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Identification of inter- and intra-species variation in cereal grains through geometric morphometric analysis, and its resilience under experimental charring.

Running title

5 Geometric morphometric analysis of cereal grains

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Abstract

25 The application of morphometric analysis in archaeobotany has the potential to refine
quantitatively identifications of ancient plant material recovered from archaeological sites,
most commonly preserved through charring due to exposure to heat. This paper uses
geometric morphometrics, first, to explore variation in grain shape between three
domesticated cereal species, einkorn (*Triticum monococcum*), emmer (*Triticum dicoccum*)
30 and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), both before and after experimental charring at 230 and
260°C. Results demonstrate that outline analysis reliably reflects known variations in grain
shape between species and differences due to charring observed in previous experimental
work, and is capable of distinguishing the species, with near-perfect results, both before and
after charring. Having established this, the same method was applied to different accessions
35 of the same species, which indicated that three different grain morphotypes of einkorn and
two, possibly three, of emmer could be identified in the uncharred material, and that at least
two different morphotypes for each species could be distinguished even after charring at
temperatures up to 260°C. This opens up the possibility of tracking evolutionary change in
crops, both chronologically and geographically, through morphometric analysis.

40

Highlights

- outline analysis reliably reflects known variations in grain shape between species,
and differences due to charring
- more subtle differences in grain shape between different populations of the same
45 species can be identified
- evolutionary change in crops could thus potentially be tracked, both chronologically
and geographically, through morphometric analysis

50 **Keywords:** Elliptical Fourier Transforms, archaeobotany, cereal grain, experimental
charring, einkorn, emmer, barley

1 Introduction

55 The taxonomic identification of ancient plant material found on archaeological sites is
fundamental to its interpretation in terms of past plant use, agricultural practices etc., and
these archaeobotanical remains are most commonly preserved through charring due to
exposure to heat. Problems of taxonomic identification of charred plant remains are widely
60 recognised (e.g. Jones, 1997; Hillman, 2000; Van der Veen, 1992). As well as natural
overlap in morphology within and between species, distortion due to the charring process
presents further difficulties for taxonomic identification. Cereal grains, which are largely
composed of starch, are particularly susceptible to distortion through charring (Charles et al.,
2015).

65 Although it is possible to identify well preserved cereal grains to species even after the
distorting effects of charring, more subtle variations within species have not commonly been
explored, due to the lack of reliable methods for distinguishing between different sub-species
or varieties. Morphometric methods have been used to address intra-species variation for
other archaeobotanical remains such as grape pips (Bouby et al., 2013; Terral et al., 2010),
70 and Ros et al. have recently investigated grain shape variation between sub-species and
varieties of barley (Ros et al., 2014). This type of investigation is best achieved through the
analysis of variation in modern material where the species and source of the grain is already
known, before attempts are made to apply the method to archaeologically preserved
material where taxonomic identity must be inferred from the remains themselves. This paper
75 explores the potential to refine quantitatively taxonomic identification through the geometric
morphometric analysis of grain shape to determine the extent to which inter- and intra-
species differences can be identified, both before and after charring.

Morphometrics, the description of shape and its (co)variation, encompasses three different
80 approaches: “classic” identification, “traditional” morphometrics and geometric (also called
“modern”) morphometrics (Bookstein, 1991; Rohlf and Bookstein, 1990). Archaeobotanical
identification is classically based on a series of diagnostic traits, including descriptions of
shapes, that are assessed by eye, and that can be recognised consistently by trained
specialists. Identification by eye, however, leaves limited capacity for quantifying variation
85 within or between archaeobotanical assemblages. In contrast, a morphometrics-based
approach allows shape variation to be directly quantified and, further, plant remains can be
classified probabilistically. The ability to quantify grain shape variation also holds great
potential for tracing past phenotypic variation in cereal populations both temporally and

90 spatially, thus documenting diversity, chronological change and geographic movements of
cereal crops.

“Traditional” morphometrics, the measurement of linear dimensions (typically length, breadth
and thickness for grains) and calculation of ratios of these dimensions, is occasionally used
to aid identification of archaeobotanical remains, for instance between wild and
95 domesticated varieties (Colledge, 2001). Measurements are not, however, routinely taken in
archaeobotanical studies.

Geometric morphometrics represent shapes by quantitative variables using a mathematical
framework defined by the nature of the shapes studied. The manner in which this is
100 achieved depends on whether there are many features present that can be landmarked, or
whether curves, outlines and surfaces are the shapes’ main homologous features. Recently,
application of geometric morphometrics to archaeobotanical material has proven helpful to
aid species identification (García-Granero et al., 2016) and, beyond this, to examine
variation within species (Burger et al., 2011; Newton et al., 2006; Orrù et al., 2013; Pagnoux
105 et al., 2014; Ros et al., 2014; Terral et al., 2012, 2010, 2004; Ucchesu et al., 2016). Studies
to date have, however, focused on fruit stones such as grape and olive, while the application
of geometric morphometrics to cereal grains has been treated with caution due to the known
shape distortion caused by charring of starch-rich grain compared with the relative shape
stability of woody fruit stones. As well as distortion depending on the type of material
110 charred, the conditions under which charring occurred (e.g. temperature, oxygen availability,
and, to a lesser extent, duration of heating) are also important (Bouby et al., *in press*;
Charles et al., 2015; Ucchesu et al., 2016).

Previous work on cereals has demonstrated that grain distortion increases with charring
115 temperature, with a noticeable difference between wheat grains charred at 230 and 260°C
(Charles et al., 2015). Grains charred at these temperatures are comparable to well-
preserved grains recovered from archaeological sites, both in terms of appearance and
internal structure as seen through scanning electron microscopy (Charles et al., 2015). At
higher temperatures, grain shape changes more dramatically, making it difficult to distinguish
120 species and even genera; bubbles may appear on the grain surface and, in extreme cases,
the endosperm is exuded from the grain (Braadbaart, 2008; Charles et al., 2015). As intra-
species differences are unlikely to be preserved where species or genus is indeterminable,
this paper focuses only on grains charred under conditions that generate well-preserved
remains. Charring also causes an overall reduction in size but, as size is not a useful

125 characteristic for distinguishing between grains of domesticated wheat and barley, we have
restricted our analyses to shape differences.

For morphometric analysis of charred archaeological cereal grains to be considered
meaningful, it must be established that, for well-preserved grains (charred at relatively low
130 temperatures), the effects of charring do not obscure or distort grain shape to the point
where variation due to charring is greater than the inherent differences between species or
between different populations within species. The ability of morphometric analysis to
distinguish between grains of known cereal species is also an essential pre-requisite for
attempting to use the technique for exploring more subtle within-species variations. Having
135 established this, an analysis of grain shape variation within species can follow.

Two key questions are therefore addressed: i) whether geometric morphometrics,
specifically outline analysis using elliptical Fourier transforms, can satisfactorily distinguish
modern grains of three domesticated cereal species commonly found archaeologically:
140 einkorn (*Triticum monococcum*), emmer (*Triticum dicoccum*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*),
in uncharred material and in material charred at 230 and 260°C; and ii) whether any of the
accessions of grains from different populations of the same species exhibit characteristic
shape differences and, if so, whether these are still distinguishable after charring. An ability
to identify plant populations using geometric morphometrics, despite morphological changes
145 due to charring, would indicate that this approach would be applicable to the
archaeobotanical record and could then be used to seek out distinct cereal populations in
antiquity.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

150 Three accessions each of three cereal species, einkorn (*Triticum monococcum*), emmer
(*Triticum dicoccum*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), were included in this study. The
accessions originated from various locations in Turkey, Jordan, Iran and Syria, and were
provided by the John Innes Centre (UK), GRIN (USA) and IPK Gatersleben (Germany) (see
supplementary material, Table A). At least 18 grains were sampled for each accession. For
155 none of the accessions was the shape of the grains obviously distinctive, though grains of
the einkorn accession Tm3 were unusually large compared to those of accessions Tm1 and
Tm2. There was therefore no certainty, prior to analysis, that it would be possible to

distinguish any of the accessions from others of the same species on the basis of their grain shape.

160

Grains were taken from spikelets throughout the ear, except for the very basal and terminal spikelets, where the grains are sometimes underdeveloped. Einkorn grains were taken only from one-grained spikelets and, for emmer, only two-grained spikelets were sampled (those containing one grain being, in any case, primarily from the bottom and terminal spikelets), and both grains in the spikelet were used. For barley, only two-row varieties were sampled. Wheat grains (einkorn and emmer) were dehusked by hand to remove the surrounding glumes. For barley grains (which were all of the hulled type), the paleas and lemmas were partially peeled off to expose the grain shape at the ends, and to better replicate archaeobotanical remains, where the complete hulls are rarely preserved.

170

Each grain was photographed in dorsal, lateral, and polar views, the latter capturing the cross-sectional shape of the grain (Figure 1; see also Jacomet, 2008) using a Leica Z6 apochromatic microscope, Retiga 2000R camera and Media Cybernetics® Image Pro Premier 9 software®.

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2.2 Controlled charring

Each grain was given a unique identification code to facilitate one-to-one comparison of pre- and post-charring morphology. Individual grains were wrapped in two layers of aluminium foil and buried in sand within a 250ml Pyrex® beakers, thus reducing the availability of air during heating (Charles et al., 2015). Beakers containing half of the grains from each accession were placed in a pre-heated oven maintained at a temperature of 230 °C (with an accuracy of $\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 6 hours, and the other half were similarly heated at 260 °C for 6 hours. After charring, each grain was photographed again in all three views, and with the same orientation as the uncharred grain.

185

2.3 Outline analysis

For each photograph, an outline of the grain was traced manually in Adobe® Photoshop® CS6 to capture the grain shape, excluding any protrusion of the embryo (see Figure 1). Two landmarks were defined in StereoMorph (Olsen and Westneat, 2015), one at the bottom of the image, at the embryo end of the grain or at the ventral groove depending on the view, and the other on the outline vertically above the first landmark (see Figure 1).

190

Outline coordinates and landmark positions on each image were then extracted and collated using Momocs 1.0.10 (Bonhomme et al., 2014 - <https://cran.r-project.org/package=Momocs>)

195 and <https://github.com/vbonhomme/Momocs/>) in an R 3.2.4 environment (R Development
Core Team, 2016), where further analyses were conducted. Outlines were normalized
before morphometric analysis as follows: for rotation and position, the two landmarks were
superimposed on points with coordinates ($x_1=-0.5$, $y_1=0$), ($x_2=0.5$; $y_2=0$); for size, shapes
were rescaled using their centroid size; for the bilateral symmetry of the grain, the polar view
200 outlines were manually inspected and flipped so that the direction of asymmetry was the
same in all grains.

Elliptical Fourier Transforms (Giardina and Kuhl, 1977; Kuhl and Giardina, 1982) were
calculated for every grain in each view separately and later combined. Eight harmonics were
205 retained for each view, which gathered at least 99% of the total harmonic power (Bonhomme
et al., 2014). Eventually, each grain (both before and after charring) was described by 96
“Fourier coefficients”: 3 views, described by 8 harmonics, with 4 coefficients per harmonic.

2.4 Statistical analyses

210 Mean coefficients per view, per species, and per charring state, were used to reconstruct
mean shapes. To reduce dimensionality, a principal component analysis (PCA) was
calculated on the matrix of coefficients. To visualize how the first principal component (PC)
captures shape variability from the three views together, morphospaces were reconstructed
at the origin and the PC1 and PC2 extrema.

215 To examine the effect of charring on shape, charring trajectories (Adams and Collyer, 2009;
Collyer and Adams, 2013) are displayed on the PC1-PC2 plane. Each grain is represented
twice, before and after charring. These points are linked by an arrow to define “charring
vectors” or “trajectories” that display the change in shape on charring. Charring trajectories
220 were decomposed into a direction and a magnitude, and non-parametric rank-based tests
were used to compare between species (at a given temperature) and between charring
temperatures (for each species). Kruskal-Wallis tests were used for three-group, and
Wilcoxon tests for pairwise, comparisons.

225 To test whether outline analyses of grains can distinguish between species and between
different accessions within each species, both before and after charring, linear discriminant
analyses (LDA) with leave-one-out cross-validations were used. Each LDA used sufficient
PCs to gather at least 95% of the total variance. For each within-species classification, the
PCAs were recalculated on the matrix of Fourier coefficients filtered to include only grains of
230 that species and charred at the considered temperature. The number of correctly reclassified
grains, was used as a performance score.

3 Results

3.1 Changes in shape due to charring

Figure 2 shows the average change in grain shape due to charring in the three views
235 photographed. It should be noted that size has been factored out of the analysis and so
changes in the length and overall size of the grain are not apparent in these diagrams. In
terms of shape, grains became generally rounder, with the most marked shape changes
occurring in the polar/cross-sectional views of einkorn and emmer. Minimal changes in
shape were observed for the lateral views of all taxa. In einkorn, there appears to be a
240 reduction in, or even loss of, bilateral asymmetry in the polar view. Barley exhibited relatively
little overall change in shape, which may be due to the incomplete removal of the hulls that
could constrain deformation to some extent, or to the shallowness of the ventral groove in
barley compared with the deep groove in wheat which tends to “open out” in the early stages
of charring.

245

3.2 Exploration of shape variation in relation to species

Principal component analysis (PCA) of the Fourier coefficients calculated for grains of all
species (uncharred grains and those charred at 230 and 260 °C), based on all three views,
shows (Figure 3) that, as expected, the greatest variation in grain shape is between species
250 (PC1), and secondary variation is due to changes resulting from charring (PC2). Prior to
charring, grains of the three species are clearly separated along PC1 with no overlap in the
shape of grains of different species. Charring at 230 °C shows some convergence of grain
shape, but with little overlap between species, while charring at 260 °C results in more
overlap on the first two PCs for the two wheat species, though barley grains remain relatively
255 distinct.

3.3 Magnitude and direction of shape changes caused by charring

The direction of charring vector trajectories (Figure 4) is broadly similar for most grains at
both charring temperatures. The direction of change in shape is particularly similar for
260 einkorn and emmer at 230 °C but rather different for barley. At 260 °C, the direction of change
for einkorn remains similar whereas for emmer the direction alters slightly, becoming more
like that for barley. There is a notable difference in the magnitude of the vectors, which is
greatest for einkorn, intermediate for emmer and smallest for barley, reflecting the greater
shape changes seen in the wheat species (cf. Figure 2). As expected, the magnitude of
265 change is greater at 260 °C than at 230 °C. Kruskal-Wallis and Wilcoxon significance tests
support these conclusions (see supplementary material, Table B).

3.4 Classification of grains according to species

270 Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), of the scores on sufficient PCs to account for $\geq 95\%$ of
the total variance in the matrix of Fourier coefficients, achieves perfect classification of all
uncharred grains to species, even as assessed by rigorous leave-one-out cross-validation
(rather than simple raw reclassification) (Figure 5a, Table 1). After charring at 230 °C, a
single grain of emmer was wrongly assigned as einkorn, while all other grains were correctly
reclassified; the same results were observed after charring at 260 °C (Table 1; and Figure 5b,
275 displaying the combined results for grains charred at 230 and 260 °C). This is a very
encouraging result and demonstrates that outline analysis is capable of successfully
discriminating between grains of different species, both before and after charring.

3.5 Discrimination between grains of different populations within species

280 When considering different accessions of the same species, it is not expected that every
accession will have a distinctive grain morphotype compared to the other accessions of the
species. The purpose of the analysis is to determine whether any of the accessions is
distinctive and, if so, whether this distinctiveness can still be detected after the grains have
been charred. LDA results for the uncharred grains of einkorn, however, show that all three
285 accessions do exhibit a distinctive shape, as demonstrated by the near-perfect
reclassification of grains, with only two grains of Tm2 being misclassified (Figure 5c, Table
1). For emmer, there is one very distinctive accession, Td3, but overlap in shape between
Td1 and Td2, though these too are partly distinguishable, with 75% of Td1 grains, and 81%
of Td2 grains, being correctly reclassified (Figure 5e, Table 1). Correct reclassification rates
290 for the barley accessions, on the other hand, are low (Figure 5g, Table 1), indicating that
they are all of a similar shape.

For the post-charring results, therefore, we focus on the accessions that were distinctive
prior to charring (indicated in bold in Table 1; see also supplementary information, Table C).
295 For einkorn, reclassification of Tm3 is perfect after charring at 230 °C, and 72% of grains
were correctly reclassified when grains charred at 230 and 260 °C are treated together as
“charred” (Figure 5d, Table 1). Tm1 and Tm2 are more difficult to distinguish after charring:
at 230 °C, 67% of Tm1 and 78% of Tm2 were assigned correctly but, when grains charred at
the two temperatures are taken together, 42% and 61% respectively were correctly
300 reclassified. Nevertheless, as a group, 86% of the grains from these two accessions were
correctly reclassified to the group, indicating that two relatively distinct morphotypes of
einkorn can be recognised after charring at temperatures between 230 and 260 °C (Table 1).
For emmer, Td3 also remained distinctive after charring, with 83% of grains being correctly

reclassified after charring at 230 °C, and 89% when grains charred at the two temperatures
305 are taken together (Figure 5f, Table 1).

4 Discussion and Conclusions

310 As expected, modern uncharred grains of einkorn, emmer and barley are clearly
distinguished by their shape. It is encouraging, however, that, bar one grain, they are also
clearly identifiable, on the basis of outline shape alone, after charring at temperatures up to
260 °C. The ability to identify species accurately using morphometrics both before and after
charring is not particularly surprising, as a trained archaeobotanist can make these
315 distinctions by eye.

This is an important result, however, first because the LDA reclassification rate is nearly
perfect, regardless of charring temperature (230 or 260 °C), which is particularly significant
for archaeologically recovered grains where the charring temperature cannot be accurately
320 determined. It is, however, possible, to make broad estimates of charring temperature on
the basis of results from charring experiments, and grains charred at temperatures above
260 °C “show gross distortion, becoming irregularly shaped, with severe surface blistering or
crumpling of the endosperm, and occasionally endosperm exudations” (Charles et al., 2015).
It would be wise, therefore, to exclude grains with these characteristics from investigations of
325 intra-species shape variation, even if the grains can be identified to species on the basis of
visible characteristics (with informal allowance for likely charring effects).

Secondly, the clear separation of species on the basis of outline analysis paves the way for
the investigation of intra-species grain shape variation. Had it not been possible to
330 distinguish species by this method, there would have been little point in attempting to use the
same technique for identifying different populations of the same species because, where
shape differences between grains of different populations exist at all, these are less
pronounced. The accessions used here, for example, were not markedly distinctive, so it
was uncertain whether any significant grain shape differences would be found even in the
335 original (uncharred) material. In fact, LDA successfully distinguished three different
morphotypes of einkorn and two, possibly three, of emmer. Not surprisingly the correct
reclassification rates were lower in the charred material but at least two populations were
clearly distinguished amongst the grains of both species after charring at temperatures up to
260 °C.

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The ability to quantify grain shape variation within species opens up the possibility of tracking grain morphotypes, not previously observable in archaeobotanical cereal assemblages, both temporally and spatially. Variations in cereal grain shape within species are likely to reflect genetic varietal differences or crop growing conditions, though the latter are perhaps more likely to be reflected in grain size than grain shape. This potentially allows us track evolutionary changes in crops through time, which may relate to selective pressures due to climate or human manipulation, as well as the geographic movement or spread of crop varieties owing to exchange or human population movements. It also permits an assessment of the degree of crop diversity at different times and geographic locations, as a means of identifying centres of genetic diversity indicative of rapid evolutionary change.

350

Evolutionary changes in crops and livestock may also be investigated through DNA analyses (Brown, 1999), and so both genetics and morphometrics have the potential to contribute to our understanding of the origins and spread of agriculture (Tresset and Vigne, 2011).

355

However, both approaches face barriers when trying to investigate the domestication and evolution of crop species through the study of ancient material. Molecular approaches are often thwarted by the poor survival of DNA resulting from the effects of both charring and the age of the material, which has led to a focus on the genetic analysis of modern crop plants to determine the origins of crop species (e.g. Brown et al., 2009) and to investigate their subsequent spread (e.g. Jones et al., 2013, 2012). The destructive nature of ancient DNA analysis is also a disadvantage, which is not the case for shape analysis. For

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morphometrics, the changes in shape caused by charring are problematic: distinguishing inherent differences in grain shape from the confounding effects of charring (both the overall bias introduced by the charring process and the effects of variable charring conditions), in order to understand the evolutionary and ecological processes that took place, is a real challenge. In this paper, we have addressed both the ability of geometric morphometrics to identify differences in grain shape relating to known species and population differences, and to take account of the effects of charring through the analysis of modern cereal grains.

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Our results have demonstrated first that geometric morphometric analysis, specifically outline analysis, reliably reflects known variations in grain shape between species, and differences due to charring observed in previous experimental work. Secondly, we have been able to identify more subtle differences in shape between different populations of the same species. This has opened up the exciting possibility of tracking evolutionary change in crops both chronologically and geographically.

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485 Figures

Figure 1: The three grain views photographed, with the outlines shown in red and the positions of landmarks indicated by black crosses.

490 **Figure 2: Mean outline shapes of the grains.** Grey shapes correspond to mean shapes of the uncharred grains; black outlines correspond to mean shapes of the charred grains. Note that grain size has been factored out of both the uncharred and charred outlines, to reveal only changes in shape.

495 **Figure 3: Principal component analysis** of the 96 Fourier coefficients calculated for grains of all species (before and after charring), based on all three views: a plot of PC1 against PC2, accounting for 68% of the total variance. Tm = einkorn, Td = emmer, Hv = barley. Convex hulls are displayed for each combination of species and charring treatment. In the background, a morphospace of the reconstructed shapes with the three views arranged as dorsal above, lateral left and polar right.

500

Figure 4: Charring vectors. Arrows represent, for each grain, the trajectory caused by charring on the PC1-PC2 plane of Figure 3.

505 **Figure 5: Linear discriminant analyses** of the scores on PCs accounting for $\geq 95\%$ of the total variance in the matrix of Fourier coefficients: with species as the grouping variable (a) uncharred (b) charred; and with different accessions as the grouping variable for einkorn (c) uncharred - (d) charred, emmer (e) uncharred - (f) charred, and barley (g) uncharred - (h) charred. In each case, "charred" indicates grains charred at 230 or 260°C (both temperatures combined). The two linear discriminant axes are shown, along with convex
510 hulls for the species, or accessions within species.

Tables

Table 1: Linear discriminant analysis. Percentages of grains correctly reclassified to species, or to different accessions within each species; for both uncharred grains, and grains charred at 230 or 260°C (both temperatures combined). Bold indicates accessions with the
515 most distinctive grain shapes.

Supplementary material

520 **Table A: Cereal accessions.** Source and location information for the einkorn, emmer and
barley accessions analysed.

Table B: Trajectory analyses. *P*-values from Wilcoxon and Kruskal-Wallis tests on
magnitudes and directions of the charring vectors. Tm = einkorn, Td = emmer, Hv = barley.

525

Table C: Confusion matrices. Detailed results of the LDA reclassifications of species, and
accessions within species (rows), for the uncharred grains, for grains charred at 230 °C,
charred at 260 °C, and charred at 230 and 260 °C combined (columns).

Table1

	Uncharred (%)	Charred (%)	N
Species			
Einkorn	100	100	55
Emmer	100	98	96
Barley	100	100	54
Einkorn accessions			
Tm1	100	42	19
Tm2	89	61	18
Tm3	100	72	18
Tm1+Tm2	97	86	37
Emmer accessions			
Td1	75	67	24
Td2	81	58	36
Td3	100	89	36
Barley accessions			
Hv1	72	56	18
Hv2	56	39	18
Hv3	72	56	18

Figure1
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

Dorsal



Lateral



Polar

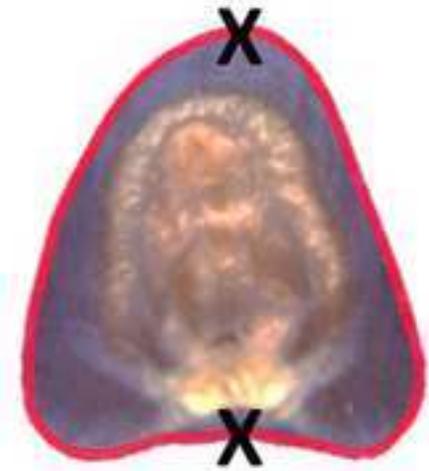


Figure2

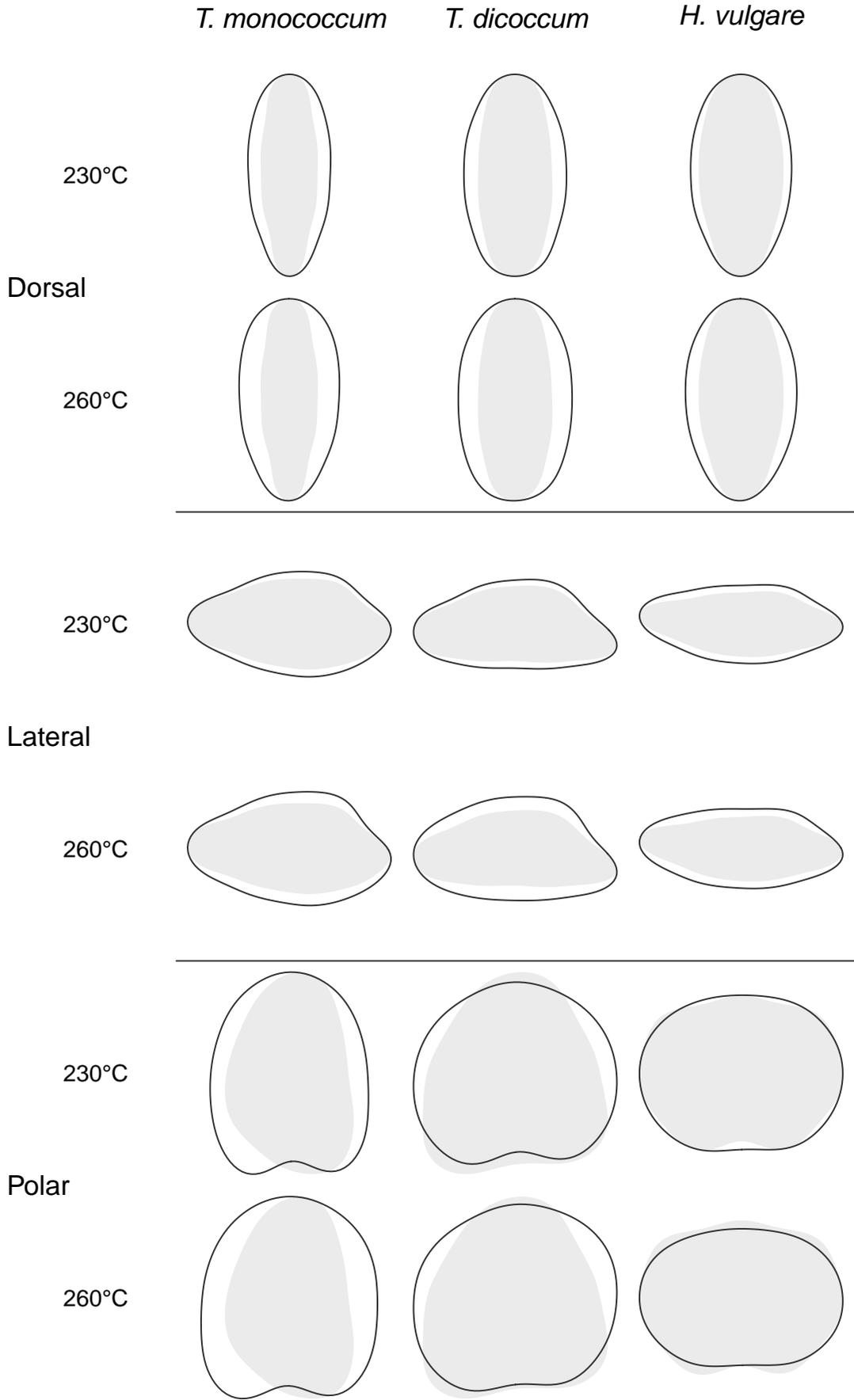


Figure3

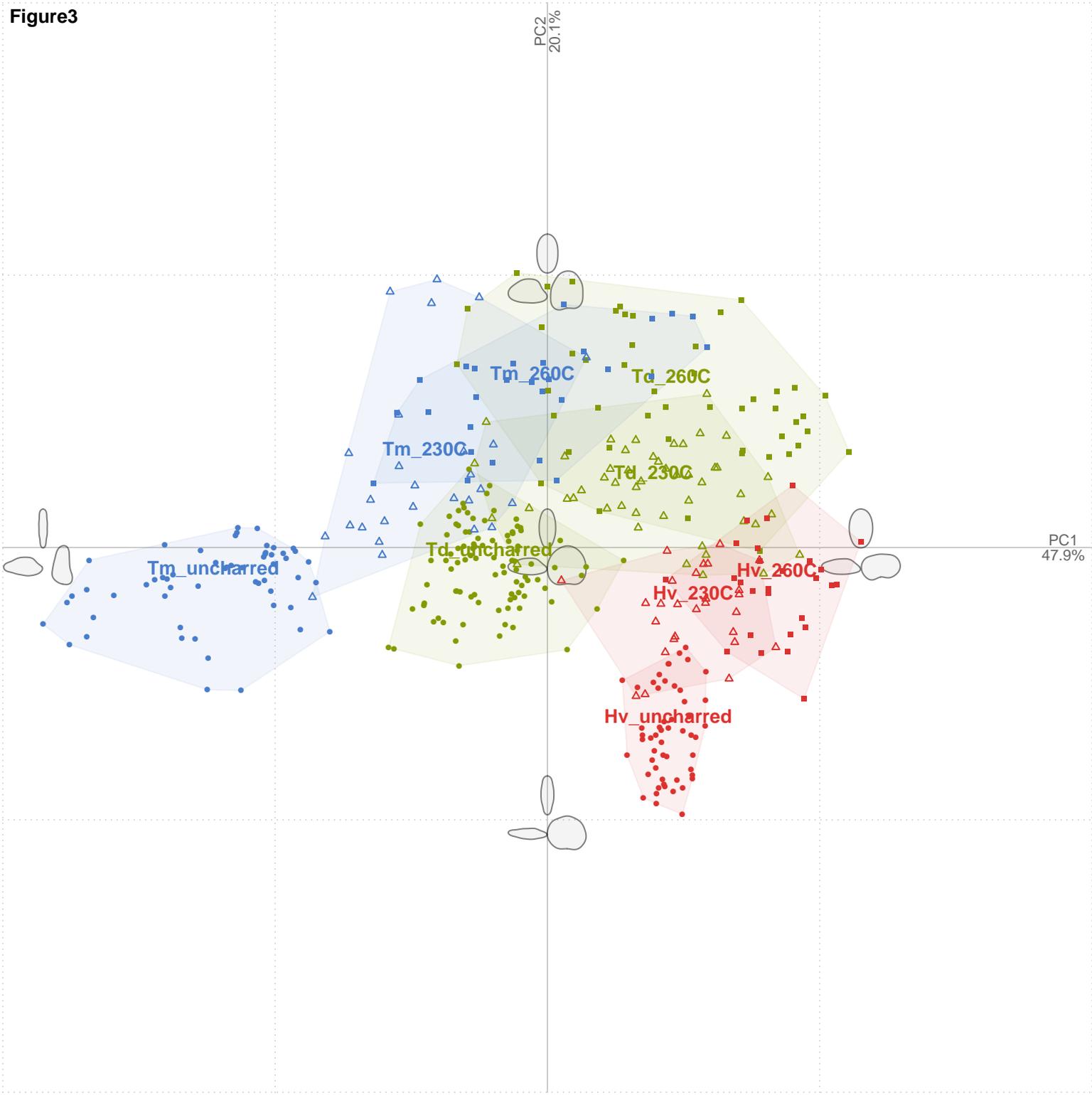


Figure4

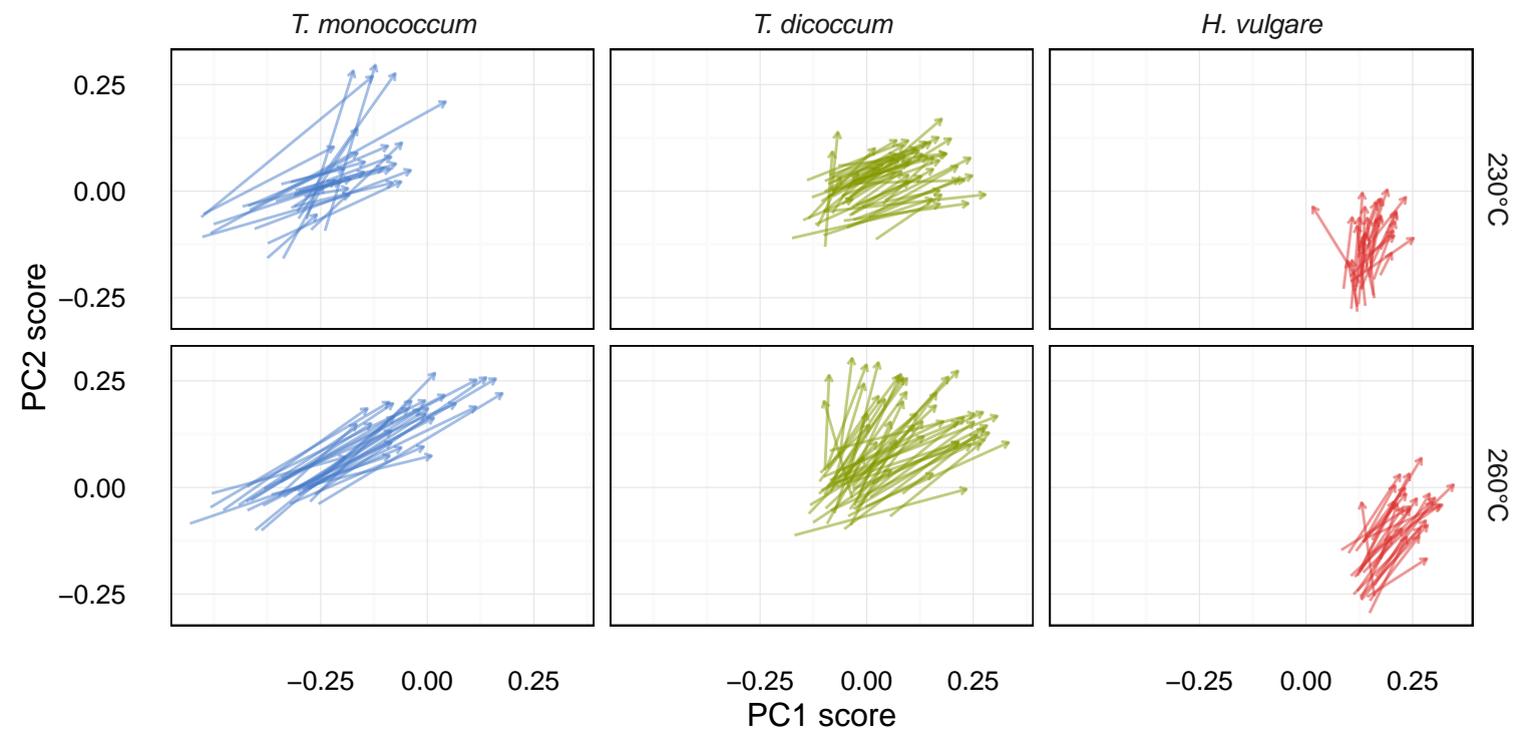
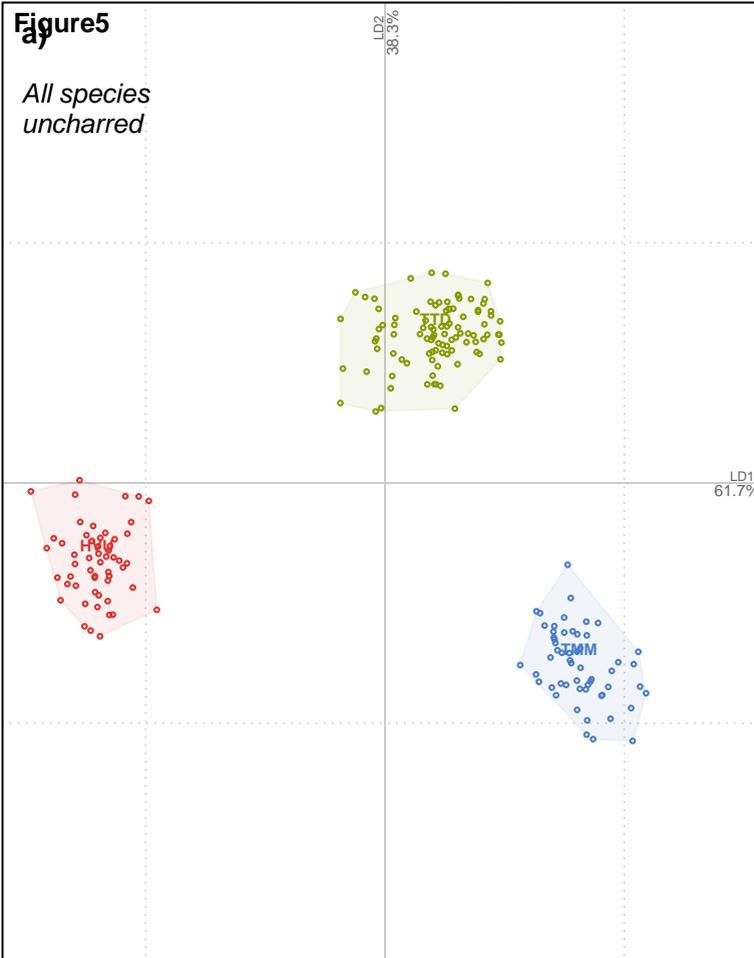
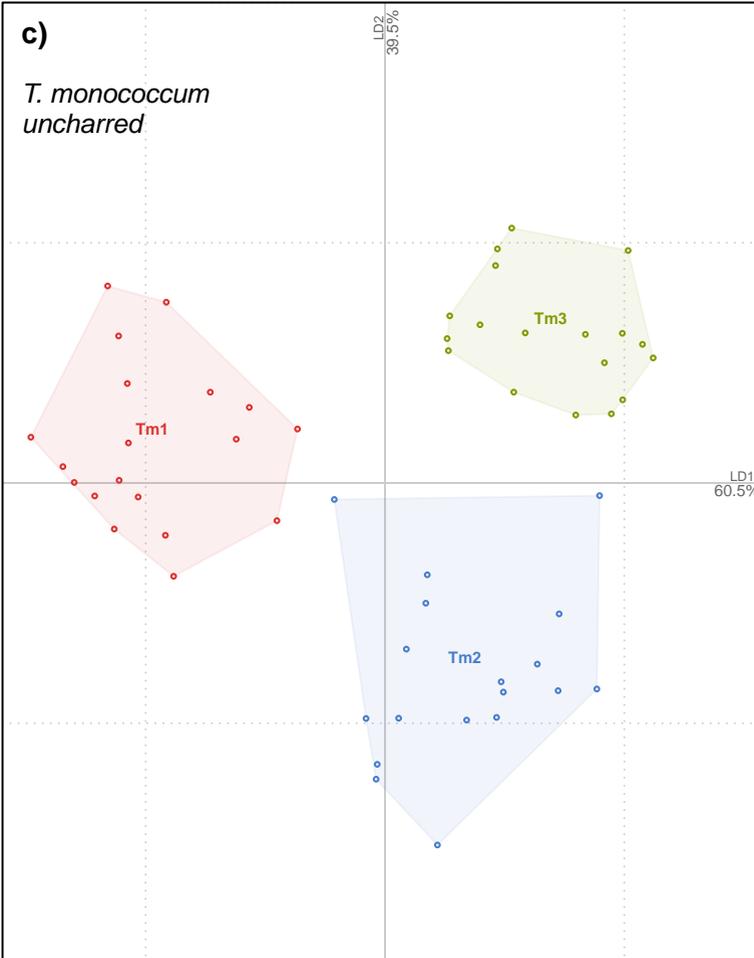
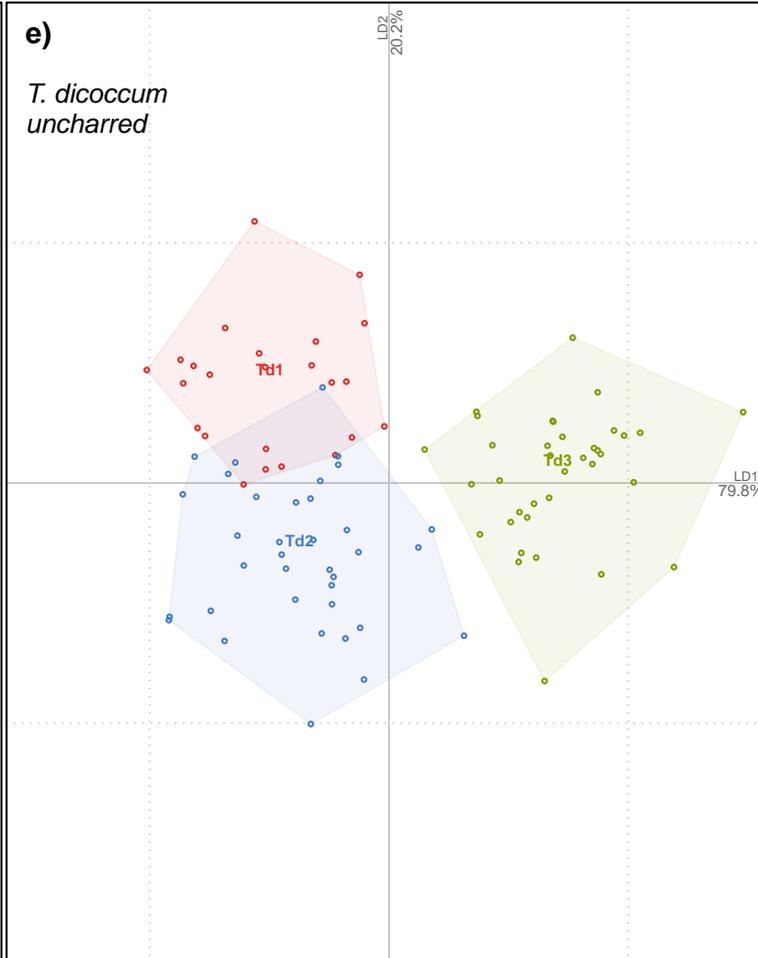
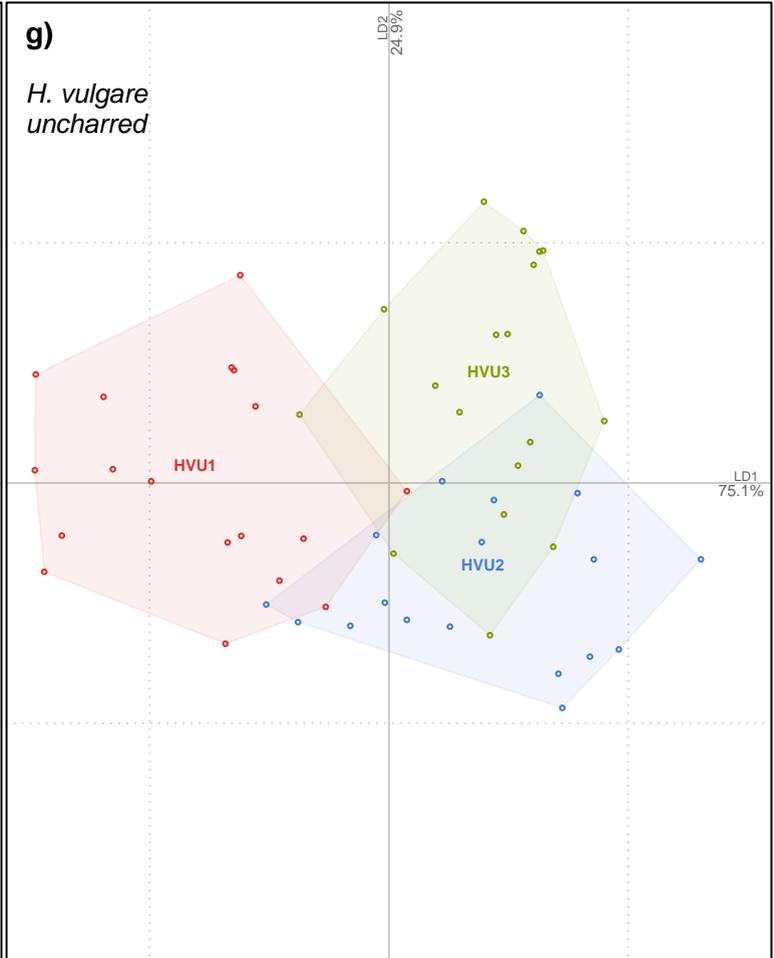
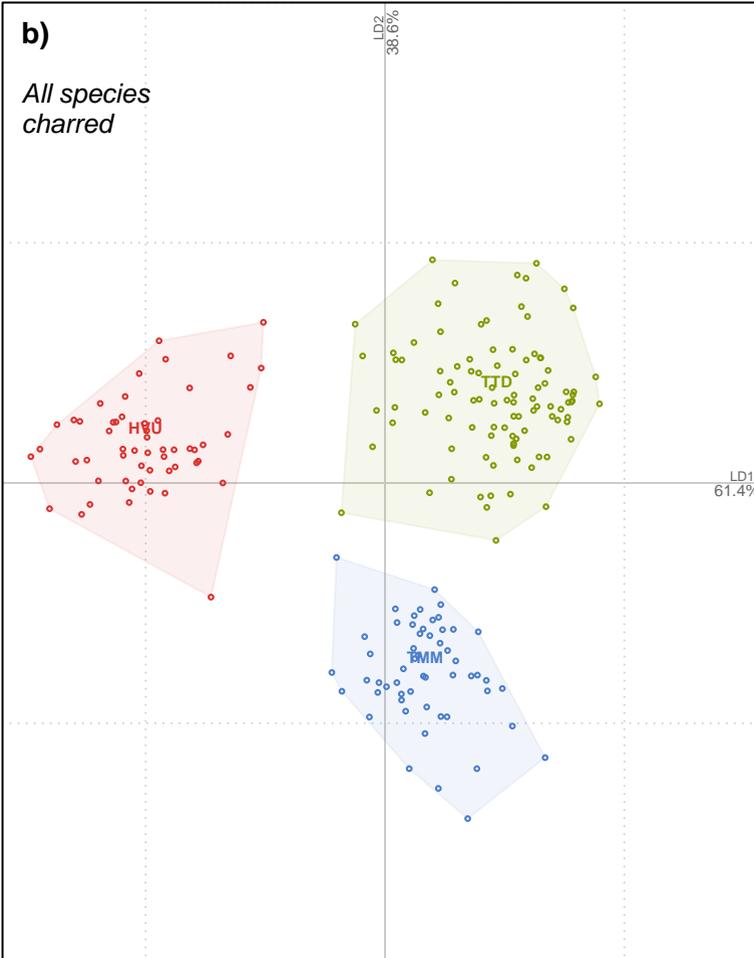
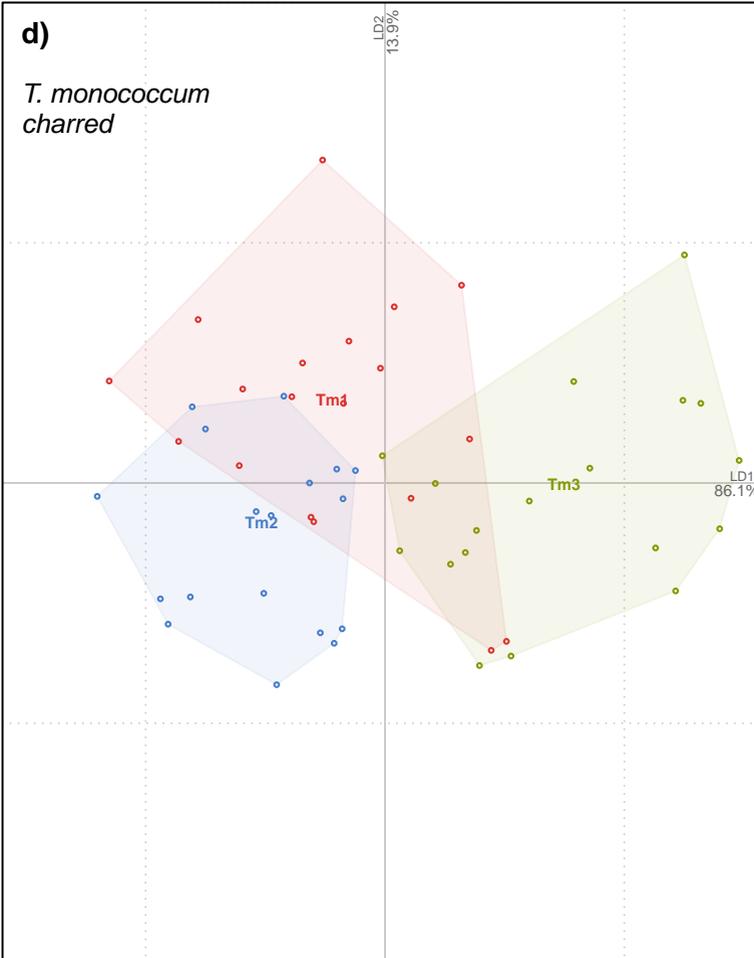
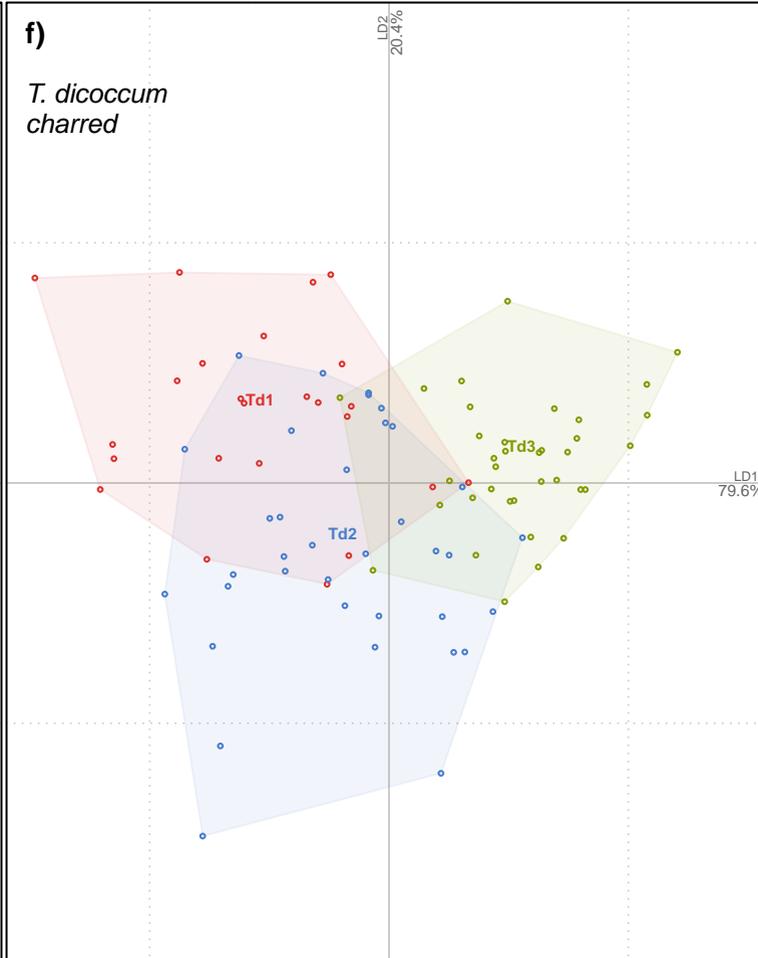
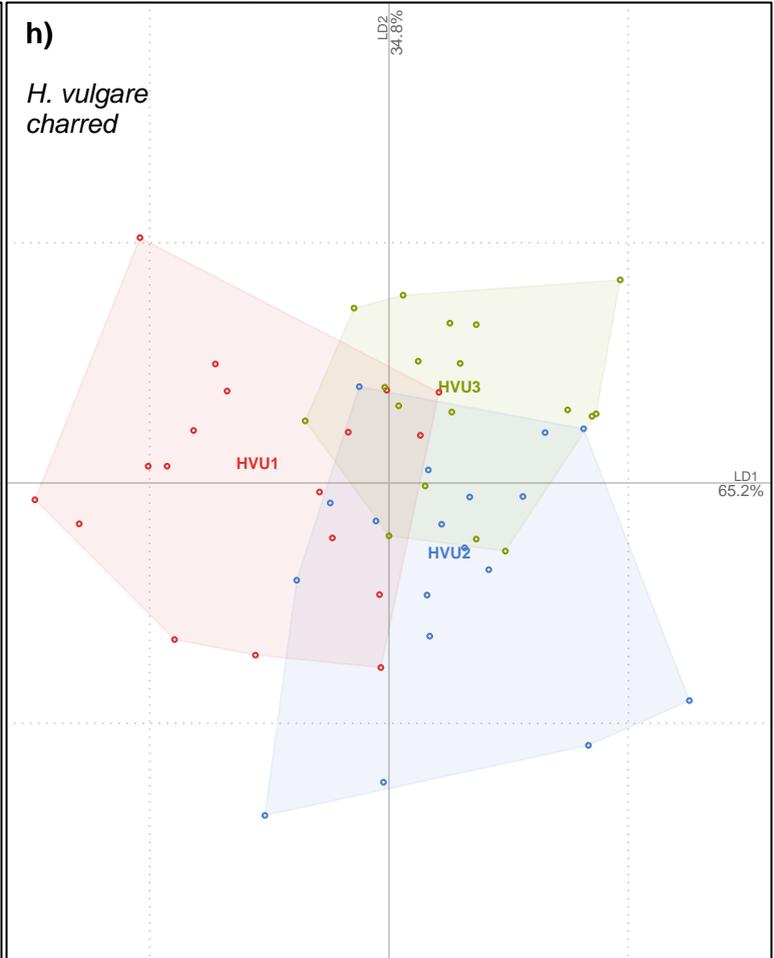


Figure 5*All species uncharred***c)**
T. monococcum uncharred**e)**
T. dicoccum uncharred**g)**
H. vulgare uncharred**b)**
All species charred**d)**
T. monococcum charred**f)**
T. dicoccum charred**h)**
H. vulgare charred

Supplementary Material - TableA

[Click here to download Supplementary Material: TableA_CerealAccessions.pdf](#)

Supplementary Material - TableB

[Click here to download Supplementary Material: TableB_TrajectoryAnalyses.pdf](#)

Supplementary Material - TableC

[Click here to download Supplementary Material: TableC_ConfusionMatrices.pdf](#)