

1 **50,000 years of Evolutionary History of India: Insights from ~2,700** 2 **Whole Genome Sequences**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 India has been underrepresented in whole genome sequencing studies. We generated 2,762 high
26 coverage genomes from India—including individuals from most geographic regions, speakers of
27 all major languages, and tribal and caste groups—providing a comprehensive survey of genetic
28 variation in India. With these data, we reconstruct the evolutionary history of India through space
29 and time at fine scales. We show that most Indians derive ancestry from three ancestral groups
30 related to ancient Iranian farmers, Eurasian Steppe pastoralists and South Asian hunter-gatherers.
31 We uncover a common source of Iranian-related ancestry from early Neolithic cultures of Central
32 Asia into the ancestors of Ancestral South Indians (ASI), Ancestral North Indians (ANI),
33 Austro-asiatic-related and East Asian-related groups in India. Following these admixtures, India
34 experienced a major demographic shift towards endogamy, resulting in extensive homozygosity
35 and identity-by-descent sharing among individuals. At deep time scales, Indians derive around
36 1-2% of their ancestry through gene flow from archaic hominins, Neanderthals and Denisovans.
37 By assembling the surviving fragments of archaic ancestry in modern Indians, we recover ~1.5
38 Gb (or 50%) of the introgressing Neanderthal and ~0.6 Gb (or 20%) of the introgressing
39 Denisovan genomes, more than any other previous archaic ancestry study. Moreover, Indians
40 have the largest variation in Neanderthal ancestry, as well as the highest amount of
41 population-specific Neanderthal segments among worldwide groups. Finally, we demonstrate
42 that most of the genetic variation in Indians stems from a single major migration out of Africa
43 that occurred around 50,000 years ago, with minimal contribution from earlier migration waves.
44 Together, these analyses provide a detailed view of the population history of India and
45 underscore the value of expanding genomic surveys to diverse groups outside Europe.

46 Introduction

47

48 With more than 1.5 billion people and approximately 5,000 anthropologically well-defined
49 ethno-linguistic and religious groups, India is a region of extraordinary diversity¹. Yet, Indian
50 populations are often underrepresented in genomic studies. Recent sequencing endeavors such as
51 the 1000 Genomes Project (1000G)², UK Biobank³, TopMed⁴, Simons Genome Diversity Panel⁵
52 and GenomeAsia^{6,7} have incorporated Indian populations. However, with the exception of
53 GenomeAsia^{6,7}, these efforts have either included very few individuals or primarily sampled
54 expatriate communities outside of India, leading to a limited (and biased) representation of the
55 genetic variation seen in India. As a result, many open questions remain about the population
56 history of India: When did people first migrate to India from Africa—as part of the major
57 migration out of Africa or at earlier times along the southern coastal route of migration? What is
58 the contribution and legacy of archaic gene flow from Neanderthals and Denisovans to Indians?
59 How have recent technological innovations like Neolithic farming and spread of languages
60 impacted variation in India?

61

62 To obtain a more complete picture of human diversity in India, we generated deep coverage
63 genome sequences of ~2,700 individuals from 18 states in India. Our samples are part of the
64 Longitudinal Aging Study in India - Diagnostic Assessment of Dementia (LASI-DAD)⁸ that is a
65 population-based prospective cohort study that has collected nationally representative data of
66 individuals that are 60 years or older. These data contain individuals from diverse geographic
67 regions (including rural and urban areas), speakers for many language families (e.g.,
68 Indo-European, Dravidian and Tibeto-Burman languages) and various ethno-linguistic and caste
69 groups (e.g., self-reported castes recognized by the Indian government), providing the most
70 comprehensive snapshot of genetic diversity in India.

71

72 Data and catalog of novel variants

73

74 A total of 2,762 LASI-DAD participants, including 22 trios (mother-father-child), were
75 sequenced at MedGenome, Inc. (Bangalore, India) at an average read depth of 30x. Individuals
76 were sampled from 18 different states across India (Fig 1A), with median sample size of 157
77 individuals per state (Supplementary Note S1). The raw whole genome sequences were sent to
78 the Genome Center for Alzheimer's Disease (GCAD) at the University of Pennsylvania for joint
79 calling and quality control. A total of 2,679 samples and 73.2 million autosomal bi-allelic
80 variants passed quality control filters, including 67.1 million single nucleotide variants (SNVs)
81 and 6.04 million insertion-deletions (indels) (Supplementary Note S2). We identified 24 million
82 novel SNVs and 2.2 million novel indels, underscoring the limitations of existing human genetic
83 variation databases like the 1000G and Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD)⁹ in
84 representing diverse populations. The vast majority (>99%) of the newly identified variants are
85 rare, including 68% of singletons and less than 1% common variants (with greater than 1%

86 frequency) (Table S2.1). Genome phasing was conducted using SHAPEIT4¹⁰, and we estimated a
87 low phase switch error rate of less than 1.15% in trios (Table S3.1).

88

89 Our dataset is representative of the population diversity in India. It includes individuals born in
90 23 different states from both rural (63%) and urban (37%) areas. It comprises speakers of around
91 26 different languages that belong to diverse caste groups as recognized by the Indian
92 government: 4% from Scheduled Tribes, 18% from Scheduled Castes, and 44% from other
93 backward class (OBC). Nearly equal numbers of males and females were recruited in the study,
94 with our dataset constituting 52% of females. For many analyses, we categorized individuals
95 based on their birth location into six major geographic regions: North ($n=555$), West ($n=385$),
96 Central ($n=373$), South ($n=715$), North-East ($n=73$), and East ($n=530$). After performing quality
97 control checks and excluding first-degree relatives, we used a sample of 2,620 individuals for
98 most of our analyses described below, unless specified otherwise (see Methods, Supplementary
99 Note S1-2).

100

101 **Population structure and admixture**

102

103 To study population relationships of Indians to other worldwide populations, we combined the
104 LASI-DAD dataset with the 1000G¹¹ and applied Principal component analysis (PCA)¹²,
105 ADMIXTURE¹³ and f -statistics¹⁴. Consistent with previous reports^{15,16}, we find that the
106 population structure in India is related to individuals of West Eurasian-related ancestry (1000G
107 EUR), with limited or no recent gene flow from populations related to sub-Saharan Africans (Fig
108 1B, Fig S4.1). The population structure in India is correlated to geography (state of birth) and
109 linguistic affiliation, with three main clusters—one cluster that includes the majority of the
110 individuals from North and South of India who speak Indo-European and Dravidian languages
111 and represents varying relatedness to West Eurasians, referred to as ‘Indian cline’ (Fig 1B, Fig
112 S4.2-3). The Indian cline has previously been shown to reflect variable proportions of ancestry
113 from two ancestral groups: the *Ancestral North Indians (ANI)* who harbor large proportions of
114 ancestry related to West Eurasians, and the *Ancestral South Indians (ASI)* who are distantly
115 related to West Eurasians^{15,16}. Recent ancient DNA analysis have shown that both *ANI* and *ASI*
116 are admixed and in turn, have ancestry from groups related to ancient Iranian farmers, ancient
117 Eurasian Steppe pastoralists, and unsampled indigenous South Asians (*Ancient Ancestral South*
118 *Indians (AASI)*) distantly related to Andamanese hunter-gatherers (*AHG*)¹⁷.

119

120 Beyond the Indian cline, we find two primary clusters of individuals ($n=494$): a cluster towards
121 the *ASI*-end of the cline, and another found closer to the center exhibiting clear relatedness to
122 East Asian-related groups (1000G EAS) in PCA (Fig 1B). The former mainly includes
123 individuals from Central and East India, with the majority from the state of Odisha where
124 predominantly Indo-European and Austro-asiatic languages are spoken. The East Asian-related
125 cluster includes individuals from East and North-East regions of India. West Bengal is the most
126 representative state in this cluster, with almost 10% ancestry related to East Asians. Using
127 ALDER¹⁸, we estimated the admixture related linkage disequilibrium related to EAS to infer that

128 this gene flow occurred 50 generations ago or around 520 AD, possibly related to the invasions
129 of the Huna people to India after the collapse of the Gupta Empire (Fig S4.11)^{19,20}. Another
130 predominant group in the East Asian-related cluster is from Assam. This group exhibits
131 significant heterogeneity, as individuals have varying degrees of relatedness to EAS, indicative
132 of the recent gene flow possibly related to the recent migration of East Asian tea plantation
133 workers to India in the last two centuries²¹ (Fig 1B). Our ADMIXTURE¹³ analysis mirrors the
134 patterns seen in PCA (Fig S4.6).

135

136 Ancestry Composition and Sources

137

138 To model the ancestry in India, we used *qpAdm* that compares allele frequency correlations
139 between a population of interest and a set of reference and outgroup populations^{14,22}. First, we
140 examined how well the three-way model with ancient Iranian farmer-related, Eurasian Steppe
141 pastoralist-related, and *AHG*-related groups describes the ancestry of individuals on the Indian
142 cline (Fig 1B). Following Narasimhan et al. 2019¹⁷, we used *Indus Periphery West* that is part of
143 the *Indus Periphery Cline*—a heterogeneous group of 11 outlier samples from Bronze Age
144 cultures of Shahr-i-Sokhta and Bactria Margiana Archaeological Complex—as the proxy for
145 Iranian farmer-related ancestry, Central Steppe Middle to late Bronze age
146 (*Central_Steppe_MLBA*) as the source for Yamnaya Steppe pastoralist-derived ancestry and
147 *AHG*-related individuals to represent *AASI* ancestry¹⁷. We find the three-way model provides a
148 good fit for the majority (>90%) of the individuals on the Indian cline, with some exceptions (we
149 define ‘good fit’ as models with *qpAdm* *p*-value > 0.01, see Methods). Notably, we find 22
150 individuals that can be fitted as a two-way mixture between ancient Iranian farmer-related and
151 *AHG*-related ancestries without Steppe pastoralist-related ancestry (referred to as *ASI*
152 henceforth).

153

154 The archaeological context of the *Indus Periphery Cline* and their relationship to ancient Indian
155 civilizations (e.g., Indus Valley Civilization) is unclear as these were migrant samples from
156 Bronze Age Central Asian cultures¹⁷. Thus, we examined fifteen ancient Iranian-related groups
157 from the Neolithic to Iron Age as the potential source of the Iranian farmer-related ancestry for
158 the 22 *ASI* individuals and *Indus Periphery West*. We obtain good fits for all 22 *ASI* individuals
159 when the Iranian-related ancestry derives from early Neolithic and Copper Age individuals from
160 Central Asian cultures of either *Sarazm_EN* or *Namazga_CA* or a group containing *Sarazm_EN*
161 and *Parkhai_Ananu_EN* that was previously suggested as the source for *Indus Periphery Cline*¹⁷.
162 The latter two models also provide good fits for *Indus Periphery West*, though using *Sarazm_EN*
163 alone as the source does not yield a good fit (Table S4.2). Furthermore, a model with
164 *Sarazm_EN*, *AHG*-related and *Central_Steppe_MLBA* also provides a good fit for the vast
165 majority (>95%) of individuals on the Indian cline (*p*-value in *qpAdm* > 0.01). In contrast,
166 models with *Namazga_CA* fail for >15% of individuals on the Indian cline, contrary to previous
167 claims based on fewer samples²³. Similarly, models with *Sarazm_EN* and *Parkhai_Ananu_EN* do
168 not work well for modern Indians and yield negative coefficients for *Parkhai_Ananu_EN* ancestry
169 (Table S4.3).

170

171 Turning to the individuals that fall outside the Indian cline, we tried three models including
172 *Sarazm_EN*, *AHG*-related, and either (a) Steppe pastoralist-related (as the Indian cline model),
173 (b) Austro-asiatic-related (using *Nicobarese*), or (c) East Asian-related (using *EAS*) ancestries.
174 We also tested four-way models with addition of *Central_Steppe_MLBA* if models (b-c) failed.
175 We obtain good fits for 91% of the individuals that fall outside the cline (Table S4.4). Notably,
176 there are 91 individuals that can be modeled without Steppe pastoralist-related ancestry,
177 including ~96% of the Austro-asiatic-related individuals (using model b). This suggests Iranian
178 farmer-related ancestry likely did not come through Steppe pastoralist-related groups to India.

179

180 Archaeological studies have also documented trade connections between Sarazm and South Asia,
181 including connections with agriculture sites of Mehrgarh and early Indus Valley Civilization²⁴.
182 Indeed, one of the two *Sarazm_EN* individuals (*Sarazm_EN_1*) was found with shell bangles that
183 are identical to ones found at sites in Pakistan and India such as Shahi-Tump, Makran and
184 Surkotada, Gujarat²⁵ (*J. Mark Kenoyer*, personal communication). Surprisingly, when we applied
185 *qpAdm*, we discovered that *Sarazm_EN_1* has substantial *AHG*-related ancestry (~15%), unlike
186 the other individual from the *Sarazm_EN* group (*Sarazm_EN_2*). Application of the three-way
187 model with *Sarazm_EN_2*, *AHG*-related and *Central_Steppe_MLBA* continues to provide a good
188 fit for most individuals (>96%) on the Indian cline, as well as off-cline individuals (Table
189 S4.7-8). Moreover, the two-way model without Steppe Pastoralist-related ancestry works well
190 for the 22 *ASI* individuals and *Indus Periphery West* (without need for additional ancestry from
191 *Parkhai_Anu_EN*). Together, our data are consistent with a common source for the ancient
192 Iranian-related ancestry in ANI, ASI, Austroasiatics-related and East Asian-related individuals in
193 India, suggesting that the Iranian-related gene flow occurred well before the arrival of Steppe
194 pastoralist-related ancestry in Bronze Age (~1900–1500 BCE¹⁷).

195

196 Using *AHG*-related, *Sarazm_EN* and *Central_Steppe_MLBA* as reference populations, we
197 inferred the genetic composition of individuals on the Indian cline. We find marked variation in
198 ancestry proportions across India, with Iranian farmer-related ancestry varying between
199 ~27–68%, *AHG*-related between ~19–69% and *Central_Steppe_MLBA* between ~0–45%.
200 Among the three ancestry components, variation in *AHG*-related shows the strongest correlation
201 to the ANI-ASI cline in PCA (Fig S4.10). *AHG*-related ancestry proportion is significantly
202 associated with geography (e.g., highest in South and lowest in North of India), language (i.e.,
203 higher in Dravidian vs. Indo-European language speakers) and caste affiliation (highest in
204 Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and OBC compared to other groups) (Fig 1C, Extended
205 Data Fig 1). This highlights that the ancient admixture events are related to the spread of
206 languages and the history of the traditional caste system in India.

207

208 **Founder events increase homozygosity in India**

209

210 Previous studies have shown that many Indian groups have a history of strong founder events,
211 due to endogamous and consanguineous marriages^{7,26,27}. Founder events reduce genetic variation

212 and increase sharing of genomic regions that are inherited identical-by-descent (IBD) from a few
213 common ancestors²⁸. Descendants of consanguineous marriages (between close relatives) may
214 inherit IBD segments from both parents, resulting in segments that are homozygous-by-descent
215 (HBD). A founder event results in many, small HBD segments, while recent consanguinity
216 results in fewer but longer HBD segments.

217

218 We identified IBD and HBD segments in LASI-DAD and 1000G datasets using a
219 haplotype-based IBD detection method, *hap-IBD*²⁹. To differentiate between the relative effects
220 of founder events and recent consanguineous marriages, we stratified the HBD segments by
221 length— long ($> 8\text{cM}$) indicative of consanguinity and short ($< 8\text{cM}$) mostly reflecting founder
222 events. Indians, on average, have a larger fraction of their genome in HBD segments ($\sim 29\text{ cM}$)
223 compared to 1000G EAS ($\sim 6\text{ cM}$), EUR ($\sim 6\text{ cM}$), and AFR ($\sim 4\text{ cM}$) (Fig 2A). Within India,
224 individuals from South have significantly higher homozygosity, both in terms of the total amount
225 of their genome in HBD segments (on average, $\sim 56\text{ cM}$ in South compared to $\sim 19\text{ cM}$ in other
226 regions, $p\text{-value} < 10^{-16}$) and the fraction of long HBD segments (8.4% vs. 4.3%, $p\text{-value} < 10^{-6}$),
227 reflecting the higher prevalence of consanguineous marriages in the South of India³⁰ (Fig 2A, Fig
228 S5.1-2). A majority ($>90\%$) of the homozygosity stems from small HBD segments (rather than
229 long HBD segments), suggesting a primary role of historical founder events rather than recent
230 consanguinity as the source of homozygosity (Fig 2A, Fig S5.2). Similar results are obtained
231 when we use a threshold of 20 cM to define long HBD segments (Fig S5.1, Fig S5.2B).

232

233 Next, we investigated genome-wide IBD-sharing across individuals. We computed the fraction of
234 individuals who find at least one close genetic relative within LASI-DAD and compared this
235 proportion across worldwide populations in 1000G (see Methods, Fig S5.3). We infer that
236 $\sim 51.0\%$ (38.4–59.2% across regions) of individuals in LASI-DAD find at least one genetic
237 relative with expected IBD sharing equivalent to a 3rd degree cousin or closer relationship (~ 53
238 cM) in LASI-DAD, which is markedly higher than 14.2% in SAS, 8.8% in EAS, 8.8% in EUR
239 and 17.2% in AFR from 1000G (Fig 2B, Table S5.1) (note, a previous study identified $\sim 5\text{--}10\%$
240 of individuals are first and second-degree relatives in Gambians from Mandinka (GWD) and
241 Esan in Nigeria (ESN) contributing to higher relatedness in AFR³¹). The higher IBD sharing in
242 LASI-DAD, especially compared to 1000G SAS may stem from: (a) larger sample size of
243 LASI-DAD, or (b) ascertainment bias in selecting individuals in either study. We examined each
244 of these hypotheses in turn. We performed bootstrap resampling of equal numbers of individuals
245 ($n=500$) from LASI-DAD as 1000G SAS and inferred that the fraction of 3rd degree cousins
246 decreased to 24.2% (95% CI: 19.4%–28.6%), yet significantly higher than 1000G SAS (Fig 2B,
247 Table S5.1). In LASI-DAD, individuals were recruited using a stratified random sampling
248 approach. First, Sampling Secondary Units (SSUs) (villages/urban census blocks) were chosen in
249 each state and then within each SSU, individuals were selected randomly. To control for the
250 impact of this ascertainment scheme, we considered pairwise cross-SSU comparisons among
251 individuals (Supplementary Note S5). Using this approach and accounting for the sample size,
252 we continue to find a significant shift in LASI-DAD compared to 1000G SAS, with
253 $\sim 16.4\text{--}35.0\%$ of individuals sharing IBD equivalent to 3rd degree cousins (Fig S5.4). This

254 comparison highlights the limitations of the sampling of 1000G groups for representing genetic
255 variation of India (with mainly a few groups from the subcontinent). Overall, we find that all
256 individuals in LASI-DAD have at least one putative 4th degree cousin or closer relative (with
257 IBD > 10 cM) in the dataset. The high level of relatedness in India is notable, as a similar level
258 of IBD sharing is seen in Europeans with approximately 480,000 individuals (almost 200-fold
259 higher sample size) in UK Biobank³².

260

261 The history of founder events predicts a high burden of deleterious variants and increased risk of
262 recessive diseases, as seen in Finns and Ashkenazi Jews^{28,33}. To assess the potential functional
263 effects of founder events in India, we identified 385,985 missense and 20,319 putative loss of
264 function (pLoF) variants (see Methods) (Table S5.2). Each individual carries ~10,344 (range:
265 9,911–10,761) derived missense variants, and ~67 (46–96) pLoF variants on autosomes. Most
266 (>90%) of these variants are rare (frequency below 1%) or singletons (62%). As expected, we
267 observe strong correlation between the homozygous deleterious mutation burden (measured as
268 sum of homozygous missense and pLoF variants carried by an individual) and the total sum of
269 HBD per individual in India (Extended Data Fig 2). Among 18,451 protein-coding autosomal
270 genes in the human genome (RefSeq database³⁴), we find missense and pLoFs variants in 89.5%
271 of the genes, ranging between 1–1,265 variants per gene. The top three genes with the highest
272 number of pLoFs variants are mucin genes: MUC3A, MUC16 and MUC17, with respectively 52,
273 42 and 41 pLoFs, including homozygous pLoFs in MUC17. As there is partial redundancy in the
274 function of mucin genes, there may be greater tolerance for loss of function variants³⁵.

275

276 Among the 406,304 SNVs, we find about half are South Asian-specific and a large fraction
277 (40%) are absent in gnomAD or 1000G (Table S5.2). We find that ~4% of South-Asian specific
278 non-ultra rare (frequency above 0.1%) missense/pLoF variants are present in the ClinVar
279 database³⁶, including 10 classified as ‘pathogenic’ variants (using ClinVar threshold of two-stars,
280 Table S5.2). Among these, we find a South-Asian specific pathogenic variant in the *BHCE* gene
281 that is present in 15 individuals (0.28%) in LASI-DAD (and not seen outside India). Patients
282 with butyrylcholinesterase deficiency may experience prolonged neuromuscular blockade and
283 muscle paralysis, in response to use of some muscle relaxants used during anesthesia. Previous
284 studies have identified this variant in the founder community of Vysya from Andhra Pradesh
285 where it has drifted to high frequency due to the history of founder events^{27,37}. In LASI-DAD, 8
286 of the 15 individuals are from Telangana, the neighboring state of Andhra Pradesh. Local
287 community doctors use the Vysya ancestry as a counter-indicator before administering anesthetic
288 drugs, highlighting the potential of reducing disease burden by understanding and documenting
289 the effects of founder events in India.

290

291 **Gene flow from archaic hominins in India**

292

293 Most non-Africans, including Indians, derive ~1-2% of their ancestry from gene flow from
294 archaic hominins, Neanderthals and Denisovans^{5,38}. The functional impact and regional variation
295 in archaic ancestry in India, however, remains unclear. We applied a reference-free hidden

296 Markov model, called *hmmix*³³, to 2,679 phased individuals from India (to maximize our sample
297 size, we retained first-degree relatives (except offspring of trios)). *hmmix* classifies genomic
298 fragments into two states—‘modern human’ or ‘archaic’—by comparing the density of derived
299 alleles that are not found in 490 sub-Saharan Africans (who have negligible amount of archaic
300 ancestry²⁵) (see Methods). We also applied *hmmix* to phased data from 2,309 individuals from
301 1000G, 825 individuals from Human Genome Diversity Panel (HGDP), and used the published
302 results for 27,566 Icelanders from deCODE genetics that were also analyzed using the same
303 method²⁶. Unless stated otherwise, we retained archaic ancestry segments with a posterior
304 probability greater than 0.8 for subsequent analysis that translates to <4% false positive rate in
305 simulations²⁶.

306

307 We inferred that Indians have an average of 102.98 Mb or 2.07% of the callable genome (95%
308 percentile range: 1.84–2.34%) of archaic ancestry. By comparing the putative archaic segments
309 to sequenced Neanderthal and Denisovan genomes^{39,40,41,42}, we inferred the source of the archaic
310 ancestry based on measuring the number of shared derived archaic variants (DAV) present on
311 archaic segments. We find that each individual has ~1.48% (95% percentile range: 1.30–1.69%)
312 Neanderthal and ~0.14% (95% percentile range: 0.07–0.21%) Denisovan ancestry. The
313 Neanderthal ancestry proportion in India is similar to Europeans (1.3%) and Americans (1.4%),
314 though significantly lower than East Asians (~1.8%, Wilcoxon ranked test p -value < 10^{-15}). The
315 highest Denisovan ancestry is inferred in Oceanians (~1.8%), while Americans, East Asians and
316 South Asians have similar amounts (~0.1%) (Table S6.4-5).

317

318 By assembling non-overlapping archaic ancestry segments extracted from individuals in
319 LASI-DAD, we reconstructed 1,524 Mb of the introgressing Neanderthal and 591 Mb of the
320 introgressing Denisovan genome (Extended Data Fig 3). Notably, using individuals from all
321 world-wide regions (from 1000G, HGDP and LASI-DAD), we reconstructed 1,679 Mb of the
322 introgressed Neanderthal genome that is similar in size to the sequenced Neanderthal genomes
323 (~1,650 Mb, Fig S6.8, Supplementary Note 6). Despite higher per individual Neanderthal
324 ancestry in East Asians, we recover more Neanderthal sequence from Indians than East Asians
325 even after controlling for the sample size (as seen in ³⁸, Table S6.5, S6.8). This is in part due to
326 introgressed Neanderthal segments having a higher frequency in East Asia and thus being more
327 likely to be shared across individuals (Fig S8.4)^{38,43}. The largest study of archaic ancestry in
328 27,566 Icelanders recovered 978 Mb of the introgressed Neanderthal and 112 Mb of the
329 introgressed Denisovan genome (using posterior probability >0.9 in *hmmix*)⁴⁴. Even with the
330 more stringent posterior probability threshold, we recover >50% more Neanderthal ancestry
331 segments from Indians (LASI-DAD) than from Icelanders (Fig 3A). Using all world-wide
332 regions, we reconstructed 1,080 Mb of the introgressing Denisovan genome. The largest amount
333 of this is recovered from Indians, though this is not significant after downsampling to the sample
334 size of Oceanians ($n=28$) (Fig S6.8).

335

336 Next, we calculated the amount of archaic sequence that is shared between Indians and other
337 worldwide populations from 1000G and HGDP datasets. By sharing we refer to segments which

338 overlap the same genomic regions. We find that 81.2% of Neanderthal ancestry is shared
339 between at least two global regions (Extended Data Fig 4). We find a total of ~11.7% (or 195.9
340 Mb out of 1,679 Mb) of uniquely India-specific Neanderthal sequences. Strikingly, ~90.7% of
341 worldwide Neanderthal sequences are seen in India (Extended Data Fig 5). Moreover, Oceanians
342 and South Asians have large amounts of unique Denisovan ancestry sequences (Fig S6.6).
343 Around 51% of Denisovan sequence (301.6 Mb out of 591 Mb) is unique to India (Fig S6.6).
344 Even after downsampling to sample sizes to match the minimum sample sizes in 1000G ($n=490$)
345 and HGDP ($n=28$), we find significant enrichment for unique Denisovan sequences in Indians
346 (Fig S6.8).

347

348 To infer the relationship of the introgressed archaic population to the sequenced archaic
349 genomes, we estimated DAV SNP match rates for each introgressed segment to sequenced
350 Neanderthals and Denisovan genomes. We find on average the introgressed Neanderthal
351 segments share 83% of the DAVs with one of the three sequenced Neanderthal genomes, with
352 the highest sharing with the Vindija Neanderthal (Table S6.10 and Fig S6.11). In contrast, the
353 introgressed Denisovan genome only shares 47% of DAVs with the sequenced Denisovan
354 genome, indicating the Denisovan ancestry primarily derives from a group that is distantly
355 related to the sequenced Altai Denisovan. Using a similar approach as Browning et al. 2018, we
356 replicate the finding of a single pulse of Neanderthal gene flow in India (Supplementary Note
357 6)⁴⁵. We find that a single Denisovan-related wave is consistent in most groups in India.
358 Individuals in North-East and South of India, however, have evidence for two clusters of
359 Denisovan-related sequences, one closely related to the sequenced Altai Denisovan genome
360 (segments share on average 84% of DAV SNPs) and a more distantly related group (with
361 46–50% of shared DAV SNPs) (Fig S6.9). Individuals in North-East India derive a large fraction
362 of ancestry from recent East Asian-related groups (Fig 1B) that have previously been shown to
363 have two pulses of Denisovan ancestry⁴⁵. Beyond Neanderthal and Denisovan ancestry, we
364 inferred 0.42% (95% percentile range: 0.37–0.48%) of archaic ancestry from an unknown source
365 in Indians (Table S6.4-5). This proportion is similar across all non-Africans and potentially
366 related to the difference between the sequenced archaic genome and the introgressing archaic
367 individuals (Fig S6.3). Consequently, this suggests that there is no clear evidence for additional
368 contribution from other unknown archaic hominins to Indians (at least not more than other
369 worldwide populations), contrary to previous claims⁴⁶.

370

371 Archaic ancestry varies across regions in India, with the highest archaic ancestry in the
372 North-East and East of India and lowest in North India (Figs 3B and S6.3, Tables S6.4 and S6.6).
373 To investigate how recent gene flow events have shaped the distribution of archaic ancestry in
374 India, we examined the relationship between Neanderthal and Denisovan ancestry as a function
375 of the three main ancestry components in India. Focussing on individuals on the Indian cline ($n =$
376 2,126), we find the *AHG*-related ancestry is positively correlated with both Denisovan ($r = 0.46$,
377 p -value $< 10^{-15}$) and Neanderthal ($r = 0.24$, p -value $< 10^{-15}$) ancestries (Fig 3B, Table S6.8).
378 These results are robust to use of more stringent criteria for assigning archaic ancestry segments
379 to Neanderthal and Denisovan origin, by focussing on sites where only one archaic group has a

380 derived allele that matches modern humans (see Table S6.8). This suggests that a large amount of
381 the archaic ancestry seen in present-day Indians is inherited through *AHG*-related ancestry and in
382 turn, groups with higher *AHG*-related ancestry in the South have higher archaic ancestry.

383

384 **Functional legacy of archaic ancestry in India**

385

386 Previous analyses have shown that archaic ancestry has played a major role in human adaptation
387 and disease, however, few studies have evaluated its role in South Asian populations^{38,47}. We
388 examined the genome-wide distribution of archaic ancestry and identified regions of ‘high
389 archaic frequency’ among Indians (defined as regions where the archaic frequency across
390 individuals is two standard deviations above the genome-wide average) (Fig 3C). We identified
391 1,590 and 818 candidate regions with high frequency of Neanderthal and Denisovan ancestry
392 respectively. For Neanderthals, we replicated genes such as *FBP2* and *FYCO1* previously
393 identified in other studies^{47–49}, as well as identified *PCAT7* and *CXCR6* as new candidates. For
394 Denisovans, we replicated signals in *WDFY2*, *CHD1L* and *HELZ2*⁴⁷ and identified several new
395 candidates including *LINC00708* and *CDKN2B* (Supplementary Note 7, Extended Data Table
396 S3). Performing a gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis, we find 14 pathways enriched for
397 Neanderthal and 22 pathways for Denisovan ancestry primarily related to immune function
398 (Extended Data Table S4).

399

400 Next, we searched for regions that have a high number of derived alleles that are shared between
401 modern humans and archaic groups, a signature previously observed for *EPAS1* and Denisovan
402 ancestry in Tibetans⁵⁰. Interestingly, we find certain regions of the genome have a
403 disproportionately elevated number of variants with derived alleles that are uniquely shared
404 between Denisovans and Indians; though no similar enrichment is seen for uniquely Neanderthal
405 shared variants (Supplementary Note 7). Notably, we find that the *BTNL2* gene, part of the major
406 histocompatibility complex (MHC), contains 78 uniquely derived Denisovan variants within a
407 13.2-kilobase (kb) region with an exceptionally high Denisovan frequency in Indians of around
408 10% (> 99.9th percentile). There are two Denisovan haplotypes in this region: a *short* haplotype
409 of 55–65 kb and a *long* one of ~150 kb with 116.1 and 126.7 uniquely derived Denisovan
410 variants respectively. The proportion of long haplotypes is lower in the North ($Z = -2.26$) and
411 higher in the West of India ($Z = 2.57$) compared to all individuals in India (Fig S7.3–4). These
412 Denisovan haplotypes are also present at high frequency in East Asians (~11.8%, >99.8
413 percentile), but they are rare in Europeans (~0.4%) and notably, absent in Oceanians (Table
414 S7.2). The haplotype length and number of shared derived alleles between Indians and
415 Denisovans suggests this region is likely a product of gene flow from Denisovan or
416 Denisovan-related populations, rather than ancestral lineage sorting (p -value < 10^{-6} for the *long*
417 haplotype; p -value=0.027 for the *short* haplotype). The MHC contains many genes associated
418 with immune function and is most likely to be under balancing selection. Indeed, previous
419 studies have identified *BTNL2* as a candidate for selection in East Asians⁵¹. Though simulations
420 show that genetic drift generated by founder events alone can lead to high frequency of archaic

421 ancestry in a region, thus caution is warranted when interpreting high frequency archaic regions
422 as candidates for selection or adaptive introgression in modern humans (Supplementary Note
423 S8).

424

425 To identify Indian-specific enriched archaic segments, we computed the population branch
426 statistic (PBS)⁵². The PBS measures the increase in frequency at a given locus in a population,
427 since its divergence from the two reference populations. To this end, we apply PBS using Indians
428 as the population of interest and East Asians and Europeans as reference groups using archaic
429 allele frequency vs. genotype frequencies to identify candidate archaic enriched regions in India
430 (see Methods). We identified ~10.7 Mb (or 235 genes) enriched for Neanderthal and ~5.5 Mb (or
431 84 genes) for Denisovan ancestry (Extended Data Table S3). Denisovan ancestry regions are
432 enriched for genes related to innate immune response, including several TRIM genes—TRIM26,
433 TRIM31, TRIM15, TRIM10 and TRIM40—implicated in cellular processes related to entry (or
434 exit) of virus into a host cell. Among the most significant candidate regions of Neanderthal
435 ancestry is a gene cluster on chromosome 3 which has been previously associated to COVID
436 susceptibility^{53,54} ($PBS_{\text{Neanderthal}} > 0.118$, in the 99.99% percentile of genome-wide PBS scores). In
437 turn, it was discovered that there are two main haplotypes introgressed from Neanderthals
438 containing the risk variant: a *core* haplotype of 49.4 kb and a *long* haplotype of 333.8 kb. In
439 LASI-DAD, both of these haplotypes fall outside the 99% tail of our genome-wide distribution
440 of Neanderthal ancestry, though there is large variation in Neanderthal haplotypes in this region
441 including some very long haplotypes that are greater than 1 Mb (p -value for *core* haplotype =
442 0.00021, p -value for *long* haplotype = 0.0020, Fig S7.6A). Across India, the frequency of *core*
443 haplotype ranges between 20.5% (in North-East) to 34.8% (in East India). The frequency of both
444 the *core* and *long* haplotypes is significantly higher in the East of India compared to other
445 regions (*core*: 34.8%, $Z = 2.68$, *long*: 23.2%, $Z = 2.34$).

446

447 We also examined regions of the genome devoid of archaic ancestry in modern humans, referred
448 to as ‘archaic deserts’^{44,48,55,56}. We identified six Neanderthal deserts spanning a total of 87.1 Mb
449 including five that were previously reported (Fig 3C, Fig S7.8, Table S7.4). The location of these
450 five Neanderthal deserts remains similar with around 70% overlap with previously identified
451 deserts in Europeans and other populations (Table S7.4). Interestingly, among these deserts is a
452 region that includes the FOXP2 gene that is associated with language development in humans⁵⁵.
453 We also identified 13 Denisovan deserts in Indians, including one that overlaps with previously
454 reported Neanderthal deserts (Fig 3C, Fig S7.9, Table S7.5). Given the low genome-wide
455 proportion of Denisovan ancestry in Indians, we likely miss Denisovan ancestry in some regions
456 and thus, over-call Denisovan-related deserts.

457

458 **First arrival of modern humans to the Indian subcontinent**

459

460 A central question in the peopling of India is when modern humans first arrived to the
461 subcontinent from Africa. Archeological evidence suggests occupation in Northern India before
462 and after the Toba eruption that occurred around 74,000 years ago⁵⁷. It is unclear, however, if this

463 group contributed to the ancestry of present-day peoples in India. In order to test this hypothesis,
464 we computed the minimum coalescence time of present-day Indians, East Asians, Europeans and
465 Americans to sub-Saharan Africans. If there is a substantial contribution from the population
466 who lived in India before the Toba eruption, it should be detectable as an increase in coalescence
467 time of Indians compared to individuals from other worldwide regions. To estimate the
468 coalescent time for each non-African individual to sub-Saharan Africans, we used the rate of
469 emission in the modern human state of *hmmix* after controlling for bioinformatics effects
470 (phasing errors and depletion of triallelic sites) and excluding individuals with more than 1%
471 sub-Saharan African-related ancestry (see Methods). Theoretically, the emission parameter
472 should be proportional to the minimum coalescence time between the test individual and
473 sub-Saharan Africans, human mutation rate (0.45×10^{-9} per base pair per year⁵⁸, Fig S9.3) and the
474 length of the genome surveyed.

475

476 We infer the minimum coalescence time between Indians and sub-Saharan Africans as 53,932
477 (95% percentile range: 53,190–54,644) years ago (Table S9.2, Fig 4). We obtain qualitatively
478 similar results for Europeans, East Asians and South Asians in the HGDP dataset. Moreover, by
479 performing simulations, we show the observed emission parameter in India is consistent with
480 variation stemming from 0–3% of ancestry from an earlier migration that occurred around
481 74,000 years ago (Fig S9.5). Our results thus show that the majority of the ancestry of
482 present-day Indians derives from a major migration event out of Africa that occurred 50,000
483 years ago.

484

485 Discussion

486

487 India is a region of extraordinary genetic diversity, including largest variation in archaic ancestry
488 among modern humans. Notably, a majority of Neanderthal ancestry that exists today in
489 present-day individuals is found in India, while other worldwide populations retain only a subset
490 of this variation (Extended Fig 5). Indians also harbor the most Denisovan ancestry among
491 Eurasian populations. Moreover, some of the deepest mtDNA and Y-chromosome lineages are
492 seen in people from Andaman Islands⁵⁹. Interestingly, such large diversity is also reflected in the
493 early Middle Paleolithic stone tool culture that shows overlap of distinct cultures—Acheulean
494 hand-axe and Levallois technologies—for over 200,000 years, unlike in other regions of the
495 world^{60,61}. These findings raise important questions about the dispersal and settlement of humans
496 outside Africa: Did the range of Neanderthals and Denisovans extend to South Asia? Did modern
497 humans encounter Neanderthals, and to some extent Denisovans, further east in Eurasia rather
498 than the Middle East as widely believed? These observations call for a re-evaluation of models
499 of human origins, for both modern human and archaic hominins, in light of the complex diversity
500 in India.

501

502 **Methods**

503

504 ***Samples***

505 We generated 2,762 high-coverage genomes as part of this project. These samples are a subset of
506 the Longitudinal Aging Study in India (LASI) and are part of the Harmonized Diagnostic
507 Assessment of Dementia of LASI (LASI-DAD)⁸ (<https://lasi-dad.org>,
508 doi.org/10.25549/5hhx-s820). Participants consented to give venous blood samples (VBS) for
509 genomics analysis. They also have consented to detailed cognitive assessment and informational
510 interviews. Details on the sequenced individuals and metadata (i.e., sampling location, sex,
511 language, caste etc.) can be found in Supplementary Note S1.

512

513 ***Whole genome sequencing, variant calling and filtering***

514 Whole-genome sequencing libraries were processed using a PCR-free library preparation and
515 sequenced on Illumina HiSeq X Ten machines at Medgenome, Bangalore, India. The samples
516 were sequenced using 100 base pair paired-end sequencing. The raw sequence reads (fastq) from
517 Medgenome were sent to the Genome Center for Alzheimer’s Disease (GCAD) at the University
518 of Pennsylvania for genome mapping to the human reference genome (build GRCh38/hg38). We
519 used Variant Calling Pipeline and data management tool (VCPA) developed by GCAD in
520 collaboration with Alzheimer’s Disease Sequencing Project (ADSP) to call variants in a uniform
521 way across other studies that are part of ADSP. The pipeline uses best practices from Genome
522 Analysis Tool kit (GATK) to call variants. Details of the data processing are described in
523 Supplementary Note S2. Overall, a total of 2,679 LASI-DAD samples passed sequencing metrics
524 and quality control checks. Details of quality checks are described in Supplementary Note 2.

525

526 ***Identification of first-degree relative pairs***

527 We applied KING (v2.3.0)⁶² and the “--ibdseg” option to identify first degree relatives.
528 Following software guidelines, we applied the following filters: sample pairs without any long
529 IBD segments (>10Mb) were excluded and short IBD segments (<3Mb) were not utilized to
530 estimate the proportion of IBD sharing between two individuals. Parent-offspring pairs share
531 50% of their genomes and siblings may share between 38-65% of their genome inherited IBD⁶³.
532 Thus, we use a minimum cutoff of 38% to identify first-degree relatives and consequently we
533 flag 64 pairs of individuals . For each pair of first degree relatives, we removed the individual
534 with the larger amount of missing data. In total, we removed 59 individuals (see details in
535 Supplementary Note S2), leaving 2,620 individuals that were used for most downstream
536 analyses.

537

538 ***Population structure analysis***

539 To learn about the population history of India and compare it to worldwide populations, we
540 combined the LASI-DAD dataset with other published genomic datasets including present-day
541 (1000G¹¹, GenomeAsia⁶) and ancient DNA samples (Allen Ancient DNA Resource (AADR) v54
542 ⁶⁴). GenomeAsia and AADR are available in hg19/GRCh37, we performed liftover to
543 hg38/GRCH38 using liftOver (<https://liftover.broadinstitute.org/>). Then, we merged the datasets

544 using *mergeit* (with ‘strandcheck: YES’) from the EIGENSOFT package (v7.2.1)^{65,66} which
545 generates an intersection of the SNPs in the different datasets, keeping only variants present in
546 all datasets. The number of individuals and variants for each merged dataset and the analyses
547 they are used in are reported in Table S4.1.

548

549 ***Principal component analysis (PCA) and ADMIXTURE***

550 To perform PCA and *ADMIXTURE*, we excluded SNPs in linkage disequilibrium (LD) using
551 PLINK with the option ‘--indep-pairwise 50 10 0.5’ that removes , one variant in each pair of
552 SNPs in a window of 50 SNPs, if the LD is greater than 0.5. We further excluded variants with a
553 MAF<0.05. We performed PCA using *smartpca* from the EIGENSOFT package (v7.2.1)^{65,66}. We
554 also applied unsupervised hierarchical clustering of individuals using the maximum likelihood
555 method implemented in the *ADMIXTURE* software (v1.3.0)¹³. Following program
556 documentation, we varied the number of clusters (K) between 2–6 and performed cross
557 validation ten times (option: --cv=10). We stopped the algorithm when the change in
558 log-likelihood between iterations was less than 0.1 (option: -C 0.1).

559

560 ***qpAdm***

561 We used the qpAdm^{14,22} package in ADMIXTOOLS (v7.0.2) to identify the best fitting model
562 and estimate ancestry proportions in a population of interest that is modeled as a mixture of *n*
563 ‘reference’ populations using a set of ‘Outgroup’ populations (reference (*left*) and outgroup
564 (*right*)) populations for each analysis are listed in Supplementary Note S4). We set the
565 parameters as ‘allsnps: NO’ and ‘details: YES’, which reports a normally distributed *Z* score for
566 the fitted model. We computed coefficient estimations, standard deviations and p-values through
567 block jackknife resampling. We considered a model to be a good fit if *p*-value > 0.01 and all
568 coefficients are positive.

569

570 ***ALDER***

571 To infer the date of East Asian admixture and ancestry proportion in Bengalis (East of India), we
572 used ALDER (v1.04)¹⁸. We used the ‘one-reference’ model (*runmode*: 1) with East Asians
573 (*CHB.DG* from AADR v54) as the reference population with the following parameters: *binsize*:
574 0.001 Morgans; *maximum distance*: 1.0 Morgans; *zdipcorrmode*: YES; *jackknife*: YES. To
575 convert the dates of admixture from generations to years, we assume the mean human generation
576 time was 28 years⁶⁷.

577

578 ***IBD and HBD sharing***

579 We identified IBD and HBD segments using hap-IBD²⁹ with the following parameters: min-seed:
580 0.5; max-gap: 1000; min-extend: 0.5; min-output: 1.0; min-markers: 100; min-mac: 2;
581 nthreads: 1. We used the HapMap genetic maps. To minimize false positives, we only considered
582 shared segments with length greater at 2cM. Then, we filtered out segments that overlapped
583 centromeres (using the GRCh38/hg38 annotation from genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgTables). To
584 infer the putative degree of relatedness between two individuals, we computed the total IBD
585 sharing for *k*th degree cousins using $2G(1/2)^{2(k+1)}$, where *G* = 6,782cM is the total diploid

586 autosomal genome size⁶⁸ and k represents the degree of cousin relationship⁶⁹. We note, however,
587 the expected values assume a random mating population and a history of founder events could
588 lead to increased genomic sharing and thus these values should be interpreted with caution.

589

590 ***Loss of function (LoF)/missense variants***

591 To quantify the mutational burden in India, we used the Variant Effect Predictor (VEP; version
592 105)⁷⁰ and LOFTEE (v1.0.3)⁹ to identify missense and predicted loss-of-function (pLoF) single
593 nucleotide variants (SNVs). VEP annotates each SNV according to its functional effect on gene
594 transcripts. We used GENCODE⁷¹ as the transcript annotation reference and focused our analysis
595 on the most severe functional effect per SNV across different transcripts. Besides the functional
596 annotations directly obtained from VEP, we identified pLoF SNVs by coupling VEP with
597 LOFTEE⁹. LOFTEE further assesses stop-gained, splice-site-disrupting, or frameshift SNVs
598 identified by VEP and implements a set of filters to infer if a SNV should be considered a
599 pLoF. We intersect the list of pLoF/missense variants with the RefSeq database³⁴ and the ClinVar
600 database³⁶ (data release of 2023-12-17) to infer the nearest gene and any disease associations
601 respectively. We consider ClinVar status for variants with a review of at least two stars.
602 Information for each of the pLoF/missense variants is available in Extended Data Table S1.

603

604 ***Inference of archaic ancestry***

605 To learn about the genomic landscape and regional variation in archaic ancestry in Indians and
606 compare it to worldwide populations, we applied *hmmix*⁷² to 2,679 phased individuals from India
607 (we retain first-degree relatives (except offspring of trios) as they may have archaic ancestry in
608 different positions). This method uses an outgroup who have negligible amount of archaic
609 ancestry. We used 426 individuals from the 1000G¹¹ including Yoruba in Ibadan, Nigeria, Mende
610 in Sierra Leone (YRI), Esan in Nigeria (ESN) and 64 Africans from HGDP⁷³, who have less than
611 1% West Eurasian admixture, including Bantu South Africa, Biaka Pygmy, Mbuti Pygmy, San
612 and Yoruba. We estimated the number of callable sites, the single-nucleotide polymorphism
613 density (as a proxy for per-window mutation rate) and the number of private variants with
614 respect to the outgroup individuals in 1-kb windows across the genome. We obtained regions
615 identified as 'archaic' and compared them to the four published high coverage archaic
616 genomes—Altai Neanderthal³⁹, Chagyrskaya Neanderthal⁴⁰, Vindija Neanderthal⁴¹ and Altai
617 Denisovan⁴² to identify the source of the archaic ancestry (see details in Supplementary Note S6).
618 We further compared archaic segments previously published for 27,566 individuals from
619 Iceland⁴⁴ that were also inferred using *hmmix*. The datasets and number of individuals per
620 population used for the analysis of archaic ancestry in non-Africans are reported in Table S6.1.

621

622 ***Inferring the timing of Out-of-African migration (OOA)***

623 We infer the minimum coalescence time for non-African individuals with Sub-Saharan African
624 individuals from the outgroup ($n=490$). Any systematic difference might indicate a difference in
625 the timing of the out of Africa migration (OOA) for different populations.

626 *hmmix* classifies the genome into 'modern human' and 'archaic' states. The emission parameters
627 for the human state is informative about the minimum coalescence time between non-African

628 individuals and Sub-Saharan African individuals.

629 We merge HGDP, 1000G and LASI-DAD dataset and subset to SNPs found in 1240K array⁶⁴ and
630 use ADMIXTURE (v1.3.0)¹³ in unsupervised-mode ($k=2$) to estimate Sub-Saharan ancestry. We
631 remove all individuals with $> 1\%$ Sub-Saharan ancestry to minimize the effect of recent
632 gene-flow on the minimum coalescence time estimate. To minimize the effect of archaic ancestry
633 on the emission parameters for the human state we correct for the amount of high confidence
634 archaic segments (posterior probability > 0.9). To compare coalescence times between HGDP
635 and LASI-DAD we correct for phasing drop-out rate and the removal of multi-allelic sites.
636 Assuming a mutation rate of $0.45e-9$ ⁵⁸ the emission parameter for the human state can be
637 converted into a coalescence time.

638 **Ethics statement**

639 The Longitudinal Aging Study in India (LASI, <https://lasi-india.org>) is a joint effort by the
640 Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health (HSPH), the International Institute for Population
641 Sciences (IIPS) in India, and the University of Southern California (USC). Longitudinal Aging
642 Study in India - Diagnostic Assessment of Dementia (LASI-DAD) is an in-depth study of
643 late-life cognition and dementia, drawing a subsample of the LASI. Principal Investigators teams
644 are located at USC and All India Institute Of Medical Sciences (AIIMS). Interviews and
645 sampling were conducted in collaboration with the Regional Geriatric Centers (RGCs) at the
646 respondents homes or at the participating hospitals, reaching out to both rural and urban areas in
647 18 states across the country, representing the nation-wide diversity. The AIIMs in New Delhi,
648 India coordinated field work across RGCs to recruit interviewers and provide training and
649 logistical support to uniformly perform phenotyping across diverse regions across India. The lists
650 of partner hospitals and field team members are accessible at <https://lasi-dad.org/teams>.

651 Ethics approval was obtained from the Indian Council of Medical Research and all collaborating
652 institutions. The study was approved by Institutional Review Boards at the University of
653 Southern California and the University of Michigan. Informed consent was obtained from all
654 participants or their legal representative. As most individuals in this study are 60 years or older,
655 some participants were cognitively impaired, in which case we obtained informed consent from a
656 close family member, such as a spouse or adult child who was the legal representative of the
657 participant. The consent materials were translated into as many local languages as necessary.
658 Informed consent and interviews were collected and conducted in the respondent's language. If
659 the participant was unable to read the consent forms, the interviewer would verbally relay the
660 information in the consent form. Participants who were unable to sign the consent forms had the
661 option to use their thumb impression in place of a signature (a common practice in India).

662

663 DNA extraction and whole genome sequencing was performed at MedGenome, Bangalore,
664 India. Anonymised data is available for the larger research community through a secured website
665 hosted by the Gateway to Global Aging Data platform. Research findings from the LASI-DAD

666 team are disseminated through journal publications and presentations at professional
667 conferences.

668 **Data availability**

669 All data is available through the National Institute on Aging Genetics of Alzheimer's Disease
670 Data Storage Site (NIAGADS) under the accession NG00148.v1. The post-qc vcf file is
671 distributed by the Genome Center for Alzheimer's Disease (GCAD) at the University of
672 Pennsylvania and can be obtained by following the data request instructions available:
673 <https://dss.niagads.org/documentation/data-application-and-submission/application-instructions/>

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684

685 **Competing interests**

686

687 The authors declare no competing interests.

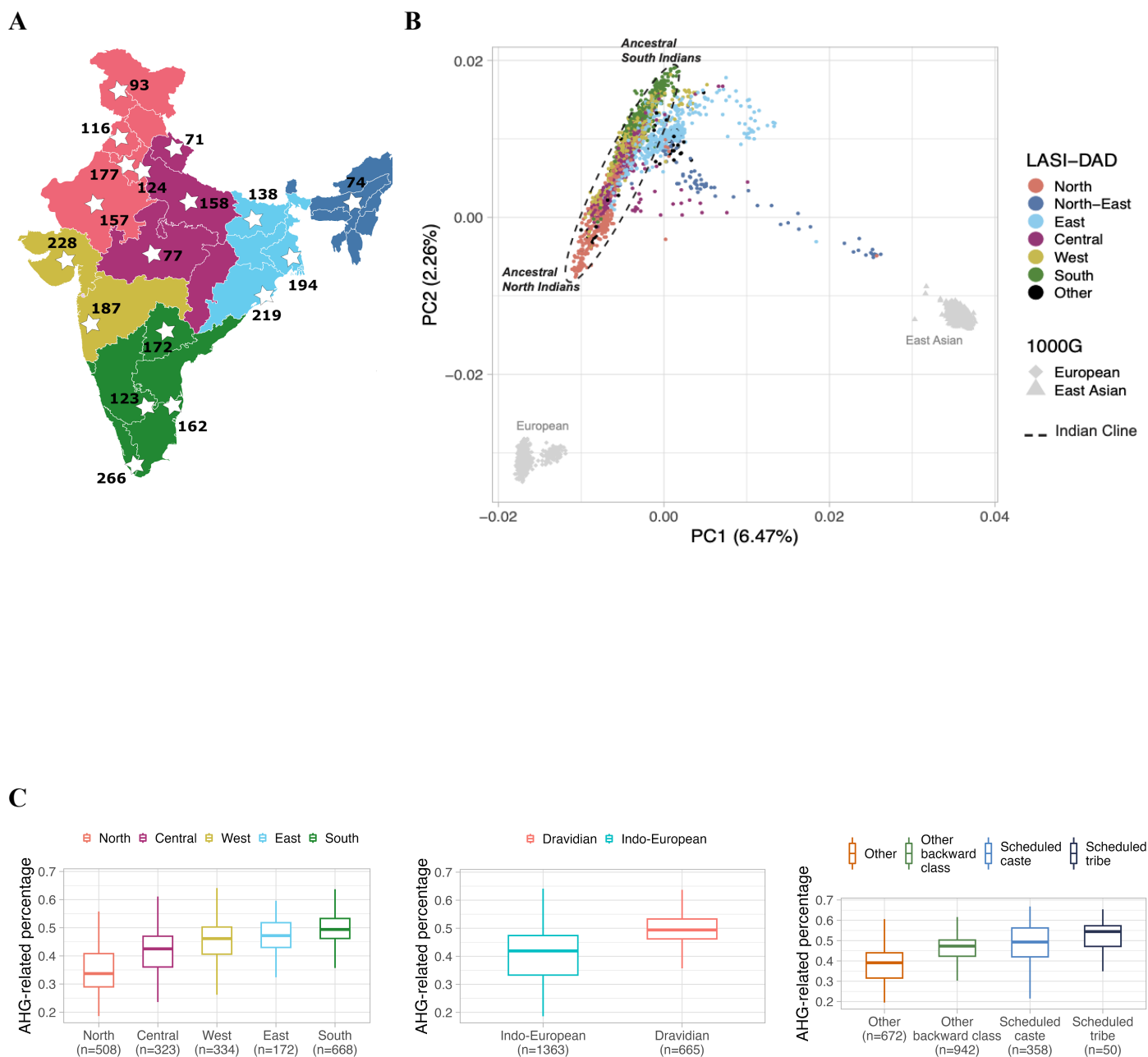


Figure 1 Population structure and admixture in India. (A) We show the sampling locations of individuals in the LASI-DAD study. States are colored by region (North, North-east, Central, South, East and West) used for analysis. (B) We ran Principal component analysis (PCA) for Indians in LASI-DAD and 1000G individuals of European (EUR), East Asian (EAS) and South Asian (SAS) ancestry. We show the projection of the first two principal components, colored by region of birth. (C) Using *qpAdm*, we inferred the ancestry proportions for each individual on the ‘Indian cline’ using *Sarazm_EN* as a proxy for Iranian farmer-related, *Central_Steppe_MLBA* as a proxy for Steppe pastoralist-related and *AHG (Onge)* as a proxy for *AASI*-related ancestry. We compared *AHG*-related ancestry proportion by region (left), language family (middle), and caste group (right) of each individual.

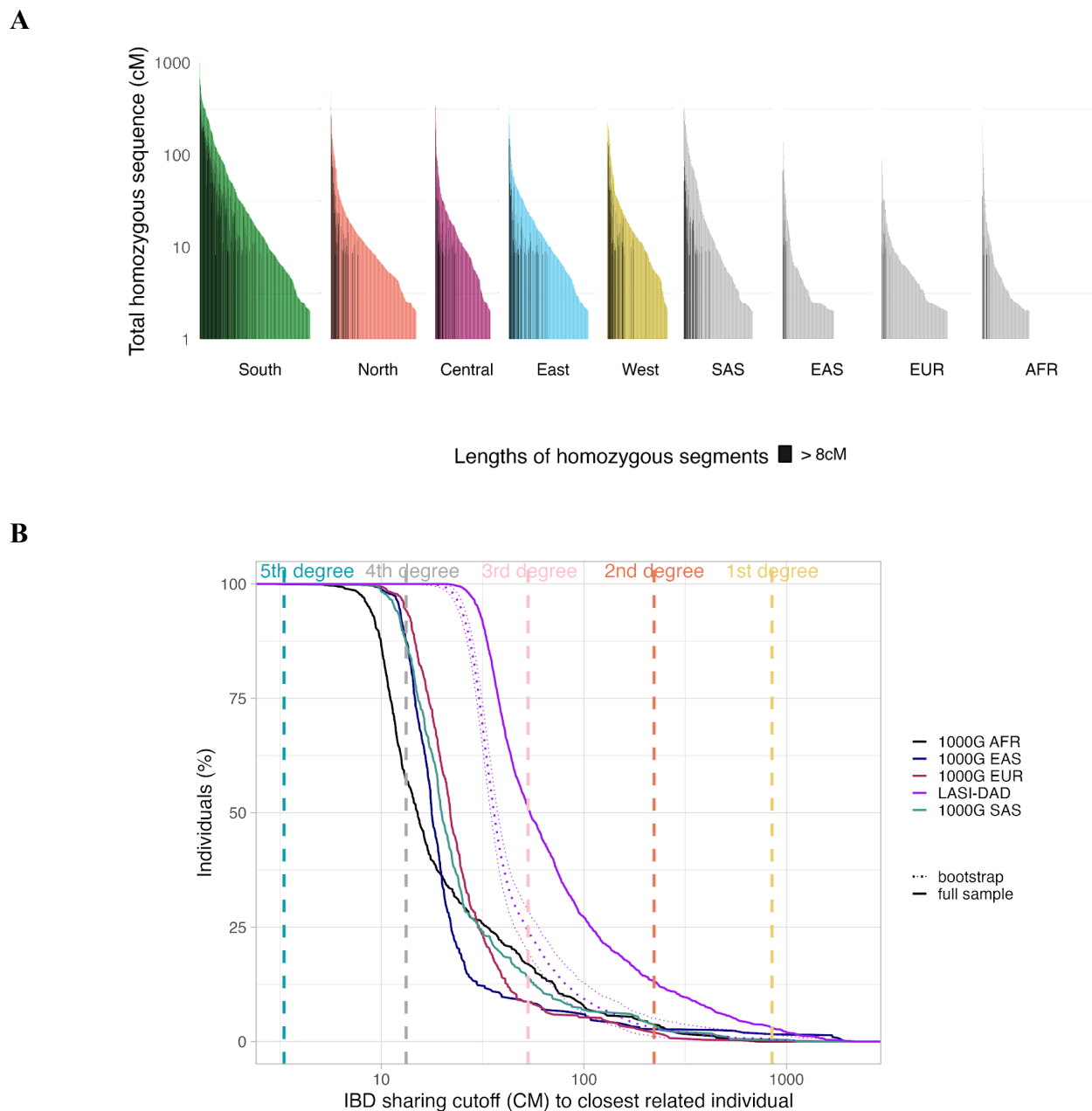


Figure 2 Founder events and consanguinity leads to high rates of homozygosity and relatedness in Indians. (A) We applied hap-IBD to infer genome-wide homozygosity in LASI-DAD samples grouped per region and compared with other world-wide groups: East Asian, European, and South Asian populations from 1000G. Black lines show the total amount of homozygous segments longer than 8cM per individual, and colored lines the total amount of homozygous segments shorter than 8cM. (B) For each of the 2,620 Indian samples and AFR, EAS, EUR and SAS individuals in 1000G, we detected the individual sharing the largest total amount (in cM) of genome IBD, referred to as ‘closest individual’. For each value x of total shared genome (in cM) on the X -axis, we report the percentage of samples (Y -axis) that share x or more with their closest related individual. For LASI-DAD individuals, we also detect the closest individuals while bootstrapping to 500 individuals (dashed lines representing mean and 95% CI). The horizontal dashed lines indicate the expected value of the total IBD sharing for k th degree cousins. This figure was adapted from ³².

689

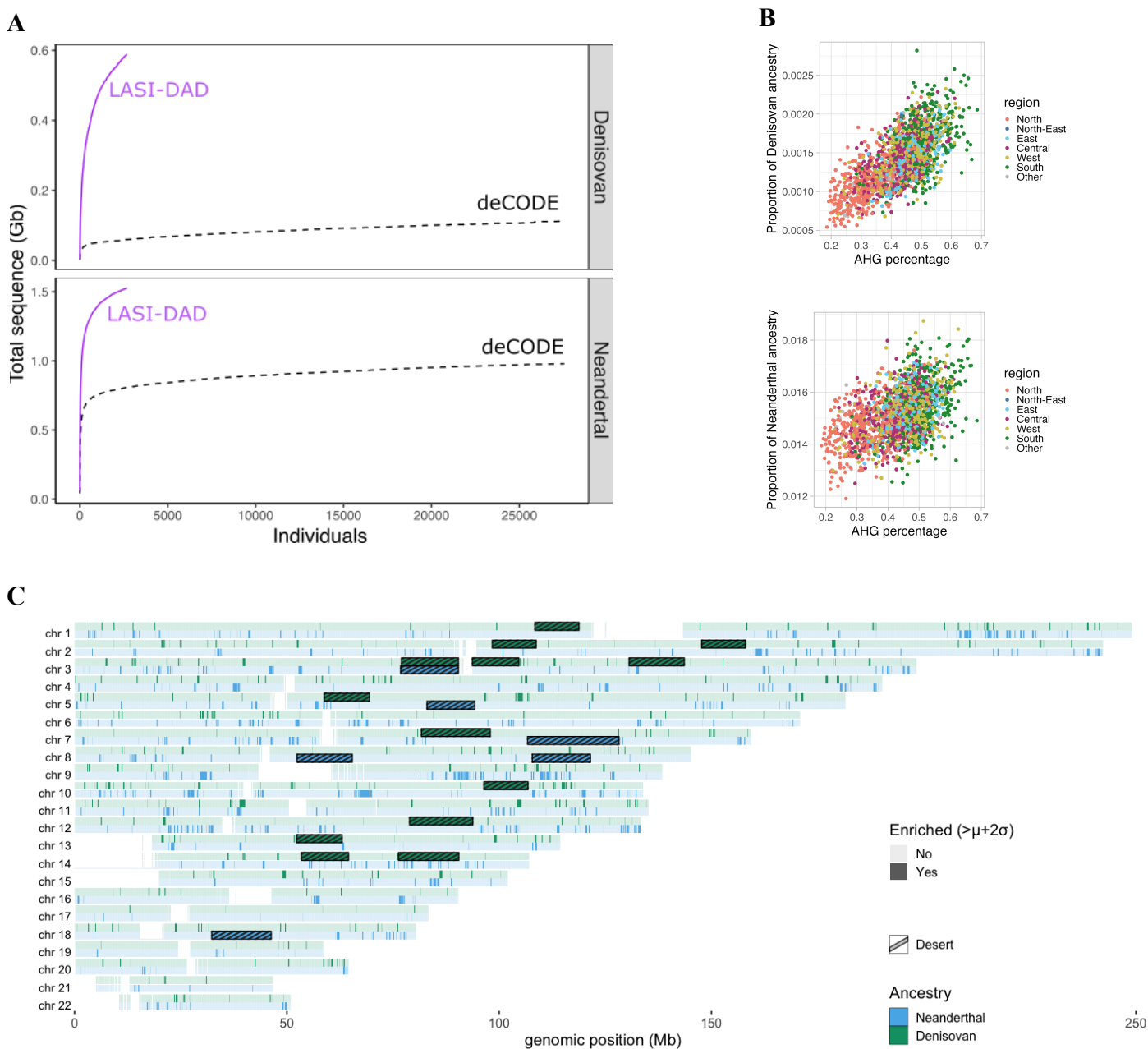
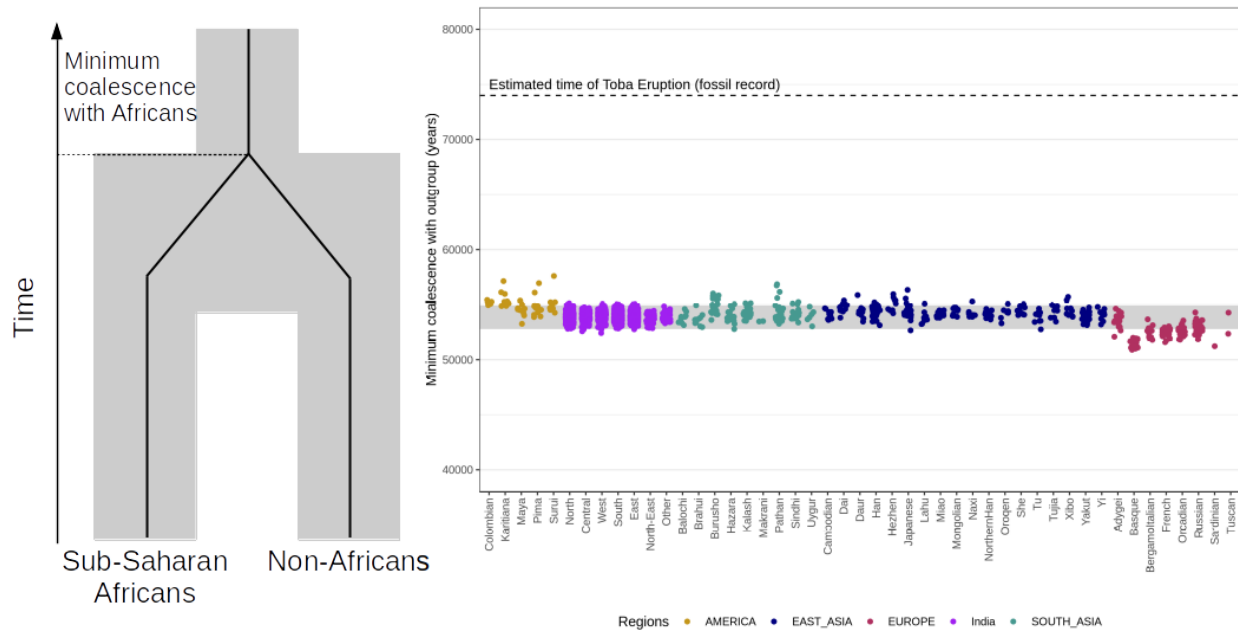


Figure 3 History of archaic gene flows in India. (A) Cumulative amount of unique sequence (in Gb) that is either Denisovan (top) or Neanderthal (bottom) as a function of number of individuals, in Indians from LASI-DAD (in purple) and Icelanders from deCODE (in black, dashed). (B) Correlation between *AHG*-related ancestry on the x-axis and total proportion of archaic sequence per individual. Individuals are colored according to which region of origin. We show the correlation for Denisovan (top, $r=0.49$, p -value $< 10^{-15}$) and Neanderthal (bottom, $r=0.23$, p -value $< 10^{-15}$). (C) Distribution of archaic ancestry regions across the genome. We computed the mean archaic frequency along the genome of LASI-DAD individuals and considered segments with an archaic frequency higher than the mean (μ) + two standard deviations (σ) as enriched. We detected 117.28 Mb enriched in Neanderthal ancestry (in blue) and 61.52 Mb enriched in Denisovan ancestry (in green). We also show the location of archaic ancestry deserts: regions with $< 0.1\%$ archaic ancestry over 10 Mb (striped rectangles in blue for Neanderthal and green for Denisovan).

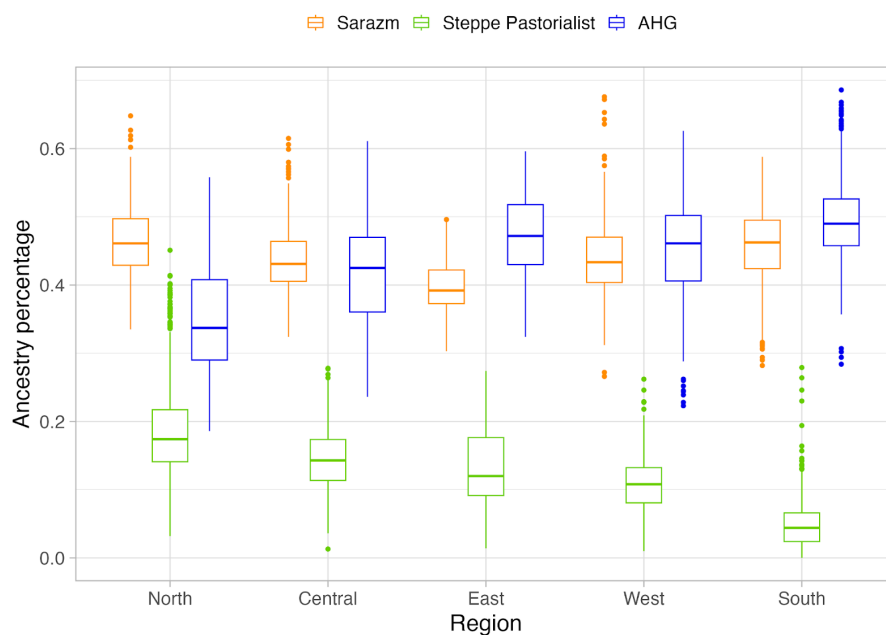


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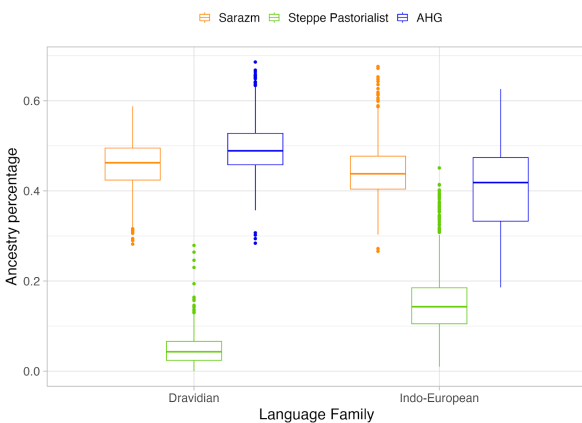
691 **Figure 4 Minimum coalescence time with Sub-Saharan African populations.** Each dot represents the
 692 minimum coalescence time with Sub-Saharan Africans estimated from the emission parameters of the
 693 human state using *hmmix*. The X-axis shows the population the individual belongs to and the color
 694 represents the region. The gray area represents 95% of the coalescence times for all non-African
 695 individuals. The dotted line shows the timing of the Toba eruption 74,000 years ago⁵⁷ which provides a
 696 minimum bound for the Southern Dispersal out of Africa.

697 Extended Data Figures

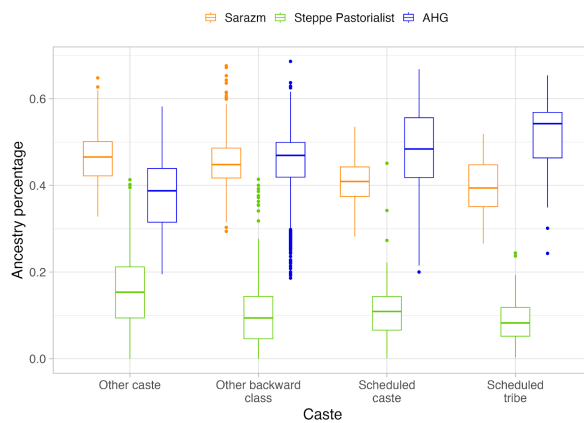
A



B

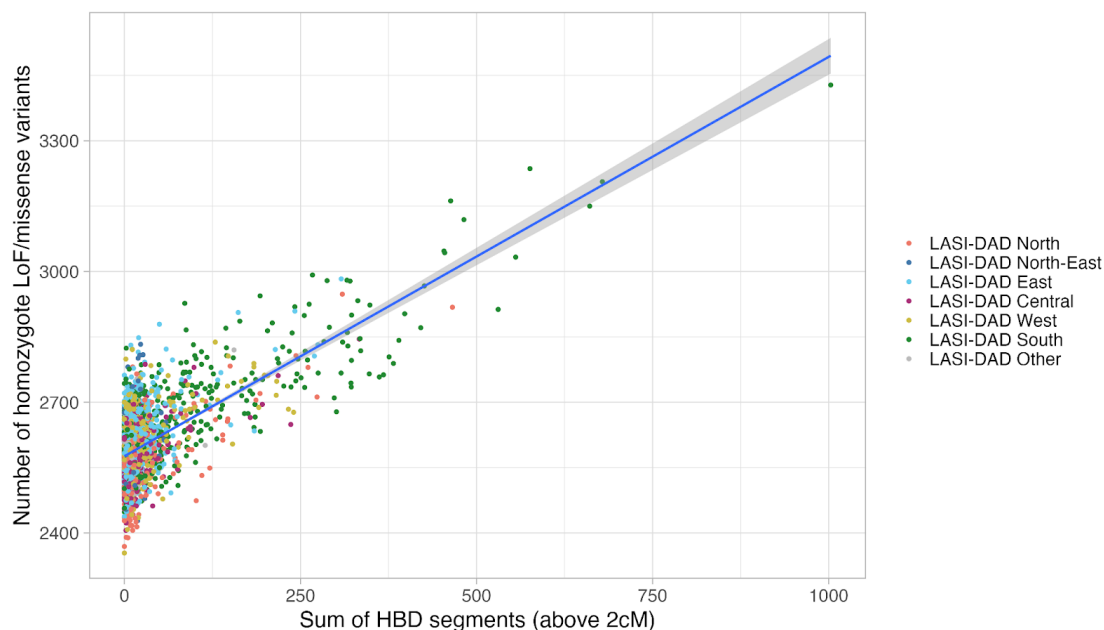


C



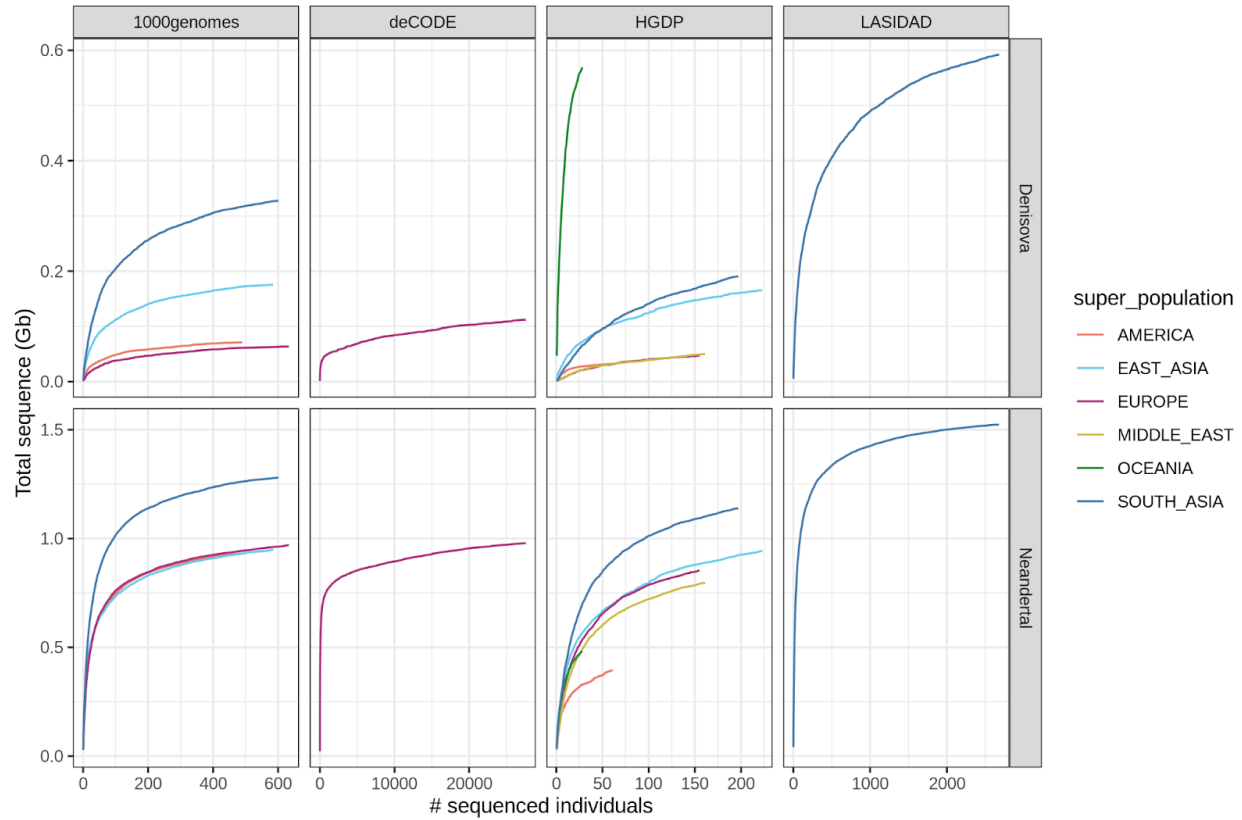
Extended Data Figure 1. Ancestral population-related coefficients using the revised model. Inferred coefficients based on qpAdm using the three-way model with Sarazm_EN, Central_Steppe_MLBA and AHG-related groups shown by (A) region, (B) language family and (C) caste group. We show only results for 1,942 individuals for whom the three-way model was a good fit (p -value > 0.01 and inferred ancestry proportions were non-negative).

698



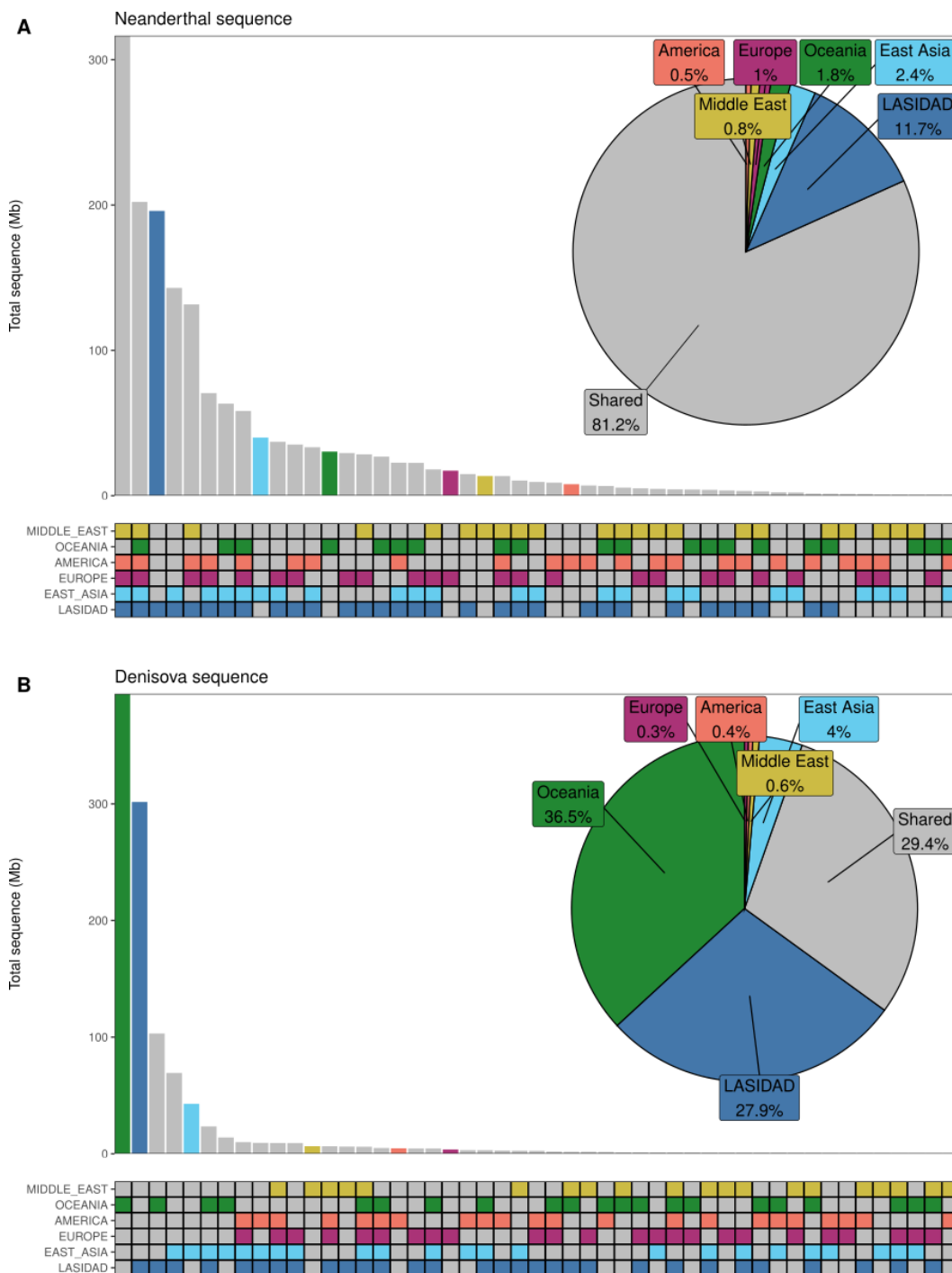
Extended Data Figure 2. Relationship between the number of homozygous derived missense/pLoFs and the total sum of HBD segments per individual. Individuals are colored by region of birth. We fit a regression using generalized linear model (glm) and obtain the following fit: $y = 2576 + 0.916 \cdot x$.

699



700

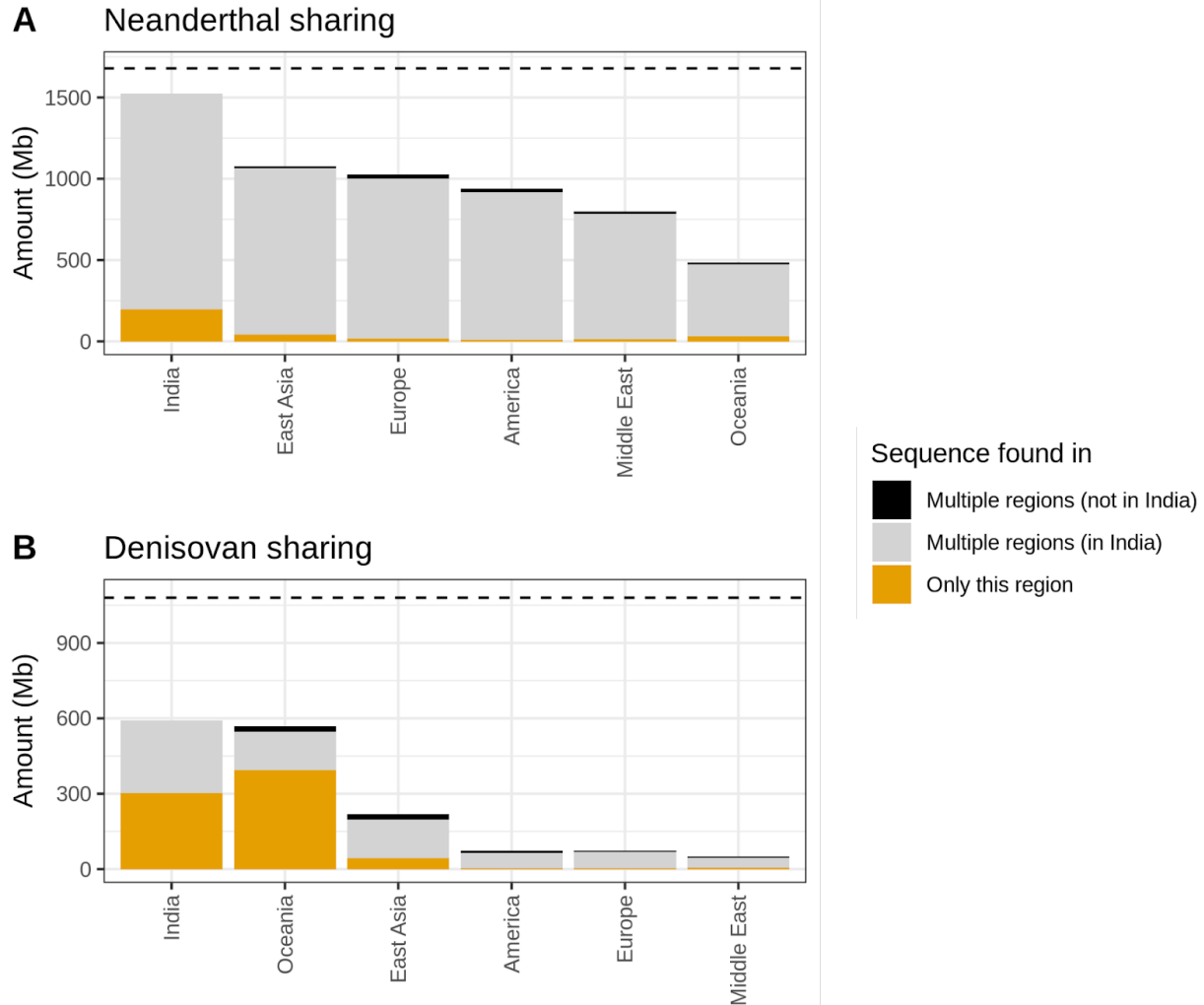
701 **Extended Data Figure 3. Amount of unique archaic sequence in worldwide populations.** For
702 Denisovan (top) and Neanderthal (bottom) as a function of the analyzed number of individuals in
703 four different datasets (at a posterior cutoff of 0.9).



704

705 **Extended Data Figure 4. Sharing of Neanderthal and Denisova sequence.** **A)** Upset plot of
 706 Neanderthal sequence found at a posterior probability cutoff at 0.8 (y-axis) that is shared
 707 between any combinations of regions (x-axis). Sequence that is unique to one region is colored
 708 according to which population it is found in while sequence that is found in at least 2 populations
 709 (shared) is colored in grey. In the pie chart the total amount of shared and unique are denoted in
 710 percent. **B)** same as **A)** but for Denisovan sequence.

711



712

713

714 **Extended Data Figure 5. Neanderthal and Denisova sequence found in world-wide regions.**

715 **A)** Amount of Neanderthal sequence found at a posterior probability cutoff at 0.8 (y-axis) that is
716 unique to any region, found in multiple regions (at least two) where one includes India
717 (LASI-DAD dataset) or found in multiple regions (at least two) where India is not included. **B)**
718 same as **A)** but for Denisovan sequence. Horizontal lines indicate the total length of the
719 assembled Neanderthal and Denisova genome using LASI-DAD, HGDP and 1000G datasets.

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