping 1 Mb sliding windows for wild diploid (*T. urartu*, *A. speltoides*, *A. tauschii*), wild tetraploid (*T. dicoccoides*) and the domesticated hexaploid (*T. aestivum*) wheats from Asia, where the previous diploid and tetraploid progenitors in our panel originated. Contrasts between wild wheat ancestors and hexaploid landraces support considerable heterogeneity in the reduction of diversity (RoD) during the domestication process along the wheat genome (Figure S6). Strongly affected genomic regions (1,221), showing a loss of at least four-fifths of the diversity (RoD>0.8, red dots in Fig 1 circle #5), cover 9.2% of the wheat genome (1.2 Gb). Known domestication genes conferring brittle rachis *(Brt)*, tenacious glume *(Tg)*, homoeologous pairing (*Ph*) and non-free-threshing character *(Q)* were identified within or in close (<5 Mb distance) proximity to these regions. Interestingly, known domestication genes only account for a minority of the observed peaks, suggesting that further domestication genes still need to be discovered (Table S3) **10-11** , as reported for other grass species such as maize¹².

To unravel regions targeted by breeders during the last centuries of wheat improvement, we compared the RoD statistics in the European panel within historical groups II, III and IV (*i.e.* those subject to breeding) to those of Group I (landraces), Figure 3A. Our results are consistent with two main rounds of diversity reduction, an initial wave between Groups I and II (11.7% of RoD), reflecting early breeding improvement, and a second wave between groups III and IV (13.3% of RoD) that followed the green revolution (*i.e*. renovation of agricultural practices starting between 1950 and the late 1960s). Modern wheat varieties showed an average loss of nucleotide diversity of 21.8% compared to those of Group I, with strong variation within and between chromosomes (Figure 3B). This appeared to be more intense on the A (median RoD =33.2%) and B (median RoD =28.0%) subgenomes compared

to the D subgenome (median $RoD = 5.8\%$), which may reflect their different contributions to wheat improvement (Figure 3A). To identify genetic markers/regions selected by wheat breeders, we performed a genome-wide scan across all samples using the individual-centric method PCAdapt**¹³** to take into account the graduated population structure within and between groups, and at a higher granularity among European and Asian samples separately (Figure S7). We identified 5,089 polymorphic sites exhibiting improvement signals (p-values < 0.0001, red dots in Fig 1 circle #4). Known genes including *Ppd* and *VRN* genes for photoperiod sensitivity and vernalization, *Rht* for reduced height, Glutenin and Gliadin genes involved in seed storage protein accumulation, *FZP* for Frizzy panicle, *GNS* for grain number, *Wx* for waxy as well as the *CUL* gene driving plant architecture, were located close (\leq 5 Mb distance) to these improvement signals (Table S3) $\frac{14 \cdot 17}{2}$. Large genomic regions (>10 Mb) where selection appears to have occurred during the last centuries (between historical groups I and IV) and eventually became fixed, were observed especially on chromosome 1A and the two most structurally re-arranged chromosomes 4A and 7B of the wheat genome (Figure 3B)**¹⁸**. Extending the 8,308 and 9,948 polymorphic sites associated to improvement footprints observed in the European and Asian genotypes over 2 Mb overlapping windows, defined a cumulative genomic space of 950 Mb (7% of the genome) and 1.3 Gb (10% of the genome) with selection signatures for the two geographical areas respectively. Interestingly, only 168 Mb (13 to 18% of the previous genomic space under selection) of the genomic regions harboring selection signatures are identical between the European and Asian germplasm, suggesting independent improvement targets from the two geographic origins (Figure S7).

We then tested whether the observed allelic variation could be linked to two key life-history traits, heading date (HD) and plant height (PH) by conducting multi-environment genome-wide association studies (GWAS), Figure 1 circles #6 and #7. We grew and evaluated 435 hexaploid bread wheat genotypes for heading date and plant height in four common garden experiments (partially replicated design) in France (INRA, Clermont-Ferrand), Hungary (ATK, Martonvasar), Turkey (University of Çukurova, Adana) and United Kingdom (KWS, Cambridge). A subset of 390,657 SNPs, stringently filtered for call rate (<0.80) and Minor Allele Frequency (MAF, >0.05) was used for GWAS. We identified 48 and 40 genomic sites significantly associated (p-values of 0.01 and 0.05 FDR significance thresholds) with variation in HD (Figure S8, Table S4) and PH (Figure S9, Table S5) respectively, including regions (<15 Mb) containing known (*Ppd*, *VNR, FDL*, *WPCL* for HD and *Rht* for PH)**¹⁹** and unknown genes. The current data provide the basis for identifying relevant candidate genes in the previous anonymous detected loci for functional validation, as exemplified for the major HD association detected on the chromosome 2A where *Cry* (Cryptochrome) is putative driver (Figure S8). Notably, diversity, selection footprint and GWAS analyses clearly showed that only a small fraction of homoeologous loci harbour coincident signals, supporting the view that modern hexaploid bread wheats behave genetically as diploids, as previously suggested from the convergent pattern of (also referenced as parallel advantageous) selection shown to be rare between homoeologous regions 14 .

Finally, we implemented a network-based phylogenetic approach²⁰⁻²¹ involving the inference of 1,000 trees from repeated random haplotype samples (RRHS) with maximum likelihood, subsequent graph reconstruction analysis and community clustering to reconstruct the reticulated evolutionary history of modern hexaploid bread wheats from their di- and tetraploid progenitors. The resulting clustered consensus network (Figure 4A) comprises signals of vertical (species relationships) and horizontal (reticulation) events within the *Triticum*-*Aegilops* species complex. The intermediate positioning in network of synthetic polyploid wheats (*i.e* synthetic *T. turgidum* deriving from T. durum x *T. dicoccoides* and synthetic *T. aestivum* deriving from. *T. durum* x *A. tauschii*) between their direct progenitors validate the robustness of our phylogenetic inference of the entire wheat panel (Figure 4A, Figure S10). An integrative model of wheat evolution (Figure 4B) was derived from the combined conclusions drawn from the in-depth analysis of the networks' edges and edge weights**20-21** (Figure 4A, Figure S10), and supported through the evaluation of alternative consensus tree topologies²² (Figure S11) and gene flow tests using Patterson's D statistic²³ (Figure S12). For example, we were able to reconstruct, at the subgenome level, the introgressions at the basis of modern synthetic *T. turgidum (*F7 RIL offsprings) polyploids mentioned earlier and detected as hybrids (Figures S10-S11-S12) by all methods with dominant *T. dicoccoides* genotypes and multiple independent *T. durum* introgressions²⁴, illustrating the resolution gained for such combination of complementary approaches.

Our proposed model (Figure 4B) largely refines the widely accepted evolutionary path leading to modern bread wheat with the hybridization of wild diploid AA and SS (close to BB) genotypes leading to wild tetraploid AABB progenitors, which subsequently hybridized with a wild diploid DD genotype resulting in the hexaploid *T. aestivum* (AADDBB) lineage**²⁴** . In our analysis, the wheat B genome is confirmed to be derived from the *Aegilops* section *Sitopsis* lineage, which gave rise to *A. speltoides* (SS), while the progenitors of *A. tauschii* and *T. urartu* represent the established origins of the D and A genome lineages, respectively²⁵. *T. araraticum* (also referenced as *T. araraticum* Jakubz) represents the closest wild descendant of the AAGG tetraploid genome ancestor. It appears to have been subsequently domesticated to form *T. timopheevii* (Zhuk.) Zhuk while also hybridizing with *T. boeoticum* leading to the hexaploid *T. zhukovshyi* (Menabde & Ericzjan) lineage (AAAAGG)^{26,27}. The model confirms wild emmer (*T. dicoccoides*) as the closest descendant of the progenitor of the modern A and B wheat subgenomes of all the modern tetraploid AABB and hexaploid AABBDD genotypes. Our data suggest that during the early phase of domestication and cultivation, a pool of wild emmer wheat *T. diccocoides* (Körn. ex Asch. & Graebner) Schweinf. gave rise to at least two distinct lineages of domesticated tetraploids, *T. dicoccum* Schrank ex Schübl. (domesticated emmer, also known as *T. dicoccon* Schrank) and *T. durum* Desf. (domesticated durum or hard or pasta wheat)**28,29** . Finally, the model supports *T. aestivum* as being most likely derived from an ancestral hybridization event between the previous *T. durum***³⁰** lineage and a D lineage close to wild *A. tauschii***³¹** (Figure 4B, Figure S11). Subsequently, *T. spelta* emerged from the hybridization between the hexaploid *T. aestivum* and the tetraploid *T. dicoccum,* and still harbors evidence of *T. dicoccum* introgressions today (Figure S12). Additional putative reticulation events (Figure S12), supported only by either of the three analytical approaches (network, tree, Patterson's D) need further investigation and were not integrated in our evolutionary model (Figure 4B). Such a reticulated evolutionary scenario would first have led to a founder hexaploid bread wheat gene pool (*α* community, Figure 4A) that was established during and following domestication. This would likely have consisted of primitive wheat landraces originating in the Fertile Crescent, leading to two (*β* and γ) derived communities of hexaploids (Figure 4A, Figure S13). While the γ cluster is enriched for modern genotypes from Western Europe (*i.e*. lines originating from 1986 or later, mostly comprising wheat cultivars and current varieties), the β cluster is enriched for Eastern Europe countries formerly part of the Warsaw Pact from May 1955, during the Cold War. The clear separation in evolutionary phylogeny between these two modern pools (β and γ) may reflect how human history and resulting socioeconomic consequences have influenced the genetic makeup of modern wheat germplasm, with β genotypes still grown in Hungary and Ukraine today, while γ genotypes still dominate many parts of the European Union.

CONCLUSION - Bread wheat derives from a reticulated evolution from its di- and tetraploid progenitors involving massive and recurrent hybridization and gene flow events with the *T. durum* lineage being the most likely ancestor of today's bread wheat cultivated germplasm. Such a complex history of hybridizations and gene flows explains the observed partitioning of diversity at the genomic scale (impoverished on the D subgenome) and supports the view that modern hexaploid bread wheats behave genetically as diploids with compartmentalized selective footprints, as well as trait loci, with only a small fraction of homoeologous loci harbouring domestication and/or breeding sweeps or influencing defined phenotypic traits showing coincident signals. Modern bread wheat originated in the Fertile Crescent some 10,000 ybp and the variation observed in the genepool today has been shaped during domestication by human migration, anthropogenic selection and latterly by breeding. Associations identified between diversity and both known and novel genes influencing plant height and flowering time demonstrate the potential value of our panel for both fundamental and applied studies. Importantly, the hallmarks of adaptation to new environments remain highly topical research subjects during a period of accelerated climate change and both our selective sweep analyses and GWAS highlight targets for future gene and/or allele discovery. The combined data and germplasm collection we report here and made available to the broader research community represents a rich source of genetic diversity that should find application in understanding and improving diverse traits, from environmental adaptation to disease resistance and nutrient use efficiency.

METHODS - Methods, including statements of data availability and any associated genotype codes and references, are available in the online version of the paper.

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Figure 1: Wheat genome diversity map. Genome heat maps illustrating (from outer to inner circles) the density in genes (\bullet), SNPs (\bullet), InDels (\bullet), genome scan for improvement among European genotypes (\bullet), reduction of diversity during the domestication between wild tetraploids *vs* domesticated hexaploids for subgenomes A and B and between wild diploids *vs* domesticated hexaploids for subgenome D (Θ), as well as GWAS for heading date (HD, \odot), plant height (PH, \odot) on the 21 chromosomes (from 1A to 7D) illustrated in circles, with the three subgenomes (A, B and D). Homoeologous genes are joined with colored lines between chromosomes in the center (\odot). The three outer circles show centromeres (grey blocks) and telomeres (blue blocks).

Figure 2: Geographical components of the panel structure. A- Phylogenetic tree of the hexaploid bread wheat genotypes with a color code (right) in pie charts illuminating their geographical origins (see the associated map in panel B), historical groups (I to IV) and growth habit (winter, spring, alternative, and facultative) for each of the 11 major tree clades. **B**- Phylogenetic relationships between geographical origins (see color legend in panel A) are shown with colored connecting lines illustrating tree edges corresponding to a mean of at least 1 transition per simulation and illuminating the known historical routes of wheat migration, out of the Fertile Crescent (green connecting lines), west through inland (\bullet) and coastal (\bullet) paths, and north-east (\bullet) and along the Inner Asian Mountain Corridor (\odot) followed by further colonization (black connecting lines) of American (\odot), African (\odot), Oceanian \odot territories.

Figure 3: Temporal evolution of wheat diversity. **A-** Nucleotide diversity (y-axis) from the hexaploid wheat genotypes (x-axis) between subgenomes (A, B and D) and historical groups (landraces, old cultivars, cultivars and modern varieties) covering the last centuries of breeding (*cf* timescale legend in the white box). **B**- Chromosomal distribution of nucleotide diversity between landraces (group I) and modern wheats (group IV, dots) with bars illustrating the range of variation in diversity between these two groups (colored in red for ROD≥80%). Large regions of reduced diversity are shown in grey boxes.

Figure 4: Model of reticulated evolution. **A-** Clustered phylogenetic consensus genotype network of 1000 maximum likelihood tree topologies inferred from repeated random haplotype samples (RRHS). Nodes represent individual genotypes and are color-coded by taxon. Node size is proportional to the number of connections (*i.e*. node degree). Edges represent minimal evolutionary distances in the RRHS trees deduced by the minimal spanning tree (MST) algorithm and are color-coded by the respective subgenome (green: A; purple: B; orange: D). Edge transparency is proportional to the relative number of RRHS trees were the edge was an MST edge (*i.e*. edge weight). **B**- Hexaploid bread wheat evolutionary scenario based on the stronger edges of the subgenomes phylogenetic networks (extracted using a minimum spanning tree available in Figure S11) with green, purple and yellow brown columns illustrating respectively the path from the A, B and D subgenomes with the species-centered color-code used in panel A. Arrow colors illustrate the phylogenetic relatedness between subgenomes (plain arrows are indicative of the main, vertical signal; and dashed arrows show alternative path well supported by the inferred topologies and indicative of introgression or gene flow). Circles illuminate putative extinct ancestor intermediates. Additional *Sitopsis* species (white framed grey boxes) were not part of this study, but are included for completeness.

ONLINE METHODS

Plant material - The wheat panel consists of 487 genotypes comprising 13 diploid, 38 (including 25 AABB) tetraploid and 436 (including 435 AABBDD) hexaploid genotypes including landraces, cultivars and currently grown varieties from 68 countries. For a detailed description of all lines/varieties used in this study see Table S1 and **passport** information available at a https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_G WAS.zip. The genotypes were structured into four historical groups: landraces (group I, <1935), old cultivars (group II from 1936 to 1965), cultivars (group III, from 1966 to 1985) and modern varieties (group IV, >1986). The genotypes have been grouped according to their country of origins with Tk: Turkmenia; Af: Afghanistan; Ar: Armenia; Az: Azerbaijan; Ch: China; Ko: Korea; In: India; Ir: Iran; Is: Israel; Ja: Japan; Le: Lebanon; Ne: Nepal; Pa: Pakistan; Sy: Syria; Ta: Tajikistan; Tu: Turkey; Ru: Russia; Au: Australia; Nz: New Zealand; Al: Albania; As: Austria; Be: Belgium; Bu: Bulgaria; Cr: Croatia; Cz: Czech republic; Dn: Denmark; Fi: Finland; Fr: France; Go: Georgia; Ge: Germany; Gr: Greece; Hu: Hungary; It: Italy; La: Latvia; Po: Poland; Pr: Portugal; Ro: Romania; Sp: Spain; Sw: Sweden; Sz: Switzerland; Nt: Netherlands; Ur: Ukraine; Uk: United Kingdom; Fyrm: Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia; Al: Algeria; Eg: Egypt; Et: Ethiopia; Ke: Kenia; Mo: Morocco; Ni: Niger; Sa: South Africa; Tn: Tunisia; Zi: Zimbabwe; Ag: Argentina; Br: Brazil; Ca: Canada; Co: Colombia; Me: Mexico; Ur: Uruguay; Usa: United States of America. The genotypes have been finally grouped according to their region/continent of origins with Fertile Crescent (Ir, Is, Le, Sy, Tu), Central Asia (Af, Ar, Az, Go, Pa, Ta, Tk), Eastern Asia (Ch, Ja, Ko), Northern Asia (Ru), Central Europe (Al, Bu, Cr, Cz, Fi, Hu, La, Po, Ro, Ur, Fyrm**),** Southern Europe (Gr, It, Pr, Sp), Western Europe (As, Be, Dn, Fr, Ge, Sw, Sz, Nt, Uk), Indian Peninsula (In, Ne), Northern Africa (Al, Eg, Mo, Tn), Sub-Saharan Africa (Et, Ke, Ni, Sa, Zi), South America (Ag, Br, Co, Ur), North America (Ca, Me, Usa), Oceania (Au, Nz).

Exome sequencing - As the large wheat genome consists of $>80\%$ mobile and repeated elements, whole-genome resequencing is a cost-intensive and likely highly error-prone approach to comprehensively catalogue genetic diversity. To circumvent this limitation, we used a wheat exome-based target enrichment sequencing assay to capture variation in and around the gene-containing regions of 487 wheat genotypes. We selected Roche's Nimblegen SeqCap EZ wheat exome design (120426_Wheat_WEC_D02), https://sequencing.roche.com/en/products-solutions/by-category/target-enrichment/shareddesigns.html. This is a design comprising 106.9Mb of low copy regions of the wheat genome developed by the Wheat Exome consortium^{7,14}. To optimize the cost, we used a multiplex of six individually barcoded accession DNAs, combined prior to capture. Captured DNA were sequenced as paired ends (2x125bp) on Illumina HiSeq instruments using HiSeq2500 high output mode. Genomic DNA (gDNA) samples were checked using the PerkinElmer DropSense in order to verify gDNA integrity. Samples were quantified by Picogreen assay and normalized to 20 ng/ul in 10 nM Tris-Hcl (pH 8.0) as suggested in the NimbleGen SeCap EZ Library SR protocol. The gDNA was fragmented at the mean fragment size of 350 bp and whole genome libraries were prepared according to the Kapa Library Preparation protocol and quantified by Nanodrop. Six libraries were pooled and used for the hybridization with the SegCap Ez oligo pool (Design Name: 120426 Wheat WEC D02) in a thermocycler at 47°C for 72 h. Capture beads were used to pull down the complex of capture oligos and genomic DNA fragments and unbound fragments were removed by washing. Enriched fragments were amplified by PCR and the final library was quantified by qPCR and visualized by Agilent Bioanalyser. Sequencing libraries were normalized to 2nM, NaOH denatured and used for cluster amplification on the cBot. The clustered flow cells were sequenced on Illumina HiSeq2500 high output mode with a 6-plex strategy (*i.e.* 6 samples per HiSeq lane) with a 125 bp paired-end run module. Exome capture (Nimblegen) and next generation sequencing (Illumina) delivered on average 34 million read pairs per genotype.

Variant (SNPs, InDels) calling – Raw reads were mapped to the hexaploid Chinese Spring reference sequence v1.0 using the 'mem' subcommand of BWA (version 0.7.12, http://bio-bwa.sourceforge.net/). Samtools (version 1.3, http://samtools.sourceforge.net/; http://www.htslib.org/) was used to mark duplicate reads. Variants were called using samtools/bcftools (version 1.3) and filtered for overlap to exonic regions $(+/- 1$ Kbp) based on the current IWGSC genome annotation v1.0. Genotypes were subsequently filtered for a minimum sequencing depth (DP) of 3 and a genotype quality (GQ) of at least 10. Two sets of genotype calls from experiments with Axiom 35k and iSelect 80k SNP arrays (details from CerealsDB, http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/) with a total of 38 genotypes in common between either of those sets and the exome capture were used to approximate optimal filter criteria leading to the lowest false discovery rate (FDR). Variant positions were removed if the total count of samples with defined genotype (e.g. not missing) was below 10 or the minor allele frequency was below 1% to derive the initial set of variants. This set was further subjected to imputation using beagle (default parameters) and the output was again analyzed for false discovery rate by comparison to iSelect genotype information. Based on this evaluation, the optimal trade-off between FDR, number of variants and missing values was considered to be 0.6 for genotype probability (GP, estimated by beagle) and 4% minor allele frequency (MAF, after imputation) and the final imputed variant dataset was generated applying these criteria. We detected 620,158 small-scale

variant positions on to the IWGSC Refseqv1.0 wheat genome assembly (targeting 41,032 of the 110,790 high confidence HC genes). The variants comprised 56,163 Indels (9%) and 563,995 SNPs (91%). 595,939 of the variants (96%) were found in the 435 AABBDD hexaploid genotypes (Table S2).

Phylogenetic analysis - *Hexaploids phylogeny***-** The analysis of phylogeny for the 435 hexaploid bread wheat was inferred on an alignment of 91,554 SNPs (for a total of 65,467 distinct alignment patterns) found on triplets (2,855) of orthologous genes conserved in all three subgenomes A, B and D. The data was analyzed with iqtreeX**²⁰** (GTR+GAMMA(4) model), with 1,000 ultrafast bootstraps**³²** . Geographical regions for ancestral nodes were reconstructed using the following protocol: 10,000 simulations were performed using the stochastic mapping algorithm of the R phytools package**³³** (using the equal rates model), the region of a node was then chosen as the one with maximum sampled frequency. Eleven major tree clades were identified based on criterion of size, representativeness and statistical support to offer a good coverage of the tree, while taking into account sampling bias for European individuals. *Di-Tetra-Hexaploids phylogeny***-** To account for ambiguities and possible biases in phylogenetic inference from SNP data arising from varying levels of heterozygosity, linkage disequilibrium (LD), incomplete lineage sorting and reticulate evolution, we implemented a network-based approach to reconstruct the species history and community structure in the sampled *Triticeae* genotypes. To this end, we stringently filtered biallelic, polymorphic SNPs present in >90% of the genotypes from non-imputed data accounting for LD (delivering 15,490 filtered SNPs) and implemented a repeated random haplotype sampling procedure including heterozygous sites (RRHS²¹) to infer 1,000 maximum likelihood tree topologies with the ASC GTRGAMMA model and JC69 distances in RAxML (asc-corr=felsenstein). While these RRHS trees were analyzed also in the form of conventional consensus topologies and densitree visualizations, to infer taxonomic clades, we analyzed the evolutionary distances among the tips of the 1,000 trees using the minimum spanning tree (MST) algorithm in Python. The MST graphs were subsequently combined into a weighted, phylogenetic consensus network whose nodes were clustered into clades using the Newman-Girvan Edge-Betweenness algorithm in Cytoscape 3.6**³⁴** . The clustered network topology was plotted considering edge-betweeness in Cytoscape and taxonomic clades were inferred by intersection of community clusters with taxon information which was annotated using the AutoAnnotate plugin³⁴. The relative number of RRHS trees where a respective edge was selected by the MST algorithm were used as edge weights and were interpreted similar to bootstrap support values in the consensus tree topologies. The composition, geographical and historical origins of the identified wheat communities were analyzed using χ^2 tests and barplots in R. Gene flow in subgenomes A and B was investigated with the Patterson's D statistic (or ABBA-BABA statistic) using ANGSD³⁵ with a threshold of Z statistic $> 4^{36}$. An integrative model (Figure 4B) of wheat evolution was built by manual consolidation of the support values of the edges in the phylogenetic consensus network (Figure S10 and table S7), the various consensus and IUPAC tree topologies (Figure S11), the ABBA-BABBA results (Figure S12) as well as the literature. Where species relationships remained ambiguous on the sole basis of the network approach, *i.e.* when similar phylogenetic relatedness between groups of genotypes defines several possible evolutionary paths between putative progenitors and descendants, we then considered the results of the ABBA-BABA statistical test (Figure S12 as well as Table S6), and the existing literature when available. The Figure 4B only reports the reticulation events identified on the basis of phylogenetic consensus networks supported by the ABBA-BABA analysis in both the A and B subgenomes.

Diversity analysis & selection footprints – *Improvement*- Genome scans for selection among the hexaploid samples were performed under PCAdapt¹³, an individual-based method of genome scan able to handle massive NGS data. Given that PCAdapt is based on principal components, this method does not require any partitioning of the dataset in different groups and can therefore be applied on continuous pattern of population structure. This method is therefore conceptually robust to any source of errors associated with the boundaries of these groups and can take into account the gradual variation among all individuals of the improvement continuum (*i.e.* time serieslike data). For each dataset, selection of the best number of principal components (K) was performed after a first assessment of the percentage of variance explained by 20 principal components. Analyses were performed assuming K=4 for the whole dataset and K=3 for both European and Asian datasets. Computations were run under R version 3.4.3. Candidate genes for improvement are either associated with highly significant p-values or considered in close vicinity (0 to 5 Mb) to loci with domestication signatures (Table S3). Tajima's π and D was computed over 1 Mb non-overlapping sliding windows using seq-stat on European genotypes to take into account the strong signal of intercontinental genetic signatures. To perform this analysis, we took into account the number of sites covered by reads aligned to the reference. All sites with a total depth of coverage greater than 1,461 (*i.e.* at least 3 reads per individual on average) were considered as covered. A ROD (reduction of diversity) index was then estimated for each 1 Mb window by comparing diversity of each group (II, III or IV) to "Landraces" (Group I) as following: $1 - (\pi \text{Group}/\pi \text{Landraces})$. To further explore population structure, principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed with the R package FactoMineR**³⁷** . Signatures of improvement were detected for loci associated with a pvalue < 0.0001 , *i.e.* a -log₁₀-transformed p-value >4 . *Domestication*- Similarly, domestication signatures were identified using differences in Tajima's π between diploid, tetraploid and hexaploid genotypes by computing the ROD index over 1Mb windows. Signatures of domestication were detected for regions associated with ROD >0.8. Candidate genes for domestication were considered in close vicinity (0 to 5 Mb) to loci with

domestication signature (Table S3). Visualization were performed with R **³⁸** packages such as graphics, stats, circlize and edextend**39-42** . To further explore population structure, principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed with the R package FactoMineR**⁴³** .

Field experiments and GWAS - These analyses focused on 435 hexaploid wheat genotypes evaluated for heading date and plant height in four common garden experiments in France (INRA, Clermont-Ferrand), Hungary (ATK, Martonvasar), Turkey (University of Çukurova, Adana) and United Kingdom (KWS, Cambridge). Trials were grown under an augmented partially-replicated design with 20% of the genotypes replicated twice and two check cultivars assigned uniformly to eight plots. Raw data were corrected for spatial heterogeneity using replicated controls and the SpATS package in R**⁴⁴** . After filtering out SNPs with Call Rate <0.80 and Minor Allele Frequency (MAF) <0.05, a final set of 390,657 SNPs were used for subsequent analysis. Finally, circular genome maps were drawn under the R package circlize**⁴⁵** . A chromosome-specific kinship matrix was calculated using 1,000 SNPs sampled at random from each chromosome. In this chromosome-specific kinship, A^{AB} , is the realized additive genetic relationship matrix calculated from all molecular markers along the whole genome, except those in the chromosome being tested⁴⁶. For example, to test SNPs in chromosome 1A, A^{AB} was calculated with SNPs sampled from all chromosomes, except those from $1A$. A^{AB} was calculated following the equation proposed by Astle and Balding**⁴⁷** , with as typical entry for the relationship between genotypes *i* and *j*:

$$
A_{ij}^{AB} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{(x_{ik} - 2p_k)(x_{jk} - 2p_k)}{2p_k(1 - p_k)}
$$
(1)

where x_{ik} is a marker score indicating the allele count for the minor frequency allele (2, 1, 0) for genotype *i* at marker k , and p_k is the corresponding allele frequency. The matrix above was calculated using the "realizedAB" option in the "kin" function of the Synbreed package**⁴⁸** .

A multi-environment mixed model GWAS analysis was performed analogous to the method described by Millet et al.**⁴⁹** and Thoen et al.**⁵⁰** . Correction for population structure and kinship was done on the basis of eigen vectors ("principal components") extracted from the chromosome specific Astle and Balding kinship matrices, A^{AB} . The number of significant principal components was calculated following Patterson⁵¹. We scanned the genome with the following single locus model:

$$
y_{ij} = \mu + E_j + \sum_{p=1}^{P} (x_{ip}^{PC} \beta_p^C) + G_i + \sum_{p=1}^{P} (x_{ip}^{PC} \beta_{jp}^{GE}) + x_i^{SNP} \beta_j^{SNP} + G E_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}
$$
(2)

In Equation (2), μ is an intercept term, E_j the fixed environmental main effect x_{ip}^{PC} stands for the genotype specific scores on the *p*-th kinship principal component, with $p=1...P$, and β_p^G and β_{jp}^{GE} are the corresponding fixed regression coefficients for these principal components correcting for population structure with respect to the genotype main effect and the GxE interaction, respectively. β_j^{SNP} is a term for the fixed SNP effect, while x_i^{SNP} contains the marker information. This means that fitted QTLs are allowed to have an environment specific effect, or, that at each marker position, QTLs model main effect and a QTLxE term simultaneously. The test for β_j^{SNP} being zero in all environments or being non zero in at least one environment was a Wald test^{52,53}. G_i is a random genotypic main effect, GE_{ij} is a random genotype by environment interaction. The random terms for G_i and GE_{ij} have variances V_G and V_{GE} , that were restricted to be positive. The error term ε_{ij} is environment-specific and was confounded with the GE_{ij} term. The model was fitted in ASREML-R (VSN-International, 2016). Genomic control was applied a posteriori to correct for inflation⁵⁴.

The genome-wide significance threshold with multiple testing correction was calculated following the method proposed⁵⁵. For each chromosome, the correlation matrix for the SNPs was calculated. Then, the effective number of independent tests per chromosome was estimated from the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix. The effective number of independent tests was summed across chromosomes (M_{eff}) and the significance threshold for individual markers was calculated as $\alpha_p = 1 - (1 - \alpha_e)^{1/M_{eff}}$, where the genome wide test level was $\alpha_e = 0.05$.

Data availability. All data analyzed and generated during this study are included in this published article and its supplementary information files (6 tables and 13 figures) and are available online at https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_G WAS.zip (Catalog of imputed and non-imputed variants as vcf file and passport information for the 487 genotypes as .xls file). The Whealbi SNPs data can be displayed in open access on the IWGSC reference genome browser 56 a[t https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/jbrowseiwgsc/gmod_jbrowse/?data=myData%2FIWGSC_RefSeq_v1.0.](https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/jbrowseiwgsc/gmod_jbrowse/?data=myData%2FIWGSC_RefSeq_v1.0)

Software. Relevant source codes, workflow and analysis septs used to conduct the results presented in the different section of the MS (structural variant detection, phylogenetic analysis, selective sweeps characterization, GWAS investigation), were deposited in a public github repository and are made available [https://github.com/dandaman/whealbiCode:](https://github.com/dandaman/whealbiCode)

- Code and data to simulate hexaploid wheat ancestral region of origin (used for Figure2B)

- Code and data for the permutation tests to test the grouping of three character: continent of origin, growth habit, and historical group (Figure S4).

-Seqstat code source used for selection footprint analysis are available at <https://figshare.com/s/122efbec2e3632188674#/articles/7484705> (Figure 3, Figures S6-S7).

- Source code, documentation and results in form of Python and R Jupyter Notebooks and Snakemake workflows to perform RRHS, phylogenetic inference using the RRHS and IUPAC alignments as well as calculation and analysis of the MST-weighted phylogenetic consensus network (Figure 4A, Figure S10-S13).

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SUPPLEMENTARY ONLINE MATERIAL

TABLE OF CONTENT

Table S1: **Wheat genotype panel**. The wheat diversity panel consisting of 487 genotypes is detailed in the current table with the number of genotypes separated by ploidy level (di-, tetra- and hexaploid), the historical categories (landraces, old cultivars, cultivars and modern varieties for the 435 hexaploid genotypes) as well as the continents of origin (Africa, America, Asia, Europe and Oceania).

Note: Detailed passport information for the 487 genotypes are made available at [https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_G](https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_GWAS.zip) [WAS.zip](https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_GWAS.zip)

Table S2: **Wheat structural variants**. Exome sequencing of the 435 AABBDD hexaploid genotypes delivered 595,939 variants detailed in the current table with the number of variants (SNPs and InDels), the number of genic and non-genic variants and associated ratio (genic/non-genic) with the number of targeted genes per chromosomes.

Chr = Chromosomes

InDels = Insertions / Deletions

Note: Detailed information for the 595939 variants are made available at [https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_G](https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_GWAS.zip) [WAS.zip.](https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/download/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotations/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_GWAS.zip) 'SNPs/InDels/Variants' columns count include those associated with 'NA' high confidence annotation (ANNHC==NA), 'Genes' column does not count genes with only 'Upstream' and 'Downstream' variants despite they might have an associated ANNHC. 'Non-genic' variants include both 'Upstream' and 'Downstream' variants as well as variants without associated ANNHC. In any case, a variant is only considered if we have at least a nonimputed REF and an ALT variant amongst the 435 genotypes.

SNPs = Single Nucleotide Polymorphism

Table S3: **Genes/loci with selection signatures. A**- *DOMESTICATION* -The table shows the list of genes (lines) within genomic windows (1 Mb) showing the signatures of domestication based on ROD values with the chromosome, the position, the ROD value (between diploid *vs* tetraploids, diploids *vs* hexaploids and between tetraploids *vs* hexaploids) as well as the closest (distance in bp) regions of domestication signature (referred to as 'closest' for diploid *vs* tetraploids, diploids *vs* hexaploids and between tetraploids *vs* hexaploids), *cf* details in Supplementary Figure S6. In dark and light red are respectively highlighted candidate genes associated with a ROD > 0.8 or in close vicinity (0 to 5 Mb) to a regions of domestication signature. **B**- *IMPROVEMENT*- The table illustrates the list of genes (lines) with a Fst log10 p-value with the chromosome, the position, the log p-value of Fst value (for European genotypes, Asian genotypes and the total panel) as well as the closest (distance in kb) loci of improvement signature (referred to as 'closest' for European genotypes, Asian genotypes and the total panel), *cf* details in Supplementary Figure S7. Candidate genes in close vicinity (0 to 5 Mb, light red) to a regions of improvement signature $(-\log_{10} p\text{-value} > 4$, dark red).

A

B

Table S4: **Genes/loci of GWAS for heading date (HD).** List of 48 significant loci with information on chromosome, position, -log₁₀(p), reference allele frequency (Freq_ref), mean heading date value for genotypes carrying the reference allele (MeanHD_ref), alternative allele frequency (Freq_alt), mean heading value for genotypes carrying the alternative allele (MeanHD_alt). Candidate genes known to control wheat flowering time are also indicated, along with their distance relative to the peak marker: *Ppd*, *VNR, FDL* (Flowering Locus D like), *WPCL* (Phytoclock).

Table S5: **Genes/loci of GWAS for plant height (PH).** List of 40 significant loci with information on chromosome, position, -log₁₀(p), reference allele frequency (Freq_ref), mean plant height value for genotypes carrying the reference allele (MeanPH_ref), alternative allele frequency (Freq_alt), mean plant height value for genotypes carrying the alternative allele (MeanPH_alt). Candidate genes known to control plant height are also indicated, along with their distance relative to the peak marker; *Rht* B1 and additional determinants of the trait that still remain to be identified.

Table S6: **Inference of gene flow using Patterson's D**. Patterson's D and Z values were inferred using ANGSD**³⁰** and *T. dicoccoides* as outgroup population. Tests relevant to the chosen consensus topology are highlighted in red (right). Z-values retained for figure S12 are highlighted in the colour relevant to their subgenome (green for subgenome A and purple for subgenome B).

Table S7: **Edge support of the minimum spanning trees of the phylogenetic network**. The table delivers the subgenome specific inter-species edges of the minimum spanning trees of the phylogenetic network, maximizing the weight of the kept edges (plotted in Figure S10). Edges are linking a pair of accessions ('Id_1' and 'Id 2' columns) corresponding to a specific couple of species ('Species_1' and 'Species_2' columns) in phylogenetic network for the subgenome A, B or D ('Genome' column). The 'Support' column corresponds to the fraction of minimal spanning trees which support the corresponding edge.

Figure S1: **Sequence coverage at the genome scale**. The figure illustrates the sequence coverage for each captured gene (**A**) and homoeolog triplet (**B**) for the 21 chromosomes (with genes in order) for the 435 hexaploid bread wheat genotypes. **C**- Boxplot of the normalized coverage (mean: 569.9341, standard deviation: 201.7955) between chromosomes (1 to 7) and subgenomes (A, B and D). The plain and dashed horizontal red lines respectively show the 1 and 1.96 standard deviation variation levels (corresponding to coverage intervals of respectively [366.1386,771.7296] and [174.4149,965.4532]). Medians all stays within the 1 standard deviation limit, as well as all 1st and 3rd quartiles. **A**

Figure S2: **Chromosomal distribution of structural variants**. **A**- Chromosome-wide distribution of genes (purple) as well as structural variants (blue) within 50 Mb sliding windows for the A (top), B (center) and D (bottom) subgenomes. **B**- Correlation between gene and structural variant distributions for subgenome A (left), B (center) and D (right) over 25 Mb sliding windows. **A**

Figure S3: **Distribution of structural (SNPs, InDels) variants**. **A**- Number of structural variants (SNPs, InDels and total variants, y-axis) for each subgenome (A in green, B in purple and D in yellow) of the seven chromosomal groups (x-axis). Total number of variants per subgenomes are shown as black curve. Heterozygous variants' density per ten megabase windows in subgenomes (A, B and D; *cf* panel **B**) and genomic compartments (telomeric, core and centromeric; *cf* panel **C**). Values illustrated as bean plots with average and overall average values represented as solid and doted black bar respectively.

Figure S4: Wheat genotypes relatedness and components of the panel structuration. A- Phylogeny of the 435 hexaploid bread wheat genotypes with phylogenetic clades (a to k) shown in colors**.** The presented clades were chosen on criterion of size, representativeness and statistical support to offer a good coverage of the tree, while taking into account sampling bias for European individuals. **B**- Geographical origin, historical groups (I to IV) and growth habit characters composition of chosen representative clades (a to k) on the *T. aestivum* phylogeny. To compare the level of structuration of the data according to the origins, groups and growth habit traits, we performed mean comparison t-tests for the distribution of mode frequency for of all clades in the (unrooted) tree (excluding leaf clades, and individual with an unknown trait). Results indicate that the group trait has a significantly lower mean modal frequency than the origins or growth habit traits (p-value < 2.2e-16 for both). No significant difference was detected between the geographical origins and growth habit traits (pvalue=0.09349). Additionally, we computed the minimal number of character transitions needed along the phylogeny to explain the extant data (with the rationale that a variable which strongly structures the phylogeny will require less transitions than a variable which does not). The results show that geographical origin requires less transitions (73 transitions) than either historical group (141 transitions) and growth habit (89 transitions) traits. Taken together, these results suggest that geographical origin most strongly structures the phylogeny of modern hexaploid wheats. Illustration of the phylogeny according to the geographical origins (either at the region (**C**) or continent (**D**) scales), historical groups (**E**) and growth habit (**F**) levels. Unknown categories are depicted in grey in panels B-C-D-E-F. **A**

Figure S5: Geographical component of the panel structuration. **TOP**- Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of diversity among the 487 genotypes grouped into distinct polyploidy levels (di-, tetra- and hexaploid) and historical groups (I to IV) according to the colored code legend (top right). The diversity within the diversity panel differentiate the polyploidy levels. **CENTER** - Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of diversity among the 435 hexaploid genotypes grouped into geographical origins according to the colored code legend (top right). **BOTTOM** – World map showing different colors for continents (America, Oceania, Asia, West-East Europe and the Fertile Crescent). The known historical routes of wheat migration (green arrows), west through inland (\bullet) and coastal (\bullet) paths, and north-east (\bullet) and along the Inner Asian Mountain Corridor (\bullet) followed by further colonization (black connecting lines) of American (\bullet) , African (\bullet) , Oceanian (\bullet) territories, support the genotypes panel structure.

Figure S6: Selection (domestication) signatures. ROD values (>0.8 in red) at the subgenome (A, B and D) and chromosome (1 to 7 level) between (from the outer to the inner circle) between diploids *vs* tetraploids, between diploids *vs* hexaploids and between tetraploids *vs* hexaploids. 427, 877 and 1,221 regions with domestication signature are identified respectively (from outer to inner circles) between diploids *vs* tetraploids, between diploids *vs* hexaploids and between tetraploids *vs* hexaploids.

Figure S7: Selection (breeding) signatures. A- Chromosome by chromosome Manhattan plots of fixation index (F_{ST}) between groups I and IV, log_{10} -transformed p-values of PCAdapt (>4 in red), Tajima's D and ROD, y-axis) in the European hexaploid bread wheat. **B**- log_{10} -transformed p-values (>4 in red) at the subgenome (A, B and D) and chromosome (1 to 7 level) for (from the outer to the inner circles) the 435 hexaploid bread wheat genotypes, the European genotypes and the Asian genotypes. 8,308, 9,948 and 5,089 loci with improvement signature were identified respectively for the European genotypes, for the Asian genotypes and for the total panel. Large regions (previous loci extended over 2 Mb overlapping windows) of improvement signatures are shown in yellow boxes. **A**

Figure S8: GWAS for heading date (HD). A- Manhattan plot of GWAS for heading date (HD) yielding 48 major peaks. Each point represents one of the 390,657 variants with MAF > 0.05 in 435 hexaploid wheat genotypes, with their chromosomal position indicated on the x axis. The red and blue horizontal lines show the 0.01 and 0.05 FDR significance thresholds, respectively. **B**- Manhattan Plot of the chromosome 2AL genomic region (100 Mb) where two major peaks in strong LD were detected with 34 and 35 HC genes. Among the HC genes annotated is TraesCS2A01G340400, encoding for Cry1b-2A. A single synonymous SNP was detected in the gene sequence and the distribution of the reference, late-flowering and the alternative, early-flowering alleles among winter and spring wheat genotypes is shown. According to the Wheat Expression Browser (expVIP, http://www.wheatexpression.com/), the gene shows high expression levels in leaves and shoot under both vegetative and reproductive stages, as well as in the spike at the reproductive stage.

A

Expression level

Tissus/conditions

34

Figure S9: GWAS for plant height (PH). Manhattan plot of GWAS for plant height (PH) yielding 40 major peaks. Each point represents one of the 390,657 variants with MAF > 0.05 in 435 hexaploid wheat genotypes, with their chromosomal position indicated on the x axis. The red and blue horizontal lines show the 0.01 and 0.05 FDR significance thresholds, respectively.

Figure S10: Inference of reticulated evolutionary scenario with phylogenetic networks. Minimum spanning tree of the phylogenetic network (see Figure 4A legend, main text), maximizing the weight of the kept edges. The resulting graph highlights the vertical evolutionary signal linking diploid and tetraploid (with the color code consistent with the evolutionary scenario in Figure 4B, main text), and hexaploid wheats (in grey).

Figure S11: Wheat phylogenetic relationships. A - Cladogram for each of the 3 subgenomes (A, B and D) with the color code used for each of the investigated taxon at the right. **B**- Consensus of the 1,000 RRHS trees for each of the 3 subgenomes A, B and D with the color code used for each of the investigated taxon as described in panel A. Supports are shown in red, green, blue and black, respectively for support values of 100, above 79, above 49 and, under 50. **A**

Subgenome D

B

subgenome A

subgenome B

subgenome D

Figure S12: Inference of reticulated evolutionary scenario with ABBA-BABA test. Patterson's D and Z values were inferred using ANGSD³⁰ *T. dicoccoides* as outgroup population. Significant instances of gene flow $(Z \text{ statistic} > 4)$ are represented on a schematic and simplified tetraploid and hexaploid tree (inspired by the subgenome A consensus - concurrent tree topologies yielded a similar number of gene flows), as colored double arrows. Green, purple and blue arrows illustrate gene flow supported by, respectively, subgenome A, subgenome B, or both subgenomes. Full arrows denote a reticulation event also detected in the network-based phylogenetic approach (Figure 4, main manuscript) while dashed arrows correspond to a signal detected only with the Patterson's D analysis. Associated Z-values are written in green and purple, for, respectively, the subgenome A and subgenome B. Sensitivity of the approach has been tested on synthetic polyploids of the same polyploidy level (ABxAB) with F7 RIL *T. turgidum* offsprings detected as hybrids with dominant *T. dicoccoides* and dominant *T. dicoccoides* genotypes and multiple independent *T. durum* introgressions, illustrating the resolution gained from ABBA-BABA test.

Figure S13: Network analysis of bread wheat community structure. A- Clustered phylogenetic consensus genotype network of 1000 maximum likelihood tree topologies inferred from repeated random haplotype samples (RRHS). Nodes represent individual genotypes and are color-coded by community cluster. Node size is proportional to the number of connections (*i.e*. node degree). Edges represent minimal evolutionary distances in the RRHS trees deduced by the minimal spanning tree (MST) algorithm and are color-coded by the respective subgenome (green: A; purple: B; orange: D). Edge transparency is proportional to the relative number of RRHS trees were the edge was an MST edge (*i.e*. edge weight). Diploid/tetraploid wheats are shown with grey circles and hexaploid genotypes in yellow, blue and red circles respectively corresponding to α , β and γ community clusters described in panel B. **B-** Stacked bar charts depicting the composition of the identified three wheat communities (α, β and γ) with respect to the type of sampled genotypes, historical groups (I to IV), affiliation to Warsaw pact countries, origin in the wheat domestication centers of the fertile crescent and growth habit pattern. Bars are color-coded by community cluster. Colors of the bar outlines are dependent of the outcome of the respective χ^2 tests depicting either significant enrichment (blue, more than expected), depletion (red, less than expected) or non-significance (grey) at 99% confidence intervals. **C**- World maps illustrating the country of origins of the communities α (top), β (center) and γ (bottom) with the color shading illuminating the number of genotypes (see legend at the right). **A**

B

C

