Performance of *qpAdm*-based screens for genetic admixture on admixture-

graph-shaped histories and stepping-stone landscapes

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Abstract

qpAdm is a statistical tool that is often used in exploratory archaeogenetic studies for finding

optimal admixture models of population history. Despite its popularity, *qpAdm* remains

untested on histories in the form of admixture graphs of random topology or stepping-stone

landscapes. We analyzed data from such simulations and found that while for admixture-

graph-shaped histories there exist simple solutions (temporal stratification) for minimizing

false findings of gene flow, in the case of stepping-stone landscapes the method generates

results that do not appear suspect but are misleading: feasible *qpAdm* models are either

accurate but simplistic in the context of landscapes, or highly inaccurate in the case of multi-

component models. This is largely is due to two reasons: 1) because of complex migration

networks that violate the assumptions of the method, there is poor correlation between

qpAdm p-values and model optimality in many sections of the parameter space; 2) admixture

fraction estimates between 0 and 1 are largely restricted to symmetric source configurations

around targets, hence popular [0, 1] model plausibility criteria confound analyses of

landscape-type demographies, unless their interpretations are explicitly spatial. For many

species/regions/periods archaeogenetic sampling is very sparse and may be random with

respect to population density of ancient individuals. In this situation only a specific

combination of landscape properties and feasibility criteria allows to efficiently reject highly

asymmetric non-optimal models most abundant in random deme sets. This problem may

obscure useful signal (rare optimal models) and might be responsible for some claims about

rapid long-distance migrations in the literature.

Introduction

Although a broad range of methods exists for reconstructing population history from genome-wide autosomal single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data, just a few methods became the cornerstone of archaeogenetic studies: principal component analysis (PCA) (Patterson et al. 2006); an unsupervised or supervised algorithm for admixture inference in individuals, *ADMIXTURE* (Alexander et al. 2009); formal tests for admixture such as f_3-statistics (Patterson et al. 2012, Peter 2016, Soraggi and Wiuf 2019, Peter 2022) and *D*-statistics (Green et al. 2010, Durand et al. 2011); and a tool for fitting two-component and more complex admixture models to populations, *qpAdm* (Haak et al. 2015, Harney et al. 2021). The popularity of these methods is explained by their relatively modest computational requirements and versatility since they can analyze unphased biallelic genotype data of various types (pseudo-haploid or diploid), generated using either targeted enrichment on a panel of sites or shotgun sequencing technologies, and low-coverage ancient genomes with high proportions of missing data (Harney et al. 2021). However, only a few studies were devoted to testing the performance of these diverse methods on simulated genetic data (Alexander et al. 2009, Harney et al. 2021, Lazaridis et al. 2017, Martin et al. 2014, McVean 2009, Moreno-Mayar et al. 2018, Ning et al. 2020b, Soraggi and Wiuf 2019, Speidel et al. 2024), and realistically complex population histories remain virtually unexplored in this respect: both those approximated best by admixture graphs and isolation by distance (stepping-stone models, see Novembre and Stephens 2008, Duforet-Frebourg and Slatkin 2016).

Isolation by distance may be more realistic than admixture-graph-shaped (AGS) histories, and PCA can generate similar results under multiple scenarios. PCA is often used by archaeogenetic studies as a first line of analysis, providing an overview of population structure, and helping to propose hypotheses about migration and admixture. Distribution of individual genomes in two- or higher dimensional spaces of principal components (PCs) does not have unambiguous interpretation since even under ideal conditions (in the absence of missing data, batch artefacts, and selection signals) it is affected by both genetic drift and admixture (McVean 2009). Nevertheless, if context information such as geographical coordinates and dates for ancient individuals is available, PCA is routinely used for revealing "genetic clines", often hypothesized as signs of admixture between originally isolated groups

at the ends of such clines. However, multiple studies on simulated data showed that clinal

PCA patterns do not necessarily indicate mass migration and may arise even in the absence

of admixture: Lissajous curves such as horseshoe-shaped clines appear in PC spaces whenever

smooth gradients of various origin exist in data (Podani and Miklós 2002, Diaconis et al. 2008,

Novembre and Stephens 2008, Frichot et al. 2012, Duforet-Frebourg and Slatkin 2016,

Estavoyer and Francois 2022). Thus, similar clinal patterns in PCAs based on genetic data can

arise for many reasons: mass migration and admixture between previously isolated groups

(i.e., "admixture clines"), slower migration in the isolation-by-distance context (Novembre

and Stephens 2008), isolation by time in a panmictic population (Duforet-Frebourg and

Slatkin 2016), and serial founder models without any gene flow (Estavoyer and Francois

2022). It was demonstrated that the distribution of individuals in the PC space depends on

the expected coalescent time (McVean 2009), hence distinct demographic models with the

same expected coalescence times are expected to have the same PCA projections.

Additionally, imbalanced sampling across genetically divergent populations affects PCA

results substantially (McVean 2009) and may obscure smooth Lissajous curves by artefactual

sharp angles (Novembre and Stephens 2008).

Other fundamental problems of PCA are its sensitivity to outliers (Nguyen and Holmes 2019,

Armstrong et al. 2022) and the fact that the signal is spread over s-1 or v-1 dimensions,

whichever is smaller (where s and v are counts of samples and variables, respectively), but

only two or rarely three dimensions are visualized and interpreted, leading to substantial

distortions of the original genetic space (Battey et al. 2021). Other methods exist that allow

embedding into two- or three-dimensional spaces but are computationally expensive and

non-deterministic: t-SNE (van der Maaten and Hinton 2008) and UMAP (McInnes and Healy.

2018) recover local structure (clusters of very similar individuals) accurately at the expense

of global structure (Diaz-Papkovich et al. 2019, Battey et al. 2021), and neural networks such

as variational autoencoders (VAE) recover both local and global structure more accurately

than PCA does (Battey et al. 2021, Geleta et al. 2023). Considering this complexity, using

further methods to correlate PCA/UMAP/VAE results with other lines of evidence is necessary

for studying migration history (Reich et al. 2008).

Formal tests for genetic admixture such as f_3-statistics and D/f_4-statistics are often used

exactly for this purpose: to test for the possibility that a certain cline spotted in PC space

might be a result of migration and admixture of previously isolated ancestries and does not

reflect isolation by distance or recurrent bottlenecks. D- and f_4-statistics, which are identical

except for the denominator and are not affected by genetic drift, test if an unrooted four-

population tree fits the data (Reich et al. 2009, Green et al. 2010, Durand et al. 2011,

Patterson et al. 2012). A statistically significant deviation of the statistic from 0 (estimated

using jackknife or bootstrap resampling) means that either the assumed tree topology is

wrong, or gene flow occurred between a pair of branches in the tree, assuming that at most

one mutation per locus occurred in the history of the four populations (Durand et al. 2011,

Patterson et al. 2012) and SNP ascertainment bias (Flegontov et al. 2023) is absent. However,

interpretation of these statistics is ambiguous since gene flow directionality remains

unknown, and two pairs of branches can be responsible for a deviation of the statistic from 0

(Lipson 2020). Since gene flow may be mediated by ghost groups related only distantly to the

sampled groups at the branch tips (Tricou et al. 2022), excluding one pair of branches due to

geographical and temporal plausibility of gene flow is also difficult. And interpretating

deviations of D- and f_4-statistics from 0 (or lack thereof) becomes hardly possible if both

branch pairs are connected by detectable gene flows, a typical situation on isolation-by-

distance landscapes. In general, unambiguous interpretation of non-rejection of the null

hypothesis (no deviation from 0) should be avoided.

"Admixture" f_3-statistics of the form f_3(target; proxy source$_1$, proxy source$_2$) constitute

another formal test for admixture (Patterson et al. 2012). Significant deviation of such a

statistic from 0 in the negative direction (Z-score below -3) is considered proof of admixture

since allele frequencies at most sites are intermediate in the target group between those in

the proxy sources (Patterson et al. 2012). However, "admixture" f_3-statistics are usually only

applicable for detection of recent admixture events since they become positive when post-

admixture genetic drift on the target lineage moves allele frequencies away from these

intermediate values (Patterson et al. 2012, Peter 2016, Peter 2022). When the sources are

more distant genetically, f_3-statistics remain negative for longer periods of time.

Considering these complications, more sophisticated tests for genetic admixture are needed.

The $qpAdm$ method introduced by Haak et al. (2015) was developed with the admixture graph

paradigm in mind. It is based on matrices of f_4-statistics and does not require detailed

knowledge of population phylogeny beyond a few assumptions (Lazaridis et al. 2016, Harney

et al. 2021). This method tests admixture models in the form of combinations of proxy

ancestral groups ("sources" or "references", Lazaridis et al. 2016) for a "target" (or "test")

population, given a genetically diverse set of "outgroup" populations, and infers ancestry

proportions in the target group contributed by the lineages represented by the proxy sources

("outgroups" are often termed "right" populations for convenience since they are usually not

outgroups in the phylogenetic sense, and they were termed "references" by Harney *et al*.

2021). See **Box 1** for definitions of various *qpAdm*-related terms used in this study.

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142   **Box 1.** Terminology used in this study for describing simulations, admixture models, results of screens
143   for admixture, and *qpAdm* protocols.

admixture-graph-shaped (AGS) history	A history represented as a (usually bifurcating) directed acyclic graph, composed of episodes of population divergence and of mass migration and admixture of two source populations ("pulse admixture events").
stepping-stone landscape (SSL)	An approximation for two-dimensional isolation-by-distance landscapes ("genetic landscapes"); here we describe an implementation used in this study. A stepping-stone landscape is originally "unfolded" from a single founder deme via a serial founder process that can be represented by a bifurcating tree (Estavoyer and Francois 2022), or via multifurcation, i.e. star radiation. This stage is followed by a gene-flow era represented as an undirected graph connecting demes, where each edge represents a bidirectional gene flow, and gene-flow intensities are allowed to differ in the forward and reverse directions. Gene flows on this undirected graph happen in one or more epochs, with unidirectional gene-flow intensities sampled randomly from uniform or non-uniform distributions. In this study all landscapes are based on the triangular lattice, and node degree varies from 3 to 6.
gene-flow epoch	A period of unchanging gene-flow intensities on the landscape (they are assigned randomly at the beginning of the epoch).
gene-flow era	A collection of gene-flow epochs characterized by the same topology of the undirected gene-flow graph, but not necessarily by stable gene-flow intensities.
"right" (or outgroup) populations/groups	In a *qpAdm* protocol, these are reference populations needed for testing admixture models composed of a target and one or several proxy source groups.
target (or test) population/group	In an admixture model, this is a population/group whose genetic history is being modelled.

true (ancestry) source	In the context of simulated AGS histories, this is a population directly participating in an admixture event(s) giving rise to a target group, and its ancestral (unsampled) population before its merging with other populations deeper in time. In contrast to AGS histories, the concept of true and false ancestry sources is vague in the case of stepping-stone landscapes where all neighboring demes continuously exchange migrants; we can just rank sources into more and less appropriate.
proxy (ancestry) source	In the context of simulated admixture graphs, this is a sampled population included in an admixture model as a potential source and assumed to be cladal with one of true ancestry sources. In the context of SSL, this is any deme included in an admixture model as a potential source.
model complexity	Number of proposed proxy ancestry sources in an admixture model "target = proxy source$_1$ + proxy source$_2$ + ... proxy source$_i$".
"left" populations/groups	In a *qpAdm* model, these are proxy sources and a target.
reference populations/groups	"Right" and proxy source populations combined.
qpAdm experiment	A set of all possible (and progressively more complex) models for a given target and a set of reference groups. An experiment is stopped as soon as at least one feasible model for the target is encountered.
"trailing" models	For an *n*-way admixture model, these are all possible simpler models composed of the target and/or proxy sources from that *n*-way model (but not from other *n*-way models in the experiment): "target = proxy source$_1$ + proxy source$_i$ + ..." and "proxy source$_1$ = proxy source$_i$ + ...".
(composite) model feasibility criterion	A set of criteria for identifying fitting (feasible) *qpAdm* models that relies on both estimated admixture proportions (or fractions, abbreviated as EAF) and *p*-values. In general terms, a composite criterion is composed of three conditions: 1) on admixture proportion estimates in an *n*-way model, 2) on the *p*-value of the *n*-way model, and 3) on *p*-values of the "trailing" simpler models. The *p*-value thresholds no. 2 and 3 can be the same or different. Here is an example applied in this study to AGS histories: 1) EAF $\pm$ 2 standard errors $\in$ (0, 1); 2) the *p*-value for an *n*-way model $\geq$0.01; 3) *p*-values for "trailing" simpler models are <0.01. Other versions of this criterion are also found in the literature: with different values of the *p*-value cut-off (usually 0.05, 0.01, or 0.001); with limits on EAF, but not on their standard errors; with or without conditions on simpler models. In the case of SSL histories, 36 composite feasibility criteria were tested.

feasible (or fitting) *qpAdm* model	A *qpAdm* model satisfying the feasibility criterion above.
positive/negative admixture model	An admixture model supported/not supported by one or several analytical tools such as *qpAdm*, PCA, *ADMIXTURE*.
positive rate	The fraction of all tested *qpAdm* models that are positive.
false discovery rate (FDR)	The fraction of admixture models of a certain complexity (e.g., two-way) satisfying the *qpAdm* model feasibility criteria but classified as false considering the simulated graph topology and simulated admixture proportions. For topological criteria used for classifying two-way admixture models into true and false ones see the Results and Methods sections. The term FDR is also applied to outcomes of more complex admixture inference pipelines composed of several methods.
false omission rate (FOR)	The fraction of feasible *qpAdm* models that are classified as true considering the simulated graph topology and simulated admixture proportions but are not supported by another method (*qpAdm* model competition, PCA, or *ADMIXTURE*) or a combination of methods.
"rotating" *qpAdm* protocol	A protocol having the following feature: a large subset of reference populations or all of them are distributed between the "right" and "left" sets according to the principle "whatever is not in the left set is in the right set", testing all possible bisections of this sort for a given rotated set and a given range of model complexities. In the most extreme case, target groups are also included in this rotation. Model testing starts from the simplest one-way models and moves on to the next complexity level if all simple models for a given target are rejected according to the composite feasibility criterion. The goal of this approach, as compared to "non-rotating" protocols, is to increase the power of the method to reject non-optimal proxy ancestry sources.
"non-rotating" *qpAdm* protocol	This protocol we also term "standard" or "basic": all models are tested with one or few fixed sets of "right" groups which usually pre-date "left" groups or are contemporaneous with them. In practice, modern populations genetically divergent from the target are often included in such a "right" set if ancient reference groups are unavailable. Model testing starts from the simplest one-way models and moves on to the next complexity level if all simple models for a given target are rejected according to the composite feasibility criterion.
"distal" *qpAdm* model	A model where the target post-dates or is contemporaneous with all proxy sources, in other words, they are temporally stratified.
"proximal" *qpAdm* model	A model where the target pre-dates at least one proxy source.

"distal" *qpAdm* protocol	A rotating or non-rotating *qpAdm* protocol considering distal models only.
"proximal" *qpAdm* protocol	A rotating or non-rotating *qpAdm* protocol without temporal stratification attempted, that is considering both proximal and distal models. Such a protocol should not be confused with a protocol deliberately considering proximal models only.
model competition	A *qpAdm* protocol which starts from sets of alternative feasible *qpAdm* models of a certain complexity level for a given target, outcomes of a non-rotating protocol. Alternative proxy sources from these models form a rotated set. Rotation can be performed in two ways (groups from the rotated set are placed in the "left" set one by one, and the other groups from the rotated set are placed in the "right" set; or groups from the rotated set are placed in both "left" and "right" sets one by one), and the composite feasibility criterion is applied. The goal of this approach is to increase the power of the method to reject non-optimal proxy ancestry sources.
proximal model competition *qpAdm* protocol	As introduced by Narasimhan *et al*. (2019), this is a non-rotating *qpAdm* protocol with temporal stratification of "right" and "left" sets, with a subsequent model competition step, and with no (or very limited) temporal stratification of targets and proxy sources at both steps.
maximal absolute difference between estimated admixture fractions and equal fractions	This metric, abbreviated as max$\mid$*EAF–EF*$\mid$, measures how far <u>estimated</u> admixture fractions (EAF) in an admixture model deviate from equal fractions ($\frac{1}{n}$ for an *n*-way models).
maximal standard error of EAF	This is a maximal standard error reported by *qpAdm* for admixture fractions in a model.
$AEH_T - av.\ AEH_S$	Difference between number of admixture events in target's history and average number of admixture events in sources' histories (In the context of an AGS history).

Nine years later we find *qpAdm*-based protocols routinely employed in large-scale screens of

ancient human or animal populations for admixture (often between closely related sources)

and used as formal tests for admixture (see Lazaridis et al. 2016, Skoglund et al. 2017, Harney

et al. 2018, Mathieson et al. 2018, Antonio et al. 2019, Narasimhan et al. 2019, Fernandes et

al. 2020, Marcus et al. 2020, Ning et al. 2020a, Wang et al. 2020, Yang et al. 2020, Carlhoff et

al. 2021, Papac et al. 2021, Librado et al. 2021, Sirak et al. 2021, Wang et al. 2021, Yaka et al.

2021, Zhang et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Changmai et al. 2022a, Changmai et al. 2022b,

Gnecchi-Ruscone et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Maróti et al. 2022, Oliveira et al. 2022,

Patterson et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2023, Taylor et al. 2023, Nakatsuka et al.

2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024 for examples). *qpAdm* fits admixture models to a

matrix of f_4-statistics of the form f_4("left" group$_i$, "left" group$_j$; "right" group$_i$, "right" group$_j$),

which in the absence of missing data at the group level can be reduced to a smaller matrix

f_4(target group, "left" group$_j$; "right" group$_1$, "right" group$_j$), considering algebraic

relationships between different f_4-statistics (Peter 2016).

Figure 1. Admixture graphs showing an exhaustive list of assumption violations of the standard *qpAdm*
protocol that may lead to rejection of the true simple model, and thus prompt the researcher to test
overly complex models. (**a**) A gene flow from an outgroup O* to a proxy source after the divergence
of the latter from the true source. (**b**) A gene flow from an unsampled source to a proxy source after
the divergence of the latter from the true source. This case is problematic only if the outgroups are
differentially related to the unsampled source. (**c**) A gene flow from a proxy source to an outgroup
after the divergence of the former from the true source. (**d**) A gene flow from a target to an outgroup.
(**e**) An outgroup is cladal with a proxy source.

A *qpAdm* protocol that has become the standard in archaeogenetics (Lazaridis et al. 2016)

can be broken down into two parts: estimation of the number of gene flows connecting the

"right" and "left" sets (this method was first published as a tool named "*qpWave*", Reich et

al. 2012) and inference of admixture proportions in a target group in the "left" set (Haak et

al. 2015). *qpWave* tests for the number of distinct gene flows connecting the "right" and "left"

population sets, does not infer directionality of gene flows, and does not identify recipients

of gene flow in the "left" or "right" population sets. Notably, the standard *qpAdm* protocol

relies on the following assumptions in the admixture graph paradigm (Lazaridis et al. 2016,

Harney et al. 2021): 1) there is at least one "right" population differentially related to the

proxy sources; 2) proxy sources are strictly cladal with the true ancestral admixing sources

(**Fig. 1a, b**), 3) there are no gene flows to populations located in the "right" set from the proxy

source or target lineages either after the split of the proxy source from the true admixing

source population or between the target population and the admixture event that gave rise

to it (**Fig. 1c-e**). In the context of our study, true sources are unsampled populations that

participated in a simulated admixture event (labelled as "S1 true" and "S2 true" in **Fig. 1**, see

also **Box 1**). A more concise definition of these assumptions exists: there should be no genetic

drift shared exclusively by proxy sources and "right" populations (but not by the target) and

shared exclusively by the target and "right" populations (but not by proxy sources).

If the above assumptions are satisfied, it is safe to say that *qpWave/qpAdm* rejections of

simpler models, and a failure to reject more complex models, are the result of a genuinely

complex admixture history that connects the source and target populations rather than the

false rejection of the simple model due to violations of any one of the assumptions described

above. Most notably, violations of the second or third assumptions raise the probability of

rejecting a simpler (true) model if enough data is available and prompt the researcher to test

more complex (false) models (such as in **Fig. 1** rejecting a two-source *qpAdm* model and

exploring three-source models).

Harney *et al*. (2021) demonstrated on AGS simulated histories that, if the *qpAdm* assumptions

are satisfied, it is highly favorable for statistical power of the method (for distinguishing

between alternative proxy sources that are unequally distant genetically from the true

ancestry source) to move at least some alternative proxy sources between the "left" and

"right" sets. In other words, having "on the right" populations that do not violate the

topological assumptions of *qpAdm*, but are closely related to proxy sources on the "left",

increases the statistical power greatly (see also Ning et al. 2020b and Williams et al. 2024 for

demonstrations of this on simple and complex AGS simulated histories, respectively, and

Speidel et al. 2024 for another exploration of a *qpAdm*-like algorithm on simple AGS

simulations).

This new type of *qpAdm* protocols, termed "rotating" protocol, has been adopted in

archaeogenetics widely (see, e.g., Skoglund et al. 2017, Harney et al. 2019, Narasimhan et al.

2019, Olalde et al. 2019, Carlhoff et al. 2021, Fernandes et al. 2021, Librado et al. 2021,

Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Oliveira et al. 2022, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al.

2023, Speidel et al. 2024). The most extreme version of the "rotating" protocol simply divides

a set of reference populations into all possible combinations of "right" and "proxy source"

subsets of certain sizes and rotates these combinations through successive *qpAdm* analyses.

Additional constraints can be placed on the rotating combinations such as restricting a set of

groups (usually highly divergent from the target) to remain in the "right" set in all models.

When evaluating the totality of multiple *qpAdm* tests, the simplest feasible models (e.g., one-

way, i.e., unadmixed) are usually favored, and increasingly complex models are explored

upon the rejection of simpler models. Model rejection for the simplest models is made

according to a chosen *p*-value threshold such that *qpAdm* models are considered feasible or

"fitting" the data when the *p*-value is above such a threshold (Skoglund et al. 2017, Harney et

al. 2018, Narasimhan et al. 2019, Olalde et al. 2019, Yang et al. 2020, Carlhoff et al. 2021,

Fernandes et al. 2021, Librado et al. 2021, Zhang et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis

et al. 2022, Oliveira et al. 2022, Nakatsuka et al. 2023, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023,

Kerdoncuff et al. 2024, Speidel et al. 2024). As an additional criterion of a fitting model, all

inferred admixture proportions (see, e.g., Harney et al. 2018, Olalde et al. 2019, Yang et al.

2020, Zhang et al. 2021, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Oliveira et al. 2022, Carlhoff et al. 2023, Zeng et

al. 2023, Kerdoncuff et al. 2024, Speidel et al. 2024), or proportions $\pm$ 2 standard errors

(Narasimhan et al. 2019), may be required to lie between 0 and 1. It is important to remember

that the statistical significance of the *qpAdm/qpWave* test is, strictly speaking, a function of

model rejection, and thus the failure to reject a model may have underlying causes other than

approximating the true situation well enough (such as lack of statistical power or a lack of

suitable "right" groups that capture the divergent ancestry sources amongst the "left" set of

populations).

A less exhaustive version of the rotating *qpAdm* protocol, termed "model competition" (e.g.,

Narasimhan et al. 2019, Fernandes et al. 2020, Carlhoff et al. 2021, Sirak et al. 2021, Zhang et

al. 2021, Maróti et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2023), is used even more widely than

the basic rotating protocol. It involves an initial (standard non-rotating) *qpAdm* analysis on a

few source populations (see **Box 1**). Upon identifying a list of plausible sources for a target,

the algorithm re-tests feasible models for this target rotating these plausible sources

between the "left" and "right" sets with the expectation of improving the power to reject

models including proxy sources that are genetically distant from the true sources.

a, Lazaridis *et al*. 2022, distal rotating protocol

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242   **b**, Narasimhan *et al*. 2019, distal rotating protocol

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244   **c**, Narasimhan *et al*. 2019, proximal model competition protocol

 Figure 2. Distributions of radiocarbon and calendar dates for populations sets analyzed with the distal
rotating *qpAdm* protocols by Lazaridis *et al*. 2022 (**a**) and Narasimhan *et al*. 2019 (**b**), and with the
proximal model competition protocol from Narasimhan *et al*. 2019 (**c**). Probability density curves are
shown for three sets of groups: 1) those appearing in the "right" set in at least one *qpAdm* model; 2)
those appearing in the "left" set in at least one *qpAdm* model; 3) target groups. Targets in the former
study were composed of large clusters of West Eurasian individuals, some of them dating back to the
Paleolithic (Lazaridis et al. 2022). For that reason, the date distribution for targets in panel **a** is very
wide.

The rotating *qpAdm* protocol and model competition are increasingly used as central

methods for testing admixture hypotheses proposed after inspecting distributions of

individuals in PC spaces, outcomes of *ADMIXTURE* analyses, and *f/D*-statistics indicative of a

gene flow rather than a simple tree relationship. Yet, the first study reporting detailed testing

of *qpAdm* on simulated data (Harney et al. 2021) was performed in extremely favorable

conditions: the simulated AGS history included just two non-nested admixture events; the

sources for the principal target group diverged about 1,200 generations ago (almost 35,000

years ago in the case of humans); the proxy sources were strictly cladal with the actual

ancestral groups for the target; several groups differentially related to these ancestry sources

were available; the simulated data were free of ascertainment bias since sites were sampled

in a random way; one million sites were used for most analyses; and only 50/50% simulated

admixture proportions were tested for some analyses. That study confirmed that the method

behaves as expected under these ideal conditions and offered some important guidelines on

the choice and number of "right" populations for optimal specificity of the method and on

model comparison strategies, and also showed that the results are robust to the presence of

missing data, imbalanced group sizes, ancient DNA damage, a wide range of genomic block

sizes, and to a particular type of SNP ascertainment: selecting sites heterozygous in one

individual from a certain population (Patterson et al. 2012). Among challenging historical

scenarios, only multifurcation followed by uniform and continuous gene flows in a one-

dimensional stepping-stone model composed of six groups was explored (Harney et al. 2021).

Meanwhile, false discovery rate (FDR) or false positive rate (FPR) of the method and violations

of the topological assumptions of *qpAdm* (**Fig. 1**) remained virtually unexplored. Thus, the

method was proven to work in extremely favorable conditions. But what happens in other

cases where arguably most of the history of humans and other species fits: a history that is

not a nearly perfect tree, and can probably be approximated by complex admixture graphs

or stepping-stone landscapes (SSL, see **Box 1**)? This question motivated the current study

exploring both simulated AGS and SSL histories and in a companion paper focused on AGS

histories (Williams et al. 2024).

As detailed above, various versions of *qpAdm* protocols form a core of many recent

archaeogenetic studies. These protocols are aimed at finding the simplest feasible *qpAdm*

models for target groups, where feasibility is defined by setting a threshold for

qpAdm/qpWave p-values and by setting plausibility criteria for admixture proportions

estimated by *qpAdm*. Finding a feasible two-way or more complex admixture model for a

target is often interpreted as solid evidence for gene flow, especially if PCA and *ADMIXTURE*

methods confirm the same signal. Thus, *qpAdm* protocols are used in fact as formal tests for

admixture, whereas the latter two methods are not formal tests.

Relying on general principles, we argue that any high-throughput *qpAdm* protocol on poorly

understood complex demographic relationships approximated as admixture graphs and/or

stepping-stone landscapes is questionable as a formal test for admixture since the *p*-value

threshold allows to *reject*, but not to *accept* models, and it is safer to interpret those models

as a certain number of gene flows connecting "left" and "right" sets in any direction, not in

the form of proxy sources and admixture proportions for a target. The model feasibility

criterion including both *p*-values and admixture proportions estimated with *qpAdm* is a

complex construct relying on the topological assumptions outlined in **Fig. 1**. We expect that

taking "left" and "right" sets that are not well-separated in time or contemporaneous (**Fig. 2**),

and where relationships among groups are poorly understood (which is almost always true

for exploratory studies), enriches the system for "left-to-right" gene flows, which in turn leads

to frequent rejection of true simple admixture models. Since the behavior of *qpAdm*

admixture proportion estimates under diverse demographic scenarios is poorly understood,

it is possible that a large fraction of these non-rejected complex models emerges as feasible,

resulting in false signals of admixture. Another approach probably leading to the same

outcome (enriching the system for "left-to-right" gene flows and other violations of the

topological assumptions) is selection of pairs of "right" populations maximizing deviations of

statistics f_4(left$_i$, left$_j$, right$_i$, right$_j$) from zero since such deviations due to tree-like topologies

or "left-to-right" gene flows are impossible to tell apart. This approach is sometimes used for

increasing the power of *qpAdm* to discriminate between alternative proxy sources.

However, the extent to which these approaches are problematic remains to be explored,
especially in the case of SSL. To address this, we analyze both simulated AGS histories of
random topology and fixed complexity and SSL histories with randomized non-uniform gene
flow intensities on a landscape of fixed size and test various types of *qpAdm* protocols
common in the literature: rotating and non-rotating, with or without temporal stratification
of target groups and proxy ancestry sources, and with or without a model competition step.
We also reproduced other aspects of a typical archaeogenetic study on AGS simulated data:
we combined various *qpAdm* protocols with PCA, f_3-statistics, and an unsupervised
ADMIXTURE analysis to explore FDR of complex "admixture screening pipelines". In the last
section of our study, we analyzed from the SSL perspective a large set of published *qpAdm*
models based on real data (Zeng et al. 2023) and interpreted the resulting patterns using
insights from the extensive exploration of simulated SSL data.

Results

Since the concepts and analytical approaches are rather different in the cases of AGS and SSL
histories, we describe the results on the former class of simulations in the first three sections,
and the results on the latter class in the following sections.

AGS histories: approach to simulation and testing of qpAdm protocols

Below we explore on simulated AGS histories performance (mainly FDR) of *qpAdm* protocols
representing the spectrum of protocols used in the literature (for an overview of our AGS
workflow see **Fig. 3**). The most extreme example is a protocol where all groups are rotated
and all are treated alternatively as outgroups, targets, and proxy sources, i.e., there is no
temporal stratification between the latter categories. We term this protocol "proximal
rotating". Although such an extreme situation is, to our knowledge, rare among published
qpAdm protocols (see Carlhoff et al. 2021, Oliveira et al. 2022, Zeng et al. 2023; in the latter
study both distal and proximal rotating protocols are used in parallel), we use it to illustrate
the potential effects of poor temporal stratification of targets and proxy sources in published
rotating protocols (**Fig. 2**; see **Suppl. text 1** for a detailed description of the published
protocols used for making this figure). Models with targets pre-dating proxy sources are

encountered in high-throughput *qpAdm* screens, but do not constitute a majority of models
(Narasimhan et al. 2019, Librado et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022,
Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024). We also explore FDR of the proximal
non-rotating (Harney et al. 2018, van de Loosdrecht et al. 2018, Narasimhan et al. 2019,
Prendergast et al. 2019, Sikora et al. 2019, Wang et al. 2020, Carlhoff et al. 2021, Wang et al.
2021, Zhang et al. 2021, Changmai et al. 2022a, Changmai et al. 2022b, Maróti et al. 2022,
Brielle et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2023, Nakatsuka et al. 2023), distal rotating (Narasimhan et al.
2019, Librado et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng
et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024), and distal non-rotating protocols (Haak et al. 2015, Mathieson
et al. 2015, Lazaridis et al. 2016, Antonio et al. 2019, Mathieson et al. 2018, Sikora et al. 2019,
Marcus et al. 2020, Yang et al. 2020, Papac et al. 2021, Yaka et al. 2021, Patterson et al. 2022).
In the distal protocols, only *qpAdm* models where target group's sampling date is strictly
contemporaneous with, or post-dates, sampling of both proxy sources were considered.

We tested performance of these *qpAdm* protocols on relatively complex AGS simulated
histories: 13 populations connected with each other by admixture graphs of random
topology, including 10 pulse-like admixture events. Ten diploid individuals with no missing
data were sampled from each population at "leaves" of the graph. Forty such random
topologies were simulated. These simulations generated sets of populations sampled at
widely different dates in the past or, in other words, located at various genetic distances from
the root.

Further details on the simulated population histories are presented in Methods and
illustrated by 14 examples in **Fig. S1**. To explore the influence of data amount and population
divergence levels on *qpAdm* performance, we generated three independent sets of ten
simulation replicates for each graph topology (referred to as setups no. 1, 2, and 3 below)
and single simulation replicates for two further setups (no. 4 and 5; see **Fig. 3**). In these
simulations, genome size was 300, 1,000, or 3,000 Mbp; maximal history depth was 800 or
3,000 generations (ca. 23,000 or 87,000 yBP for humans), with all dates scaled up
proportionally; populations were sampled at different dates in the past or all terminal
branches were extended to the "present" and sampled at that point. Not all combinations of
these settings were tested, see **Fig. 3** for details and **Fig. S2** for the number of SNP loci
polymorphic in the simulated datasets. The simulations with the 3,000-generation depth

resulted in median F_{ST} per simulated topology at the inter-continental levels of human genetic

differentiation (~0.1), and those with the 800-generation depth matched intra-continental

levels (median F_{ST} from 0.022 to 0.051, see **Fig. S3**).

A typical archaeogenetic dataset is composed of pseudo-haploid data with high proportions

of missing sites and with widely different group sizes, including singleton groups. To generate

more realistic "noisy" data, we also performed randomized subsampling of SNP datasets for

simulation setups no. 1, 2, and 3 (300-, 1,000-, and 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes, respectively),

for one simulation replicate per each setup (**Fig. 3**, see Methods for details). The resulting

data were pseudo-haploid, had missing data rates ranging from 5% to 95% across individuals,

and had uneven group sizes ranging from 1 to 10 individuals. Ten independent subsampled

datasets were generated for each simulated topology (for counts of polymorphic loci see **Fig.**

S2).

Figure 3. A diagram illustrating our analytical workflow in the case of AGS simulations. The simulation
setups are numbered in bold, and these numbers are referred to in the text.

The *qpAdm* protocols we applied to the simulated data were focused on the simplest models:

one- and two-way admixture models. The median number of two-source admixture events

in a population from our AGS simulations is 1 (average =1.17), suggesting that two-way

models are broadly adequate for this type of history, especially considering that by far not all

internal branches in AGS histories were sampled (**Fig. S1**). Histories that are more complex

than two-way mixtures were also not rare in the data, accounting for 38% of all models tested

(**Table S1a**). The model feasibility criterion followed Narasimhan *et al*. (2019), see **Box 1** for a

definition. Thus, we tested all possible two-way admixture models for 40 complex population

histories (34,320 proximal and distal rotating models per simulation setup and replicate).

The non-rotating *qpAdm* approach was implemented as follows: for each simulated graph six

most ancient groups were selected as a fixed "right" set (ties were resolved in alphabetical

order; these "right" sets remained unchanged for a given graph topology across independent

simulations) and for the remaining seven groups all possible one-way and two-way admixture

models were tested, applying the same composite feasibility criterion that was used for the

rotating protocol (4,200 proximal and distal models per simulation setup and replicate). Thus,

models tested with the non-rotating protocol represent a subset of models tested with the

rotating protocol.

AGS histories: case studies illustrating false and true feasible qpAdm models

False positive models

In the context of complex and random admixture graph topologies it is hard to draw a strict

boundary between true and false admixture models composed of a target and two proxy

sources. However, we classified the feasible *qpAdm* models into false and true ones relying

on a set of rules. By far the most common class of false feasible *qpAdm* models (referred to

as "false positive" or FP models), comprising 50.9% of all FP models generated by the

proximal rotating protocol across all the simulation and subsampling replicates (for setups

no. 1 and 2), occurs when the target group is falsely rejected as forming a clade with one or

both proxy sources whilst they are simulated as clades. In other words, these are false

rejections of single-source admixture models.

An example of the situation whereby the target group is falsely rejected as forming a clade is

shown in **Fig. 4** where the clade relationship between the target (*J*) and source (*M*) is rejected

by the rotating protocol due "left-to-right" gene flows violating the topological assumptions

of *qpAdm*, and more complex models ("*J = A + M*" and "*J = L + M*") are evaluated as true. When a true one-way model "*J = M*" is tested, *M* represents a proxy for the only true source of ancestry in *J*, and outgroups *A*, *C*, *D*, and *L* are partially derived from the target lineage, resulting in rejection of the one-way model with *p*-values from ~10^{-32} to ~10^{-50} (in the case of 1000-Mbp-sized genomes and high-quality data). Rejections of two-way models "*J = A + M*" and "*J = L + M*" according to *p*-values are rare (**Fig. 4c**), and nearly all estimated ancestry proportions ±2 SE are between 0 and 1 even on low-quality pseudo-haploid data (**Fig. 4d**), that is why these models are classified as fitting in nearly all cases (in 34 and 36 of 40 simulation/subsampling replicates, respectively; setups no. 1 and 2 were considered). Groups *A* and *L* are 270 generations younger than *J*, and >50% of their ancestry was simulated as derived from the *J* lineage (**Fig. 4a**). These FP models illustrate not only cladality rejection, but also incorrect gene flow direction suggested by the *qpAdm* results.

Figure 4. A case study illustrating the most common class of false positive *qpAdm* models supported by the proximal rotating protocol (accounts for 50.9% of all FP models across all the simulation and subsampling replicates in **Fig. 6** and **Suppl. dataset 1**). Models of this type include at least one proxy ancestry source that is simulated as fully cladal with the target. The other proxy source may be simulated as a descendant of the target lineage (as shown here), may belong to an unrelated lineage (**Fig. S4a**), or may be also cladal with the target. Both models shown here, "*J = A + M*" and "*J = L + M*",

are also fully supported by three-dimensional PCA and by an unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* analysis at
one or more *K* values. **A.** Simulated AGS history (only topology is shown here, for
divergence/admixture dates and effective population sizes see the respective simulated history
shown in **Fig. S1**). Sampled populations are marked by letters. The target population from the *qpAdm*
models illustrated here is enclosed in an orange rectangle; correct proxy source – in a green rectangle,
and inappropriate proxy sources – in red rectangles. Sampling dates for these groups (in generations
before present) are shown beside the rectangles (the dates are from the "shallow" simulations up to
800 generations deep). True simulated ancestry source(s) for the target are enclosed in dashed violet
circles. Six populations used as outgroups for the non-rotating *qpAdm* protocol are enclosed in double
ovals. **B.** Two-dimensional PCA plots for four simulated high-quality datasets indicated in plot titles.
Simulated populations are colored according to the legend on the right, and larger points correspond
to older sampling dates. The space between the proxy sources is shaded in green. If admixture
model(s) are supported by three-dimensional (sic!) PCA (PC1 vs. PC2 vs. PC3) according to the criteria
listed in Methods, a green tick mark is placed beside the target group in the plot, and a red cross mark
is placed otherwise. **C.** Boxplots summarizing *p*-values of two-way *qpAdm* models (indicated in plot
titles) across simulation or subsampling replicates, grouped by simulation setups and *qpAdm*
protocols as indicated on the x-axis. Green lines show the *p*-value threshold of 0.01 used in this study
for model rejection. *P*-values for one-way models are not shown for brevity. The *qpAdm* models
shown here were not tested using the non-rotating protocol since the target falls into the set of six
"right" populations chosen for that protocol. **D.** Boxplots summarizing EAF across simulation or
subsampling replicates, grouped by simulation setups and *qpAdm* protocols. The proportions are
shown either for the first or second proxy source, as indicated on the y-axis; green lines show the
simulated admixture proportion. **E.** All F_{ST} values for population pairs from the simulated history.
Average F_{ST} values are shown across 10 simulation replicates for 1000-Mbp-sized genomes and high-
quality data. Population pairs formed by components of the illustrated two-way *qpAdm* model(s) are
labelled in red. The green line shows median F_{ST} (0.015) for the Bronze Age West Asian populations
analyzed by Lazaridis et al. (2016) as an example of human genetic diversity at the sub-continental
scale. **F.** Ancestry proportions estimated with unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* for the groups constituting
the *qpAdm* model(s). For brevity, results are shown for one or two *qpAdm* models, for one simulated
dataset indicated in the plot title, and for four selected *K* values. If admixture model(s) are supported
by this analysis at a given *K* value, a green tick mark is placed beside the target group in the plot, and
a red cross mark is placed otherwise.

These results illustrate risks of applying rotating *qpAdm* protocols to sets including ancient

groups "on the left" and much younger groups "on the right" (Carlhoff et al. 2021, Oliveira et

al. 2022), since those may be descended partially from the "left" groups (**Fig. 1c, d, e**) and

thus lead to *qpAdm* assumption violations and false positive findings of gene flow. PCA on

four datasets (**Fig. 4b**) and unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* results at some *K* values (**Fig. 4f**) support

these FP models. Thus, a researcher co-analyzing ancient and modern groups due to lack of

ancient samples from certain regions may encounter this situation in practice and, given

support by all methods in the standard archaeogenetic toolkit (*qpAdm*, PCA, and

ADMIXTURE), is likely to conclude that FP models are true. We illustrate another similar

situation often leading to rejection of cladality and acceptance of two-way or even more

complex models (in 33-37 of 40 simulation/subsampling replicates, depending on model and *qpAdm* protocol; setups no. 1 and 2 were considered) in **Fig. S4a**.

Other topological classes of FP models can be concisely described as follows (and are more precisely defined in Methods): 1) gene flow goes from the target lineage (after the last admixture event in its history) to a proxy source lineage (**Fig. 4, Fig. S4a,b**); 2) a proxy source included in the model is symmetrically related to all real sources of ancestry in the target (**Fig. S4c,d**), or both proxy sources represent the same true source and are symmetrically related to all the other true sources (**Fig. S4e**); 3) both proxy sources represent distinct real sources, however a proxy source is a heavily admixed group sharing less than 40% of ancestry with the real source (**Fig. S4a,d**); 4) the target gets a gene flow from a deep-branching source not represented by any sampled population, and an inappropriate proxy source is included in the fitting model (**Fig. S4f,g**). Violations of the topological assumptions of *qpAdm* encountered in these examples of FP model classes and corresponding *qpAdm*, PCA, and *ADMIXTURE* results are described in **Suppl. text 2**.

True positive models

Above and in **Suppl. text 2** we have discussed several examples of FP models that in practice would result in misleading conclusions about population history, and now we turn to feasible models that were interpreted as true in our analysis. We rely on a relaxed definition of true models: two-way admixture models for targets with population history best approximated with three-way and more complex models were considered as true positives if they included at least two source proxies *not* satisfying the topological criteria of false models listed above. We also note that TP models were not restricted to those including most optimal source proxies, if the models do *not* satisfy the false positivity criteria. Stricter definitions of TP models are possible (such as those in the companion paper Williams et al. 2024), but we applied this lenient approach since in the archaeogenetic literature sampling of ancient individuals is often poor, and thus the task is not to find all groups which participated in the history of a given target group, but to identify at least predominant ancestry sources with some degree of precision.

On a random sample of 400 two-way admixture models from our 40 simulated histories, the

fraction of models that were classified as appropriate (true) according to the rules described

above was 17.7%. Since groups that are truly admixed are common in our simulations, we do

not expect to encounter a "needle in a haystack" situation where finding true admixture

models is exceedingly hard. Examples of simulations yielding TP *qpAdm* models are presented

in **Suppl. text 2**.

AGS histories: influence of temporal stratification and data amount/quality on the

performance of qpAdm protocols

To make a qualitative overview of all the *qpAdm* results on AGS histories and to gain intuition

about factors influencing frequency of false results, we placed models in the coordinates of

admixture fractions estimated by *qpAdm* (abbreviated as EAF) and *p*-values (**Figs. 5** and **S5**).

Both high- and low-quality data generated by the most realistic simulation setup were

considered (3,000-Mbp-sized genomes, maximal population divergence depth at 3,000

generations). Since *qpAdm* EAF vary from <<−1 to >>1 and to make this approach scalable to

models more complex than two-way, we use one number instead of several EAF per an *n*-

way model: maximal absolute difference between EAF in that model and equal fractions $\frac{1}{n}$,

abbreviated as max|*EAF–EF*| (**Box 1**). Each two-way model was tested many times: on

different simulation setups, data qualities, replicates and *qpAdm* protocols. We explore the

max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value spaces for three model classes separately: models that were

consistently non-fitting in all our analyses, models that were fitting at least once and classified

as false, and models that were fitting at least once and classified as true (**Figs. 5, S5**). For

comparison, we also visualized models populating the space of EAF standard errors (SE)

reported by *qpAdm* and *p*-values (**Fig. S6**).

Remarkably, the models consistently rejected (not only on the simulations shown in **Fig. 5,**

but throughout this study) demonstrated EAF outside the (0, 1) interval in nearly all cases,

especially on high-quality data, while models that were fitting at least once and classified as

either false or true are characterized by EAF largely in the (0, 1) interval, but their *p*-values

vary along the whole scale (**Fig. 5**). Of the consistently rejected models, 40% are models

whose target populations have 0 admixture events in their history (**Table S1a**) and as

discussed elsewhere we did not classify consistently negative models with admixed targets

into true and false.

Figure 5. All two-way *qpAdm* models tested on AGS simulations are visualized in the space of max|*EAF−EF*| and *p*-values (both axes are logarithmic). Results are shown for the 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes only and stratified in columns by: model subsets (distal or proximal), *qpAdm* protocols, and data quality. Results are also stratified by three model classes: consistently non-fitting (plot rows labelled in purple), fitting at least once in this study and evaluated as false (in red), and fitting at least once in this study and evaluated as true (in green). The whole space is shown: *p*-values from 10^{-306} to 1, and for *p*-values from 3.16×10^{-6} to 1 see **Fig. S5a** (for plots based on fitting models only see **Fig. S5b**). The space is divided into rectangular bins (50×50), and they are colored by density of individual *qpAdm* models populating this space (logarithmic color scale) or by

median values of metrics informative for understanding method performance: target sampling date,
number of admixture events on all paths from the target to the root of an AGS simulation (number of
admixture events in target's history), and difference between number of admixture events in target's
history and average number of admixture events in the history of both proxy sources. The red vertical
lines (or the red tick marks) mark max|*EAF−EF*| = 0.5.

This qualitative overview suggests that EAF are much less variable than *p*-values, and we
quantify this using standard deviations (SD) of $\log_{10}$(*p*-value) or EAF across 10 (or 20, if a
model was evaluated under both rotating and non-rotating protocols)
simulation/subsampling replicates (**Fig. S7**). *P*-values of false, true, and consistently negative
models vary by many orders of magnitude between replicates, and SD grows with increasing
amount of data, up to ca. 30-60 orders of magnitude in the case of noisy data derived from
3,000-Mbp-sized genomes (**Fig. S7**). In contrast, median EAF SDs are consistently between
0.01 and 0.1 for models that were fitting at least once in this study (with very small differences
between false and true models), and between 0.1 and 1 for consistently rejected models (**Fig.**
S7). This analysis confirms that there are two classes of two-way *qpAdm* models on AGS data
that encompass a great majority of all models: those with relatively stable EAF far from (0, 1)
and those with stable EAF within (0, 1). The latter models are universally fitting very rarely
(**Fig. S8**) due to the high variability of *qpAdm p*-values.

It is important to understand if some of these three model classes are enriched for certain
features of target's and proxy sources' admixture histories, and to understand how this is
shaped by the choice of *qpAdm* protocol and by temporal stratification of targets and proxy
sources. According to our definitions, proximal models, and especially proximal models
tested with the rotating protocol, are enriched for targets sampled deep in the past (see **Fig.**
5 for a mapping on the max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value space and **Table S1** for a quantitative
summary and statistical tests). As admixture events were simulated at random points in time
and placed randomly on the graphs, these models are actually enriched for unadmixed
targets (**Fig. 5**): the largest class of models are consistently non-fitting models with
unadmixed targets: ca. 33% of all models tested belong to this class, and ca. 83% of those are
proximal rotating models (**Table S1a**). These models are true negatives (however, this list of
true negatives is not exhaustive). In contrast, proximal non-rotating and distal rotating/non-
rotating models demonstrate unimodal, not monotonically decaying, distributions of target
history complexity, and these distributions are similar in the consistently rejected, false and
true model classes, especially in the former two classes (**Table S1a**).

For the same fundamental reasons, proximal models that were consistently non-fitting or
occasionally fitting and false are characterized by fewer admixture events in target's history
as compared to average number of admixture events in sources' histories (median difference

is −1 in most cases), but this is not the case for proximal models that were occasionally fitting

and true (median difference is around 0, see **Table S1b**). This distinction between true

proximal models and the other two model classes is highly significant for both the rotating

and non-rotating protocols (**Table S1b**). The much smaller difference in this metric between

proximal models that were consistently non-fitting and occasionally fitting and false is

significant too (**Table S1b**). Statistically significant trends in the same direction are observed

for distal models too, but in this case median differences between number of admixture

events in target's history and average number of admixture events in sources' histories

(abbreviated as $AEH_T − av.\ AEH_S$) are positive (**Table S1b**). The chance of encountering

violations of the *qpAdm* assumptions (**Fig. 1**) grows when admixture history of proxy sources

is more complex than that of a target group, explaining these results.

Considering all models on the 3,000-Mbp-sized simulations, $AEH_T − av.\ AEH_S$ is just weakly

correlated to max|*EAF–EF*| or *p*-values, which is also visible in **Fig. 5**: Spearman's correlation

coefficients for various *qpAdm* protocols and data qualities range from -0.49 to 0.3 in five

practically relevant sections of the max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value space (**Table S1c**). Thus, although

false/consistently non-fitting and true models differ significantly according to the $AEH_T − av.$

AEH_S metric, using *p*-values or EAF for predicting which model is true and which is false is not

a fruitful approach. For example, if no condition is imposed on EAF and models with just the

smallest *p*-values ($<10^{-55}$) are removed, Spearman's ρ is close to 0 for both max|*EAF–EF*| and

p-values, −0.19 at most (**Table S1c**). If *p*-value $\geq 10^{-55}$ and max|*EAF–EF*| ≤ 0.5 (which is

equivalent to EAF $\in [0, 1]$), in the case of the distal rotating protocol on both high- and low-

quality data, Spearman's $\rho \approx −0.4$ (this value is significant). Thus, higher *p*-values correspond

to smaller $AEH_T − av.\ AEH_S$, thus actually favoring false models, albeit weakly.

While FP *qpAdm* models are expected for complex genetic histories, the practical usage of

qpAdm protocols relies on an assumption that false positives are rare. As discussed above,

due a fundamental property of AGS histories where complexity (number of admixture events)

grows with time, *qpAdm* false discovery rate (FDR, see **Box 1**) is expected to depend on

enrichment of the sets of tested models for those where proxy source history is more

complex than that of the target. First, we calculated FDR on the complete set of simulated

AGS histories, per each simulation/subsampling replicate (**Fig. 6**). We considered different

amounts of data (depending on genome sizes and simulated population divergence),

 different data quality, rotating and non-rotating protocols, distal or proximal protocols

 (considering both distal and proximal models, **Box 1**), and protocols considering proximal

 models only.

Figure 6. Distributions of FDR values over 10 simulation replicates (for high-quality data) or over 10 subsampling replicates derived from a single simulation replicate (for low-quality data). The distributions are summarized as violin plots with medians and stratified by *qpAdm* protocols (rotating and non-rotating), by model subsets (proximal, distal, or both model types included), by data quality, and by three combinations of simulated genome sizes (300, 1,000, or 3,000 Mbp) and maximal simulation depths (800 or 3,000 generations). The following statistical comparisons were performed with the two-sided Wilcoxon test: across genome sizes, with protocol and data quality fixed (36 non-paired tests); across data qualities, with protocol and genome size fixed (18 non-paired tests); and across protocols, with genome size and data quality fixed (90 paired tests). Paired tests were used in the latter case since the corresponding sets of models are not independent: non-rotating models form a subset of rotating models, and distal and proximal models can be combined. *P*-values (adjusted for multiple testing using the Holm method) are coded in the following way: ns, >0.05; *, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, ≤0.001; ****, ≤0.0001. Most comparisons across protocols are significant at the 0.05 level (omitted for clarity), and only non-significant comparisons of this type are shown with dashed lines.

Indeed, considering distal models only (tested with both rotating and non-rotating protocols)

results in the lowest FDRs down to 2.4%, but even in this case median FDR values across

replicates fluctuated from 16.4% to 31.2% (**Fig. 6**). FDRs based on proximal models tested

with the rotating protocol varied from 72.5% to 100% and grew significantly with increasing

amount of data. A large fraction of false proximal models emerges as fitting due to false

rejections of one-way models because of violations of the topological assumptions (**Fig. 1**),

for instance, due to "left-to-right" gene flows, and that prompts the investigator to test more

complex two-way models, which are often fitting (**Suppl. text 2**). And model rejection is more

efficient when more data is available, explaining the effect on FDR observed here.

FDRs based on proximal models tested with the non-rotating protocol were lower (medians

from 52.1% to 57.7%) and did not depend on the amount of data, suggesting that false model

rejections due to assumption violations play a less important role here, which is expected for

"right" and "left" population sets which are stratified chronologically. Similarly, the amount

of data had no statistically significant influence on FDR when distal models were considered,

except for the non-rotating protocol on high-quality data (increasing the amount of data

reduced FDR, **Fig. 6**). We also note that random subsampling of SNPs and individuals and a

less robust algorithm for calculating f_4-statistics on the low-quality data (with different

statistics calculated on different SNP sets) did not lead to dramatic increases/decreases in

FDR (**Fig. 6**). The observation that the decrease in FDR with increasing amount of data is small

and often non-significant is possibly explained in the following way. Positive models are

defined based on both p-values and EAF (**Box 1**): while EAF are relatively stable (**Fig. S7**), p-

values of individual models decrease exponentially with the amount of data (**Fig. S4**).

However, model rejection is not always "beneficial" for protocol's performance assessed via

FDR since both models with inappropriate proxy sources (false models) and true models with

violations of the topological assumptions (**Fig. 1**) are rejected more often when more data is

added.

In summary, even in optimal conditions (simulation depth of 87000 years on human

timescale, 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes, high-quality diploid data) we did not achieve negligible

FDR when distal models were tested on a collection of random AGS histories, and high data

amount/quality makes FDR based on proximal models grow. In nearly all conditions tested

there is very high variability in FDR across simulated AGS topologies, with many topologies

demonstrating FDR of either 0% or 100% (**Fig. S9**), and hence it is hard to predict if real genetic

histories are prone to generating FP signals of admixture when *qpAdm* protocols are applied.

For an illustration of three topologies most problematic for distal *qpAdm* protocols see **Fig.**

S10. These differences in *qpAdm* performance across topologies are probably driven at least

in part by the fact that some random AGS histories have much "denser" violations of the

qpAdm topological assumptions than others, but this frequency of assumption violations was

not quantified in our study since it requires another layer of manual topological analysis.

We estimated FDR instead of false positive rate due to a technical limitation: the process of

model classification into true and false ones is difficult to automate since it requires careful

interpretation of both the simulated topology and admixture proportions. Therefore,

classifying all possible 34,320 two-way admixture models (858 per simulated topology) into

true and false was hardly feasible. We estimated false positive (FPR) and true positive rates

(TPR) only approximately, relying on the fractions of negatives and positives in random

samples of two-way admixture models (see below). FPR in our context is the probability that

a two-way model with an unadmixed target and/or inappropriate proxy source(s) emerges as

fitting in a single *qpAdm* test. TPR in our context is the probability that a two-way model with

an admixed target and both proxy sources being appropriate emerges as fitting in a *qpAdm*

test.

The fraction of two-way admixture models that are inappropriate according to our topological

criteria (the fraction of negatives) in a random sample of 400 proximal and distal rotating

models from all the simulated AGS histories is 82.3%, which allows us to approximately

estimate not only FDR (48%–78.7%), but the FPR of the proximal rotating protocol = number

of false positives / number of negatives per simulation replicate [858 models × 40 graphs ×

fraction of negatives] = 0.04%–2.6% across simulation parameter combinations and

replicates summarized in **Fig. 6**. The TPR of the proximal rotating protocol = number of true

positives / number of positives per simulation replicate [858 models × 40 graphs × (1 −

fraction of negatives)] = 0.2%–10.1%. Here are the same statistics for the distal non-rotating

protocol: the fraction of negatives in a random sample of 400 distal non-rotating models from

all simulated graphs, 74.3%; total number of distal non-rotating two-way models across all

graph topologies, 1804; FDR across simulation parameter combinations and replicates from

Fig. 6, 10.9%–34.4%; FPR, 0.2%–3.2%; TPR, 3.5%–24.4%. Thus, although FPR of a single

qpAdm test applied to a random AGS history is low, due to the high proportion of negatives

among all models (**Figs. 5, S8**) and the low TPR, FDR becomes high, compromising historical

interpretation of such screens for admixture.

As we show in **Suppl. text 3** (**Fig. S11, Tables S2** and **S3**), it is impossible to decrease FDR of

the proximal rotating protocol dramatically by combining it with other methods (PCA and

unsupervised *ADMIXTURE*) or by adjusting *p*-value thresholds. However, it is possible to

decrease FDR of distal *qpAdm* protocols to ca. 0% if positive *qpAdm* results are further

validated by PCA and the unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* (Alexander et al. 2009) methods (**Suppl.**

text 4, **Table S4**). In that supplemental section we also explore the performance of proximal

non-rotating *qpAdm* protocols combined with model competition (Narasimhan et al. 2019)

(**Suppl. text 4**, **Table S5**).

Introducing SSL histories

Since effects of prolonged gene flows in the context of a simple AGS history were studied by

Harney *et al*. (2021), here we explore a more extreme case also investigated in that study

briefly, namely stepping-stone landscapes (SSL) where gene flows between the nearest

neighbors are continuous and affect the whole landscape (see **Box 1** for a definition). SSL

composed of panmictic demes approximate isolation-by-distance landscapes composed of

individuals and small exogamous groups. We simulated SSL that are more realistic than

uniform gene-flow scenarios and/or one-dimensional strings of demes (Novembre et al.

2008, Duforet-Frebourg and Slatkin 2016, Harney et al. 2021, Tournebize and Chikhi 2023),

namely two-dimensional landscapes with gene-flow intensities that are non-uniform both in

space and time (Petkova et al. 2016, Al-Asadi et al. 2019). Approximately circular landscapes

composed of 64 panmictic demes of constant effective size (1,000 diploid individuals) were

simulated as arising via multifurcation ("star radiation") and then evolving for ca. 2,500

generations with non-uniform bidirectional gene-flows (**Fig. 7**).

Four types of SSL were simulated, characterized by varying ranges of gene-flow intensities,

with 10 simulation/gene-flow intensity replicates per range. Each intensity range corresponds

to gene-flow between two neighbouring demes in one direction per generation. An intensity

value means that a given fraction of effective population size in a generation comes from

migrants from a specified neighbouring deme. In all the cases, gene-flow intensities were sampled at the start of each "gene-flow epoch" from uniform distributions, except for the ca. 10^{-5} to 10^{-2} range which were sampled from a normal distribution centred at 0 (**Table S6**). The four gene-flow intensity ranges between two neighbouring demes in one direction are as follows: (ca. 10^{-5} to 10^{-2}), (ca. 10^{-5} to 10^{-4}), (ca. 10^{-4} to 10^{-3}), and (ca. 10^{-3} to 10^{-2}) per generation (**Table S6, Fig. S13b,c**).

Figure 7. Diagrams summarizing principles of SSL simulations, SSL-based *qpAdm* setups, and approaches we used for interpreting *qpAdm* results in this context. Key features of the simulations are as follows: 1) origin of all the demes via a multifurcation; 2) the 2D space is quantized into 64 demes of small and stable effective population size; 3) gene-flow intensities between neighboring demes are generated by random sampling from normal or uniform distributions (in certain intervals), at the beginning of "gene-flow epochs"; 4) at least three gene-flow epochs were simulated ("pre-LGM", "LGM", and "post-LGM"); 5) all the demes are sampled at three time points ("slices" of the

landscape) in the second half of the "post-LGM" epoch. *qpAdm* experiments (rotating and non-rotating, distal and proximal) were constructed by subsampling this initial set of deme samples randomly or systematically, as illustrated by the examples on the left and the right, respectively. Each *qpAdm* model (two- to four-way) was then characterized by 8 numbers: 3 of those were derived from *qpAdm* outputs, and 5 were properties of the model in the context of the landscape. The former metrics are as follows: max|*EAF–EF*|, max. SE, and *p*-value. The latter numbers are termed "model optimality metrics": min. STS angle, max. ST distance, average ST distance, Euclidean distance to the ideal symmetric model (marked by the orange circle) in the space of model optimality metrics (illustrated in the lower left corner of the figure) based on min. STS angle and max. or average ST distance. For simplicity, interpretation of *qpAdm* results at the level of experiments is not covered in these diagrams.

In the case of *f*-statistics, simulating $n \times m$ demes and sampling m of them evenly is equivalent to simulating m demes, but with proportionally lower gene-flow intensities. Since the size of the landscapes (64 demes) was the same across the gene-flow intensity brackets, these landscape types, judging by the F_{ST} distributions (**Fig. S13a**), can be thought of as representing regions of different size: from very sparse global sampling (10^{-5} to 10^{-4}, median F_{ST} = 0.41, which is close to the highest F_{ST} between African and non-African humans) to dense sampling in a sub-continental region (10^{-3} to 10^{-2}, median F_{ST} = 0.02, corresponding, e.g., to the Bronze Age West Asian populations analyzed by Lazaridis *et al*. 2016). Thus, by varying gene-flow intensity (**Fig. S13b,c**) we explored different levels of "'landscape sparsity": a landscape property that, as we show below, is probably the single most important predictor of *qpAdm* performance on SSL. The "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" type of landscapes, enriched for low-intensity gene flows due to sampling from the non-uniform distribution, but also including high-intensity flows (**Fig. S13b,c**), is probably closer to real-world *qpAdm* protocols (**Suppl. text 1**) where worldwide "right" groups are combined with groups from a small region of interest where intensive admixture is hypothesized. Median F_{ST} for this landscape type is 0.06 (**Fig. S13a**), which is typical for the commonly studied human groups from the Stone- and Bronze Age Europe (F_{ST} between 0.05 and 0.09, Speidel et al. 2024).

To keep the simulations computationally tractable, the genome size was restricted to 500 Mbp with mutation and recombination rates that are realistic for humans (see Methods). See **Fig. S13a** and **Fig. S14** for F_{ST} distributions and counts of polymorphic sites in these simulations, respectively. In the following sections we explore effects on performance of *qpAdm* protocols of the following variables: 1) landscape sparsity; 2) randomized vs. systematic sampling of demes for *qpAdm* experiments (see examples in **Fig. 7**); 3) the four

basic types of high-throughput *qpAdm* admixture screens described above (distal and

proximal, rotating and non-rotating, summarized in **Fig. S12**); 4) and a wide range of

composite *qpAdm* model feasibility criteria (see Methods).

SSL histories: randomized sampling of landscapes

Our motivation for focusing on randomized sampling of landscapes for subsequent *qpAdm*

analysis is informed by the archaeological practice. In most regions and periods, a substantial

fraction of ancient human population remains archaeologically (and thus archaeogenetically)

invisible due to various reasons: 1) burial rites that leave no suitable remains such as

cremation (Cerezo-Román et al. 2017), tree burials (Lindig 1964), or burial on or above ground

(Pavlinskaya 2009); 2) poor DNA preservation conditions such as acidic soil or hot climate

(Baxter 2004); 3) biases in archaeological research that is often driven by salvage excavations

in industrial/agricultural landscapes, but leave other landscapes out, or by political agendas;

4) lack of exhaustive and systematic sampling of even the existing anthropological collections.

Thus, even a completely random sampling of a genetic landscape, as implemented in this

study, may be viewed as a reasonable conservative baseline for studying method

performance.

As stated above, we explored four *qpAdm* protocols (**Fig. S12**). For example, in the case of

the distal rotating protocol, for a target deme randomly picked from the "present" sampling

point, we sampled 13 or 18 demes randomly from the two older sampling points combined

(100 and 300 generations before present), and they formed a rotating set of proxy sources

and "right" groups (**Fig. 7**). All possible one- to four-way *qpAdm* models on this subset of 13

or 18 demes were tested, and this collection of models for one target we termed "a *qpAdm*

experiment" (**Box 1**). Below we describe our analysis of *qpAdm* performance (based on

12,800 experiments and 27,511,200 individual *qpAdm* models) and propose guidelines for

interpreting *qpAdm* results on randomly sampled SSL, both at the level of models and

experiments (the FDR results on the AGS histories above are based on models, not

experiments, but experiments were considered in **Suppl. text 2**).

Instead of a binary classification of models into TP and FP, which makes no sense in the case

of SSL, we ranked them by various "optimality metrics" based on (maximal or average) spatial

distances between the target and sources and on angles formed by pairs of sources and the

target (minimal source-target-source angle; **Fig. 7, Box 2**). Spatial distance is a noisy

approximation for genetic distance, but since gene flows between non-neighboring demes

were not allowed, gene-flow intensities on the landscapes (in the last epoch including our

sampling points) were relatively uniform for all the SSL types except for "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" (**Table

S6, Fig. S13c**), and since our main analyses were randomized and replicated (gene-flow

intensities were re-sampled randomly for each simulation replicate and sets of demes for

qpAdm experiments were drawn randomly), relationships between genetic (F_{ST}) and spatial

distances are strong, approximately linear (Pearson's *r* from 0.65 to 0.76), and remain

identical across *qpAdm* protocols on the same SSL type and very similar across SSL types,

judging by slopes of linear trends (**Fig. S13d,e**). These statements are true for three SSL types,

apart from "10^{-5} to 10^{-4}" (**Fig. S13d,e**). Thus, differences in *qpAdm* performance which we are

most interested in, namely those across *qpAdm* protocols, gene-flow intensity ranges, and

model complexities (established with the help of distance-based model optimality metrics),

depend on factors other than the shape of the genetic-spatial distance relationship.

Moreover, genetic distance measures such as F_{ST} and haplotype sharing statistics on SSL

depend on gene flows in both directions, but *qpAdm* results are traditionally interpreted in

terms of source-to-target gene flows only.

Box 2. Definitions relevant for *qpAdm* models on SSL.

maximal (or average) source-target distance (max. ST distance, average ST distance)	The largest (or average) spatial distance on an SSL between source demes and the target deme within one admixture model. In this study, non-contemporaneous samples from the same deme were assigned a distance of 0, the nearest neighbors a distance of 1, and so on.
minimal source-target-source angle (min. STS angle)	The smallest angle formed by any pair of proxy sources and the target in an admixture model in the context of an SSL. If location of a source coincides with the target deme, minimal STS angle is undefined.
symmetrically arranged proxy sources	Demes arranged on an SSL with respect to the target at 180°, 120°, or 90° (for two-, three-, and four-way models, respectively).
ideal symmetric model	In the case of two-way and more complex models on an SSL, these are models where all sources are the nearest neighbors of the target (distance = 1 in this study) and are arranged

	symmetrically. Although models with a source at a distance of 0 are even better, they were not included in this definition since for them min. STS angles were undefined. Due to the topology of the underlying triangular lattice, we lacked ideal four-way models. Although we use the term "ideal", these models are ideal only in the context of the respective model complexity class since full description of target's ancestry on our simulated SSL requires up to 7 sources: the immediate ancestor and up to six neighboring demes.
distance to the ideal symmetric model (in the space of optimality metrics)	Euclidean distance in a two-dimensional space formed by two model metrics: max. (or average) ST distance and min. STS angle. Min. STS angles are normalized: they are divided by a constant such that the maximal angle (180°, 120°, or 90° for two-, three-, and four-way models, respectively) equals 9, which is the maximal possible source-target distance on our landscapes. Distance in the space of optimality metrics is measured between a given admixture model and the ideal symmetric model of the same complexity.
model optimality metrics	The following metrics are collectively termed "optimality metrics": max. (or average) ST distance, min. STS angle, and distance to the ideal symmetric model in the optimality metric space.
landscape sparsity	Landscape sampling density which depends both on the range of gene-flow intensities simulated and on the number of demes selected for an analysis. Landscapes with lower gene-flow intensity and/or deme sampling density for *qpAdm* are sparser, given their equal size in demes and identical topology. We use a term "dense landscape" instead of "landscape with low sparsity".

qpAdm performance at the level of models: model optimality metrics in spaces of estimated admixture fractions and p-values

Our exploration of *qpAdm* performance on AGS histories above and nearly all *qpAdm* results in the literature rely on fixed *p*-value thresholds, usually set at 0.01 or 0.05 (Skoglund et al. 2017, Harney et al. 2018, Narasimhan et al. 2019, Olalde et al. 2019, Yang et al. 2020, Carlhoff et al. 2021, Fernandes et al. 2021, Librado et al. 2021, Zhang et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Oliveira et al. 2022, Nakatsuka et al. 2023, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Kerdoncuff et al. 2024). Implicit usage of higher "fuzzy" *p*-value thresholds is also common in the literature when only models with the highest *p*-values are interpreted from historical perspective (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Fernandes et al. 2020, Bergström et al. 2022,

Lazaridis et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Carlhoff et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024). Another part

of the composite feasibility criteria, namely conditions on estimated admixture fractions

(EAF), are also used very often (see the Introduction for a brief overview of the literature).

With these considerations in mind, we first inspect results (all *qpAdm* protocols pooled) for

the four landscape types in the coordinates of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-values (**Fig. 8, Fig. S15**).

We also analyzed spaces of EAF standard errors reported by *qpAdm* vs. *p*-values (**Figs. S16,**

S17). On these two-dimensional spaces we mapped median values of the "optimality metrics"

characterizing *qpAdm* models: maximal (**Fig. 8**) or average (**Fig. S15**) source-target (ST)

distance in a model and minimal source-target-source (STS) angle (**Figs. 8, S15**).

It is immediately obvious that continent-wide landscapes sampled very sparsely

(approximated by SSL with gene-flow intensities per generation from ca. 10^{-5} to 10^{-4}) are

unsuitable for *qpAdm* analyses since the model bins with low *p*-values and EAF between 0

and 1 are not enriched in optimal models (those with small max. ST distances and/or

symmetrically arranged sources) (**Fig. 8**) and absolute Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

(ρ) for max|*EAF–EF*| or *p*-value vs. any optimality metric does not exceed 0.1 (if max|*EAF–*

EF| $\leq$0.5 and *p*-value $\geq10^{-5}$; see **Table S7**). Although this high level of sparsity is probably rare

in practice, it may approach the current sampling situation for the Paleolithic humans (Posth

et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Allentoft et al. 2024). In contrast, for the other landscape sparsity

levels we simulated there are strong correlations between max|*EAF–EF*| and the model

optimality metrics, for some model complexities at least (**Fig. 8, Table S7**; see also correlation

coefficients stratified by *qpAdm* protocols in **Table S8**). For instance, in the case of two-way

models there is a sharp boundary between models with EAF between 0 and 1 and those

outside of this interval (the latter corresponding to max|*EAF–EF*| >0.5): the area to the left

of this boundary is enriched in symmetric models, while the area to the right of it is enriched

in asymmetric models, and this is true for all three denser SSLs (**Fig. 8**). This corresponds to

significant Spearman's ρ between –0.65 and –0.81 for max|*EAF–EF*| vs. min. STS angle for

two-way models on the "10^{-4} to 10^{-3}", "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}", and "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscape types (*p*-

values $\geq10^{-5}$ or $\geq10^{-55}$; **Table S7**).

This result is trivial in the context of *qpAdm* and shows that the method usually fails to report

EAF in the interval (0, 1) for models with asymmetrically arranged proxy sources. There is a

similar, albeit more complex, relationship of max|*EAF–EF*| with maximal (**Fig. 8**) or average

(**Fig. S15**) ST distances. These relationships of max|*EAF–EF*| with the angle- and distance-

based optimality metrics gradually disappear with growing model complexity and landscape

sparsity (**Fig. 8, Fig. S15**) as illustrated by Spearman's ρ (**Table S7**). Thus, there exists a limit

to model complexity that makes sense to explore with *qpAdm* on SSL.

Figure 8. Randomized two to four-way *qpAdm* models in the space of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-values
(both axes are logarithmic). Results for all *qpAdm* protocols are combined but stratified by model
complexity and landscape type. Two sections of the space are shown: *p*-values from 10^{-55} to 1 (the

upper five rows of plots) and from 3.16×10^{-6} to 1 (the four rows below them). The space is divided
into rectangular bins (50×50 for the larger section and 35×35 for the smaller section), and they are
colored by density of individual *qpAdm* models populating this space (logarithmic color scale) or by
median values of model optimality metrics in those bins: max. ST distance, min. STS angle, and
Euclidean distance to the ideal symmetric model. Density of ideal symmetric models (in the case of
four-way models, the most optimal non-ideal models available on our SSL) in this space is also shown
(in 75×75 bins). To assess if distributions of ideal symmetric models over *p*-values are uniform, we use
non-logarithmic *p*-value scale (the bottom row of plots). The red vertical lines (or the red tick marks)
mark max$|EAF–EF|$ = 0.5, and the green horizontal lines mark the lowest and highest *p*-value
thresholds used in this study (0.001 and 0.5).

In the dimension of *p*-values, there also exists a relationship with the model optimality

metrics, but it is much weaker (**Fig. 8, Fig. S15**). For example, in the practically relevant range

of *p*-values (10^{-5} to 1) and for max$|EAF–EF| \leq 0.5$, there is no correlation with max. ST distance

and with min. STS angle (**Table S7**) on the "10^{-4} to 10^{-3}", "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}", and "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}"

landscapes (**Fig. 8**). There is weak correlation with average ST distance in the same part of the

space (significant Spearman's ρ up to -0.27, **Table S7**). This relationship also decays with

growing model complexity and landscape sparsity (**Table S7**).

We observe that *qpAdm* favors models including target's nearest neighbors that are,

moreover, arranged symmetrically around the target, so-called "ideal symmetric models"

(**Box 2**), and our analyses in the next section further support that statement (**Fig. S19a**).

Considering this observation, it is convenient to merge the angle- and distance-based

optimality metrics into one, that is Euclidean distance in the space of max. (or average) ST

distances and min. STS angles between a given admixture model and the ideal symmetric

model of the same complexity (**Fig. 7, Box 2**). Considering *p*-values in a wide range (10^{-55} to

1) and max$|EAF–EF| \leq 0.5$, there is no correlation between *p*-values and these two composite

optimality metrics in the case of three- and four-way models (the most negative ρ is -0.04,

Table S7), and weak correlation in the case of two-way models, but on the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}"

landscapes only (significant $\rho = -0.39$ and -0.48; **Table S7, Fig. 8, Fig. S15**). While conditions

on admixture proportion estimates do enrich the set of retained randomized models for

symmetric ones, *p*-value thresholds used in practice (0.001, 0.01, 0.05, and even higher

implicit thresholds) discard fractions of randomized ideal symmetric models that are much

greater than these thresholds (**Table S9**): e.g., the 0.05 threshold discards 44.7% of three-way

ideal models on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes. The only condition where the distributions

approach uniformity is the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes and three- and four-way models (**Fig. 8,**

Fig. S15, Table S9).

Thus, the distributions of ideal randomized models on the *p*-value axis become uniform with

decreasing landscape sparsity and increasing model complexity, which is an expected

behavior since none of the models we tested are truly ideal considering the topology of the

landscape with an immediate ancestor and up to six neighboring demes for each target deme

(**Fig. 7**, see however an exploration of six-way models in the systematic SSL sampling context

below). Another reason for the non-uniformity of the *p*-value distributions are complex

networks of gene flows that permeate the landscape and lead to low *p*-values of *qpAdm*

models due to violations of the assumptions on the "left" – "right" gene flows (**Fig. 1**) that

were derived originally on AGS histories (Haak et al. 2015, Harney et al. 2021), but not on SSL.

In summary, in any *qpAdm* screening relying on stringent *p*-value thresholds such as 0.01

there exists a large class of models that have non-negative admixture proportion estimates

and are relatively close to optimal ones but are rejected according to *p*-values. We explore

performance of threshold-based *qpAdm* protocols in the following sections.

We note that ideal four-way models (those with the nearest target's neighbors arranged at

90°) are lacking on our landscapes based on the triangular lattice: demes there are arranged

with a step of 60° around a chosen deme. In **Figs. 8**, **S15-S17**, **S27**, **S28**, and in **Table S9** we do

show results for "ideal" four-way models where all sources are targets' nearest neighbors

and min. STS angles are above 0, but they show a marked uptick in negativity of admixture

proportion estimates as compared to truly ideal two- and three-way models (**Table S9**), which

reflects the fact that these models are actually not ideal even in their complexity class.

qpAdm performance at the level of models: model optimality metrics in spaces of admixture

fractions SE and p-values

Maximal standard errors of EAF (abbreviated as max. SE) correlate strongly with max|*EAF*–

EF| (**Figs. S16, S17**): Spearman's ρ range from 0.81 to 0.94 (when models are stratified by

landscape type and model complexity) or from 0.76 to 0.95 (when models are stratified by

landscape type, model complexity, *qpAdm* protocol, and sampling density; all the coefficients

are statistically significant). Therefore, if we consider max. SE instead of max|*EAF*–*EF*|, the

same patterns are visible with respect to *p*-values and optimality metrics, but they are less clear-cut in the former case (**Figs. S16, S17, Tables S7, S8**). For instance, Spearman's ρ for min. STS angle vs. max|*EAF–EF*| are in all cases higher, albeit slightly, than those vs. max. SE (for two- to four-way models on the "10^{-4} to 10^{-3}", "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}", and "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscape types, and *p*-values $\geq 10^{-55}$ or $\geq 10^{-5}$; **Table S7**). The same is true for correlations between *p*-values and optimality metrics in the most practically relevant parts of the two-dimensional spaces we inspect here (**Table S7**).

Inspecting the distributions of max. (or average) ST distances in the SE dimension, we note "striped" patterns, namely two or more separate SE intervals populated by sources relatively close to targets, probably arising due to the "quantized" nature of our landscape (**Figs. S16, S17**). Interestingly, models having the lowest SE do not demonstrate the smallest median max. ST distances. In contrast, that part of the space is populated by most symmetric models (**Figs. S16, S17**) suggesting that symmetric arrangement of sources is more important for achieving low SE than spatial proximity to the target.

qpAdm performance at the level of models: one-way models

High *p*-values of one-way *qpAdm* models (equivalent to "pairwise *qpWave* tests") are often used as evidence for "cladality" and "genetic continuity" in the archaeogenetic literature (see, e.g., Papac et al. 2021, Changmai et al. 2022a, Skourtanioti et al. 2023), and such *qpWave* tests also became popular as a method for individual clustering that precedes other analyses (Fernandes et al. 2020, Fernandes et al. 2021, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Antonio et al. 2024, Speidel et al. 2024). We show in the context of our randomized *qpAdm* experiments that their interpretation on SSL depends on properties of those landscapes (**Fig. S18**). For instance, of one-way models having *p*-value ≥ 0.05 on the sparsest landscapes ("10^{-5} to 10^{-4}"), just 8.7% include groups sampled from the same deme at different times (spatial distance = 0; **Table S10**), and there is a relatively flat distribution of models over spatial distances in this subset of models: 54.7% of "fitting" one-way models include demes at a distance of 3 or greater (**Fig. S18, Table S10**). And frequency of "fitting" one-way models in our equal-sized sets of random experiments is also highly variable across landscape types: e.g., it is ca. 10 times higher for the "10^{-5} to 10^{-4}" landscapes than for the "10^{-4} to 10^{-3}" landscapes (**Fig. S18, Table S10**). In

the latter case ("10^{-4} to 10^{-3}"), most "fitting" one-way models (~85%) correspond to samples

from the same deme (**Table S10**). With growing gene-flow intensity the rate of one-way

model rejection grows, as expected, and the mode of this distribution moves from samples

from the same deme to the nearest demes (**Table S10**).

The statements above describe various aspects of the shape of model distributions in the

space of spatial distances between demes and p-values. There is a non-linear trend line that

links p-value and spatial distance on all the landscapes, except for the sparsest landscape type

where the shape of the distribution is strikingly different and more complex (**Fig. S18**). We

also note that ideal one-way models (defined here as pairs of samples from the same deme)

show very similar distributions over p-values for all the four sparsity levels, and with growing

gene-flow intensity on the landscape these distributions become more different from the

uniform one, as expected. Therefore, the differences in model distributions between the

landscapes are mostly due to "non-ideal" models, which are much more common in our

random model samples (**Fig. S18**).

To sum up, on the sparsest landscapes we simulated the high frequency of pairwise *qpWave*

tests reporting high p-values reflects the initial multifurcation (**Fig. 7**) and a very low rate of

subsequent gene flows, that is a situation that approaches all vs. all cladality (**Fig. S18**, **Table**

S10). However, on landscapes of higher density the method works mainly as a test for genetic

continuity since it identifies samples from the same deme, and, with increasing gene-flow

intensity, clusters of nearby demes become progressively less structured, and the method

identifies members of these clusters as "genetically continuous". On the contrary, samples

from the same deme at different time points become more dissimilar with increasing gene-

flow intensities, and *qpWave* is sensitive to that (**Fig. S18**). Thus, interpretation of pairwise

qpWave results in practice is confounded by these two very different scenarios producing

equal outcomes, i.e., high p-values. In other words, interpretation of a high p-value

encountered in practice could be hindered by a lack of knowledge about the sparsity of the

underlying landscape.

1033

qpAdm performance at the level of models: threshold-based analyses in spaces of model

optimality metrics

In the previous section we undertook a very general overview of *qpAdm* results on SSL and

reached some preliminary conclusions on performance of threshold-based *qpAdm* protocols

used in practice for finding optimal models for target groups or individuals. Here we apply

the thresholds on *p*-values and EAF explicitly and explore a wide range of composite feasibility

criteria, looking at distributions of models passing these criteria in two-dimensional spaces

formed by the optimality metrics (**Fig. 7**). Models with at least one source occupying the same

position as the target were not included in this analysis as we considered min. STS angles to

be undefined for them.

As explained in **Box 1**, composite feasibility criteria include not only conditions on EAF and *p*-

value thresholds but may also include a condition that all "trailing" simpler models are

rejected according to *p*-values ("trailing" models should not be confused with all simpler

models tested for a given target in an experiment, see **Box 1**). As another condition (rarely

used in practice, to our knowledge), we tested a *p*-value threshold for rejection of "trailing"

models that differs from the "main" *p*-value threshold. In total, we tested 36 composite

feasibility criteria, with *p*-value thresholds ranging from 0.001 to 0.5, which covers the whole

range of thresholds used in the literature explicitly or implicitly, and with three types of

conditions on EAF (see **Table S11** and Methods for a complete list). Results for seven selected

criteria, from the most relaxed to the most stringent, are presented in the figures cited below.

Since this analysis was performed on all possible combinations of source demes drawn

randomly from SSL, the spaces of optimality metrics are populated by models highly unevenly

(**Fig. 9**; see the spaces based on average ST distance in **Fig. S20**). This may be viewed as a

drawback of our analysis but, on the other hand, this randomized analysis may inform us on

real-world performance of *qpAdm* protocols (that test all combinations of many source

groups) since the existing archaeogenetic sampling of humans and other species in many

regions/periods is sparse and nearly random.

First, we explore the positive rate of *qpAdm* (**Box 1**), dividing the spaces of optimality metrics

into two-dimensional bins: the positive rate is simply a fraction of all models tested (within a

bin) passing a feasibility criterion (**Fig. S19a,b,d, S20a,c,e**). Under stringent criteria (such as

EAF $\pm$ 2 SE in the interval (0, 1), *p*-value $\geq$0.05, "trailing" models rejected), positive rates

approach 0 in most parts of the optimality metric space except for its upper left corner where

ideal symmetric models (**Fig. 7, Box 2**) lie. This is true for most levels of landscape sparsity

and for most model complexities we tested (**Figs. S19a, S20a**). These results are based on all

the *qpAdm* protocols combined, and we show results for rotating and non-rotating protocols

separately in **Figs S19b,d** and **S20c,e** (results for each individual protocol are not presented

since they were generally very similar within the rotating and non-rotating classes). However,

enrichment of feasible model sets for ideal symmetric models is not a universal trend: as

expected from our exploration of max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value spaces above, the enrichment

level falls with growing landscape sparsity (see the results for the "10^{-5} to 10^{-4}" landscapes)

and model complexity (see the results for three-way and especially four-way models).

Another trend noticeable is poorer performance of the non-rotating protocols as compared

to rotating protocols: with growing stringency of feasibility criteria, the "hot spot" of *qpAdm*

positive rate moves not to ideal symmetric models, but to symmetric models including at

least one more distant source (compare **Figs. S19b** and **S19d**, **S20c** and **S20e**). A similar trend

is observed when rotating protocols are applied to the "densest" landscape ("10^{-3} to 10^{-2}"),

but in the case of four-way models only (**Figs. S19b** and **S20c**). In other words, sources closest

to a target are usually rejected in the context of complex models on densely sampled

landscapes with high gene-flow intensities.

At the other end of the feasibility criteria stringency range tested (such as EAF ∈ (0, 1), *p*-

value ≥0.01, "trailing" models not checked) in the space of max. ST distance and min. STS

angle, *qpAdm* positive rate is strongly and negatively correlated to density of randomized

models populating the same space (**Table S11**). In other words, *qpAdm* positive rate peaks

not in the upper left corner only, but in an arc on the upper edge of the optimality metric

space (**Fig. S19**). This pattern is due to the fact that large min. STS angles are strongly

associated with non-negative EAF (∈ (0, 1)), which is a part of the composite feasibility

criterion, while max. ST distances are much less strongly associated with both non-negative

EAF and high *p*-values (**Fig. 8, Table S7**). This pattern disappears with growing stringency of

the feasibility criteria, at varying rates depending on landscape sparsity and model

complexity, and it is absent in the optimality metric spaces based on average ST distances,

except for two-way models on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes (**Fig. S19, Table S11**).

For assessing practical significance of *qpAdm*'s "preference" for nearly ideal symmetric

models it is important to look at the system not only through the lens of positive rates (**Fig.**

S19), but also at density of fitting models in the optimality metric space (**Fig. 9**). That density

is influenced both by details of *qpAdm* protocols and by random landscape sampling itself,

and we consider this approach as a conservative approximation for high-throughput *qpAdm*

protocols on the real-world archaeogenetic sampling. Results for rotating and non-rotating

protocols are shown separately in **Figs. S19c,e** and **S20d,f**. Results in the spaces based on

average ST distance are shown in **Fig. S20b,d,f**. We use Spearman's ρ based on model counts

in bins to compare two-dimensional distributions (in the optimality metric space) of fitting

models and of all target-source configurations prior to *qpAdm* testing (**Table S11**).

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Figure 9. Randomized two to four-way *qpAdm* models in the space of model optimality metrics: max.
ST distance and min. STS angle (models with the latter metric undefined were excluded from this
analysis). Results for all *qpAdm* protocols are combined but stratified by model complexity and
landscape type. The upper row of plots shows density of all randomized models tested, and the other
rows show density of fitting models satisfying selected composite feasibility criteria listed in the
captions on the right (7 of 36 criteria tested in this study, from the least stringent on top to the most
stringent at the bottom). All the color scales are logarithmic. The space was divided into 9 bins on the
x-axis (bin width = 1), and 18 bins on the y-axis (intervals [0°, 10°], (10°, 20°], and so forth). Spearman's

1114 correlation coefficients for counts of all models vs. fitting models in these bins are shown in each
1115 panel in brown (bins not populated by any models were not considered). The red horizontal lines mark
1116 the "ideal" min. STS angles for three- and four-way models (120° and 90°). The red and green numbers
1117 above each plot stand for counts of rejected and fitting models in those analyses, respectively.

1118

In the cases of four- and three-way models, only very specific landscape properties and

feasibility criteria led to depletion of the sets of fitting models for non-optimal models (those

with small min. STS angles and at least one distant source), which is evidenced by Spearman's

ρ (for total model counts vs. fitting model counts in two-dimensional bins) not significantly

different from 0 under these conditions, but high and significant under nearly all the other

conditions tested (**Table S11**). These conditions are as follows: the densest landscape tested

("10^{-3} to 10^{-2}") and EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1). These results are in line with our observations in the

preceding section (**Fig. 8**), namely that EAF (and their SE correlated with them) and landscape

sparsity, in contrast to model *p*-values (which are highly variable due to gene flows in all

directions on the landscapes), are correlated to both angle- and distance-based model

optimality metrics strongly. We do not highlight other acceptable combinations of landscape

sparsity and feasibility criteria such as "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" and EAF $\in$ (0, 1) (**Table S11**) since they

are applicable to a narrower range of model complexities (do not perform well for four-way

models, for example), or yield very low overall positive rates.

Introducing very stringent feasibility criteria (such as *p*-value $\geq$0.5, "trailing" models rejected

with *p* <0.001, EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1)) is probably impractical since it drives the overall *qpAdm*

positivity rate to extremely low values, especially in the case of complex models: on the order

of 10^{-4} to 10^{-6} for three-way models and 10^{-6} to 10^{-7} and even lower for four-way models (**Fig.**

9, Table S11). As we discuss below in the section "Systematic sampling: exploring truly ideal

six-way models", despite *p*-values growing with increasing model complexity, fraction of

models with EAF $\in$ (0, 1) falls sharply, probably due to increasing uncertainty in EAF estimates,

and that is responsible for the low positive rates based on composite feasibility criteria. For

practical purposes, to keep overall *qpAdm* positive rate reasonably high (ca. 10^{-2} to 10^{-4}

depending on model complexity, see **Table S11**), we recommend using the least stringent

feasibility criteria satisfying the conditions described above: restricting *qpAdm* sampling (in

both "right" and "left" sets) to sub-continental regions such as West Asia in the case of

humans (which corresponds approximately to the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes); stringent

conditions on EAF such as EAF ± 2 SE ∈ (0, 1); a low *p*-value threshold for "fitting" models

(such as 0.001) and no *p*-value thresholds for rejecting simpler "trailing" models. We note

that, following this approach, it is hardly possible to find a single best model complexity level

for a target and a single best model at that complexity level, but that is hardly achievable in

principle on SSL as we discuss in the next section.

We analyzed this most optimal combination of landscape sparsity and feasibility criteria in

greater detail, looking at results stratified by *qpAdm* protocols in **Figs. S21** (optimality metric

spaces based on max. ST distance) and **S22** (optimality metric spaces based on average ST

distance). On these spaces we map density of models tested (**Figs. S21a, S22a**), *qpAdm*

positive rates (**Figs. S21b, S22b**), and counts of feasible models (**Figs. S21c, S22c**). No striking

differences in enrichment for nearly optimal models are observed across all the four

protocols and two sampling densities tested.

Inspecting the spaces formed by average ST distance and min. STS angle, we observe the

same trends (**Fig. S20b,d,f**). Considering the radius and shape of the SSL studied here (**Fig. 7**),

the triangular region in the lower right corner of the optimality metric space (**Fig. S20b,d,f**) is

populated by models where a target is located close to (or on) one edge of the landscape and

at least some proxy sources are located close to the opposite edge of the landscape (average

ST distance >4.5, which is the radius of the landscape). Complete elimination of those highly

asymmetric models from sets of fitting models is more achievable for two-way models, but is

achievable for three- and especially four-way models only on the densest landscape "10^{-3} to

10^{-2}" and/or when the most stringent conditions on EAF are applied (**Fig. S20b, Table S11**).

In summary, all the analyses discussed in this section point to a simple conclusion: when

qpAdm models and sets of "right" groups or rotating sets are constructed randomly,

depleting the sets of fitting models for highly non-ideal models is probably practical only for

two-way models, but for three-way and more complex models (which are, naturally, more

interesting in the SSL context) it requires stringent conditions on EAF and access to densely-

sampled landscapes. Importantly, high *p*-value thresholds often used in the literature

explicitly or implicitly (≥0.05) are counter-productive in the SSL context since they do not

improve recovery of optimal models in relative terms but result in very low positive rates.

1175

qpAdm performance at the level of threshold-based experiments

In this section *qpAdm* results are interpreted from the perspective of experiments (**Box 1**)

which progress from simple to complex models (from one-way to two-, three-, and four-way

models in our study) and are stopped (produce a positive result) as soon as at least one fitting

model is found for a chosen target. Experiments are defined not only by a target, but also by

a set of "right" demes or a rotating set. Approaches of this sort are often used in high-

throughput screens for admixture that rely on *qpAdm* (see, e.g., Narasimhan et al. 2019,

Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Zeng et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024).

When interpreting *qpAdm* results at the level of experiments, we paid attention to fractions

of experiments producing at least one fitting model at various model complexity levels and

to fractions of those "positive" experiments with outcomes that would be misleading in

practice (see Methods for a definition). For declaring a positive result, it was required that all

simpler models for the target (all possible source combinations) are rejected according to a

chosen composite feasibility criterion. Models at a complexity level where the first fitting

model was found were binned into rejected (non-fitting) and non-rejected (fitting) and

ranked by Euclidean distances to ideal symmetric models in the space of optimality metrics

(**Fig. 9**).

For a complete overview of our results at the level of experiments see **Figs. S23** (optimality

metric spaces based on max. ST distance) and **S24** (optimality metric spaces based on average

ST distance). A key observation is that the most optimal *qpAdm* setup (the densest landscape,

the stringent condition on EAF, and the *p*-value threshold = 0.001) found in the previous

section indeed results in the lowest fractions of positive experiments with "bad" outcomes

(compare **Fig. 10** and **Fig. S23**). Here we focus on the results for all the *qpAdm* protocols

tested on the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes under this condition (EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1), *p*-value

$\geq$0.001, "trailing" models not checked), and they share a common pattern: fitting models

were found for 92% of targets; 55% of experiments ended at one-way models, and 36.5% at

two-way models (on average across all simulation replicates and protocols; **Fig. 10**). Nearly

all experiments of both types were not classified as producing misleading results, namely

models rejected in those experiments were not much closer to the ideal symmetric models

(see Methods for a precise definition) as compared to fitting ones (**Fig. 10**). Nevertheless, the

outcome can hardly be viewed as satisfactory since one-way and two-way models are too

simple for these landscapes with high-intensity gene flows.

1208

Figure 10. Randomized *qpAdm* results at the level of experiments visualized for "dense" landscapes
(10^{-3} to 10^{-2}). Landscapes of this type only demonstrated robust rejection of highly asymmetric sub-
optimal models. The results are stratified by *qpAdm* protocols and landscape sampling density (13 or
18 demes in rotating sets and 10 or 15 demes in non-rotating "right" sets, respectively), and also by

model complexity level at which experiments generate positive results, by conditions on EAF, and by
p-value thresholds (results for three thresholds only are shown: 0.001, 0.05, and 0.5). We show as bar
plots fractions of experiments producing positive results (at least one fitting model per target) at each
complexity level and fractions of those experiments with positive outcomes classified as potentially
misleading or "undesirable". See Methods for a definition based on Euclidean distances in the space
of optimality metrics: max. ST distance and min. STS angle. In the case of "bad" experiments, the most
optimal model (according to ST distances and angles) available in the chosen deme set was rejected,
but a much less optimal model emerged as fitting. The error bars show 3 SE intervals calculated on 10
simulation replicates. Fractions of experiments falling into these different classes (producing positive
results at complexity levels from one to four and classified as either misleading or not misleading
according to rejection of most optimal models available) are visualized by the stacked bar plots. Error
bars are not shown for visual clarity in the latter plot.

1225

Raising the *p*-value threshold to very high values (0.5) and keeping conditions on EAF more

relaxed (EAF $\in$ (0, 1) or (-0.3,1.3)) resulted in significantly more experiments producing three-

(23.6% vs. 0.5% on average) and four-way models (7.7% vs. 0% on average) than under the

feasibility criterion applied above, but many experiments in these categories had potentially

misleading outcomes (31% on average for three- and 40% for four-way models), and the

fraction of "bad" experiments also grew significantly (21% vs. 1% on average) for experiments

ending at the level of two-way models (**Fig. 10**). This agrees with the results in the previous

section since the relaxed conditions on EAF do not allow to reject efficiently the highly

asymmetric models in the lower right corner of the optimality metric space (which constitute

the bulk of our randomized *qpAdm* model samples) (**Figs. 9, S20b**). Introducing the condition

on EAF that was found to be optimal in the previous section (EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1)) and keeping

the *p*-value threshold at 0.5 allowed to achieve low rates of "bad" experiments ending at two-

and three-way models (12% and 20% on average across the protocols and replicates),

however most experiments following this setup did not end (57% on average), and those that

did end yielded two-way models in most cases (62% on average; **Fig. 10**), and we consider

those over-simplified in the context of SSL we simulated (see Discussion).

Similar trends were observed in a much wider range of landscape sparsity and feasibility

criteria (**Fig. S23**). Let us consider the most realistic landscape type simulated ("10^{-5} to 10^{-2}")

where gene-flow intensities are the least uniform across the landscape (**Fig. S13**). As

compared to the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes discussed above, experiments yielded three- and

four-way models significantly more often, however if the *p*-value threshold was set at 0.001

and EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1), 22% of experiments yielded one-way models, and 31% yielded two-

way models (**Fig. S23c**). As discussed above, increasing the *p*-value threshold shifts the
balance in favor of more complex models, but at the cost of significantly higher rates of
positive experiments with potentially misleading outcomes (**Fig. S23c**). However, introducing
the stringent condition on EAF (EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1)) allowed to achieve low rates of "bad"
positive experiments (ca. 10-20%) even for high *p*-value thresholds: see the results for the
proximal protocol with rotating sets composed of 13 demes (**Fig. S23c**).

Another major trend is that a substantial fraction of non-rotating experiments did not end
even at the stage of four-way models (from ca. 90% to 30%, depending mostly on the *p*-value
threshold), in contrast to rotating experiments, and the distributions of ending experiments
by model complexity are even more skewed towards simpler models (**Fig. S23c**). The same is
true for landscapes sparser than "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" (**Fig. S23a,b**). We supposed that a fundamental
difference between these two protocol types may underly this observation: sub-optimal sets
of "right" groups (e.g., those where "right" demes are closer to the target than most source
demes) are unchangeable in each non-rotating experiment, and thus may have larger
influence on their outcomes than more "fluid" sets of "right" demes in rotating protocols. We
explored this issue further in the systematic sampling context (see the next section): for two
target demes in the center of the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes, we tested all possible
combinations of target-"right" and target-proxy distances in the distal non-rotating protocol
(**Fig. S12**). In each experiment, all proxy sources were equidistant from the target, and the
same was true or approximately true for "right" demes (**Fig. S25**). Indeed, there are
combinations of target-"right" and target-proxy distances which cause nearly all experiments
(of 20 performed in each case) to progress beyond four-way models (**Fig. S25**). But some
"inverted" proxy and "right" deme arrangements (the latter closer to the target in space than
the former) demonstrate relatively high experiment ending rates, such as all proxies at a
distance of 4 and "right" demes at distances 1 and 2 (**Fig. S25**). Although our landscapes are
small for a conclusive analysis of this problem, it appears that when "right" and proxy source
demes are close to each other (in space, but not in time), experiment ending rate becomes
low.

As expected from all the analyses above, the sparsest landscapes "10^{-5} to 10^{-4}" demonstrated
by far the worst results at the level of experiments (**Fig. S23a**): under nearly all settings, most
experiments which ended yielded one- and two-way models, with high rates of potentially

misleading experiments for all model complexities (even for experiments ending at one-way

models). A general conclusion from this section is that it is very difficult to find setups for

qpAdm experiments that give both complex and accurate results: at least three-way models

that are close to the ideal symmetric ones.

To illustrate this trend, we show outcomes of two experiments (**Fig. S26**) relying on one of

the most optimal feasibility criteria (EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1), p-value $\geq$0.001, "trailing" models not

checked), where only one fitting two-way model was found in each (the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}"

landscapes, distal rotating protocol, rotating sets composed of 18 demes sampled 100 and/or

300 generations ago). Attempting to get more complex models (three-way) resulted in non-

optimal models being accepted and much more optimal models being rejected (**Fig. S26**). For

instance, when deme 20 was set as a target, the most optimal fitting three-way model

included a source at a distance of 5 from the target, but the most optimal rejected three-way

model included three nearest neighbors of the target (distance = 1), however not all of them

sampled at the same time. This alternative model was rejected not because of a low *p*-value,

but because of high SE of EAF. This particular case (drawn randomly from a pool of similar

"bad" outcomes of experiments) can be interpreted as follows: due to the lack of a sample

close in time to the target from one of the nearby demes, a very distant deme emerges as a

source due to conditions on EAF and its SE. Considering patchy sampling simulated here (**Fig.**

S26), this situation may be wrongly interpreted as a signal of a long-distance migration,

especially in a high-throughput setting when each experiment is not carefully assessed.

1299

SSL histories: systematic sampling of landscapes

We aimed to explore how the availability of the close ancestry sources (the nearest neighbors

of a target deme, also termed "1st circle") influences outcomes of *qpAdm* experiments on the

most realistic simulated landscapes ("10^{-5} to 10^{-2}", see F_{ST} distributions in **Fig. S13a**). In

contrast to the randomized deme sets tested above, we used "right" sets composed of demes

equidistant from the target and distributed uniformly on the landscape, forming circles

around the target (**Figs. 7, S12**). Two kinds of *qpAdm* protocols were tested: distal rotating

and distal non-rotating (**Fig. S12**).

1308

Systematic sampling: model optimality metrics in the spaces of estimated admixture fractions

and p-values

We first explored rotating sets composed of two deme circles around the target: at distances

of 3 and 1 (for a description of the corresponding non-rotating setup see **Fig. S12**). We again

inspect median values of the model optimality metrics in the spaces of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-

values (**Figs. S27** and **S28**) and show the corresponding Spearman's ρ for the optimality

metrics vs. max|*EAF–EF*| or *p*-values in **Table S7**, and correlation coefficients stratified by

qpAdm protocols in **Table S8**. In these tables, the results relying on randomized and

systematic deme sampling are juxtaposed. In **Figs. S27** and **S28** (based on max. and average

ST distance, respectively), we also juxtapose results relying on randomized and systematic

sampling of the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes. These two sampling approaches demonstrate

similar results (**Fig. S28**), however there are generally stronger correlations between

max|*EAF–EF*| or *p*-values and the optimality metrics in the case of systematic sampling (**Table**

S7). This is true, for example for correlations between max|*EAF–EF*| and the following

optimality metrics in probably the most practically relevant part of the space (max|*EAF–EF*|

≤ 0.5 and *p*-value $\geq 10^{-5}$): min. STS angle (for three- and four-way models), max. and average

ST distances (for two- and three-way models), and Euclidean distances to the ideal models in

the space of optimality metrics (for three- and four-way models) (**Table S7**). Even more

interesting are correlations between *p*-values and some optimality metrics (most notably

average ST distance and the corresponding Euclidean distance to the ideal models) that are

strengthened by systematic sampling, however this effect is noticeable only when

considering a wider range of *p*-values (max|*EAF–EF*| ≤ 0.5 and *p*-value $\geq 10^{-55}$) (**Fig. S28, Table**

S7).

These results suggest that a particular arrangement of "right" groups (evenly distributed on

a circle around the target) improves performance of the method (that is, correlation between

p-values and model optimality metrics), however the improvement is not striking. This

arrangement of "right" demes also leads to rejection of a larger fraction of ideal two- or three-

way models as compared to that under randomized deme sampling (**Table S9**). We note that

for nearly all ideal two- and three-way models under systematic sampling, EAF are non-

negative (**Table S9**).

Next, we broadened the sets of proxy sources tested to encompass all possible one- to four-
deme sets at a particular time (this is feasible in the non-rotating context only) and inspected
the influence of target-"right" distance on *qpAdm* performance: minimal target-"right"
distance varied from 1 to 4 for two suitable target demes at the center of the landscape, while
keeping the size of the "right" set constant at 16 demes. Since the 1st and 2nd circles include
fewer than 16 demes, the "right" sets included demes from the 1st and 2nd circles, or from 2nd
and 3rd, or from 3rd only, or from 4th only. We present the results in the usual way: in the
spaces of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-values (**Figs. S29** and **S30**) and as Spearman correlation
coefficients between the model optimality metrics and max|*EAF–EF*| or *p*-values in various
parts of these spaces (**Table S12**). These spaces are in general similar to those based on
randomized *qpAdm* tests explored above (**Figs. 8** and **S15**), with simpler models (two-way)
demonstrating better performance than three- or four-way models. The best performance of
the method (strongest correlation between the model optimality metrics and max|*EAF–EF*|
or *p*-values) is observed when "right" demes are in the 3rd or 4th circles around the target
(**Table S12**). Here we focus on correlations in the following sections of the space: max|*EAF–*
EF| vs. the optimality metrics for *p*-values $\geq 10^{-5}$ or 10^{-55}; *p*-value vs. the optimality metrics
for max|*EAF–EF*| ≤ 0.5 (**Table S12**). The distributions of ideal symmetric two- to four-way
models also become more uniform on the *p*-value axis with increasing target-"right" distance
(**Figs. S29** and **S30**). Thus, in the case of the distal non-rotating protocol at least, usage of
demes sampled in the past and close to the target as "right" groups is not a good approach.

1359

Systematic sampling: exploring truly ideal six-way models

Due to computational limitations, in all our randomized and systematic *qpAdm* experiments
described above the most complex models tested were four-way. However, on the SSL
simulated in this study (**Fig. 7**), truly ideal models are six-way. Here we do not consider cases
when the direct ancestor is available since this makes modelling population history trivial in
our systematic setups based on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes: instead of seven-way models,
one-way models fit the data in nearly all cases. Thus, when we referred to "ideal symmetric
models" above, we meant ideal symmetric models in the respective complexity class, but not
truly ideal models.

Here we explore one- to four-way and six-way models for our standard systematic setup:

distal rotating and distal non-rotating protocols based on demes from the 1st and 3rd circles

around the target (all demes with complete 3rd circles were included as targets). More

precisely, demes from the 1st and 3rd circles comprised 16-deme rotating or proxy sets (**Fig.**

S12). Results based on this setup are also presented in **Figs. S27** and **S28** and **Tables S7-S9**,

but here we show results in ideal conditions only, where all six demes from the 1st circle were

available in *qpAdm* experiments (not to be confused with individual models). We first look at

the results in the max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value spaces (**Figs. 11a** and **S31a,b**).

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Figure 11. Systematic two to four- and six-way *qpAdm* models on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes in the
space of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-values (**a**). Results are stratified by model complexity, *qpAdm* protocol,
and number of target's nearest neighbors in a model, which is the only optimality metric in this
analysis. A part of the whole space is shown (*p*-values from 3.16×10^{-6} to 1), and for a wider section of
the space and for one-way models see **Fig. S31a**. The space is divided into rectangular bins (50×50),
and they are colored by density of individual *qpAdm* models populating this space (see the logarithmic
color scales on the right). The red vertical lines (or the red tick marks) mark max|*EAF–EF*| = 1 – *EF*; for
three-way and more complex models this boundary is similar but not identical to the boundary

between EAF within (0, 1) and outside (0, 1). The green horizontal lines mark the *p*-value threshold
used in all our systematic experiments (0.01). In panel **b**, we show as bar plots corresponding fractions
of models that satisfy three kinds of feasibility criteria marked on the x-axis. The fractions are also
indicated below the bars.

1390

We noted above that *p*-value is not an optimal criterion for ranking randomized or systematic

qpAdm models on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes (and most other landscape types tested) and

that max|*EAF–EF*| correlates better with the model optimality metrics (**Fig. 8, Tables S7** and

S9). Indeed, large fractions of "ideal" symmetric 3-way models are rejected according to *p*-

value thresholds such as 0.01 or 0.05 (**Table S9**). However, truly ideal six-way models were

rejected according to the 0.01 threshold we use for systematic experiments in exceptional

cases only (**Fig. 11a**). Non-optimal sources come from the 3rd circle, the same circle all the

"right" groups (200 generations deeper in time) in the non-rotating setup and most of the

rotating set come from (**Fig. S12**). Thus, removing all demes from the 3rd circle from a *qpAdm*

model eliminates detectable "left" to "right" gene flows and results in a high *p*-value. In

contrast, 86% or 94% of ideal six-way models were rejected according to the condition EAF $\in$

(0, 1) in the rotating and non-rotating setups, respectively (**Fig. 11b**), demonstrating that AF

estimates become highly uncertain for complex models.

To look at feasibility criteria systematically, we show *qpAdm* positive rates for models

stratified by complexity and the number of demes from the 1st circle included in each model

(**Figs. 11b, S31c**). For simplicity, just three criteria are tested: *p*-value $\geq$ 0.01 and EAF $\in$ (0, 1),

p-value $\geq$ 0.01 only, and EAF $\in$ (0, 1) only. For the systematic distal non-rotating protocol,

relying on *p*-values only is the best way of distinguishing highly non-optimal six-way models

(comprising demes from the 3rd circle only) from ideal six-way models comprising all the

nearest neighbors of the target: in the former case all models fail, but in the latter case 99%

of models pass (**Figs. 11b**). We note that *p*-value thresholds do not allow to separate models

less different in optimality so clearly (**Fig. 11**). In contrast, such a "clean" result was not

achieved with the distal rotating protocol: model feasibility rate based on *p*-value grows with

increasing model complexity, but at the same time its correlation with model optimality

disappears (**Fig. 11**). Thus, both *p*-values and EAF should be taken into consideration,

although that results in rejection of 86% of ideal six-way models due to highly uncertain AF

estimates (**Figs. 11b**). Thus, in this particular systematic setup (**Fig. S12**), the non-rotating

protocol with model feasibility criteria based solely on *p*-values is performing substantially

better than the rotating one, but it is hard to say if this observation can be generalized to

other regions of the huge parameter space we try to explore.

1421

Systematic sampling: qpAdm performance at the level of experiments

In this section we show that the improvements of *qpAdm* performance under systematic

sampling, reflected in the max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value spaces (**Figs. S27** and **S28**), do not make

outcomes of *qpAdm* experiments relying on *p*-value thresholds more interpretable. For both

the rotating and non-rotating protocols based on demes from the 1st and 3rd circles around

the target (**Fig. S12**), we observe the following trend: model complexity at which an

experiment ends (the first feasible model is found) decreases with the number of close

ancestry sources (demes from the 1st circle) available in that experiment (**Fig. 12a,b**). This

trend is especially striking in the case of the distal non-rotating protocol: when 0 close sources

were available, although we relied on a relatively relaxed composite feasibility criterion (*p*-

value threshold at 0.01, EAF between 0 and 1) nearly all experiments did not end at the stage

of four-way models, suggesting that five-way or even more complex models are needed (**Fig.**

12b). If one to four close sources were available, experiments most often ended at three-way

models, and if all six nearest neighbors of a target were available, a great majority of

experiments ended at two-way models. The trend is less pronounced in the case of the

rotating protocol: it prefers simpler models (four-way) when no close ancestry sources are

available, and prefers three-way models in all other cases, with a slowly growing fraction of

two-way models (**Fig. 12a**).

We also expanded the sets of available proxy sources in the distal non-rotating protocol to all

possible combinations of demes at 100 generations before "present" and varied target-

"right" distance (see above). In line with the results above, most experiments with the widest

selection of sources available ended at two-way models, and a majority of those fitting (EAF

$\in (0, 1)$; *p*-value ≥ 0.01) two-way models included one nearest neighbor of a target (**Fig. S33**).

The fraction of experiments ending at three-way models grew with decreasing target-"right"

distance, and no experiment ended at four-way models (**Fig. S33**). We do not assess statistical

significance of these trends since just 20 experiments were performed per each parameter

 combination (two target demes in the center of SSL were suitable for this analysis and 10

 simulation replicates were available).

Figure 12. *qpAdm* performance in the case of systematic and symmetric landscape sampling, interpreted at the level of experiments. Results for the distal rotating (**a, c**) and distal non-rotating (**b, d**) protocols are shown. The protocols relied on the following composite feasibility criterion: *p*-value threshold at 0.01, EAF between 0 and 1. In panels **a** and **b**, distributions of experiments over model complexity levels at which they end are shown, and experiments are grouped by the number of target's nearest neighbors (demes from the 1st circle) available. The other proxy sources and "right" groups were taken from the 3rd circle around the target. The error bars show standard deviation calculated on simulation replicates. In panels **c** and **d**, each experiment is represented by only one fitting model with the highest *p*-value. We show distributions of *p*-values for these models (the scale on the left) as violin plots with medians, stratified by two variables: model complexity level at which an experiment ends (the scale on top), and number of target's nearest neighbors included in a model that was chosen to represent an experiment (the scale at the bottom). For each model complexity level, all pairwise comparisons of the distributions were performed using the two-sided non-paired Wilcoxon test, and only significant *p*-values (adjusted for multiple comparisons with the Holm method) are shown. The asterisks stand for the following significance levels: *, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, ≤0.001; ****, ≤0.0001. The pink numbers in panels **a-d** stand for the number of experiments in the respective categories in all simulation replicates combined.

Naively, we would expect to see an opposite trend: *qpAdm* stops at more complex models when more true ancestry sources are available in a panel of populations tested. But in our experiments *qpAdm* results are misleading in all cases. When no or few close ancestry sources are available, the method tends to pick distant sources in the context of complex models. When (nearly) all closest ancestry sources are available, the method oversimplifies the history

of the target by picking just two or three sources. In other words, the results are not very

informative about real history since sub-optimal sources are picked very often when the

vicinity of the target is poorly sampled, and some optimal sources are very often dropped

when the vicinity of the target and even the whole landscape is well-sampled.

We also ranked fitting models in each experiment by *p*-value and picked a model with the

highest *p*-value to represent an experiment, as is often done in the literature (Narasimhan et

al. 2019, Fernandes et al. 2020, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023,

Carlhoff et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024). We expected *p*-values to grow with the number of

target's nearest neighbors included in a model, and indeed we observe this effect, i.e.,

median *p*-values grow with the number of target's nearest neighbors (**Fig. 12c,d**). However,

the distributions are all skewed towards low *p*-values and are largely overlapping, therefore

only for experiments ending at three-way models (the largest group of experiments in our

analysis) we observe significant differences between the *p*-value distributions for

representative models including one, two, or three nearest neighbors (**Fig. 12c,d**). In the case

of the rotating protocol and experiments ending at four-way models, just one statistically

significant difference was observed (**Fig. 12c**). Similar results were obtained when inspecting

all fitting models per experiment, not only those with the highest *p*-values (**Figs. S32, S33**).

1491

Do estimated admixture fractions reflect gene flow intensities on SSL?

Previously we did not assess the accuracy of admixture fraction estimates. On SSL with non-

uniform gene flows (**Fig. S13b,c**) in all directions it is not trivial to derive the most accurate

predictor of admixture fractions, and the concept of admixture fractions itself becomes

questionable. It is more intuitive and useful to conceptualize ancestry on SSL in the form of

clouds of ancestor density (Grundler et al. 2024). With these caveats in mind, we assessed

correlation between simulated source-to-target gene-flow intensities and EAF. For simplicity,

we considered the systematic sampling scenario and models with the nearest neighbors only

as proxy sources; direct ancestors were not considered as sources (**Fig. 13**). More precisely,

we used the following simple admixture fraction predictor:

predicted $AF_i = \frac{S_{i\xrightarrow{gf}T}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{i\xrightarrow{gf}T}}$, where the numerator is a source-to-target gene-flow intensity in

the last gene-flow epoch (lasting 153 generations, while proxy sources were sampled 100

generations in the past and targets at "present"; **Figs. 7** and **S12**), and the denominator is a

sum of such intensities over all sources. Another analogous predictor can be constructed

based on sums of source-to-target and target-to-source gene-flow intensities in the same

epoch: $\frac{S_i \underset{gf}{\rightarrow} T + T \underset{gf}{\rightarrow} S_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(S_i \underset{gf}{\rightarrow} T + T \underset{gf}{\rightarrow} S_i)}$.

The most notable pattern we observe when comparing EAF and AF calculated using the

former simple predictor (**Fig. 13a**) comes from the linear algebra nature of *qpAdm* (Haak et

al. 2015): symmetric and non-symmetric models produce EAF distributions of very different

widths. In other words, only in the case of symmetric models nearly all EAF $\in$ (0, 1). Thus, we

conclude that EAF depend more strongly on STS angles than on gene-flow rates (**Fig. 13a**).

For highly non-symmetric two- or three-way models (on our SSL, all four-way models with

nearest neighbors as sources are non-symmetric, as discussed above), namely those with

min. STS angles = 60°, Pearson's correlation coefficients for predicted AF and EAF were non-

significantly different from 0 over the whole range of EAF, and non-significant or low (up to

0.27) over EAF in the range (0, 1) (**Fig. 13a**). The linear correlation becomes much stronger in

the case of ideally symmetric two- and three-way models: Pearson's correlation coefficients

vary from 0.5 to 0.58, and all are significantly different from 0 with Bonferroni correction (**Fig.**

13a).

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Figure 13. Scatterplots illustrating correlations between EAF and predicted AF on systematically
sampled "10⁻⁵ to 10⁻²" landscapes. Models composed of target's nearest neighbors only were
considered, and AF were predicted based on simulated source-to-target gene-flow intensities or on
sums of source-to-target and target-to-source gene-flow intensities (see the text for details). Each *n*-
way model in these scatterplots is represented by *n* points, one per source. The results are stratified

by model complexity, by min. STS angle, and *qpAdm* protocol. Pearson's correlation coefficients were
calculated for EAF vs. predicted AF: for EAF between 0 and 1 (the numbers in navy blue above the
plots) or across the whole range of EAF (the numbers in slate gray; however, only models with EAF
between -1 and 2 are shown). Non-significant correlation coefficients are marked as "n.s." Linear
trend lines and 95% confidence intervals are also shown for EAF between 0 and 1.

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However, even in the case of ideal symmetric models, the correlation is far from perfect (**Fig.**

13a). This may be a consequence of poor AF prediction since only direct source-to-target gene

flows were considered. In other words, proxy sources in ideal symmetric models stand not

only for themselves, but for equally sized sections of the landscape. Considering sums of

reverse and forward ST gene-flow intensities (the second predictor above) allows to improve

linear correlation between EAF and predicted AF, but for two-way models only (**Fig. 13b**).

Very similar results were obtained using both predictors on randomized *qpAdm* models (**Fig.**

S34a,b)

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Geographical analysis of a large set of qpAdm models on real data

In this section we use the intuition and approaches from our analyses on SSL to interpret

results of high-throughput *qpAdm* protocols applied to human archaeogenetic data from the

Paleolithic to Bronze Age Siberia (Zeng et al. 2023). In short, we interpret each model (source-

target configuration) tested with *qpAdm* on real data in a geographical sense by calculating

great circle distances between centroids of source and target groups and min. STS angles on

a sphere. Thus, we calculated all the model optimality metrics defined in the SSL context (**Box**

2). The analysis is based on ca. 422,000 two- to four-way models collected across 725 distal

and proximal rotating experiments from Zeng *et al*. (some experiments in the cited study

progressed far beyond four-way models, but to match our randomized protocol on SSL, these

complexity classes were not considered). All the model metrics (EAF, *p*-values, and

geographical coordinates of individuals) were taken from Zeng *et al*. (2023).

Placing the real *qpAdm* models in the spaces of max|*EAF–EF*| and *p*-values and juxtaposing

them with the most realistic SSL simulated in this study ("10^{-5} to 10^{-2}", **Fig. S13**), we observe

that distributions of models in these spaces are strikingly similar (**Fig. S35**). Model optimality

metrics such as min. STS angles and maximal/average ST distances are correlated with

max|*EAF–EF*| and (weakly) with *p*-values on both the real and simulated data (**Fig. S35, Table**

 S13). It is not unexpected that on the simulated SSL data the correlations are stronger (**Table**

1560 **S13**) since, as mentioned above, on the real data we used just simple great circle distances,

1561 and not realistic travel distances on the landscape of Eurasia. Moreover, some groupings on

1562 the real data cover large areas of irregular shape (Zeng et al. 2023), adding to uncertainties

1563 about their centroids.

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Figure 14. Comparing *qpAdm* models analyzed by the high-throughput protocol from Zeng *et al.*
(2023) and results of the randomized *qpAdm* protocol on the "10⁻⁵ to 10⁻²" landscapes by placing them
in the spaces of optimality metrics (average ST distance vs. min. STS angle). Results are stratified by
model complexity. The upper row of plots shows density of all models tested in this space, and the
other rows show density of fitting models satisfying selected composite feasibility criteria listed in the
captions on the right (6 of 36 criteria tested in this study, from the least stringent on top to the most
stringent at the bottom). All the color scales are logarithmic. The space was divided into 20 or 18 bins
on the x-axis (on the real and simulated data, respectively), and 18 bins on the y-axis (intervals [0°,
10°], (10°, 20°], and so forth). Spearman's correlation coefficients for counts of all models vs. fitting
models in these bins are shown in each panel in brown (bins not populated by any models were not
considered). The red horizontal lines mark the "ideal" min. STS angles for three- and four-way models
(120° and 90°). The red and green numbers above each plot stand for counts of rejected and fitting

models in those analyses, respectively, and the red vertical lines mark the average ST distance (4.5)
that equals the radius of the landscape on simulated data and the midpoint (5,000 km) between
minimal and maximal average ST distances on the real landscape. The distances and angles on the
real data (great circle distances in km and angles between two bearings) are based on centroids of
groups calculated using an *R* implementation of the *Mean Center* tool from *ArcGIS Pro*. We considered
ST distances ≤50 km to be negligible, and for such models min. STS angles were not defined (following
the approach we applied to zero-length ST distances on the simulated data), excluding them from this
analysis

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In other words, there is just very minor enrichment for optimal models achieved on both real

data and simulated "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" SSL, in contrast to the enrichment level achieved for denser

"10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes (**Fig. 9, Table S11**). To be precise, on the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" SSL the pre-

qpAdm and post-*qpAdm* distributions of models in the optimality metric space are

uncorrelated for the simplest, two-way, models (**Figs. 9, 14, Table S11**), but even this is not

true in the case of the real data (**Fig. 14**).

At the next step, we explored how both real and simulated models populate the spaces of

model optimality metrics (average ST distances vs. min. STS angles, **Fig. 14**). Since in both

cases all possible models constructed from dozens of alternative sources were tested for each

target, the distributions of models tested have the hallmarks of random samples: both are

skewed towards highly asymmetric models (those with min. STS angles close to 0 and average

ST distances approaching the landscape radius). And on both the real and simulated data,

qpAdm, equipped with stringent composite feasibility criteria, does reject efficiently such

models with average ST distances above a certain threshold (3,500 km for the real landscape).

However, in the remaining densely populated area of the optimality metric space, the

distributions of models passing the *qpAdm* "filter" and the starting distributions are similar

as evidenced by Spearman's correlation coefficients (**Fig. 14**).

1603

Discussion

Limitations of the AGS-based analyses in this study

We explored performance of various *qpAdm* protocols on a collection of simulated AGS

histories of random topology and uniform complexity, where admixture history of target

groups may vary from the simplest (no admixture) to complex (up to five admixture events

in group's history). It is because of this research design and other limitations discussed below

1610 that our analysis is focused mostly on one performance metric: false discovery rate or FDR.

1611 We started from a collection of random simulated AGS histories of uniform complexity, tested

1612 all possible models of chosen complexity classes only (one- and two-way), considered two-

1613 way models supported by a *qpAdm* protocol (feasible or fitting models; as detailed in **Box 1**,

1614 our feasibility criteria included rejection of "trailing" one-way models), classified them

1615 manually into false and true positives according to a set of topological rules, and subjected

1616 them to further screening by the PCA and/or *ADMIXTURE* methods (**Suppl. text 4**). We did

1617 not attempt to classify rejections of two-way models by *qpAdm* or other methods into false

1618 rejections due to violations of the topological assumptions of *qpAdm* (**Fig. 1**) and true

1619 rejections when the true admixture history of the target does not fit a two-way model. This

1620 problem was deliberately left out since in the literature more attention is paid to

1621 interpretation of "fitting" than of rejected *qpAdm* models. Since archaeogenetic sampling is

1622 often very sparse, we also did not interpret fitting, but overly simple, models including correct

1623 sources as false in the AGS context (see the section "True positive models" above), but we

1624 highlight this problem in the SSL context where the simulated history is even more complex.

1625 In other words, we were interested in false detections of gene flow in the AGS context, but

1626 not in false omissions of detection.

1627 Another important caveat is that complexity of genetic history in the region and period of

1628 interest often remains unknown, and it is difficult to judge if a particular admixture graph

1629 complexity is adequate for simulating the real history (and if admixture graphs are

1630 appropriate models at all, see below). However, we have not explored *qpAdm* performance

1631 over a range of simulated admixture graph complexities, over a range of model feasibility

1632 criteria (except for those in **Table S3**), for models more complex than two-way, and have

1633 estimated FDR instead of FPR due to an important technical limitation: the process of model

1634 classification into true and false ones is difficult to automate fully since it requires careful

1635 interpretation of the simulated topology and simulated admixture proportions (this is

1636 illustrated by the case studies in **Fig. S4**).

1637

1638 ***Limitations of the SSL-based analyses in this study***

1639 While complex admixture models and a wide range of feasibility criteria were not explored

1640 on AGS histories above, the following issues were, conversely, not explored on SSL histories:

effects of differing amounts and quality of data (all the simulations were based on high-
quality diploid data from 500-Mbp-sized genomes with mutation and recombination rates
typical for humans), combining *qpAdm* with other methods (PCA, *ADMIXTURE*, f_3-statistics),
and model competition *qpAdm* protocols. Some of these differences in research coverage
stem from the fact that it is impossible to strictly delineate false and true admixture models
on SSL since at the timescales we explore (up to 300 generations) all demes are connected by
gene flows, directly or indirectly. Instead, it is possible to rank proxy sources by genetic or
spatial proximity to the target and symmetry with respect to the target. Since hard-to-
automate classification of *qpAdm* models into FP and TP can be avoided, SSL histories are
more tractable analytically than complex AGS histories.

Since SSL simulations are computationally demanding, our analysis was restricted to relatively
small landscapes composed of 64 demes, small samples per deme (three individuals), and
just three sampling points in time. For the same reason, sampling was not randomized over
>>3 points in time, and different time intervals between sampling points were not tested.
More complex landscapes with rapid long-distance migrations, extinctions, repopulations,
and changes in effective population size were also not explored for reasons of computational
complexity. Thus, our SSL are still simple as compared to the real population history of
humans and other species as we understand it. Ultimately, true isolation-by-distance
landscapes should be explored instead of quantized deme-based landscapes, and the former
can also be simulated by the *slendr* package (Petr et al. 2023) we used.

Another notable limitation discussed in the section "SSL histories: randomized sampling of
landscapes" is our reliance on spatial source-target distances for measuring model optimality.
F_{ST} (**Fig. S13a**) and haplotype-sharing statistics depend on both source-to-target and target-
to-source gene-flows, and for that reason they are also not ideal as metrics for ranking proxy
sources and were not used as such. Ideally, density clouds of ancestors (Grundler et al. 2024)
should be inferred for each target and then used for ranking proxy sources or models or for
prediction of EAF. However, this analysis is also computationally challenging in our setup
aiming to explore a wide range of *qpAdm* models, protocols and landscape properties, and
most prominent features of *qpAdm* performance on SSL such as effects of landscape sparsity
and sampling density in target's vicinity can be explored even through the lens of our noisy
spatial approximation for true ancestry density (see **Fig. S13d,e** and its discussion above).

Moreover, our spatial analytical framework based on distances and angles can be directly

applied to rich sets of *qpAdm* models from the literature (**Figs. 14, S35**) without inference of

clouds of ancestry density which is even more complicated for real ancient DNA data.

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AGS histories: general conclusions

Temporal stratification tested in this study and practiced in the literature is of two sorts: 1)

most or all populations in the "right" set are sampled deeper in the past than those in the

"left" set (non-rotating protocols); 2) a target group post-dates (or is as old as) all its proxy

sources (distal protocols). Since complexity of AGS histories (number of admixture events)

grows over time, temporal stratification of targets and proxy sources is a very efficient way

of reducing FDR of *qpAdm* protocols (**Fig. 6, Table S1b**) since it allows to avoid situations

where admixture history of proxy sources is more complex than that of the target, which

increases the probability of encountering violations of the topological assumptions of *qpAdm*

(**Fig. 1**). The distal rotating and non-rotating protocols invariably demonstrated FDR

significantly lower than those of the rotating non-rotating and protocols without temporal

stratification (**Fig. 6**). Both distal protocols demonstrated FDRs around 20% and not different

significantly from each other, at least in the case of 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes (**Fig. 6**). In

contrast, application of the proximal rotating protocol (**Box 1**) that can be summarized as

"whatever is not on the right is on the left" without any attempt at temporal stratification of

the "right" and "left" sets and of proxy sources and targets carries a risk of an FDR above 50%.

Adding further levels of support (considering only models supported by PCA and/or an

ADMIXTURE analysis) does not help to decrease FDR drastically in this case (**Table S2, Suppl.**

text 3). Although the proximal model competition protocol (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Carlhoff

et al. 2021, Zhang et al. 2021, Maróti et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2023) was not

tested on multiple simulation or subsampling replicates (**Table S5**), we note that it

demonstrated FDR values higher than those of the distal non-rotating protocol (**Table S4**).

The proximal rotating protocol is an extreme example of *qpAdm* protocols that is rarely

encountered in the archaeogenetic literature (Carlhoff et al. 2021, Oliveira et al. 2022, Zeng

et al. 2023) but serves as a reference point in our analysis. Other protocols such as distal

rotating (e.g., Narasimhan et al. 2019, Librado et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et

al. 2022, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024), distal non-rotating (e.g.,

Haak et al. 2015, Mathieson et al. 2015, Lazaridis et al. 2016, Antonio et al. 2019, Sikora et al.
2019, Marcus et al. 2020, Yang et al. 2020, Papac et al. 2021, Yaka et al. 2021, Patterson et
al. 2022), and proximal model competition (e.g., Narasimhan et al. 2019, Carlhoff et al. 2021,
Zhang et al. 2021, Maróti et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Lee et al. 2023) are often used in
practice, and median FDRs of these three classes of protocols on our simulated data ranged
from 16.4% to 45.8% across simulation parameter combinations (**Fig. 6, Table S5**). These FDRs
for best-performing *qpAdm* protocols are high but should not be over-interpreted since they
are expected to depend on the complexity of simulated histories, but only one graph
complexity level was tested, that is 13 groups and 10 admixture events. Thus, it is hard to
extrapolate this aspect of our results to real analyses and predict FDR levels on real data.

Another way of radically improving FDR of *qpAdm* protocols applied to AGS histories is
combining *qpAdm* with an unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* analysis (**Suppl. text 4**), however we
have not tested *ADMIXTURE* on low-quality data, and supervised *ADMIXTURE* protocols were
not tested either. Unsupervised *ADMIXTURE* has known problems even on high-quality data
and AGS histories (Lawson et al. 2018). That is why this recommendation is still tentative. f_3-
statistic is a simple method for proving that a population is admixed, and it demonstrated
FDR values much lower (6%, see **Suppl. text 3**) than those of standalone *qpAdm* protocols,
but f_3-statistics are applicable only to recent admixture events and/or populations of large
effective size since post-admixture drift on the target lineage obscures the signal (Patterson
et al. 2012, Peter 2022). Moreover, calculating f_3-statistics for a target composed of a single
pseudo-haploid individual is impossible since a heterozygosity estimate is required (Maier et
al. 2023), and such singleton groups are common in archaeogenetic studies. Researchers
should also be aware that f_3-statistics are defined on unrooted trees, and that may lead to
rare but strong false signals of admixture (**Fig. S4f**).

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If population history conforms to SSL, qpAdm results are probably misleading in practice

But there exist problems much more profound than those described above for random AGS
histories: our results (considering the caveats outlined above) suggest strongly that the
interpretability and usefulness of *qpAdm* protocols are radically different for AGS (see also
Williams et al. 2024) and SSL histories and for varying levels of SSL sampling density
("sparsity"). Although it is very often assumed that the genetic history of humans and many

other species is reasonably approximated by complex admixture graphs (see a short review in Maier et al. 2023), this assumption remains unproven. Strictly speaking, it remains unknown if admixture history of humans, wolves (Bergström et al. 2022), and horses (Librado et al. 2021, Taylor et al. 2023, Librado et al. 2024), to cite some recent examples from the archaeogenetic literature, is approximated reasonably well by admixture graphs composed of isolated populations and episodes of admixture, or rather by two-dimensional stepping-stone models, or a combination thereof.

In the case of AGS histories, as suggested by our results, temporal stratification of targets and proxy sources is a simple approach for obtaining relatively accurate admixture models for a randomly picked target (at least for simple, two-way, models that are broadly adequate for the complexity of histories we simulated). In contrast, in the context of SSL we found results of such *qpAdm* protocols to be generally poorly informative about topology of gene flows on SSL and misleading. The following aspects of *qpAdm* protocols are problematic for SSL demographies: 1) composite feasibility criteria (**Box 1**) combining conditions on EAF and fixed relatively stringent *p*-value thresholds such as 0.01 or 0.05, or ranking prioritizing highest-*p*-value models for interpretation (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Fernandes et al. 2020, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Carlhoff et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024); 2) the approach we term "*qpAdm* experiments" when a researcher explores progressively more complex models for a target and stops at the simplest model satisfying a composite feasibility criterion. First, due to gene flows in all directions, correlation between *p*-values and distance- and angle-based model optimality metrics on SSL is very poor, but EAF correlate with both types of optimality metrics better (**Fig. 8, Table S8**; the situation is different for models of maximal complexity which makes sense on our SSL under systematic landscape sampling, see **Fig. 11**). In addition, our analysis on AGS histories showed that EAF are stable across simulation/subsampling replicates having the same simulated AF, while *qpAdm p*-values vary by many orders of magnitude (**Fig. S7**). Thus, considering both AGS- and SSL-based results we conclude that reliance on *qpAdm p*-value thresholds, and especially *p*-value-based model sorting where slight *p*-value differences may affect if a model receives interpretation or is ignored (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Fernandes et al. 2020, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Brielle et al. 2023, Carlhoff et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024), are problematic.

Another problematic aspect of the composite feasibility criteria common in the literature is

the fact that EAF lie largely within (0, 1) and correlate with simulated gene-flow intensities

only for sources located symmetrically around the target, but for asymmetric sources they

vary widely both outside and, complicating the matters even further, inside (0, 1) (**Fig. 13**).

Although this property of AF estimation is trivial from the mathematical perspective, it is not

recognized in practice and thus may often confound interpretation of *qpAdm* results on SSL

(if the interpretation of rejected and fitting source configurations is not explicitly spatial). For

instance, a very distant proxy source may be chosen instead of a much closer one because

the latter configuration of sources happens to be slightly less symmetric and happens to yield

a several orders of magnitude lower *p*-value due to complex patterns of gene flow on SSL (see

two examples in **Fig. S26**). And highlighting a distant source and rejecting a close source is, in

principle, equivalent to a claim of long-distance migration to the target deme.

Due to these problems with composite feasibility criteria, the accuracy of fitting two-way

qpAdm models on SSL is much higher than that of more complex models such as three- and

four-way (**Figs. 8, 9**, and **S20b, Tables S7, S8, S11**), but the latter could have been more

informative about complex gene-flow topologies of SSL and more suggestive of complex

genetic history than the former (see two case studies in **Fig. S26**). Among even more complex

six-way models we explored under systematic landscape sampling, efficient discrimination of

the worst models from ideal ones is possible with a *p*-value threshold and the distal non-

rotating (but not rotating!) protocol, but cleanly separating models less different in optimality

is probably impossible (**Fig. 11**). Although the largest number of admixture events in the

history of a population drawn from our AGS simulations is 5, the average is 1.17 and median

is 1 (**Table S1a**), which corresponds to ≈2 ancestry sources distinguishable under given

population sampling. In contrast, node degree (number of nearest neighbors exchanging

migrants with a given deme) on our SSL varies from 3 to 6, average degree is 5.1, and median

degree is 6 (**Fig. 7**). For this reason, we consider two-way models to be an acceptable result

for AGS histories but a simplistic result for SSL histories. Although we have not explored FDRs

of three-way and more complex models in the AGS context, considering our results in the SSL

context, it is highly likely that complex fitting models in that context are also less accurate

than two-way ones.

For many species, geographical regions and historical periods, archaeogenetic sampling is

very sparse and may be random with respect to population density of ancient individuals in

those regions/periods. Moreover, a general quantitative algorithm for selection of optimal

"right" groups for *qpAdm* analyses has never been published, and "right" groups are usually

chosen based on qualitative criteria (Harney et al. 2021) or borrowed from study to study.

Motivated by these considerations and by the occurrence in the literature of *qpAdm*

protocols exploring thousands of alternative models for dozens of target groups (e.g.,

Narasimhan et al. 2019, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Zeng et al. 2023; the latter study was re-visited

here), we aimed to find expectations for *qpAdm* performance under completely random

sampling of "right", target, and source demes from SSL, and our central analysis relies on

thousands of such random sets of "right" demes or random rotating sets of two sizes (**Figs.**

8-10). We showed that in this situation robust rejection of highly asymmetric complex models

with distant sources (with average ST distance greater or approximately equal to the

landscape radius) is possible only for very specific combinations of landscape sparsity and

model feasibility criteria, but models of that sort are by far the most common in random sets

of demes drawn from both simulated landscapes (**Figs. 9** and **S20b, Table S11**) and real

archaeogenetic data (**Fig. 14**). Furthermore, this optimal combination of sparsity and

feasibility criteria we found (EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1) and the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscapes) is very

uncommon in practice: restricting both "right" and "left" deme sets to a small sub-continental

region and requiring that EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1) are very rare approaches, to our knowledge. The

"10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscapes resemble real *qpAdm* setups much more in distributions of F_{ST} (**Fig.**

S13) and in distributions of models in the max|*EAF–EF*| vs. *p*-value coordinates (Fig. S35), and

they demonstrated much poorer *qpAdm* performance in this respect (**Table S11**).

Since explicitly spatial treatment of *qpAdm* results is rare in the literature, inefficient rejection

of highly non-optimal models may represent a serious problem and a source of many claims

of rapid long-distance migrations that abound in the literature. In other words, random sets

of demes drawn from SSL are so enriched in highly non-optimal models (see the model

density hotspots in figures like **Fig. 14** and note the logarithmic color scale) that even slightly

imperfect rejection of this model class by a *qpAdm* protocol may flood small samples of ideal

symmetric models (strictly speaking, ideal within their complexity class) that exist in random

deme sets, and that is what we observe when classifying *qpAdm* experiments ending at the

levels of three- or four-way models into those with "desirable" and "undesirable" outcomes

(**Figs. 10, S23, S24**).

Moving from interpreting individual models to this level of experiments (all models of varying

complexity for the same target and given the same "right" or rotating set) which are usually

stopped as soon as a simplest fitting model is found (see, e.g., Narasimhan et al. 2019,

Lazaridis et al. 2022, Zeng et al. 2023), we see that *qpAdm* protocols generally find either

accurate, but simplistic models (one- and two-way models with sources close to the target

and approximately opposite each other), or highly inaccurate complex models (**Figs. 10**, **S23**,

and **S26**). Systematic sampling of proxy source and "right" demes in circles around the target

deme, although marginally improving *qpAdm* performance at the level of models (**Figs. S27,**

S28) if an optimal target-"right" distance is found (**Figs. S25, S29, S30, Table S12**),

demonstrates similar problems at the level of experiments: when the vicinity of the target is

poorly sampled *qpAdm* tends to report very complex inaccurate models, but when the vicinity

of the target or even the whole landscape is well-sampled, the *qpAdm* experiment approach

tends to find overly simple two- or three-way models (**Figs. 12, S33**).

There is also an important difference between *qpAdm* performance in the context of AGS and

SSL histories, and that is the very subtle influence of temporal stratification of targets and

sources on *qpAdm* results on SSL (**Fig. S21, Table S8**). This difference is probably because

complexity of AGS histories grows in time, but complexity of SSL histories we simulated is at

equilibrium in the chronological range of our analysis (from 0 to 300 generations into the

past). However, on SSL histories there is a noticeable influence of the temporal stratification

of "right" and "left" groups (**Figs. 10-12**).

As mentioned above, failure to reject a model with at least one distant source (**Figs. 9** and

S20b) and simultaneous rejection of a much more optimal model for the same target (as is

the norm for *qpAdm* experiments aimed at recovery of complex models, see **Figs. 10** and **S23**,

and two specific examples in **Fig. S26**) may be often equivalent in practice to supporting a

long-distance migration in favor of a local gene-flow landscape. And stopping the analysis at

simple models may (**Figs. 10, 12, S23,** and **S33**) favor thinking about history in terms of simple

graphs instead of SSL. Thus, in the context of SSL it is probably counterproductive to search

for a single best model complexity level and a single best *qpAdm* model for a target. Instead,

considering sets of many fitting models of varying complexity for a target (see **Fig. 11**),

preferably with relaxed *p*-value cutoffs <<0.01, is probably a much safer and informative approach, and that approach may be considered a course approximation for the inference of ancestor density clouds. This is especially true since SSL sparsity is inherently hard to estimate, and choice of optimal feasibility criteria and optimal model complexity range on SSL depends on sparsity in a profound way (**Figs. 8** and **9, Table S11**). For example, assuming that population history conforms largely to SSL, "distal *qpAdm* modelling" as used in the literature (Haak et al. 2015, Mathieson et al. 2015, Mathieson et al. 2018, Lazaridis et al. 2016, Antonio et al. 2019, Narasimhan et al. 2019, Sikora et al. 2019, Marcus et al. 2020, Yang et al. 2020, Librado et al. 2021, Papac et al. 2021, Yaka et al. 2021, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Patterson et al. 2022, Taylor et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023; here the word "distal" is applied more broadly than elsewhere in our study) likely falls in the category of sparsely sampled continent-wide landscapes (**Fig. S13**) since worldwide "right" groups are combined with potential sources distant in time and/or space from the target, and all our analyses concurred that at a certain level of sparsity exploring any models above two-way generates very noisy results, and at even higher levels of sparsity the method stops working completely (at least for our simulations where all demes arise via a multifurcation). Our geographical analysis of a large set of *qpAdm* models tested on real human archaeogenetic data (Zeng et al. 2023) revealed patterns strikingly similar to those observed on sparse SSL (**Figs. 14, S35**), namely poor enrichment of sets of feasible *qpAdm* models for models optimal in the SSL context. This lack of enrichment for optimal models has two potential explanations. First, it is possible that the genetic history of humans in the Paleolithic to Bronze Age Siberia (Zeng et al. 2023) was dominated by long-distance migrations and not by an isolation-by-distance landscape. However, our exploration of simulated SSL suggests a more prosaic alternative: we are dealing with a sparsely sampled landscape which is simply not suitable for high-throughput *qpAdm* protocols (**Table S11**).

Considering all the problems highlighted above, and the inherent uncertainty about types of genetic history we are dealing with, we recommend that it is safest to use the *qpAdm* method in controlled conditions, when relationships among populations are understood well enough to exclude violations of the topological assumptions (**Fig. 1**), when radiocarbon or context dates of ancient populations are reliable and allow accurate temporal stratification, or when sets of potential proxy sources are well-constrained based on archaeological or historical

scholarship: see, for instance, the earliest publications where the *qpAdm* method was employed (Haak et al. 2015, Mathieson et al. 2015) and some recent studies (e.g., Marcus et al. 2020, Papac et al. 2021, Yaka et al. 2021, Changmai et al. 2022a, Changmai et al. 2022b, Patterson et al. 2022). Obviously, the amount of new information that the *qpAdm* method provides in these conditions is unique for each study and may be low. In contrast, high-throughput *qpAdm* screens aiming to find optimal models for a wide variety of targets (e.g., Narasimhan et al. 2019, Bergström et al. 2022, Lazaridis et al. 2022, Zeng et al. 2023, Speidel et al. 2024) are not recommended, especially in extremely sparsely sampled regions/periods, such as the Paleolithic in the case of human population history (e.g., Posth et al. 2023, Zeng et al. 2023, Villalba-Mouco et al. 2023, Allentoft et al. 2024), Paleolithic to Neolithic Siberia (Sikora et al. 2019, Zeng et al. 2023, Gill et al. 2024), ancient South (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Kerdoncuff et al. 2024) and Southeast Asia (Carlhoff et al. 2021, Oliveira et al. 2022, Carlhoff et al. 2023; *qpAdm* played a central role in some of those studies).

In conclusion, a crucial problem is as follows: *qpAdm* on SSL (with more or less non-uniform gene-flow intensities, **Fig. S13b,c**) generates results that very often do not look suspicious but are either overly simple or inaccurate (favoring very distant sources over available spatially close sources). For instance, finding a two-way fitting model and rejecting all alternative models of the same complexity can be interpreted in several ways: 1) as a true or (much less likely for distal protocols) a false model in the context of a relatively simple AGS history; 2) as a suboptimal model (with large ST distances and/or small STS angles) in the context of a relatively poorly sampled SSL and/or unsuitable feasibility criteria; 3) as an optimal but overly simple model in the context of a densely sampled SSL with well-chosen feasibility criteria. We contend that this variety of potential interpretations makes the method (strictly speaking, the protocols aiming to find and interpret one or few "best-fitting" models for a target in large sets of alternative models) hardly suitable for one of its chief use cases in the literature, namely as a method supplying main or supporting evidence for long-distance migrations in exploratory studies.

Methods

AGS histories: simulations

For simulating genetic data, we used *msprime v.1.1.1* which allows accurate simulation of recombination and of multi-chromosome diploid genomes relying on the Wright-Fisher model (Nelson et al. 2020, Baumdicker et al. 2022). We simulated 3, 10, or 30 diploid chromosomes (each 100 Mbp long) by specifying a flat recombination rate (2×10^{-8} per nt per generation) along the chromosome and a much higher rate at the chromosome boundaries ($\log_e 2$ or ~0.693 per nt per generation, see https://tskit.dev/msprime/docs/stable/ancestry.html#multiple-chromosomes). A flat mutation rate, 1.25×10^{-8} per nt per generation (Scally & Durbin 2012), and the binary mutation model were used. To maintain the correct correlation between chromosomes, the discrete time Wright-Fischer model was used for 25 generations into the past, and deeper in the past the standard coalescent simulation algorithm was used (as recommended by Nelson et al. 2020).

AGS histories of random topology including 13 populations and 10 pulse-like admixture events were generated using the *random_admixturegraph* and *random_sim* functions from the *ADMIXTOOLS 2* package (https://uqrmaie1.github.io/admixtools/reference/random_sim.html), which produced scripts for running the *msprime v.1.1.1* simulator. Demographic events were separated by date intervals ranging randomly between 20 and 120 generations, with an upper bound on the graph depth at 800 generations (or ca. 23,000 years in the case of humans). In other sets of simulations, all the dates were scaled up 3.75 times, with an upper bound on the graph depth at 3,000 generations (or 87,000 years in the case of humans). To be more precise, demographic events were not placed in time entirely randomly, but were tied to one or few other events of the same "topological depth" within the graph, as illustrated by ten examples of simulated topologies in **Fig. S1**. The same principle was applied to sampling dates, which were tied to other demographic events such as divergence and admixture of other populations. These restrictions were used to ensure topological consistency of random graphs.

Ten diploid individuals with no missing data were sampled from each population at "leaves"

of the graph. Effective population sizes were constant along each edge and were picked

randomly from the range of 1,000 – 10,000 diploid individuals. Admixture proportions for all

admixture events varied randomly between 10% and 50%. This setup generates groups

sampled at widely different dates in the past or, in other words, located at various genetic

distances from the root. Alternatively, all terminal branches were extended to the "present"

of the simulation and sampled at "present", keeping their respective effective population

sizes and topological relationships unchanged. Thus, another set of simulations was

generated for the same topologies, where groups were more drifted with respect to each

other (see F_{ST} distributions in **Fig. S3**).

In summary, five sets of independent simulations ("simulation setups") differing by the

amount of data generated and by population divergence metrics were performed for a set of

40 random admixture graph topologies (see an overview in **Fig. 3**):

1) three 100-Mbp-sized chromosomes; groups sampled at different points in time; maximal

simulated history depth at 800 generations (10 simulation replicates, for median number of

polymorphic sites see **Fig. S2**);

2) ten 100-Mbp-sized chromosomes; groups sampled at different points in time; maximal

simulated history depth at 800 generations (10 simulation replicates);

3) thirty 100-Mbp-sized chromosomes; groups sampled at different points in time; maximal

simulated history depth at 3,000 generations (10 simulation replicates);

4) three 100-Mbp-sized chromosomes; groups sampled at different points in time; maximal

simulated history depth at 3,000 generations (one simulation replicate);

5) three 100-Mbp-sized chromosomes; all terminal branches extended to the "present" of the

simulation and sampled at that point; maximal simulated history depth at 800 generations

(one simulation replicate).

To create more realistic datasets, we performed randomized subsampling of polymorphic

sites and individuals (replicates no. 1 of the first, second, and third simulation setups were

used for this, see the list above). First, we randomly sampled alleles at heterozygous sites,

creating pseudo-haploid data. Then we introduced missing data by randomly selecting a

missing rate between 5% and 95%, followed by randomly selecting sites according to the

missing rate. This site subsampling was repeated for each individual independently. Lastly, we randomly sampled *n* (from 1 to 10) individuals from each population independently. The subsampling procedure described above was conditioned on the number of sites polymorphic in the set of 13 simulated populations and was repeated until a subsampling replicate with more than 20,000 (for 300-Mbp-sized genomes) or 66,000 such sites (for 1,000- and 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes) was obtained (**Fig. S2**). We generated 10 independent subsampled replicates for each topology and simulation setup (1,200 replicates in total). Polymorphism data in the *EIGENSTRAT* format were generated from the tree sequences using the *TreeSequence.genotype_matrix* function (https://tskit.dev/tskit/docs/stable/python-api.html#tskit.TreeSequence.genotype_matrix) and used for all subsequent analyses (*f*-statistics and *qpAdm*, PCA, *ADMIXTURE*).

AGS histories: calculating *f*-statistics

For all the work on *f*-statistics and *qpAdm*, the *ADMIXTOOLS 2* software package (Maier et al. 2023) was used. For diploid SNP sets without missing data, we first calculated all possible f_2-statistics for 4-Mbp-sized genome blocks (with the "*maxmiss=0*", "*adjust_pseudohaploid=TRUE*", and "*minac2=FALSE*" settings) and then used them for calculating f_3- and f_4-statistics as linear combinations of f_2-statistics and for testing *qpAdm* models using the *qpadm* function in *ADMIXTOOLS 2* (https://uqrmaie1.github.io/admixtools/) under default settings. Harney *et al*. (2021) showed that *qpAdm* is robust to changes in genome block size except for extreme values: 0.0001 and 1 Morgans (0.05 Morgans is a recommended default value, which corresponds to ~5 Mbp in the case of humans). Inferred admixture proportions in our analysis were not constrained between 0 and 1. For pseudo-haploid SNP sets with missing data and uneven group sizes, the *qpadm* function was applied to genotype files directly, with the "*allsnps=TRUE*" setting. In other words, f_4-statistics utilized by *qpAdm* and f_3-statistics were calculated off the genotype files without intermediate f_2-statistics, and removal of missing data was done for each population quadruplet or triplet separately. This setup is often used in the literature in the presence of missing data (e.g., Harney et al. 2018, Harney et al. 2019, Narasimhan et al. 2019, Lazaridis et al. 2022).

AGS histories: qpAdm protocols

QpWave tests were performed on sets of 13 groups divided randomly into 2 "left" and 11 "right" groups, testing all possible bisections of this form. *QpAdm* was applied to the same sets of 13 groups divided randomly into 3 "left" and 10 "right" groups, testing all possible bisections of this form for all possible target groups in "left" sets (858 such models per simulated history). This proximal rotating protocol was applied to all simulation setups. Subsequent work was focused only on feasible *qpAdm* models defined as follows: 1) *p*-values calculated by *qpWave* for one-way models "target = proxy source$_1$", "target = proxy source$_2$", and "proxy source$_1$ = proxy source$_2$" are all below 0.01; 2) in the case of the two-way model "target = proxy source$_1$ + proxy source$_2$", EAF $\pm$ 2 standard errors are between 0 and 1; 3) the *p*-value calculated by *qpAdm* for the two-way model ≥0.01. For exploring performance of the distal rotating protocol, feasible two-way *qpAdm* models were simply filtered according to sampling dates of target groups and proxy sources. If target group's sampling date was equal to or smaller than sampling dates of both proxy sources, such a model was considered distal.

In the non-rotating protocol, for each simulated admixture graph six oldest sampled groups were selected as a fixed "right" set (ties in sampling dates were resolved in alphabetical order; these "right" sets remained unchanged for a given topology across all independent simulations), and for the remaining seven groups all possible one-way and two-way admixture models were tested (105 models), applying the same composite feasibility criterion that was used above for the rotating protocol. This is the proximal non-rotating protocol, and alternatively we focused on distal admixture models only (distal non-rotating protocol).

In the proximal model competition protocol, subsequent analysis was focused on targets for whom two or more alternative *qpAdm* models emerged as feasible at the first step. For each target, alternative proxy sources were pooled and rotated between the "left" and "right" sets, testing only the models that emerged as feasible at the first step and applying the composite feasibility criterion (*p*-value ≥0.01, EAF ± 2 SE are between 0 and 1). Rotation of alternative proxy sources was performed in two alternative ways: "whatever is not on the left is on the right", or placement of alternative sources in the "right" set one by one. In the latter case several "right" sets were tested for each model, and the model was considered supported by the model competition protocol only if it was not rejected under any of these "right" sets (the

latter protocol follows Maróti et al. 2022). If only one model was feasible for a target, such a model was evaluated as passing the model competition procedure. A distal model competition protocol was not tested in this study.

For testing statistical significance of differences in FDR between *qpAdm* protocols, the following approach was used. FDR was calculated either on low-quality data for 10 random site/individual subsampling replicates derived from simulation replicate no. 1 (simulation setups no. 1 to 3) or on high-quality data for 10 independent simulation replicates (simulation setups no. 1 to 3). Comparisons of six *qpAdm* protocols (rotating and non-rotating; considering exclusively proximal, exclusively distal models, or both) were performed on these six sets of replicates using the two-sided paired Wilcoxon test (implemented as the *pairwise_wilcox_test* function in the *rstatix* R package v. 0.7.2). Comparisons of the same *qpAdm* protocols on simulations with different amounts or quality of data were performed using the two-sided non-paired Wilcoxon test since simulation replicates were independent unlike alternative *qpAdm* protocols applied to the same data (**Fig. 6**). In all applications of the Wilcoxon test for various purposes (**Figs. 6, 12, S32, Table S1b**), *p*-values adjusted for multiple testing with the Holm method are presented.

For comparing numerical results of *ADMIXTOOLS 2* v. 2.0.6 (released in 2024) with those of classic *ADMIXTOOLS* v. 7.0 (*qpAdm* v. 1201, released in 2020), we used the most realistic AGS simulations we generated, that is low-quality pseudohaploid data for 3,000-Mbp-sized genomes: 10 AGS topologies, with one simulation and one data subsampling replicate per topology. All possible two-way models were tested with the rotating protocol. *ADMIXTOOLS 2* was run with the "*fudge_twice=TRUE*" argument which makes the results more similar numerically to those of classic *ADMIXTOOLS*. Since the data was of low quality (pseudohaploid, with high missing rates, and with some populations composed on one individual), we used the "*allsnps=TRUE*" setting in *ADMIXTOOLS 2* and the identical "*useallsnps: YES*" setting in classic *ADMIXTOOLS* (all the other settings were default ones). If "*useallsnps*" is set to "*YES*", the latest *ADMIXTOOLS* v. 8.0.1 (*qpAdm* v. 2050, released in 2024) automatically calls *qpfstats* (https://github.com/DReichLab/AdmixTools/blob/master/README.qpfstats), an algorithm for handling low-quality data that is substantially different from that of the "*allsnps=TRUE*" setting in *ADMIXTOOLS 2* (https://uqrmaie1.github.io/admixtools/reference/qpfstats.html).

2069 To perform a fair comparison, we used *ADMIXTOOLS* v. 7.0 instead of the latest version v.

2070 8.0.1.

2071 The results produced by these two packages are not identical, but highly correlated across

2072 8,580 unique models we tested on low-quality data (**Table S14**). Pearson's correlation

2073 coefficient is 0.99 for *p*-values (this analysis prioritizes high *p*-values), 0.91 for $\log_{10}(|EAF_1|)$,

2074 0.73 for $\log_{10}$(*p*-values), and 0.79 for $\log_{10}$(SE). Spearman's coefficients are slightly higher for

2075 the logarithmic values (all coefficients are statistically significant with two-sided *p*-values =

2076 0). The weaker correlation seen for logarithmic *p*-values is in line with the high variability in

2077 logarithmic *p*-values calculated by *ADMIXTOOLS 2* on simulation replicates (**Fig. S7**).

2078

AGS histories: classifying two-way admixture models into false and true positives

Since the simulated admixture graph topologies were complex and random, target groups

modelled with *qpAdm* had complex admixture history in some cases, being a part of gene

flow networks. In this context it is hard to draw a strict boundary between true and false

admixture models composed of a target and only two proxy sources. Two-way admixture

models were considered false only if at least one of the following criteria was satisfied

(considering only graph topologies and admixture proportions):

1. The target and at least one of the proxy sources are simulated as strictly cladal (**Fig. 4, Fig.**

S4a). In this case the target may either be unadmixed, or it may have experienced gene

flows earlier in its history that do not break its cladality with one of the proxy sources.

2. A proxy source lineage is a recipient of gene flow from the target lineage (after the last

admixture event in target's history), possibly mediated by other lineages (**Fig. 4, Fig. S4a,**

b). In other words, the incorrect proxy source is a descendant of the target lineage, i.e.,

the expected gene flow direction is reversed.

3. A proxy source does not represent any true source. In other words, it is symmetrically

related to all true sources of ancestry in the target (**Fig. S4c, d**). Alternatively, both proxy

sources represent the same true source, and are symmetrically related to all the other

true sources (**Fig. S4e**).

4. A proxy source shares genetic drift with the corresponding true source that is not shared
by the second proxy source (and the same is true for the other proxy source and another
true source, i.e., condition no. 3 above is not satisfied), however less than 40% of its
ancestry is derived from the true source (**Fig. S4a, d**).

5. The target gets a gene flow from a deep-branching source not represented by any
sampled population, and an inappropriate proxy source is included in the fitting model
(**Fig. S4f, g**).

We illustrate these topological rules with eight case studies of FP and feasible *qpAdm* models
in **Fig. 4** and **Fig. S4a-g**. Two-way models for targets whose population history is best
approximated with three-way and more complex models were considered as TP if they
included source proxies (that do *not* satisfy the criteria above) for at least two of three or
more true ancestry sources (see three case studies in **Fig. S4k-m**).

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AGS histories: principal component analysis

PCA was performed for one simulation replicate per simulation setup. Only high-quality data
was used, and all individuals sampled from a simulation were co-analyzed. Prior to the
analysis, linked sites were pruned with *PLINK v.2.00a3LM* (Chang et al. 2015) using the
following settings: window size, 2000 SNPs; window step, 100 SNPs; r^2 threshold = 0.5
(argument "--indep-pairwise 2000 100 0.5"). PCA was also performed using *PLINK v.2.00a3LM*
under default settings, calculating 10 PCs. Interactive three-dimensional plots visualizing PC1,
PC2, and PC3 were made using the *plotly* R package. A two-way admixture model was
considered supported by PCA if:

1. the target group (the center of the cluster of target individuals, to be precise) lay between
the clusters of proxy source individuals on a straight line in the three-dimensional PC
space;

2. or if it was located at a distance of no more than three target cluster diameters from that
straight line connecting the proxy source clusters.

The second pattern was more common among both TP and FP two-way admixture models:
1.5 and 1.3 times, respectively (across all non-subsampled simulated datasets). This situation

is expected since many targets represent three-way and more complex mixtures, and due to
post-admixture genetic drift (Peter 2022).

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AGS histories: ADMIXTURE analysis

ADMIXTURE analysis was performed for one simulation replicate per simulation setup. Only
high-quality data was used, and all individuals sampled from a simulation were co-analyzed.
Prior to the analysis, linked sites were pruned with *PLINK v.2.00a3LM* (Chang et al. 2015)
using the following settings: window size, 2000 SNPs; window step, 100 SNPs; r^2 threshold =
0.5 (argument "--indep-pairwise 2000 100 0.5"). *ADMIXTURE v.1.3* (Alexander et al. 2009)
was used in the unsupervised mode under the default settings. The algorithm was run on
each SNP dataset only once, with the number of hypothetical ancestral populations (*K*)
ranging from 3 to 10. This range was selected since the total number of populations in each
simulated history was 13. A two-way admixture model was considered supported by
ADMIXTURE analysis if:

1. for at least one *K*, at least 5 of 10 target individuals were modelled as a mixture of at least
two ancestry components, with a minor ancestry component exceeding 2%;

2. typically, ancestry component *A* in the target group was shared with at least 5 individuals
in proxy source 1, but not in proxy source 2, and ancestry component *B* was shared with
at least 5 individuals in proxy source 2, but not in proxy source 1 (see examples in **Fig. 4**
and **Fig. S4**); in some cases, both components *A* and *B* were found in the proxy sources,
but in different proportions;

3. if only one ancestry component in the target was shared with the two proxy sources, the
model was considered unsupported;

4. ancestry components in the target that are absent in any of the sources were ignored
since three-way and more complex admixture histories are common in the set of random
admixture graphs explored here (see examples of such topologies in **Fig. S4k-m**);

5. ancestry components in a proxy source that are absent in the target were also ignored
since a proxy source may not be fully cladal with the real source (see examples of such
topologies in **Fig. S4i, j, m**).

These rules were designed to reproduce typical reasoning of an archaeogeneticist

interpreting *ADMIXTURE* results. Observing a pattern of ancestry components in the target

group and proxy sources compatible with the admixture model "target = proxy source$_1$ +

proxy source$_2$" for one *K* value was enough for declaring that the model is supported by the

ADMIXTURE analysis. This condition was motivated by an observation that models supported

at one *K* value only were equally common among FP and TP *qpAdm* models (10% and 13%,

respectively, across simulation setups no. 1, 2, 4, and 5). Models supported at four or more *K*

values were more common among TP *qpAdm* models (3.3% of FP and 12.6% of TP models

across the four simulation setups).

2164

SSL histories: simulations

The *slendr* v. 0.7.2.9000 R package (Petr et al. 2023) with the *msprime* v. 1.2.0 backend was

used for the stepping-stone simulations. Sixty-four panmictic demes (with stable effective

sizes of 1,000 diploid individuals) arose via multifurcation at generation 470 (counted from

the past), and, starting at generation 471, three gene-flow eras followed each other: "pre-

LGM" lasting 1,400 generations, "LGM" lasting 350 generations, and "post-LGM" lasting 770

generations (LGM stands for the last glacial maximum). Three diploid individuals were

sampled from each deme at the end of the simulation ("present"), at 100, and 300

generations before "present". The demes were arranged on a triangular lattice, forming an

approximately circular landscape, where each deme was connected by bidirectional gene

flows to 3 to 6 neighboring demes (**Fig. 7**). Gene-flow intensities were sampled randomly (in

each direction independently) from either uniform or normal distributions, generating four

types of landscapes with the following approximate per-generation gene-flow intensity

ranges: 10^{-5} to 10^{-4}, 10^{-4} to 10^{-3}, 10^{-3} to 10^{-2}, 10^{-5} to 10^{-2} (the values stand for percentage of

individuals in a generation coming from a given neighboring deme; see **Table S6** for details).

In the case of the "10^{-5} to 10^{-2}" landscape, normal distributions centered at 0 were used (see

Table S6 for their parameters). Random sampling of the gene-flow intensity distributions was

done at the beginning of each era, except for the "10^{-3} to 10^{-2}" landscape, where sampling

was repeated five times per era, at equal intervals of time. Ten independent simulation

replicates were generated for each landscape type, with gene-flow intensities re-sampled for

each replicate. Genome size was 500 Mbp, recombination rate was simulated at 1×10^{-8} per

nt per generation, and mutation rate was 1.25×10^{-8} per nt per generation.

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SSL histories: qpAdm protocols with randomized landscape sampling

Four *qpAdm* protocols were applied to SSL: distal and proximal non-rotating, distal and

proximal rotating. For constructing these *qpAdm* experiments, demes were sampled

randomly from the landscapes, keeping their original sample size of three diploid individuals.

For each protocol, 36 composite feasibility criteria and two deme sampling densities were

tested: 13 or 18 demes and a target per a rotating *qpAdm* experiment; 10 or 15 proxy sources,

10 or 15 "right" demes, and a target per a non-rotating experiment. For brevity, we refer to

these sampling densities as "13 demes" or "18 demes" for all types of protocols. Here we

describe random deme sampling rules for the four protocols, and they are also illustrated in

Fig. S12:

1. Distal non-rotating. Target demes were sampled at "present", and for each target two

alternative sets of "right" groups and proxy sources were generated: 10 (or 15, depending

on the sampling density) "right" demes were from 300 generations before present (ca.

8700 years in the case of humans), and 10 or 15 proxy source demes were from 100

generations before present (ca. 2900 years in the case of humans).

2. Proximal non-rotating. Ten or fifteen "right" demes were sampled at 300 generations

before present, 10 or 15 proxy source demes were sampled at 100 generations and at

"present" (demes from the two dates were combined before sampling), and a target

deme was sampled from either the 100-generations or 300-generations sampling point.

3. Distal rotating. Target demes were sampled at "present", and for each target two

alternative rotating sets were generated: 13 or 18 "right"/source demes were sampled

from 300 and 100 generations ago (demes from the two dates were combined before

sampling).

4. Proximal rotating. A rotating set of 14 or 19 demes was sampled from all the three time

points combined, and a single target was sampled from that subset, but 300-generations-

old targets were not allowed.

The *qpAdm* experiments described above consisted of all possible one-, two-, three-, and

four-way models for one target (one-, two-, and three-way models for proxy sources were

also counted towards some feasibility criteria as described below). Before each *qpAdm* test,

per-block f_2-statistics were calculated with *ADMIXTOOLS* v.2.0.0 (Maier et al. 2023) for the

selected set of demes under the following settings: "*maxmiss=0*" (no missing data allowed at

the group level), "*blgsize=4000000*" (genome block size in nt), "*minac2=FALSE*",

"*adjust_pseudohaploid=FALSE*" (the latter two settings have their default values intended for

high-quality diploid data). *QpAdm* tests were performed in *ADMIXTOOLS* v.2.0.0 under the

default settings, except for the "*fudge_twice=TRUE*" setting designed to make numerical

results more similar to those of classic *ADMIXTOOLS* (Patterson et al. 2012). Here we describe

36 composite feasibility criteria (arranged from more to less stringent) tested on SSL which

are variations on the criterion used for the work on AGS histories (**Box 1**):

1. Admixture fraction estimates (EAF) $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is

either 0.05 or 0.5; all "trailing" simpler models (**Box 1**) are rejected according to the 0.001

p-value threshold;

2. EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is either 0.001, 0.01 (this version

of the criterion matches the main version applied to AGS histories), 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5; all

"trailing" simpler models are rejected according to the same *p*-value thresholds;

3. EAF $\in$ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is either 0.05 or 0.5; all "trailing" simpler

models are rejected according to the 0.001 *p*-value threshold;

4. EAF $\in$ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is either 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5; all

"trailing" simpler models are rejected according to the same *p*-value thresholds;

5. EAF $\in$ (-0.3, 1.3); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is either 0.05 or 0.5; all "trailing"

simpler models are rejected according to the 0.001 *p*-value threshold;

6. EAF $\in$ (-0.3, 1.3); *p*-value threshold for *n*-way models is either 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, or

0.5; all "trailing" simpler models are rejected according to the same *p*-value thresholds;

7. EAF $\pm$ 2 SE $\in$ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold is either 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5; "trailing"

simpler models are not checked;

8. EAF ∈ (0, 1); *p*-value threshold is either 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5; "trailing" simpler models are not checked;

9. EAFs ∈ (-0.3, 1.3); *p*-value threshold is either 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5; "trailing" simpler models are not checked.

If *qpAdm* results were interpreted at the level of experiments, but not models, for declaring a positive result it was required that all simpler models for the same target (with all possible source combinations) are rejected according to one of the feasibility criteria described above. Models at a complexity level where the first fitting model was found were binned into rejected (non-fitting) and non-rejected (fitting) and ranked by Euclidean distances to ideal symmetric models (of the same complexity) in the space of optimality metrics (**Fig. 7**). We defined "outcomes of experiments that would be misleading in practice" as satisfying the following condition at the model complexity level where the first fitting model is found for the target: min. Euclidean distance$_{non-rejected}$ – min. Euclidean distance$_{rejected}$ > $\sqrt{8}$, which is a diagonal of a right triangle with legs = 2 (corresponding to spatial distance of 2 or to angular distance of 40°). The reasoning behind this approach is as follows: we hope to accept models that are not much worse in spaces of optimality metrics than the models we reject. The spatial distance of 2 and the angular distance of 40° are substantial in the context of the simulated landscapes with maximal distance = 9 and maximal angle between sources in a two-way model = 180°.

This criterion based on Euclidean distance to the ideal symmetric model was applied to any experiment producing two-way and more complex fitting models, and in the case of experiments yielding one-way fitting models the two-dimensional space of model optimality metrics does not exist, and a simpler condition defined "bad" outcomes of experiments: *min. source-target distance in the non-rejected model group > min. source-target distance in the rejected model group*. For two-way and more complex models with at least one source located at the same position as the target (distance = 0), min. STS angles were undefined, and thus distances in the space of min. STS angles and max. or average ST distance were undefined for them too. Fitting models of this sort were counted towards positive results at a certain complexity level, but not towards experiments with misleading outcomes.

Forty randomized independent experiments progressing to four-way admixture models
(irrespective of model feasibility assessments) were performed per one simulation replicate,
qpAdm protocol (distal and proximal, rotating and non-rotating), and landscape sampling
density (13 or 18 demes) (12,800 independent experiments in total). For the most realistic
landscape type, that with per-generation gene-flow intensities ranging from ca. 10^{-5} to 10^{-2},
160 independent experiments progressing to three-way models were performed per one
simulation replicate, *qpAdm* protocol, and landscape sampling density (12,800 experiments
in total). For the three other landscape types, 40 independent experiments progressing to
three-way models were performed per one simulation replicate, *qpAdm* protocol, and
landscape sampling density (9,600 experiments in total). The former set of experiments
progressing to four-way models was used for all the analyses in the study, and the latter two
sets were employed as additional data for comparing estimated and predicted admixture
fractions only (**Figs. 13, S34**).

Spearman's or Pearson's correlation coefficients and statistical significance of their difference
from 0 were calculated in the spaces of EAF or SE vs. model *p*-values (**Tables S1c, S7, S8, S12**),
or in the spaces of optimality metrics (**Table S11**), using the *cor.test* function from the R
package *stats* v. 4.3.0. Two-sided significance tests were used: for Spearman's test, *p*-values
were computed via the asymptotic *t* approximation and subjected to the Bonferroni
correction. The same approaches were used for all applications of Spearman's (**Tables S1c,
S7, S8, S11-S13**) or Pearson's (**Figs. 13, S13, S34, Table S14**) correlation coefficients in this
study.

2292

SSL histories: qpAdm protocols with systematic landscape sampling

For *qpAdm* tests based on systematic landscape sampling, we used the landscapes (10
simulation iterations) with per-generation gene-flow intensities ranging between
approximately 10^{-5} and 10^{-2}. On this landscape, we tested two protocols (**Fig. S12**):

1. distal rotating (in each experiment a target was selected from demes sampled at
"present", and 16 demes sampled 100 generations before "present" formed a rotating
set);

2. distal non-rotating (in each experiment a target was selected from demes sampled at
"present", 16 demes sampled 100 generations before "present" were used as proxy
sources, and 16 demes sampled 300 generations before "present" were used as "right"
groups).

Deme no. 32, occupying a central position on the landscape, were selected as a principal
target. In the case of the rotating protocol, 16 demes forming a rotating set were selected
exclusively from the 1st and 3rd circles of demes surrounding the target (**Fig. S12**). We tested
all rotating sets of this class including from 0 to 6 demes from the 1st circle (the nearest
neighbors of the target deme). In total, 64 experiments were performed for each simulation
replicate. Since there was only one experiment per simulation replicate with 0 or 6 demes
from the 1st circle, we repeated experiments of this type (with 0 and 6 demes from the 1st
circle) for nine other target demes located in the center of the landscape (if it was possible to
find a full 3rd circle for them). The same experiments were reproduced in the non-rotating
version: all the demes from the 16-deme rotating sets were used as proxy sources, and the
"right" set was identical in all the non-rotating experiments and included 16 demes from the
3rd circle (there were from 17 to 18 demes in that circle in total, depending on the target).

Above we described a "standard systematic setup" (presented or used for generating the
results visualized in **Figs. 7, 11-13, S12, S27, S28, S31, S32,** and **Tables S7-S9**), however other
configurations of demes were tested too: 1) 16 "right" groups coming from circles at different
distances from the target and proxy sources in a distal non-rotating protocol coming
alternatively from the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, or 4th circles around the target (**Fig. S25**); 2) 16 "right"
groups coming from circles at different distances from the target and all 64 demes sampled
at 100 generations ago included as alternative proxy sources in a distal non-rotating protocol
(**Figs. S29, S30, S33, Table S12**).

Before each *qpAdm* test, per-block f_2-statistics were calculated with *ADMIXTOOLS* v.2.0.0
(Maier et al. 2023) for the selected set of demes under the following settings: "*maxmiss=0*",
"*blgsize=4000000*", "*minac2=FALSE*", and "*adjust_pseudohaploid=FALSE*". *QpAdm* tests were
performed under the default settings, except for the "*fudge_twice=TRUE*" setting designed
to make numerical results more similar to those of classic *ADMIXTOOLS* (Patterson et al.
2012).

Systematic experiments progressed from simpler to more complex models (from one- to four-

way models) until at least one feasible model was encountered. Unlike the randomized

experiments which always included tests of all possible models from one- to four-way,

systematic experiments were stopped and did not progress all the way to four-way models if

a simpler fitting model was encountered. The following composite feasibility criterion was

used: EAF $\in$ (0, 1); p-value threshold is 0.01; p-values of "trailing" models were not assessed

since all simpler models for the target had to be rejected for an experiment to progress.

2337

Probability density curves for radiocarbon and calendar dates

Probability density curves for published radiocarbon and calendar dates were constructed in

OxCal v.4.4. For calendar dates, we used the *C-Simulate* function in *OxCal v.4.4* for simulating

normally distributed dating methods, taking the average calendar date as a median and the

length of the timespan as a 95% confidence interval. For radiocarbon dates, we used

calibration based on the IntCal20 calibration curve. Probability densities were summarized

using the *Sum* function in *OxCal v.4.4* for each of the three groups of individuals, those

included in the "left", "right", and "target" population sets in at least one of the published

qpAdm models (Narasimhan et al. 2019, Lazaridis et al. 2022), and then plotted together.

2347

Data Availability Statement

2349   The study is based on simulated data exclusively. Principal software packages used in the

2350   study are *ADMIXTOOLS 2* (Maier et al. 2023, https://github.com/uqrmaie1/admixtools),

2351   *msprime v. 1.1.1* and *v. 1.2.0* (Baumdicker et al. 2022, https://github.com/tskit-

2352   dev/msprime), and *slendr v. 0.7.2.9000* (Petr et al. 2023, https://github.com/bodkan/slendr).

2353   The supplementary materials for this paper are located at gsajournals.figshare.com.

2354

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