

## The Evolutionary History of Wild, Domesticated, and Feral *Brassica oleracea* (Brassicaceae)

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**ABSTRACT**

Understanding the evolutionary history of crops, including identifying wild relatives, helps to provide insight for conservation and crop breeding efforts. Cultivated *Brassica oleracea* has intrigued researchers for centuries due to its wide diversity in forms, which include cabbage, broccoli, cauliflower, kale, kohlrabi, and Brussels sprouts. Yet, the evolutionary history of this species remains understudied. With such different vegetables produced from a single species, *B. oleracea* is a model organism for understanding the power of artificial selection. Persistent challenges in the study of *B. oleracea* include conflicting hypotheses regarding domestication and the identity of the closest living wild relative. Using newly generated RNA-seq data for a diversity panel of 224 accessions, which represents 14 different *B. oleracea* crop types and nine potential wild progenitor species, we integrate phylogenetic and population genetic techniques with ecological niche modeling, archaeological, and literary evidence to examine relationships among cultivars and wild relatives to clarify the origin of this horticulturally important species. Our analyses point to the Aegean endemic *B. cretica* as the closest living relative of cultivated *B. oleracea*, supporting an origin of cultivation in the Eastern Mediterranean region. Additionally, we identify several feral lineages, suggesting that cultivated plants of this species can revert to a wild-like state with relative ease. By expanding our understanding of the evolutionary history in *B. oleracea*, these results contribute to a growing body of knowledge on crop domestication that will facilitate continued breeding efforts including adaptation to changing environmental conditions.

**KEYWORDS** cabbage, domestication, crop wild relatives, Mediterranean, origin, ecological niche

**INTRODUCTION**

*“Greek legend has it that the cabbage sprung from where Zeus' sweat hit the ground.”*

*-N. D. Mitchell (1976)*

A key tenet of evolutionary and plant biology is understanding how plants respond and adapt to changes in environmental conditions, which can be better understood by leveraging genotypic diversity and investigating the connections between genotype and phenotype. Crop wild relatives (CWRs) provide pools of allelic diversity that at one time were shared through a common ancestor with cultivated relatives. Although Vavilov recognized the potential of CWRs in the early 1900s (Vavilov 1926), advances in genomics and genome editing techniques have enabled scientists to better realize the potential of CWRs as a source of diversity and novel traits for the improvement of cultivated populations (Prohens et al. 2017; Li et al. 2018; Fernie and Yan 2019; Khoury et al. 2020; Turner-Hissong et al. 2020). Yet these scientific advancements are hindered in that we still have not identified the CWRs of many important crop species. While cabbage may not have exactly formed from Zeus' sweat, its evolutionary history, including

identifying the closest living wild relative and origin of domestication, is still left unclear due to taxonomic confusion and the lack of genetic and archaeological evidence.

The horticultural crop *Brassica oleracea* L. has played an important role in global food systems for centuries, providing a source of leaf and root vegetables, fodder, and forage (Shyam et al. 2012). When first introduced to the species, Darwin drew many parallels between his theory of natural selection and the cultivation practices that led to the varied forms of this plant (Darwin and Gray 1868). While many people may recognize that various dog breeds are all part of the same species, they are often surprised to learn that the domesticated forms of *B. oleracea*, broccoli (var. *italica*), Brussels sprouts (var. *gemmifera*), cabbage (var. *capitata*), cauliflower (var. *botrytis*), kale (var. *acephala*), and kohlrabi (var. *gongylodes*) are all one species as well. The global market for *B. oleracea* crops was around 70.1 million metric tons, in terms of production for 2019 (The Food and Agriculture Organization; [www.fao.org](http://www.fao.org)). Although just six major crop types comprise the majority of the U.S. market (Agricultural Marketing Service, Market News Reports; [www.ams.usda.gov](http://www.ams.usda.gov)), outside these six major cultivars there exists at least 12 additional cultivated crop types (**SI Appendix, Table S1**). These include lesser known varieties such as Chinese white kale or Cantonese gai-lan (Mandarin Mandarin *Jiè lán* 芥蓝; var. *alboglabra*), a leafy vegetable with florets, romanesco (var. *botrytis*) with unique fractal patterned curds, and walking stick kale (var. *longata*), which grows 6-12 feet (1.8 - 3.7 meters) in height.

Compared to other crops, surprisingly little is known about the progenitor species and origin of domesticated *B. oleracea*. Primary challenges in identifying the progenitor species include the number of wild species that share a single cytodeme and are interfertile with *B. oleracea* ( $2n = 18$  chromosomes; similar genomic organization; referred to as the “C genome”), the corresponding confusion surrounding taxonomic relationships, and conflicting evidence regarding the center of origin. Wild relatives that share the C genome with domesticated *B. oleracea* include *Brassica bourgeauii*, *Brassica cretica*, *Brassica hilarionis*, *Brassica incana*, *Brassica insularis*, *Brassica macrocarpa*, *Brassica montana*, *Brassica rupestris*, and *Brassica villosa*. Throughout the literature, many of these species have been referred to by alternative names or have multiple subspecies. For example, *B. cretica* is described as having either three subspecies (subsp. *aegea*, *cretica*, and *laconica*; Snogerup et al. 1990) or only two (subsp. *cretica* and *nivea*; Gustafsson et al. 1976). The taxonomic confusion is perhaps best highlighted by L. H. Bailey, who stated that “*Some of these plants appear to be more confused in literature than in nature*” (Bailey 1930). The progenitor species of *B. oleracea* is further obscured by the presence of weedy, cabbage-like plants along the coastline of western Europe (England, France, and Spain), which have also been referred to as *B.*

*sylvestris* (Mitchell 1976) or *B. oleracea* var. *sylvestris* (Gladis and Hammer 2001). The role of these weedy populations in the domestication of *B. oleracea* is unclear, with some studies suggesting these coastal wild populations represent the progenitor species (Snogerup et al. 1990; Song et al. 1990), and others identifying these wild forms as plants that escaped cultivation (Mitchell 1976; Mitchell and Richards 1979).

Given the uncertainty surrounding wild relatives and weedy populations, researchers have proposed numerous hypotheses for the progenitor species of *B. oleracea* (**Table 1**). Hypotheses range from a single domestication with a single progenitor species (Song et al. 1990; Allender et al. 2007) to multiple domestications arising from multiple progenitor species (de Candolle 1855; Neutrofal 1927; Lizgunova 1959; Helm 1963; Snogerup 1980; Heaney et al. 1987; Song et al. 1988; Swarup and Brahmi 2005). Findings that point to a single origin of domestication have proposed different wild species as the progenitor (Snogerup et al. 1990; Song et al. 1990; Hodgkin 1995; Maggioni et al. 2018). For instance, Neutrofal (1927) suggested that *B. montana* was the progenitor of cabbages and that *B. rupestris* was the progenitor of kohlrabi, while Schulz (1936) identified *B. cretica* as the progenitor of only cauliflower and broccoli. Helm (1963) proposed a triple origin in which a single progenitor species gave rise to cauliflower, broccoli, and sprouting broccoli, while kale and Brussels sprouts were derived from another unknown wild species, and that all other crop forms were derived from a third unknown wild species. Snogerup (1980) proposed that cabbages were derived from wild *B. oleracea*, kales were derived from both *B. rupestris* and *B. incana*, and that Chinese white kale was derived specifically from *B. cretica* subsp. *nivea*.

Due to the lack of consensus on the progenitor species, the center of origin for *B. oleracea* has also remained obscure. One hypothesis is that domesticated *B. oleracea* originated in England from weedy *B. oleracea* populations, with early cultivated forms brought to the Mediterranean, where selection for many of the early crop types occurred (Hodgkin 1995). Other studies point specifically to Sicily, which boasts a large diversity of wild relatives, as the center of domestication (Schiemann 1932; Lizgunova 1959). This conforms with the observations of Nikolai Vavilov (1951) that plants tended to be domesticated in a finite number of global centers of diversity, which includes the Mediterranean. Most recently, linguistic and literary evidence provided support for domestication in the Eastern Mediterranean, where there is a rich history of expressions related to the usage and cultivation of *B. oleracea* crop types in early Greek and Latin literature (Maggioni et al. 2010; Maggioni et al. 2018).

Using newly generated RNA-seq data for a diversity panel of 224 accessions that includes 14 cultivar types and nine wild relatives, representing the largest and most diverse collection of this species and its wild relatives to date, we integrate phylogenomics, population genomics, ecological niche modeling,



archaeological, and literary evidence to clarify the taxonomy, identify the closest living wild relative, and provide insight on the origin of domestication for *B. oleracea*.

## RESULTS

**Sequencing depth and SNP identification.** RNA sequencing of 224 samples resulted in an average of 88,598,754 reads per sample, with a range of 59,543,560 - 151,814,032 reads. The minimum per-sample sequencing depth recovered was 9X, with a maximum depth of 12X. After mapping reads to the *B. oleracea* TO1000 genome (Parkin et al. 2014), SNPs were filtered to exclude those with a Fisher strand (FS) value greater than 30 and quality depth (QD) less than 2.0. This recovered 942,357 variants in total, with 879,865 variants on chromosomes 1-9 and 62,492 variants on remaining scaffolds. Chromosomal SNPs were then filtered to exclude sites with greater than 60% missing data, sites with mean per-sample depth values less than 5, and indels, resulting in a total of 103,525 SNPs. After a final filtering step for linkage disequilibrium (LD), a conservative final dataset of 36,750 SNPs was generated. For all samples, no mapping bias was detected when comparing the percentage of uniquely mapped reads across cultivar groups, species, and sequencing lane (*SI Appendix, Fig. S1*).

**Phylogeny and population clustering distinguish wild and feral populations.** Sampling of *B. oleracea* cultivars included eight types of kales, five types of cabbages, Brussels sprouts, broccoli, cauliflower, Romanesco (var. *botrytis*), and kohlrabi (*SI Appendix, Table S2*). Together, these cultivated types accounted for 188 of the 224 total samples. The remaining 36 samples included previously identified wild relatives: putatively wild *B. oleracea*, *B. cretica*, *B. incana*, *B. montana*, *B. hilarionis*, *B. insularis*, *B. macrocarpa*, *B. rupestris*, and *B. villosa*. The phylogenetic reconstruction of all 224 samples using SNPhylo (Lee et al. 2014) recovered several well-supported clades with greater than 70% bootstrap support, although overall support was generally poor (less than 70% bootstrap support), especially along the backbone. Chinese white kale, broccoli, cauliflower, romanesco, kohlrabi, curly kale, Brussels sprouts, *B. rupestris*, *B. macrocarpa*, and *B. insularis* were all recovered as monophyletic. Aside from red cabbages, cabbages were also monophyletic, but with only 55% bootstrap support. Seven cultivars (collards, tronchuda kale, savoy cabbage, perpetual kale, red cabbage, and marrow cabbage) were found throughout the tree as polyphyletic assemblages. Several wild samples were recovered within the cultivar clade, including two samples of *B. cretica* (196, 199), one sample of *B. montana* (222), and all samples of putatively wild *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177; sample names in bold text; **Fig. 1**). We also recovered a group in the cultivar clade consisting of five samples of three wild species, *B. incana* (205, 208, 209), *B. villosa* (233), and *B. cretica* (195), labeled ‘WildC-2’ (for wild samples with the C genome). Many of these “wild” samples also share most or all of their ancestry with cultivars. At  $K = 2$ , in our fastSTRUCTURE analyses (Raj et al. 2014),

samples clustered as either cultivars or wild (**Fig. 1**). We find that two samples of *B. incana* (204, 207; likely both from Crimea), which are sister to all cultivated samples, share 100% of their ancestry with cultivated types, as do two samples of *B. cretica* (196, 199), one sample of *B. montana* (222), and all three samples of putatively wild *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177). Together with the placement in the phylogeny, these analyses indicate that these are not truly wild samples, but represent feral types, defining feral here as either exoferal (a domesticated population derived from admixture with either a divergent population, a wild conspecific, another domesticated species, or another wild species) or endoferal (a population of domesticated plants that has escaped from cultivation without the aid of introgression/hybridization with wild conspecifics; Gering et al. 2019). Our newly identified WildC-2 shows mixed wild and cultivar ancestry, which was also observed for one sample of tronchuda kale (30). The marginal likelihood was maximized at  $K = 3$ , in which a cluster comprised of broccoli, cauliflower, and Chinese white kale separated from other cultivated types. At  $K = 4$ , Chinese white kale was distinct from broccoli and cauliflower. The structure in the data was best explained by  $K = 5$ , in which the clade comprised of *B. insularis* and *B. macrocarpa* was separated and had shared ancestry with *Brassica cretica* (198), *B. hilarionis*, *B. montana* (224), and one sample of tronchuda kale (30). Additional  $K$  values showed similar patterns (**SI Appendix, Fig. S2**).

Principal component analysis (PCA) also separated cultivars from most wild samples (**SI Appendix, Fig. S3D, E & F**). The PC1 axis distinguishes wild species from cultivars and the PC2 axis separates WildC-2 from all other wild species (triangles with black outlines). While one sample of *B. cretica* (198) clusters closest to cultivated types, samples of *B. incana*, which were not in WildC-2, along with one sample of *B. montana* (222), two samples of *B. cretica* (196, 199), and all three samples of *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177) cluster with the cultivars, corroborating the phylogenetic analyses. To further investigate the clustering patterns of *B. cretica* to cultivars, we included four additional wild-collected samples of two *B. cretica* subspecies (A and B = subsp. *nivea*, C and D = subsp. *cretica*; **Fig. 2A & B; SI Appendix, Fig. S3A**; labeled SRA in figure legend; Kioukis et al. 2020). Adding these samples supports the results of other studies that *B. cretica*, as a species, is very diverse. While sample C does not group with other *B. cretica* samples using the PC1 axis, the PC2, PC3, and PC4 axes show much tighter clustering among the four wild-collected samples and one of our samples of *B. cretica* (198), indicating that our *B. cretica* (198) sample is an informative representative of wild-collected *B. cretica* (**Fig. 2A & B; SI Appendix, Fig. S3A**).

For crop samples, estimates of inbreeding coefficients from PCAngsd (Meisner and Albrechtsen 2018) roughly matched expectations for the frequency of heterozygotes under Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, while inbreeding coefficients for wild species suggest excess homozygosity (**SI Appendix, Fig. S4**), possibly

reflecting cultivation practices for germplasm management and the relative isolation of wild populations (i.e. small effective population size), respectively. Feral samples, those which were identified as wild taxa, but were found more closely related to cultivars than to wild taxa in our phylogeny and clustered with cultivated samples in our PCA (*B. cretica* -196, 199; *B. incana* - 204, 207; *B. montana* -222; and wild *B. oleracea* -175, 176, 177), show patterns of heterozygosity that are similar to crop samples, as do the four samples of *B. cretica* from Kioukis et al. (2020). Our WildC-2 exhibited patterns of excess homozygosity more similar to other wild taxa.

**Domestication is also reflected in the transcriptome.** Using expression profiles (transcript abundances) of 51,438 genes for our original 224 samples, we tested if cultivars and wild samples would still cluster separately based on the transcriptome. Overall, results and clustering patterns were similar to analyses using SNPs, with the axes of PC1 and PC2 separating most wild species from cultivars (**Fig. 2C; SI Appendix, Fig. S3B & C**). We again found the same samples of *B. incana* (204, 207), *B. cretica* (196, 199), *B. montana* (222), and *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177) clustering with the cultivars, but in expression analyses WildC-2 clustered with the other wild samples, rather than separately as in our SNP based PCA. Hierarchical clustering of the expression profiles recovered similar patterns with two major groups: wild and cultivated, again with WildC-2 clustering with the other wild samples (**SI Appendix, Fig. S5**). While most cultivar groups were not recovered as unique clusters, there were a few exceptions. Brussels sprouts, Chinese white kale, and curly kale all formed distinct clades, which corresponds to what we know about their growth habit. Since RNA was collected at the 7th leaf-stage, before substantial morphological differentiation occurs between cultivars, it is not too surprising that they do not cluster distinctively by cultivar. Curly kale is almost immediately visually distinguishable from other cultivars in that the first true leaves have margins which are already undulate and/or frilled, in contrast to the more lanceolate (i.e., long, widest in the middle, with tapered tips) leaves observed in most cultivars. Brussels sprouts are also easily identifiable at this early growing stage as they have short, oblong to nearly circular leaves. While Chinese white kale leaves look more similar to the lanceolate shape of other cultivars, they grow more rapidly and plants in this group are annual instead of biennial, which may explain why these accessions cluster separately from other cultivars.

To identify modules of genes that might be driving the observed clustering patterns, we used weighted correlation network analysis (WGCNA; Langfelder and Horvath 2008). We found that 48 modules, ranging in size from 34 to 35,981, provided the best fit for the data (**SI Appendix, Table S3**). To assess what types of biological processes were overrepresented in these modules, we used syntenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* genes and performed a GO analysis through PANTHER v. 16.0 (Mi et al. 2021). Overlap of *B. oleracea* with *A. thaliana* genes ranged from 17% to 98.3%, perhaps indicating that some modules are more

conserved while others are unique to *B. oleracea*. Modules which were more conserved between the two species included genes related to herbivory defense compound production (secondary metabolite biosynthetic process, phenylpropanoid biosynthetic and metabolic processes), wound formation (suberin biosynthetic processes), and wax formation (wax biosynthetic and metabolic processes), the latter of which may be correlated to the characteristic glaucous leaves of cultivated *B. oleracea* (**SI Appendix, Table S4**). Within the top five conserved modules, the transcript abundance (TPM) was significantly different among the different groups (P-value =  $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$  for modules 7, 13, 31, & 34; P-value =  $2.19 \times 10^{-11}$  for module 30). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) revealed that transcript abundance in cultivars was significantly different compared to that of wild relatives across conserved modules, except for *B. hilarionis*, which was not recovered as significantly different from cultivars for any module. WildC-2 along with other identified feral samples had significantly different transcript abundance compared to cultivars for modules 7, 13, 31, and 34, but not for module 30. Significant differences were also found between WildC-2 and feral samples compared to wild relatives for several modules, with no obvious patterns across modules (**SI Appendix, Fig. S6; Table S5**).

**Species tree and admixture inference indicate *Brassica cretica* is the closest living wild relative.** Given the results of population clustering using both SNPs and expression profiles, we further interrogated the species level relationships between wild relatives and cultivar groups by resolving the backbone of the phylogeny. Using the PoMo model (Schrempf et al. 2016) as implemented in IQ-Tree (Nguyen et al. 2015) and only including samples representing monophyletic groups as determined in the sample-level phylogeny, we found strong support for *B. cretica* as the closest living wild relative to cultivated *B. oleracea* (**Fig. 3A**). Notably, for our species tree analyses, we included only one sample of *B. cretica* (198). This sample was used for species reconstruction due to its placement near other wild taxa in the sample level phylogeny and its clustering with wild collected *B. cretica* from Kioukis et al. (2020) in the PCA. The current distribution of *B. cretica* occurs throughout the Eastern Mediterranean, primarily in Greece, highlighting a potential origin of domestication (**Fig. 3B**). Another suggested wild relative, *B. incana*, is strongly supported as belonging to the cultivar clade, sister to lacinato kale. While our sampling is limited in regard to the distribution of *B. incana* as a whole, this result supports our other findings that *B. incana* is not a completely wild assemblage, but that at least some populations are feral. Within cultivars, several expected relationships were recovered: collards and cabbage as sister lineages (Song et al. 1988; Farnham 1996), with Brussels sprouts sister to both; cauliflower and broccoli as sister clades (Song et al. 1988; Stansell et al. 2018), with romanesco sister to both; and Chinese white kale as sister to all other cultivars, agreeing with recent literature (Cheng et al. 2016; Stansell et al. 2018).

With the overall species relationships resolved, we aimed to tease apart the evolutionary history of the wild samples that clustered within the cultivar clade. Specifically, we asked if any of the identified feral samples were the products of admixture using TreeMix (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012). While the tree model without any migration edges explained 87.3% of the variance in the dataset, sequentially adding migration events to the tree resulted in five migrations events explaining 92% of the variation (**Fig. 4A**; **SI Appendix, Fig. S7**). Adding a single migration edge resulted in an admixture event from *B. cretica* (198) to a clade of [Chinese white kale + tronchuda cabbage]. To further test this event, we used four-population ( $f_4$ ) tests for treeness as implemented in TreeMix, where a significant non-zero value indicates the presence of gene flow (Reich et al. 2009; Pickrell and Pritchard 2012; **Fig. 4B**). While the tree [[tronchuda cabbage, kohlrabi],[*B. cretica* (198), *B. hilarionis*]] showed no significant evidence of gene flow ( $f_4 = 0.0008$ ,  $Z = 1.094$ ), replacing tronchuda cabbage with Chinese white kale indicated significant gene flow from *B. cretica* (198) to Chinese white kale ( $f_4 = -0.0055$ ,  $Z = -5.113$ ). This result was further verified when adding a second migration edge, as the migration edge only included Chinese white kale, but the direction was reversed (from Chinese white kale to *B. cretica* (198)). The second event, from kohlrabi to a presumably feral sample of *B. cretica* (199), was supported by  $f_4$  tests, with the tree [[kohlrabi, *B. cretica* (196)],[*B. cretica* (199), marrow cabbage]] indicating significant evidence of gene flow from kohlrabi to *B. cretica* (199) ( $f_4 = 0.012$ ,  $Z = 10.5$ ). This migration event is also seen phenotypically, as *B. cretica* (199) has a swollen stem when grown to maturity. No significant evidence of gene flow was found when substituting *B. cretica* (199) with *B. oleracea* (175), which is not expected to be involved in the admixture event ( $f_4 = 0.00023$ ,  $Z = 2.68$ ). Two admixture events provide evidence of potential exoferal origins for at least two samples, *B. oleracea* (175) and *B. cretica* (199). The four-population tree of [[*B. montana* (222), curly kale],[*B. oleracea* (175), broccoli]] suggests significant gene flow from *B. montana* (222) to *B. oleracea* (175) ( $f_4 = 0.315$ ,  $Z = 15.77$ ), as does the tree of [[tronchuda cabbage, Chinese white kale],[*B. cretica* (199), broccoli]] for gene flow from Chinese white kale to *B. cretica* (199) ( $f_4 = -0.009$ ,  $Z = -7.98$ ). The fifth added migration edge from *B. rupestris* to WildC-2 explains the shared ancestry recovered in the fastSTRUCTURE results. The test for treeness with [[curly kale, WildC-2],[*B. rupestris*, *B. macrocarpa*]] indicated significant admixture from *B. rupestris* to WildC-2 ( $f_4 = -0.006$ ,  $Z = -6.50$ ), but was non-significant when substituting WildC-2 with cauliflower ( $f_4 = -0.0003$ ,  $Z = -0.338$ ). In general, these analyses highlight that the evolutionary history of *B. oleracea* is characterized by many admixture events and lineages of exoferal origins.

**Archaeological and literary evidence point to a late-Holocene domestication.** To further investigate the origins of domesticated *B. oleracea*, we surveyed archaeological, literary, and artistic evidence (**SI Appendix, Table S6 & S7**). The earliest reported claim of *B. oleracea* comes from an archaeological collection from the Austrian Alps. This collection comprises three seeds dated to the Middle Bronze Age

(ca. 3550-3350 years before present or BP; Schmidl and Oeggli 2005). However, the lack of illustrations and discussion of separation criteria from other *Brassica* species makes us question the reliability of this species-level identification, as seeds of *Brassica* species are difficult to tell apart. The only other find of similar antiquity is *B. oleracea* seeds from the Late Bronze Age/Early Iron Age, identified by scanning electron microscopy and radiocarbon dated directly between ca. 3250-2970 BP (Kaniewski et al. 2011). These finds are associated with destruction levels at Gibala, Tell Tweini in western Syria on the Mediterranean coast. While most of the archaeological finds are of seeds (**SI Appendix, Table S6**), there is at least one documentation of pottery residues where lipids of *Brassica* leaf waxes were identified and dated to 850-750 BP (Evershed et al. 1992; Evershed et al. 1994). The authors attribute this to the boiling of leaves of *B. oleracea*, and given the lack of evidence for other commonly eaten *Brassica* leaves in England at this time, this would appear a likely identification.

The earliest literary references to *B. oleracea* date to Greek scholars 2500-2000 BP (**SI Appendix, Table S7**). Hipponax's writing refers to a seven-leaf cabbage in an iambic verse (West 2011), while Hippocrates *On the Nature of Women*, written around 2410-2320 BP, refers to the use of cabbage, or krambe, in a few recipes (Totelin 2009). As early as 2320 BP, there is evidence for cultivar diversity. Theophrastus refers to three varieties: a curly-leaved type, a smooth-leaved type, and a wild type with a bitter taste, many branches, and many small round leaves (Yonge 1854). Pliny in his *Natural History* writing some 200 years later describes at least ten varieties in addition to those seen in the previous classical works (Pliny, the Elder and Rackham 1950). However, while most scholars accept that the Greek or Latin translations of 'cabbage' refer to *B. oleracea*, it is important to note that 'cabbage' is not a Greek word and that the word 'raphanos' is translated as both cabbage and *B. cretica* in the Greek-English Lexicon (Liddell and Scott 1940) and in Hort's (1916) translation of Theophrastus' *Historia Plantarum*. Certainly, there are differences between the subspecies of *B. cretica* that might be reflective of the varieties described by Theophrastus and Pliny, and which may explain the diversity we observed among *B. cretica* samples in our PCA results. Further, the description by Nicander (quoted by Athenaeus; Yonge 1854; p. 582) indicates that wild or perhaps feral forms of *B. cretica* were known in Ionia, the western coast of present-day Turkey, ca. 2150-2050 BP.

**Late-Holocene environmental niche modeling highlights wild relatives' ranges.** Based on archaeological information, the oldest relatively reliable occurrence for *B. oleracea* cultivation is dated 3250-2970 BP in Gibala NW Syria (Kaniewski et al. 2011). To predict what would be a suitable habitat for the wild relatives during the late-Holocene, we compiled occurrence records from GBIF ([www.gbif.org](http://www.gbif.org)) and (Snogerup et al. 1990), along with environmental data, to perform environmental niche modeling using MaxEnt 3.4.1 (Phillips et al. 2017). Notably, we find that *B. cretica* has an expanded Eastern Mediterranean

habitat suitability (**Fig. 3C**) that includes Cyprus. Presently, only *B. hilarionis* is known to occur in Cyprus (**Fig. 3B**), however modeling predicts that in the late-Holocene it would have had an expanded habitat suitability in the surrounding mainland coastal regions (**Fig. 3D**). Since most of these wild species are narrow island endemics (Snogerup et al. 1990), species are generally estimated to have little change from current day distributions (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8 and Table S8*).

## DISCUSSION

**Multiple lines of evidence support a single Eastern Mediterranean origin.** Our evidence from genome-scale, multilocus data along with archeology, literature, and environmental niche modeling best supports a single Eastern Mediterranean domestication origin for *B. oleracea*, corroborating the conclusions of (Maggioni et al. 2018) based on literary sources and (Maggioni et al. 2010) using linguistics. When modeling phylogeny and population structure, two Eastern Mediterranean species, *B. cretica* and *B. hilarionis*, are found as sister species to cultivars and are assigned ancestry from all cultivar populations for values of K from 2 to 5 (**Fig. 1**), consistent with these species being likely progenitor species of *B. oleracea* cultivars. In our species tree reconstructions, we find just *B. cretica* as sister to all cultivars, specifically sample 198, which clusters with wild-collected *B. cretica* samples from Kioukis et al. (2020) in our PCA (**Fig. 2A-B**), lending further support for *B. cretica* as the progenitor species. This same sample of *B. cretica* (198) as well as our sample of *B. hilarionis* are recovered as fairly homozygous, therefore they would likely be good starting material for future research related to *de novo* domestication via selective breeding or gene editing.

While we do recover evidence of admixture between *B. cretica* (198) and both wild and cultivated taxa, the placement of *B. cretica* (198) as the closest living wild relative does not change. However, an inferred admixture event from *B. cretica* (198) to *B. hilarionis* does result in a topological change in the placement of *B. hilarionis* as sister to *B. montana* (224; originally collected in Spain) (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7*). This novel relationship has not been identified before and warrants additional study with greater taxon sampling. The second migration event involving *B. cretica* (198) is from Chinese white kale. This event lends further evidence of admixture with wild germplasm during the domestication process, consistent with other examples demonstrating that domestication is not a single event, but a series of events characterized by continuous gene flow between wild and cultivated populations (Beebe et al. 1997; Wang et al. 2017). Together with the phylogeographic discontinuity of wild *B. oleracea* samples and their Eastern Mediterranean progenitors (**Fig. 3B**), the more distant phylogenetic placement of *B. insularis*, *B. macrocarpa*, and *B. villosa* (**Fig. 3A**), and strong patterns of shared ancestry between *B. incana* and

cultivars (**Fig. 1**), these results lead us to support the hypothesis of domestication in the Eastern Mediterranean with *B. cretica* as the closest living wild relative.

**The role of ferality in the domestication of *Brassica oleracea*.** Multiple lines of evidence highlight the role of wild and feral populations as pools of diversity that contributed to crop diversification during domestication (Beebe et al. 1997; Allaby 2010; Fuller et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2017). Our data supports a similar phenomenon in the domestication of *B. oleracea*: it appears that introgression from wild or feral populations contributed to the genetic composition of particular crops, and vice versa, which is revealed by in-depth analyses of admixture using population structure and tree-based methods (**Fig. 1; Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S2 & S7**). Several samples of wild relatives, including *B. cretica*, as well as wild *B. oleracea*, *B. incana*, *B. montana*, and *B. villosa*, are recovered as feral in all analyses.

While we find one sample of *B. cretica* (198) as the closest living wild relative, we also identify two samples of *B. cretica* (196 and 199) are likely feral and fall within the cultivar clade (**Fig. 1; see SI Appendix, Fig. S9 for photos**). Interestingly, Song et al. (1988) also recovered a polyphyletic *B. cretica* using RFLPs. Results presented here support previous findings that *B. cretica* was at one point at least partially domesticated. Snogerup et al. (1990) state that wild *B. cretica* was consumed as late as 1962 and, as noted in our literary results, some early references to *B. oleracea* in the literature could be translated as *B. cretica*, meaning the vast amount of described morphology in these works, which may be the result of cultivation, could now be reflected in the multiple named subspecies and described genetic diversity of modern *B. cretica* (Snogerup et al. 1990; Widén et al. 2002; Allender et al. 2007; Edh et al. 2007). Further, *B. cretica* was known to occur in Ionia (western coast of present day Turkey) ca. 2150-2050 BP and the evidence of *B. cretica* populations today in Lebanon, which are morphologically similar to *B. cretica* subsp. *nivea*, suggests widespread trade of these species by the earliest Mediterranean civilizations (Dixon 2006). However, these plants may have been introduced into these localities without cultivation as was proposed by Snogerup et al. (1990). Previous researchers have noted that *B. cretica* populations are typically found in coastal locations associated with ancient seaports, occupying their preferred ecological niche on chalk cliffs undisturbed by grazing (Mitchell 1976; Snogerup et al. 1990). We believe that these early forms of *B. cretica* may have played underappreciated roles in the domestication of *B. oleracea* crops and to fully understand the evolutionary history of *B. oleracea*, the demographic history and domestication story of *B. cretica* must be resolved.

Sources have hypothesized that wild populations of *B. oleracea* in England are the progenitor(s) for modern cultivars (Snogerup et al. 1990; Song et al. 1990), while others have proposed that these are escaped



cultivars (Mitchell 1976; Mitchell and Richards 1979). Consistent with these hypotheses, we find that the three wild *B. oleracea* samples in our study cluster with cultivars both phylogenetically and in PCA for both SNP data and expression profiles. Although these samples are from Canada (175), Denmark (176), and Germany (177), well outside the natural distribution range for *B. oleracea* - notably not from England, one of the hypothesized geographic origins - we suggest that an origin in England is unlikely given the archeological and literary data. Although the oldest archaeobotanical record for *B. oleracea* (Middle Bronze Age; ca. 3550 -3350 BP) is from Austria, we regard this evidence with caution as wild populations of *B. oleracea* are not presently found in Austria and the major *Brassica* crops in this region include *B. nigra* (Tutin 1964) or potentially cultivated turnip (*B. rapa*). Additionally, there is no compelling archaeological evidence to suggest the possible cultivation of cabbages in Europe prior to the Late Iron Age (2350-2050 BP) and Roman periods (1950-1650 BP), but there is evidence for knowledge of *B. oleracea* in Greece during this time (Maggioni et al. 2018; **SI Appendix, Tables S6 and S7**). Overall, there are no records for *B. oleracea* from before this period within databases relating to the Eastern Mediterranean (Reihl 2014), Europe (Kroll 2001; Kroll 2005), Britain (Tomlinson and Hall 1996), the Czech Republic (Kreuz and Schäfer 2002), or within pre-dynastic and Pharaonic Egypt (Murray 2000), despite having documentation for other *Brassica* species. Evidence for *B. oleracea* in Europe does not start appearing until ca. 1850 BP, when the appearance of seeds increased and can be attributed to the spread of crops both within and on the periphery of the Roman Empire (Van der Veen 2011). Additionally, several studies that sampled wild *B. oleracea* populations in the British Isles (Mitchell 1976; Mitchell and Richards 1979), South West England (Raybould et al. 1999), Atlantic coasts of western Europe (Mittell et al. 2020), and Atlantic coast of France (Maggioni et al. 2020) support that these wild *B. oleracea* populations are feral populations, typically with low levels of genetic diversity and some degree of isolation from other populations. Lanner-Herrera et al. (1996) sampled populations across Spain, France, and Great Britain, concluding that each population evolved independently, while more recently Mittell et al. (2020) found that geographically close populations were more genetically different than distant populations. Our results provide additional evidence that feralization is commonplace for *B. oleracea* crops and that references to wild *B. oleracea* likely represent multiple, independent feralization events. Additional sampling of wild populations will enable opportunities to further investigate the relationships among these feral populations and cultivated crops.

*Brassica incana*, another suggested progenitor species (Snogerup 1980), is also supported as feral for the samples included in our analyses. Two of our five samples (204 and 207) are recovered as sister to all cultivars in our individual level phylogeny but are found to share 100% of their ancestry with cultivars rather than other wild taxa using fastSTRUCTURE when  $K = 2$  (**Fig. 1**). Further, these two samples were

resolved as sister to lacinato kale in our species tree analysis, providing additional evidence that these samples represent a feral lineage, possibly of lacinato kale. This result may lend insight into why previous studies have found *B. incana* as sister to *B. oleracea* (Lázaro and Aguinagalde 1998; Mei et al. 2010; Arias and Pires 2012) and the observation by Snogerup et al. (1990) that samples of *B. incana* from the Crimea are more interfertile with cultivated *B. oleracea* than others. Although Snogerup et al. (1990) suggested that *B. incana* was more interfertile due to historical introgression, we do not find evidence for this for samples 204 and 207. However, the three other samples of *B. incana* (205, 208, 209), which belong to WildC-2, do show evidence of admixture with *B. rupestris*, likely explaining their clustering together both in the PCAs and phylogeny with *B. cretica* (195) and *B. villosa* (233) which also show admixture with *B. rupestris* (see **SI Appendix, Fig. S10 for photos**). All three *B. incana* were collected in Italy from two locations and therefore do not well represent the known *B. incana* range (**Fig. 3B**), while the two other samples found in this clade, *B. cretica* (195) and *B. villosa* (233), were collected in Greece and Italy, respectively. While all five WildC-2 samples share an introgression event from *B. rupestris* (**Fig. 1; Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Fig. S7**), they are from different germplasm collections (IPK-gatersleben and USDA National Plant Germplasm System), ruling out the inferred migration being the result of current cultivation practices. It is possible that at least three of these samples (*B. incana* 205, 208, 209) are related to the wild kale of Crimea, which is posited as a *B. rupestris*–*incana* hybrid that was transferred to the Crimea via trade (Dixon 2006). This suggests that there was early widespread cultivation of these *B. rupestris*–*incana* types (Dixon 2006) and provides a plausible explanation for why *B. incana* and *B. rupestris* are closely related in previous studies (Lannér et al. 1997; Mei et al. 2010). The other two samples in WildC-2 (*B. cretica* 195 and *B. villosa* 233), possibly represent misidentifications, which is supported by their intermediate phenotypes (i.e., *B. rupestris* margins with varying amounts of trichomes; **SI Appendix, Fig. S10**).

The last feral identification is that of *B. montana*, for which we find one sample as more closely related to wild taxa (224) and one more closely related to cultivars (222). The feral sample (222) is of unknown origin, but again the literature indicates that this may not be a surprising result. Many studies have previously indicated a close relationship between *B. montana* and *B. oleracea*. For example, Panda et al. (2003) concluded that *B. montana* may be a subspecies of *B. oleracea*, while Lannér et al. (1997) found that *B. montana* and *B. oleracea* clustered together using chloroplast data. Furthermore, several authors have suggested that some populations of *B. montana* were feral *B. oleracea* (Paolucci 1890; Onno 1933; Snogerup et al. 1990), which may be reflected in the overlapping ranges produced by our niche modeling of these two species (**SI Appendix, Fig. S8**). Therefore, in combination with results from previous studies, our results support that at least some *B. montana* populations are of feral origin.

Taken together, it is clear that the current taxonomy of *B. oleracea* and its wild relatives is confounded by gene flow between wild and cultivated populations, resulting in confusion between wild and feral lineages and obscuring the true evolutionary history of this species. Additionally, while there is much interest in crop improvement using CWRs (Meyer et al. 2012; Khoury et al. 2020), feral lineages offer another, potentially more direct route to reintroducing genetic diversity into cultivated populations, as gene flow is less likely to be impeded by barriers such as reproductive isolation (Mabry et al. 2021). These feral populations may also provide additional avenues to explore the evolutionary capacity for range expansion and phenotypic plasticity.

**Post-domestication cultivar relationships.** While our knowledge of the spread and diversification of *B. oleracea* crops after domestication is confounded by both the difficulties of identifying seeds of individual crop types and frequent introgression between crop types, we can infer some patterns using the species phylogeny. Like other studies (Cheng et al. 2016; Stansell et al. 2018), we find Chinese white kale sister to all other cultivars, representing the only Asian clade of crop types (**Fig. 3A**). While the spread of *B. oleracea* to eastern Asia is still undocumented archaeologically, recent pollen analysis has provided evidence for cultivation of other *Brassica* species, including *B. rapa*, in the Yangtze valley 3250 - 3350 BP, likely corresponding to movement across “Silk Road” trade routes (Zhang 2009). However, this only provides identification criteria, not archaeological evidence (Yang et al. 2018). A review of Chinese historical sources concluded that *B. oleracea* may have been introduced to China 1450 -1350 BP and had evolved into Chinese white kale in Southern China by the period of the Tang Dynasty (1350 - 1250 BP; Zhang 2009). Due to its position as sister to all other cultivars and as the only Asian *B. oleracea* crop type, as well as its annual growth habit, this taxon warrants additional study to understand its own unique domestication story.

The dispersal of *B. oleracea* by human translocation westward, ultimately to the Atlantic coast of Europe, appears to have established both regional feral populations and the variety of modern crop types. Archaeological evidence suggests that this process may have begun with Late Bronze Age seafaring (3000-3300 years ago), when the whole Mediterranean became linked in trade perhaps for the first time (Broodbank 2015), and continued to provide a corridor for introgression and varietal diversification through the Iron Age (up to 2000 years ago). Trade links along the Atlantic seaboard from North Africa and Iberia through Britain and Ireland are clearly indicated in archaeology (Cunliffe 2004), and are associated with the first peopling of the Canary Islands from the north, where walking stick kale is endemic. Notably, many cultivars do not form monophyletic groups in our sample level phylogeny, likely indicative of admixture between crop types. This is supported by previous findings that broccoli is paraphyletic (Song et al. 1988;

Stansell et al. 2018), as well as collards (Pelc et al. 2015), and by our findings that kale types such as tronchuda kale and perpetual kale are highly polyphyletic, suggesting that the kale morphotype has been selected for multiple times independently.

In conclusion, we confirm a single Eastern Mediterranean origin for *B. oleracea* and find *B. cretica* as the closest living wild relative. We highlight several feral samples that are not reflected by the current taxonomy but likely reflect important aspects of the domestication history for *B. oleracea*. Moving forward, it will be important to identify, collect, study, and preserve these feral samples as pools of allelic diversity, which may play an important role in future crop improvement, e.g. as a source of potential pest and pathogen resistance (Mithen et al. 1987; Mithen and Magrath 1992; Mohammed et al. 2010). In clarifying the evolutionary history of *B. oleracea* and its wild relatives, we hope to enable this model system for additional studies on evolutionary phenomena such as parallel selection, polyploidy, and ferality. Additionally, since many of these wild species are very narrow endemics and are valuable for both crop improvement and for nature conservation, their identification and preservation is urgent. We hope this study can serve as a steppingstone, as the work before us has, for those who, like Darwin was, are intrigued by this group of plants and wish to further its study.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Taxon sampling.** Samples from cultivars accounted for 188 of the 224 total samples with the remaining 36 samples included being previously identified wild relatives (*SI Appendix, Table S2*). These include accessions from the United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service (USDA-ARS) Plant Genetic Resources Unit (PGRU; 114 accessions), The Leibniz Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research (IPK; 71 accessions), Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (UPM; 4 accessions), The Nordic Genetic Resource Centre (NordGen; 2 accessions), Gomez Campo Collection (2 accessions), John Innes Center (1 accession), doubled haploid lines (17 samples, some accessions sampled twice), or from the Pires' personal collection (13 accessions). Four replicates of each accession were grown from seed in a sterile growth chamber at the University of Missouri (MU; Columbia, MO) Bond Life Sciences Center in a randomized complete block design across two independent outgrowths. At the seventh leaf stage, leaf four was collected from each plant and immediately flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for RNA extraction. Morphotype identity was validated in mature plants by growing all accessions twice over the span of two years (*SI Appendix, Table S2*).

Whole-genome resequencing data for an additional four samples from Kioukis et al. (2020) of two varieties of *B. cretica* (var. *cretica* and var. *nivea*) was downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology

Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) to supplement our sampling of *B. cretica*. These samples are under the SRA accession as follows: A = SRR9331103, B = SRR9331104, C = SRR9331105, and D = SRR9331106). Samples of A and B are *B. cretica* var. *nivea* from mainland Greece and C and D are *B. cretica* var. *cretica*, one from the mainland (C) and one from the island of Crete (D).

**RNA isolation and sequencing.** RNA was isolated using the ThermoFisher Invitrogen PureLink RNA mini kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) followed by TruSeq library preparation (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) and sequencing on the NextSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) for 2 X 75 bp reads. Library preparation and sequencing were performed through the MU DNA Core Facility. For eight flow cells, 24 samples were multiplexed and sequenced in a single flow-cell, followed by a ninth flow cell with 17 samples, and a tenth flow-cell with 16 samples.

**Mapping and SNP calling.** Short reads were mapped to the *B. oleracea* TO1000 genome (Chinese white kale; Parkin et al. 2014; release-41) by first using the STAR v. 2.5.2 (Dobin et al. 2013) two-pass alignment to identify splice junctions, which were then used in the second pass to improve mapping (Engström et al. 2013). The TO1000 genome of Chinese white kale was chosen due to wild relatives having a more kale-like phenotype and its placement as sister to the other cultivars in recent studies (Cheng et al. 2016; Stansell et al. 2018). Mapped reads (BAM format) were then processed following the GATK v. 3.8 best practices for RNA-seq reads (McKenna et al. 2010; Van der Auwera et al. 2013; Poplin et al. 2017). To ensure that reads were mapping correctly, the GATK ‘Split’N’Trim’ function was used to split reads into exon segments and trim any overhanging reads in intron segments. In total, 7,564,168 variants were called before any filtering was performed. The resulting variants were filtered to exclude those with a Fisher strand (FS) value greater than 30 and quality depth (QD) less than 2.0. The remaining 879,865 chromosomal variants were then filtered using vcftools v. 0.1.17 (Danecek et al. 2011) to exclude sites with greater than 60% missing data (`--max-missing 0.4`), sites with mean sample depth values less than 5 (`--min-meanDP 5`), and indels (`--remove-indels`;) resulting in a total of 103,525 SNPs. Finally, SNPs were filtered for linkage disequilibrium (LD) using PLINK v. 1.90 with a window size of 80 Kb, or about two times the estimated length for 80% LD decay (Cheng et al. 2016), a step size of 5 kb, and a variance inflation factor of 2 (`--indep 80kb 5 2`; Purcell et al. 2007), for a final dataset of 36,750 SNPs. The four *B. cretica* genome resequencing samples (Kioukis et al. 2020) were also mapped to the *B. oleracea* TO1000 genome (Chinese white kale; Parkin et al. 2014; release-41), using BWA (Li and Durbin 2009).

**Phylogenetic and Introgression Inference.** To test how the different populations are related to one another and which wild relative is most closely related to the cultivated types, we used three different phylogenetic

programs; SNPhylo v. 20160204 (Lee et al. 2014) to assess individual sample relationships, IQ-Tree v. 1.6 (Nguyen et al. 2015) to test species level relationships, and TreeMix v. 1.13 (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012) to assess introgression. For SNPhylo (Lee et al. 2014), we ran analyses using an  $r^2$  cutoff of 0.1 for LD, minor allele frequency  $\geq 0.01$ , proportion of missing sites  $\leq 0.4$ , 1000 bootstrap replicates, and rooted with sample 238 (*B. villosa*). For IQ-Tree, we used the Polymorphism-aware phylogenetic Models (PoMo) software (Schrempf et al. 2016; *-m GTR+P*) to perform phylogenetic comparisons using population genetic data, using 1000 bootstrap replicates via the ultrafast bootstrap approximation method (Hoang et al. 2018) and *B. villosa* to root the tree. For our IQ-Tree analysis, we subsampled data to include only those samples which were recovered as monophyletic in our SNPhylo tree (**SI Appendix, Table S2; samples with asterisks**). To test both the topology of relationships and for gene flow between populations, we used TreeMix with the following parameters: no sample size correction (*-noss*), rooted with *B. villosa* (*-root villosa*), bootstrapping over blocks of 500 SNPs (*-bootstrap -k 500*), and to incorporate between 2-10 migration events (*-m*). TreeMix (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012) was run with samples of *B. cretica*, *B. incana*, *B. montana*, and *B. oleracea* as individuals, but used samples found in WildC-2, cultivars, and wild relatives as populations. Four-population ( $f_4$ ) tests for treeness (Reich et al. 2009; Pickrell and Pritchard 2012) were used to test the support of the inferred migration edges from Treemix (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012) via the fourpop method.

**Population Structure and Variation.** To test ancestry proportions and identify the likely genetic structure of described populations we used fastSTRUCTURE v. 1.0 (Raj et al. 2014). We tested K values from 2 to 8 using default convergence criteria and priors followed by the *chooseK.py* script to determine the appropriate number of model components that best explain structure in the dataset.

ANGSD v. 0.925 (Korneliussen et al. 2014) was used to calculate genotype likelihoods for all samples, plus the four additional *B. cretica* samples from Kioukis et al. (2020), using the parameters *-doGlf 2 -doMajorMinor 1 -doMaf 2 -minMapQ 30 -SNP\_pval 1e-6*, followed by analysis with PCAngsd v. 0.97 (Meisner and Albrechtsen 2018) to visualize population structure, estimate allele frequencies, and calculate individual inbreeding coefficients using the parameters *-admixture -selection 1 -inbreed 2*.

**Clustering based on Expression Profiles.** First, Salmon v. 1.2.1 (Patro et al. 2015) was used to acquire transcript abundances for each sample and the estimated number of reads originating from transcripts. The input for expression profile analysis was prepared using tximport (Soneson et al. 2015) with design = ~plantout + cultivar type. Correction for library size (*estimateSizeFactors*) and variance-stabilizing transformation (*vst*) was performed in DESeq2 v. 1.28.1 (Love et al. 2014). To test for clustering based on

expression profiles, we ran a PCA on the normalized expression values and performed clustering based on Euclidean distance using the ‘prcomp’ and ‘hclust’ functions, respectively, in the ‘stats’ v. 3.6.2 package for R v. 3.6.0 (R Core Team 2018). To assess networks of genes driving differences observed in the PCA, we used WGCNA v. 1.68 (Langfelder and Horvath 2008). Following (Zhang and Horvath 2005), we found that a soft-thresholding power of nine was best as it was the lowest power that satisfied the approximate scale-free topology criterion, resulting in 48 modules of genes.

To determine biological processes which were overrepresented in the resulting modules, *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs of *B. oleracea* were determined using both synteny and BLAST. Synteny-based annotations were extracted from Table S7 in (Parkin et al. 2014) while the BLAST annotation was performed using blastn in BLAST v. 2.10.0+ (Camacho et al. 2009). The *B. oleracea* CDS database was downloaded from [https://plants.ensembl.org/Brassica\\_oleracea/Info/Index](https://plants.ensembl.org/Brassica_oleracea/Info/Index), and the *A. thaliana* CDS database from Araport11\_genes.201606.cds.fasta from <https://www.arabidopsis.org/>. The blastn parameters were *-evalue 1E-6 -max\_target\_seqs 1*. Genes determined using synteny were then used to perform a GO analysis through PANTHER v. 16.0 (Mi et al. 2021). ANOVAs were used to test for differences in transcript abundance among cultivars, ferals (including WildC-2), and wild relatives by using the ‘aov’ function in R v. 3.6.0 (R Core Team 2018) followed by multiple comparisons with Tukey’s HSD using the function ‘glht’.

**Environmental niche modeling.** We compiled occurrence records for wild relatives from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF, [www.gbif.org](http://www.gbif.org)) data portal and data from (Snogerup et al. 1990). From the GBIF data, we omitted records that were duplicated, lacked location data and/or vouchers, were collected from the grounds of botanical gardens, and that were clearly outside of the native range. From the Snogerup et al. (1990) data, we omitted records that could not be georeferenced to <5km spatial uncertainty. Populations of *B. cretica* in Lebanon and Israel and of *B. incana* in Crimea are thought to be likely early human introductions (Snogerup et al. 1990) and records from these areas were omitted. Occurrences above 1200m altitude were also omitted, as these species rarely occur above 1000m and observations above these altitudes may represent anthropogenic dispersals to disturbed areas or misidentifications. To minimize sampling bias due to clustered observations (Beck et al. 2014; Boria et al. 2014), we thinned the filtered occurrences to records greater than or equal to 10km apart using the ‘spThin’ package in R (Aiello-Lammens et al. 2015). After filtering and thinning, 172 records remained for *B. cretica*, 65 for *B. incana*, 57 for *B. insularis*, 101 *B. montana*, 15 for *B. villosa*, and 7 and 6 for the narrow endemics *B. macrocarpa* and *B. hilarionis* respectively. Next, we obtained rasters for 19 bioclimatic variables at 2.5 minutes resolution based on contemporary climate data from WorldClim v. 2.0 (Fick and Hijmans 2017) and rasters

for 19 bioclimatic variables at 2.5 minutes resolution based on late-Holocene climate projections using data derived from PaleoClim (Fordham et al. 2017; Brown et al. 2018). Rasters were clipped using QGIS v. 3.8.3 (Open Source Geospatial Foundation Project) to constrain the geographical background to windows slightly larger than the area circumscribed by contemporary observational data (Phillips et al. 2009; Acevedo et al. 2012). While it is common practice to eliminate collinear environmental variables to avoid overfitting (Braunisch et al. 2013), recent simulations have shown that removing highly collinear variables has an insignificant impact on maximum entropy model performance (Feng et al. 2019) so all original variables were included. Projections for late-Holocene habitat suitability were generated using MaxEnt v. 3.4.1 (Phillips et al. 2017). Linear, quadratic, product, and hinge features and jackknife resampling were used to measure variable importance. Relative model performance was evaluated with the adjusted area under receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC; DeLong et al. 1988). While optimal performance cannot be determined with this approach using presence-only data, relative performance can still be assessed (Phillips et al. 2006).

## DATA AVAILABILITY

The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the Sequence Read Archive database (accession no. PRJNA544934; <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA544934>). The resulting transcript abundances and VCF file are deposited at DRYAD (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.5mkkwh763>). Scripts used can be found on github (<https://github.com/mmabry/Brassica-oleracea-Population-and-Phylogenetics>).

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MEM, SDTH, ACM, HA, PPE, JDM, DACP, GRT, CJS, GB, JL, DQF, TB, RGA, JED, MAG, and JCP designed the project. MEM, EYG, HA, and SDTH grew plants and collected tissue. MEM and EYG extracted and isolated RNA. MEM analyzed the genetic data. ACM produced the species distribution models. CS, DQF, and RGA researched archeology and written data. SDTH, HA, and JED assisted with processing and analyzing the data. MEM wrote the original manuscript. SDTH, ACM, HA, PPE, JDM, DACP, GRT, CJS, GB, JL, DQF, TB, RGA, JED, MAG, and JCP provided critical feedback on manuscript drafts.

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## TABLE LEGENDS

**Table 1.** Wild species which have been proposed as progenitor species for *B. oleracea* crop types. Specific location is included in parentheses if indicated by the author. *Brassica oleracea* sometimes referred to as *B. oleracea* var. *sylvestris*.

## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1: Demographics and population structure for 224 samples of cultivated *Brassica oleracea* (n=188) and wild C genome species (n = 36).** (Left) Individual sample phylogeny with putatively wild samples labeled in bold and black dots indicating bootstrap values less than 70%. (Middle) Ancestry proportions for K = 2 to K = 5 as inferred from fastSTRUCTURE; K=3 maximizes marginal likelihood (+) and K=5 best explains structure in the data (++). (Right) Monophyletic clades indicated by a solid line, largest cluster of paraphyletic groups indicated by dashed lined. Illustrations of corresponding crop types by Andi Kur.

**Figure 2: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of SNPs and expression profiles.** A) Genetic variation PCA of PC1 vs PC2, B) Genetic variation PC2 vs PC3, and C) Expression profile PCA for PC1 vs PC2 of wild and cultivar samples. Triangles = wild samples, circles = cultivars. Triangles with black outlines = WildC-2 samples with species identification indicated by color. Wild-collected *B. cretica* samples from (Kioukis et al. 2020) indicated by asterisks, labeled as SRA.

**Figure 3:** Species tree with current distribution and historical environmental niche modeling. A) Species tree of wild and cultivar samples. Bootstrap support indicated above branches. B) Current species distribution of wild relatives. C) Suitable habitat for *B. cretica* and D) *B. hilarionis* during the late-Holocene. Map provided by Elizabeth Gjieli, the Geographical Information Manager at the New York Botanical Garden GIS Laboratory.

**Figure 4:** Inferred Admixture events. A) Phylogeny five migrations labeled a-f. B) Corresponding four-population tests for treeness.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

**Table S1:** *Brassica oleracea* crop types with common name, species name, Kew cultivar group, other used names, and phenotypic descriptions modified from <sup>1</sup>Bailey (1922) or <sup>2</sup><http://www.missouribotanicalgarden.org/> (last accessed 5/18/21). Illustrations by Andi Kur.

**Table S2:** Sample information with species, variety, cultivar, germplasm, accession, sample #, location of original collection (year collected), and SRA #. Asterisks (\*) next to sample # indicate those samples that

were recovered as monophyletic and used in species tree reconstruction. USDA-ARS PGRU = United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service, Plant Genetic Resources Unit, IPK = The Leibniz Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, UPM = Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, NordGen = The Nordic Genetic Resource Centre, GC = Gomez Campo Collection, Innes = John Innes Center, DH = doubled haploid lines, Pires = J.C. Pires personal collection.

**Table S3:** WGCNA predicted gene modules with number of genes in each module, the number of annotated *Arabidopsis thaliana* genes using blast and synteny, and the percent of syntenic genes represented in the module. Module number with asterisks (\*) represent the five modules with the largest percent of syntenic genes in the module.

**Table S4:** Top five WGCNA modules with largest percent of syntenic genes represented in the module with corresponding annotated GO biological process with the largest fold enrichment, and p-value.

**Table S5:** P-value results from ANOVA tests for differences in transcriptome abundance (Transcripts Per Million; TPM) between wild relatives, feral samples, and cultivars with Post-hoc Tukey Tests for top five WGCNA modules with largest syntenic overlap with *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Feral = *B. cretica* (196, 199); *B. incana* (204, 207); *B. montana* (222); and wild *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177) + WildC-2 (*B. incana* - 205, 208, 209; *B. villosa* - 233, and *B. cretica* - 195). Significance indicated as \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.01, \*\*\* < 0.001.

**Table S6:** Archaeological *Brassica* reports from Europe and the Eastern Mediterranean.

**Table S7:** Literary and artistic sources covering the Classical Greek, Roman, and medieval and post-medieval sources.

**Table S8:** Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) values for Maxent environmental niche model runs for putative wild relatives of *Brassica oleracea* crops.

**Figure S1:** Mapping percentage of unique reads for **A)** wild and cultivated samples, **B)** cultivar groups, and **C)** sequencing lane.

**Figure S2:** Demographics and population structure for 224 samples of cultivated *Brassica oleracea* (n=188) and wild C genome species (n = 36). (Left) Individual sample phylogeny with putatively wild samples labeled in bold and black dots indicating bootstrap values less than 70%. (Middle) Ancestry proportions for K = 2 to K = 8 as inferred from fastSTRUCTURE; K=3 maximizes marginal likelihood (+) and K=5 best explains structure in the data (++). (Right) Monophyletic clades indicated by a solid line, largest cluster of paraphyletic groups indicated by dashed lined. Illustrations of corresponding crop types by Andi Kur.

**Figure S3:** PCAs of SNPs and Expression profiles. **A)** Genetic variation PCA of PC3 vs PC4, **B)** Expression profile PCA for PC2 vs PC3, and **C)** Expression profile PCA for PC3 vs PC4 of wild and cultivar samples. **D - F)** PCAs of Genetic variation without *B. cretica* samples from (SRA; Kioukis et al. 2020). Triangles = wild samples, circles = cultivars. Triangles with black outlines = WildC-2 samples with species identification indicated by color. Wild-collected *B. cretica* samples from (Kioukis et al. 2020) indicated by asterisks, labeled as SRA.

**Figure S4:** Inbreeding coefficients for wild, cultivar, and feral samples. Wild-collected *B. cretica* samples from (Kioukis et al. 2020) indicated by asterisks.

**Figure S5:** *Brassica oleracea* cultivars and wild relative dendrogram based on expression profiles. Wild species indicated by color below. Cultivars in grey below. WildC-2 indicated by black outlines for the corresponding bar chart below. Sample names in bold = putatively wild samples.

**Figure S6:** Comparisons of Transcript abundance between wild relatives, ferals, cultivars for top 5 conserved modules between *Brassica oleracea* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*. **A)** module 7, **B)** module 13, **C)** module 30, **D)** module 31, **E)** module 34.

**Figure S7:** TreeMix analysis of wild, cultivar, and feral samples. **A-F)** Phylogeny with 0-5 migrations indicated.

**Figure S8:** The current wild relatives distribution and modeled late-Holocene suitable habitat. Middle - current species distribution of wild relatives. Suitable habitat for **A)** *B. montana*, **B)** *B. insularis*, **C)** *B. macrocarpa*, **D)** *B. rupestris*, **E)** *B. villosa*, **F)** *B. incana*, and **G)** *B. oleracea*, during the late-Holocene

**Figure S9:** Leaf scans of feral samples. Leaf used for RNA collection with biological replicate indicated.

**Figure S10:** Leaf scans of WildC-2 samples. Leaf used for RNA collection with biological replicates indicated.

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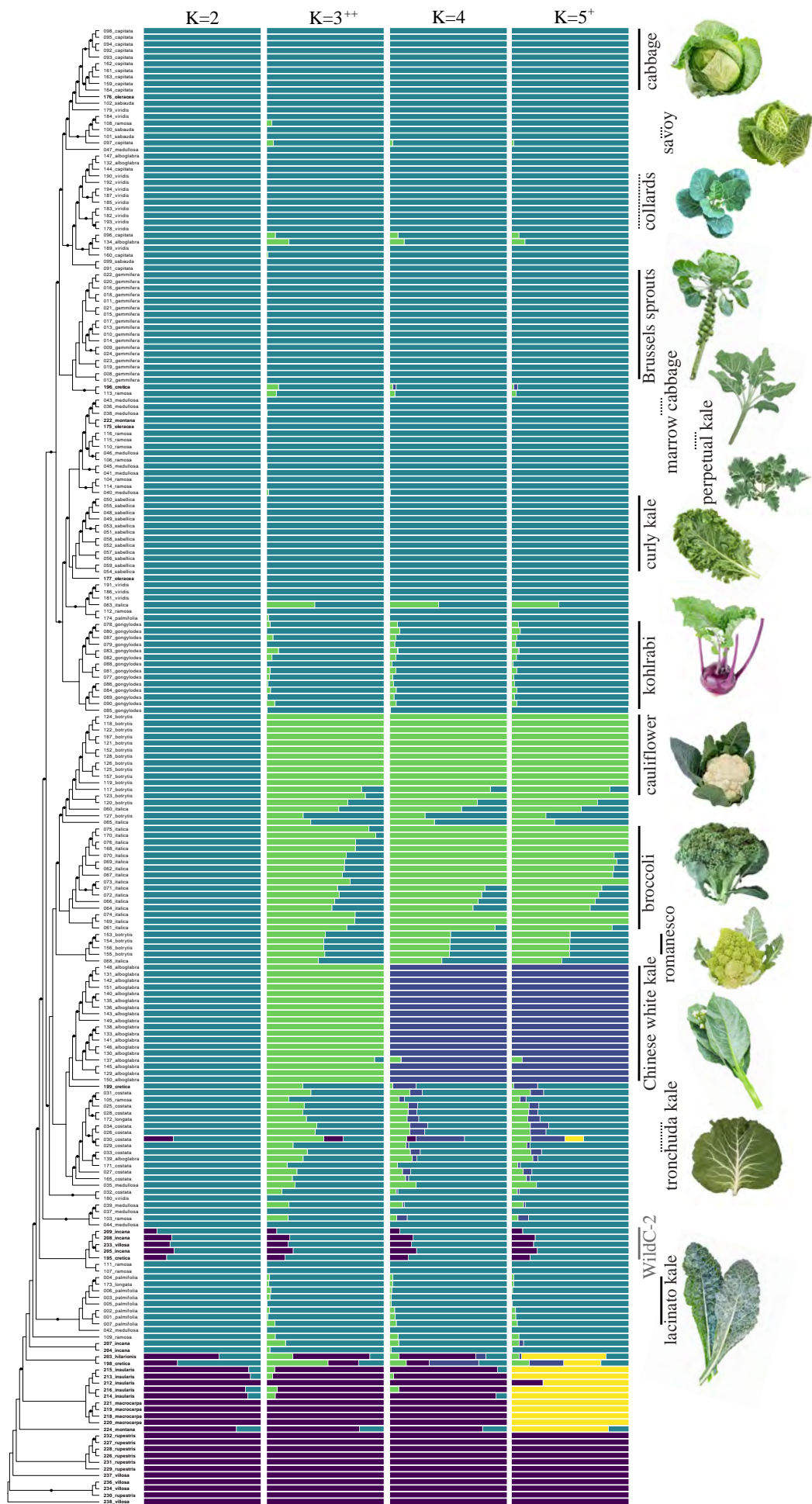
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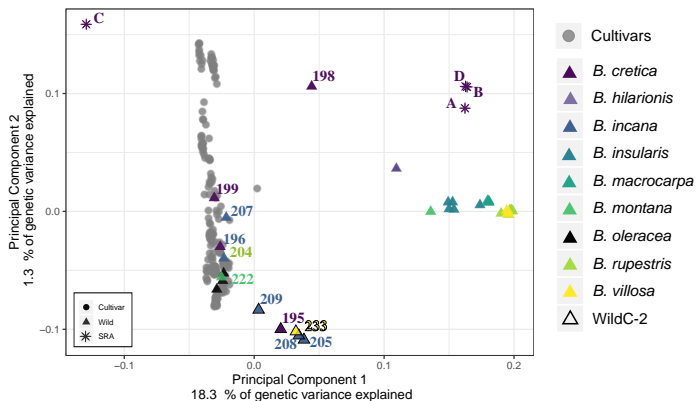
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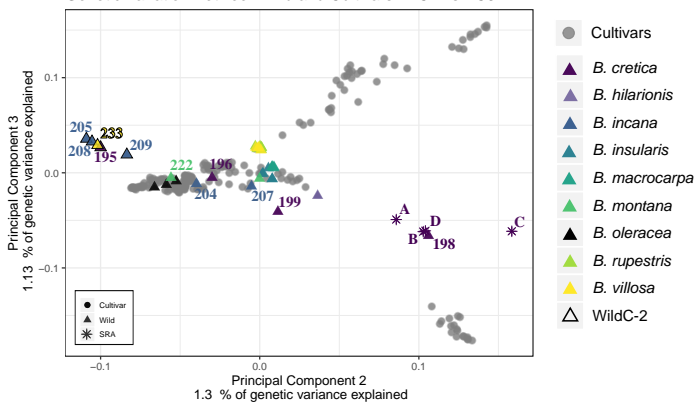
**A.**

Genetic Variation Between Wild and Cultivars : PC1 vs PC2



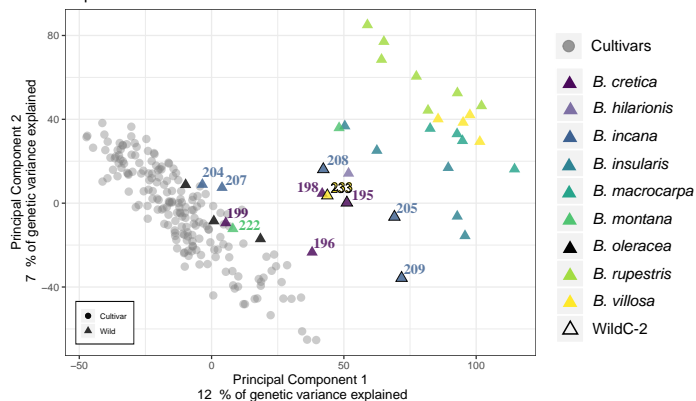
**B.**

Genetic Variation Between Wild and Cultivars : PC2 vs PC3

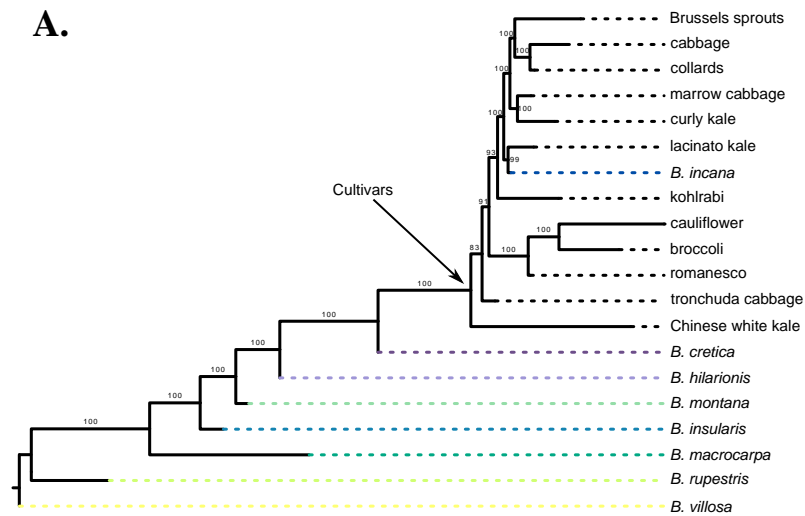


**C.**

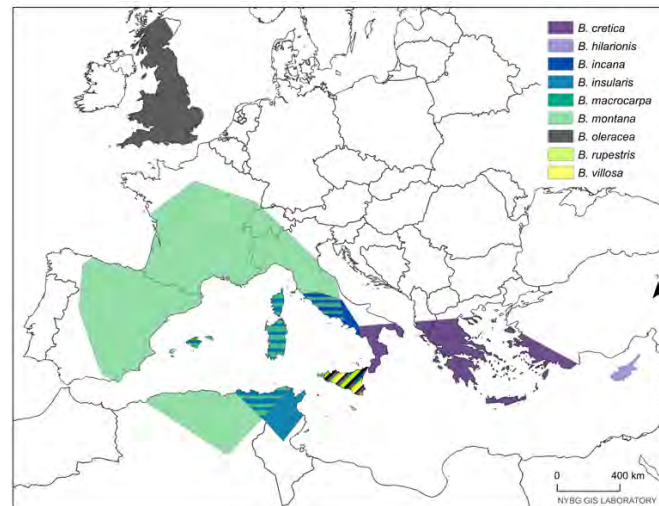
Expression Variation Between Wild and Cultivars : PC1 vs PC2



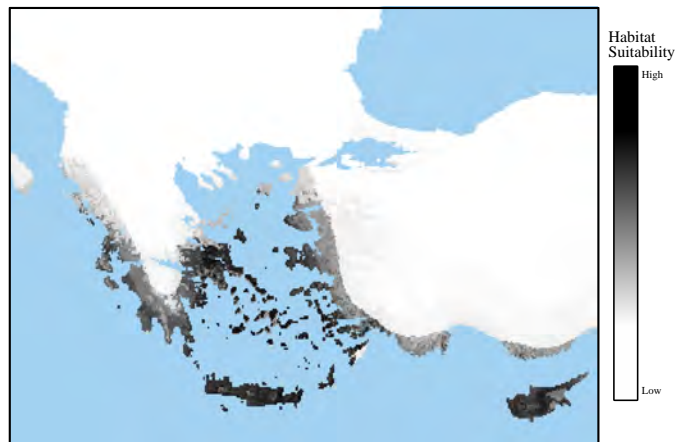
A.



B.

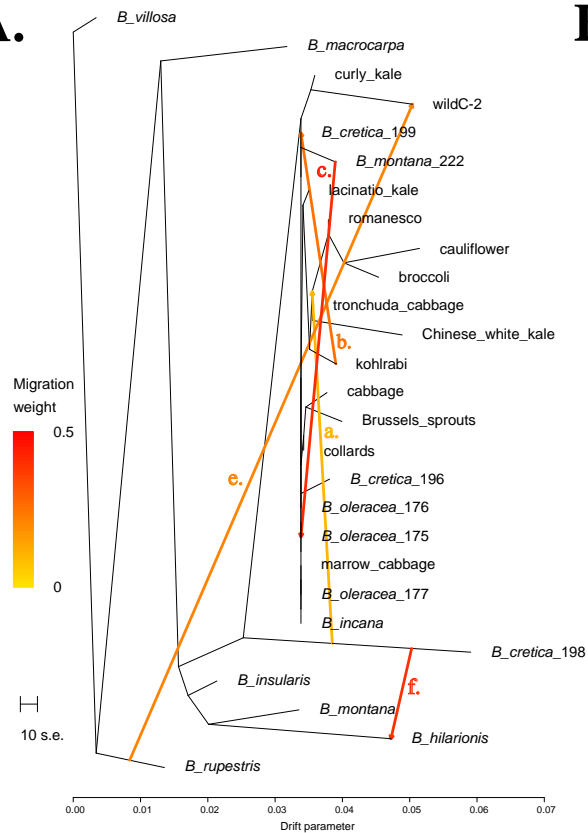
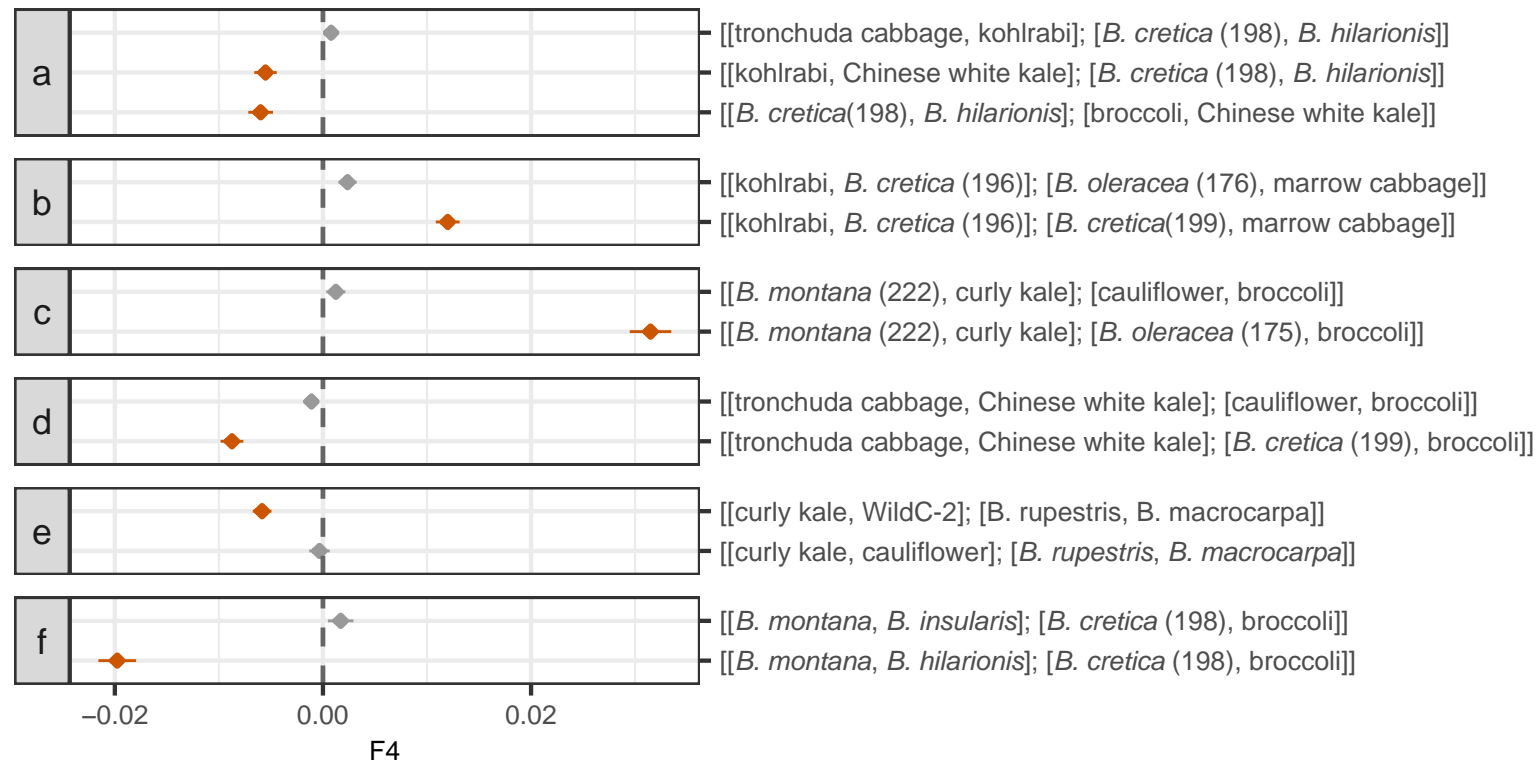


C.



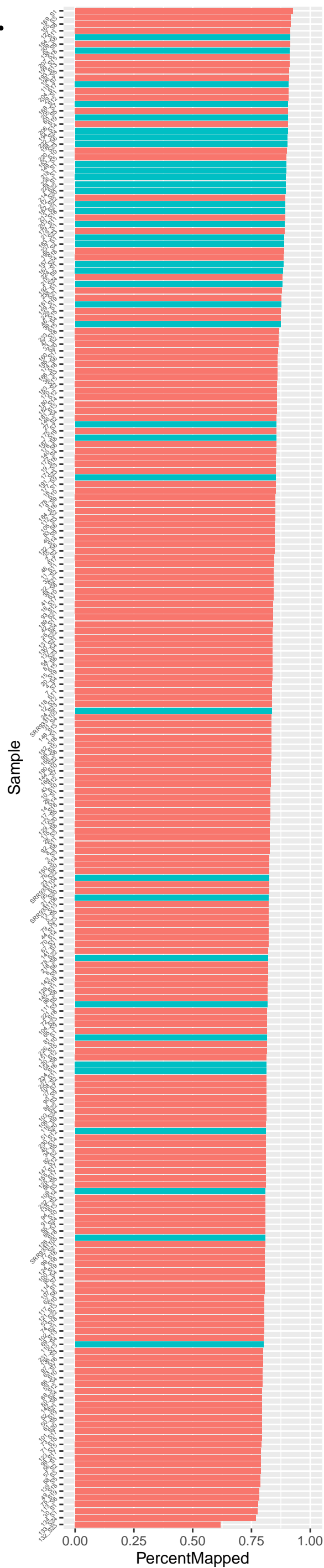
D.



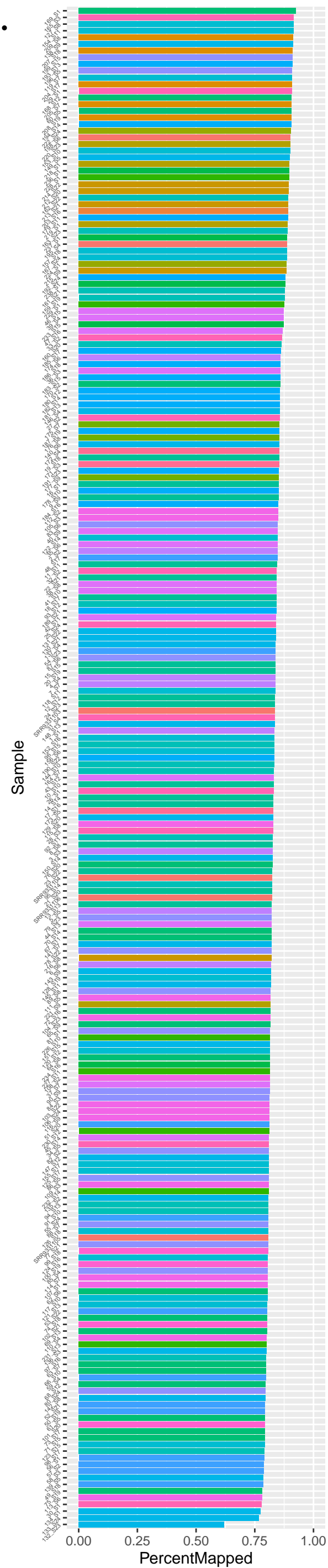
**A.****B.**



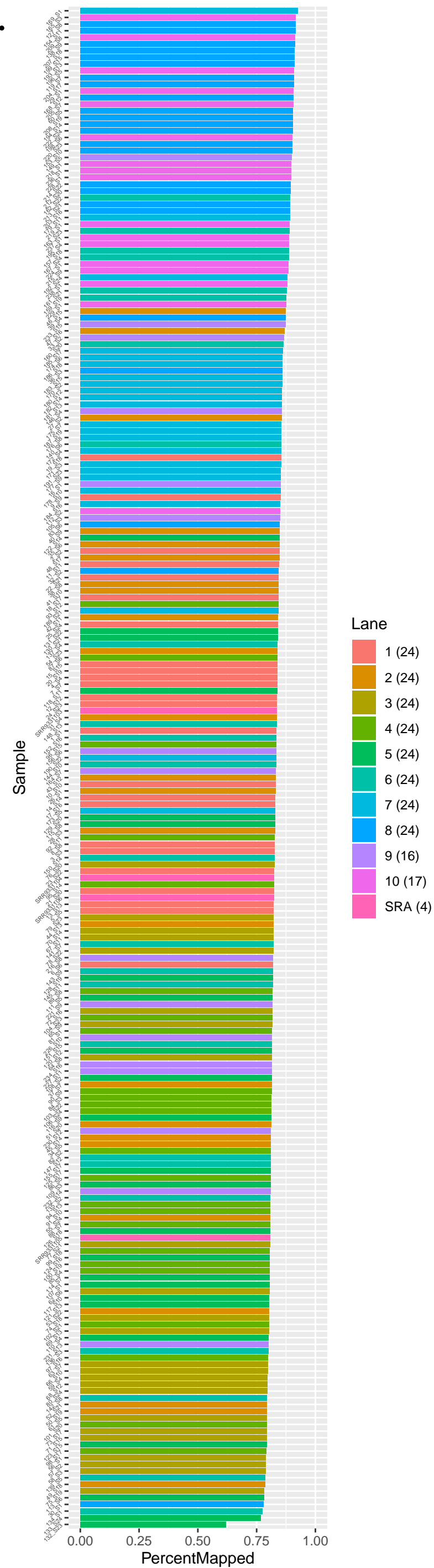
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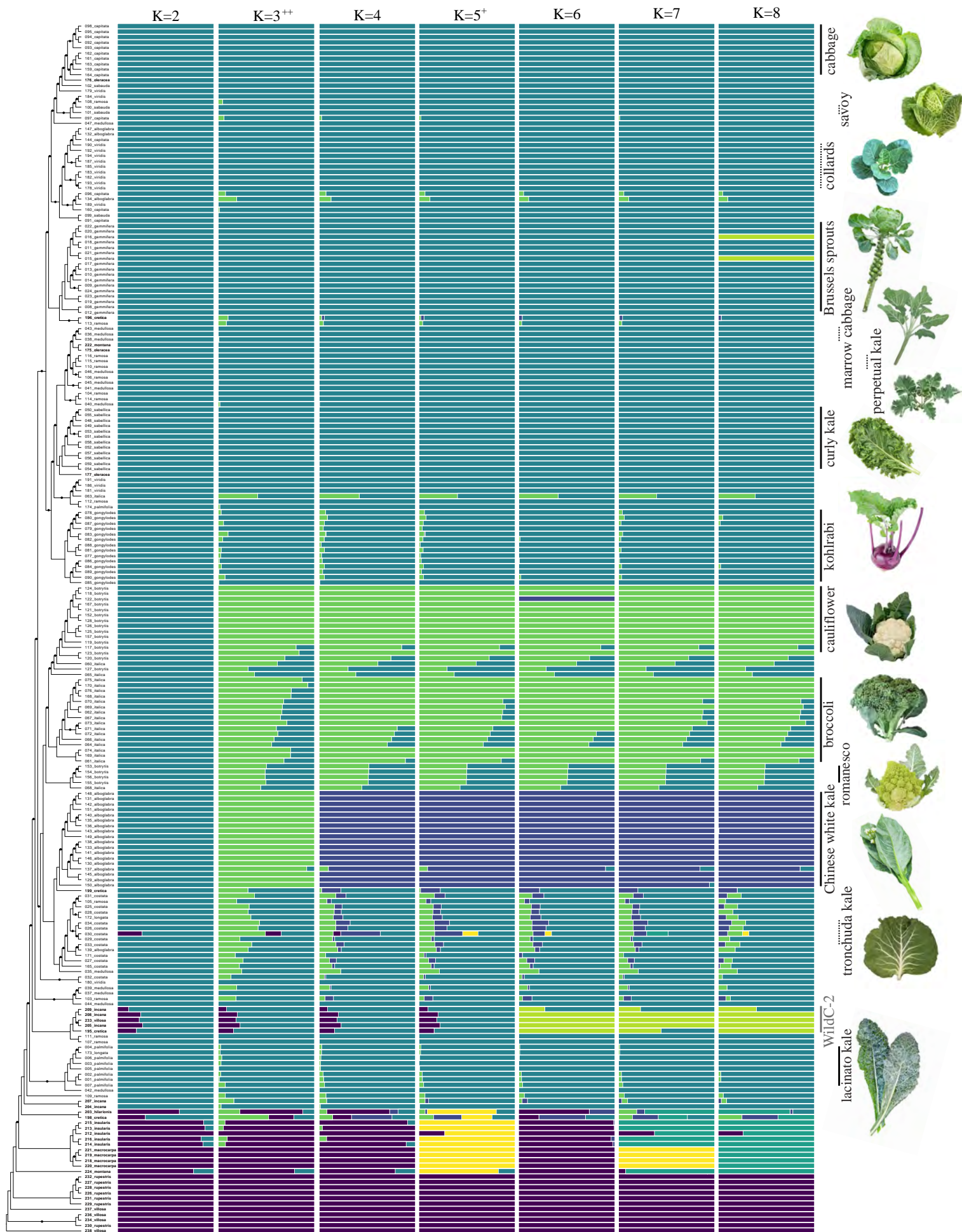


## B.

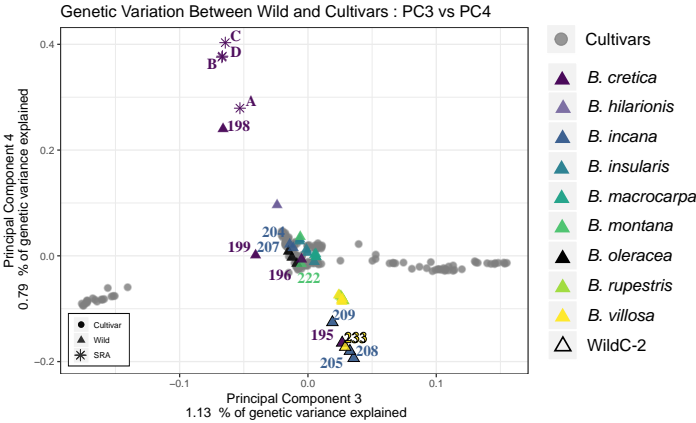


**C.**

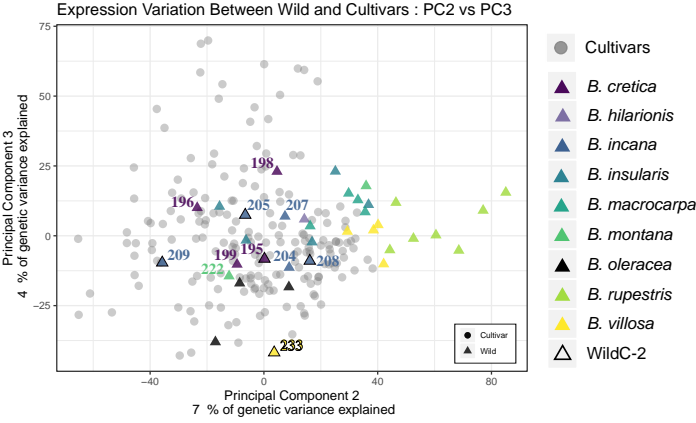




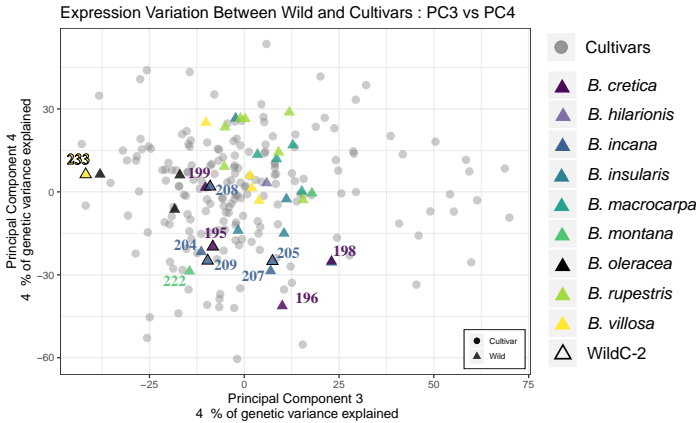
A.



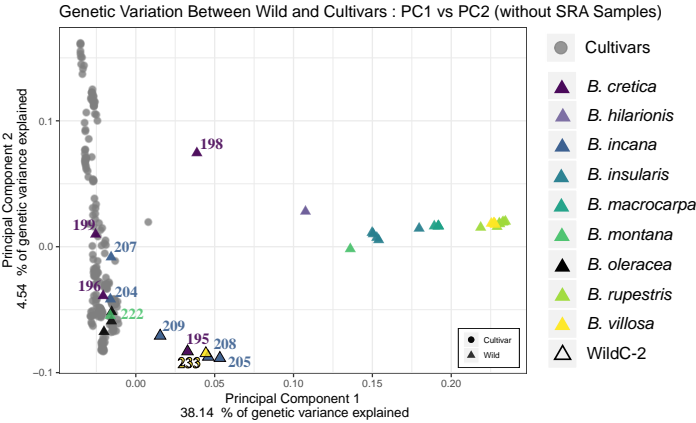
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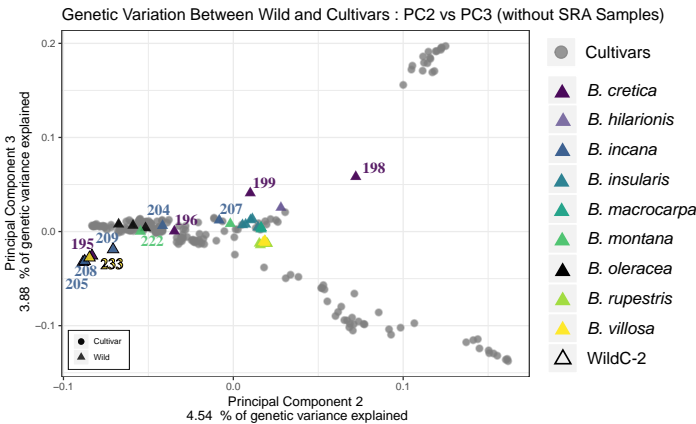
C.



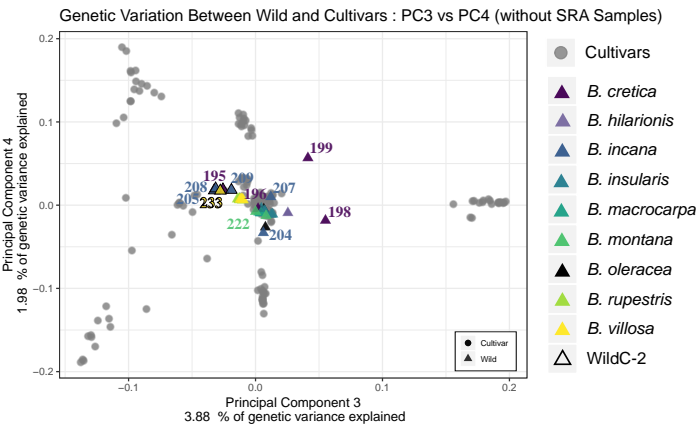
D.



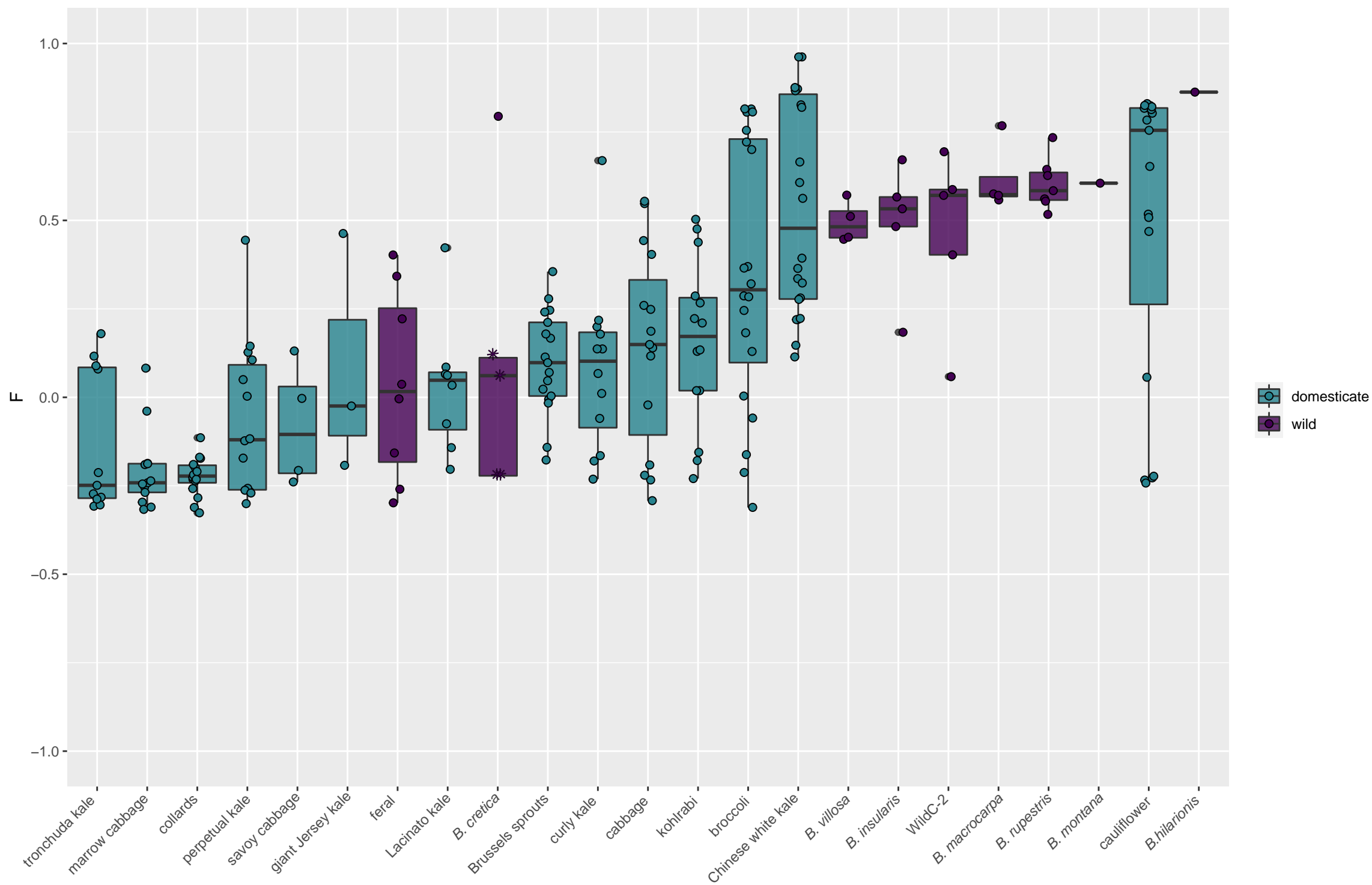
E.



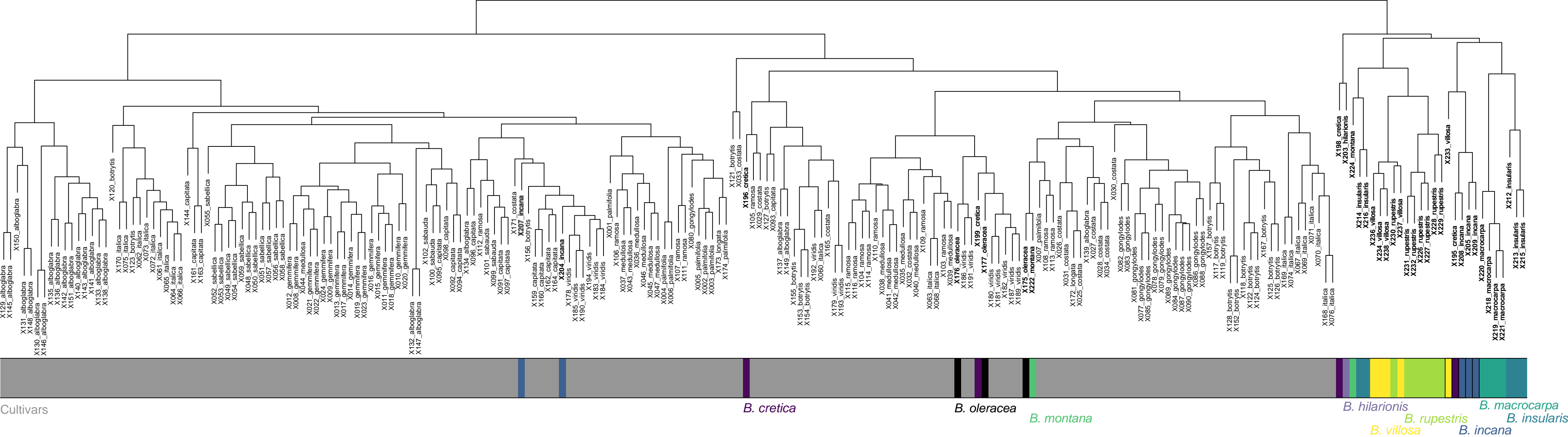
F.



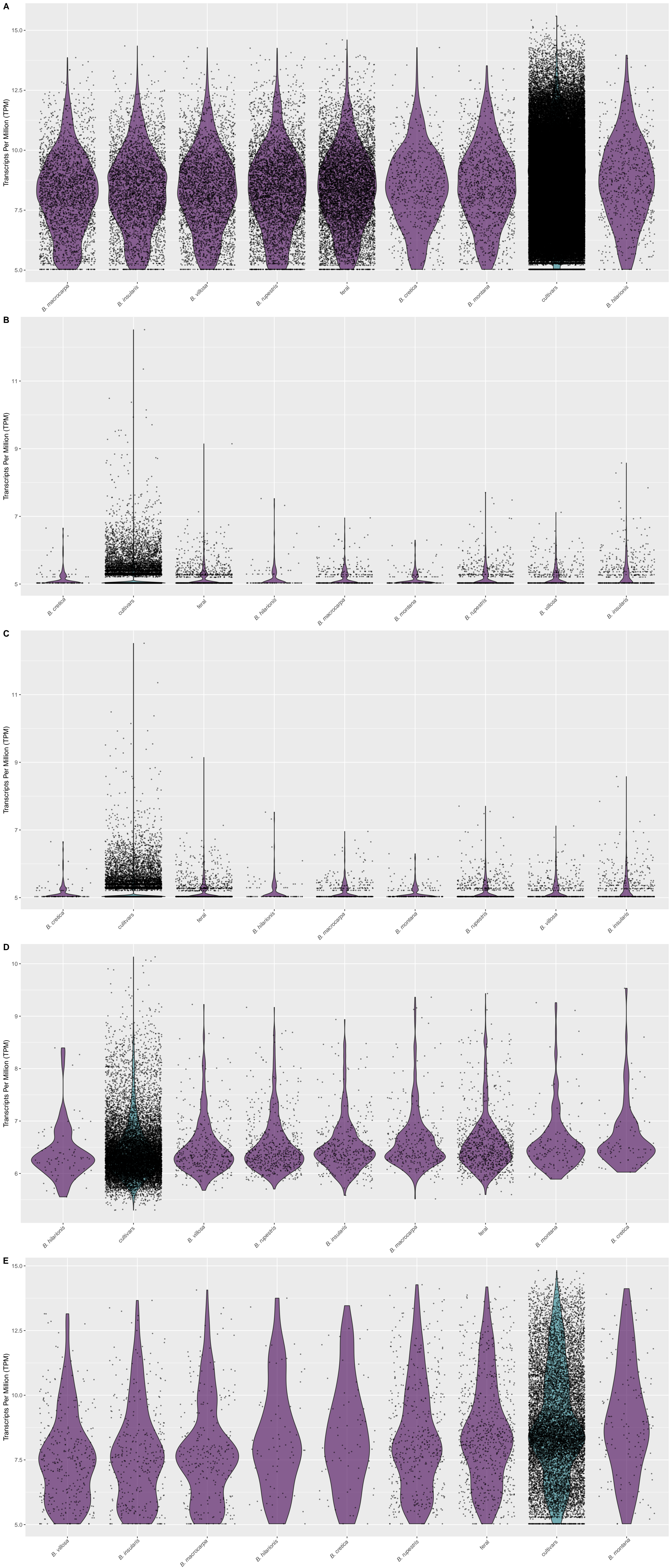
Inbreeding Coefficients between Wild and Domesticates; Excess homozygosity =  $> 0$  , Excess heterozygosity =  $< 0$



Brassica oleracea Expression Profile Clustering

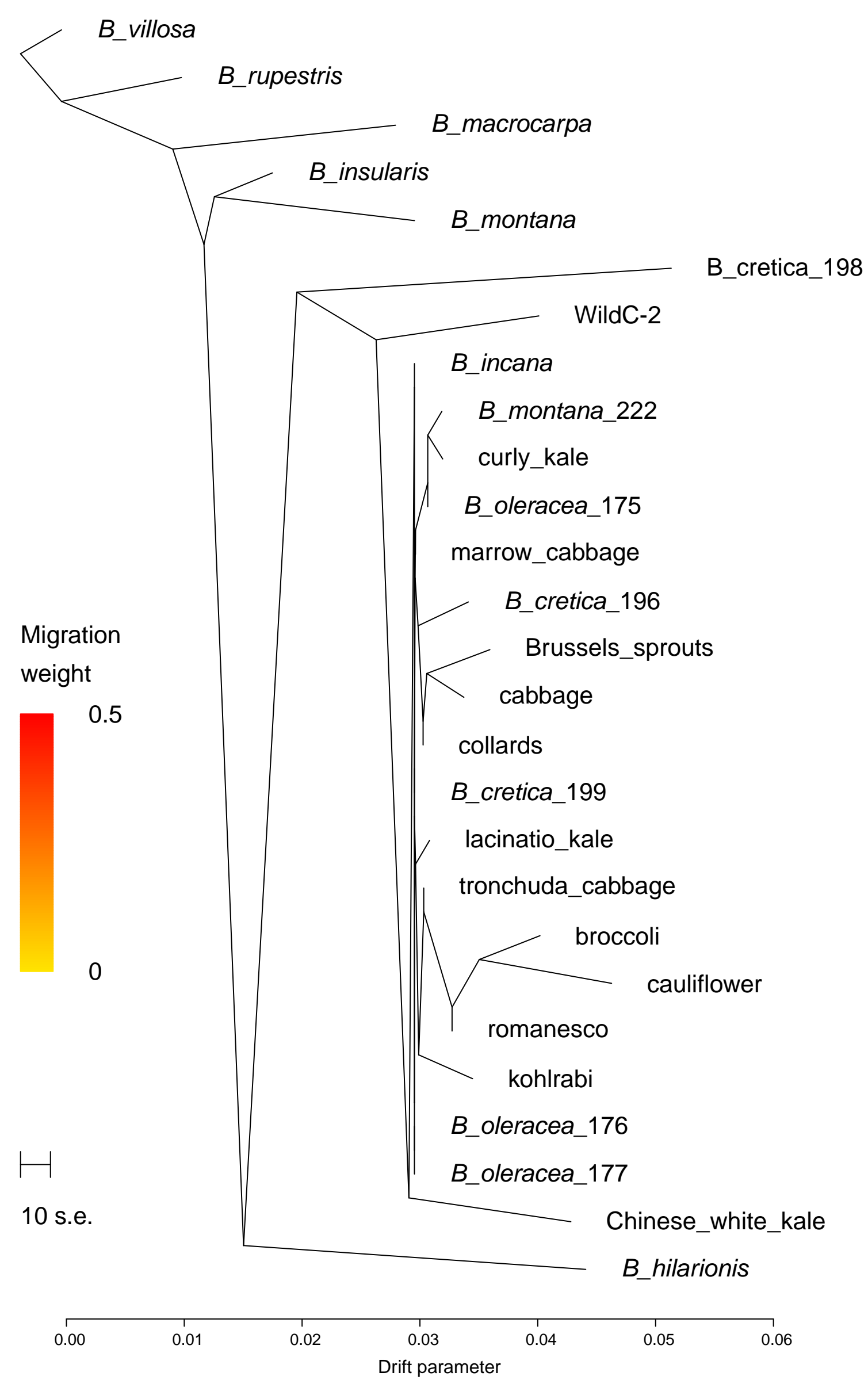




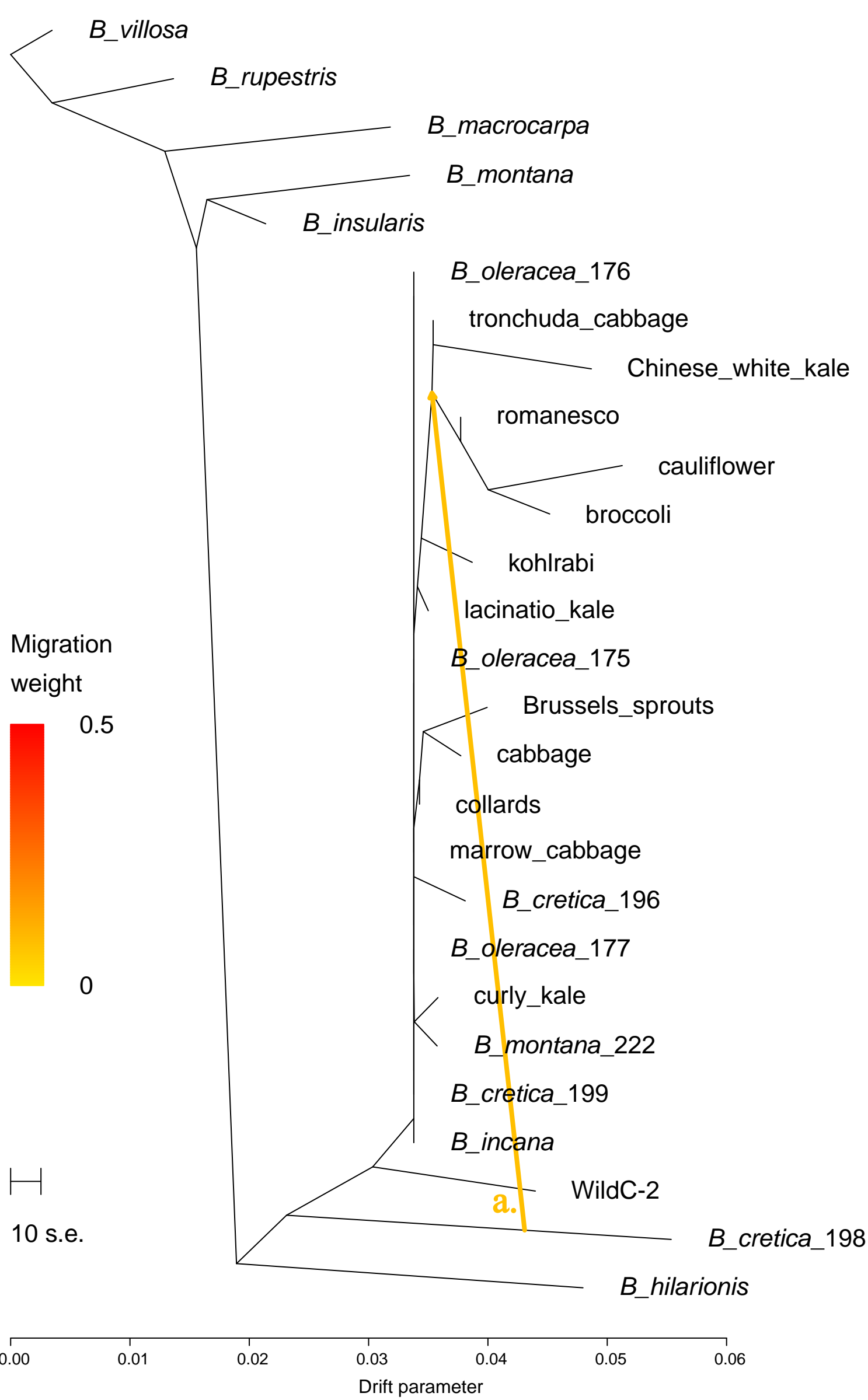




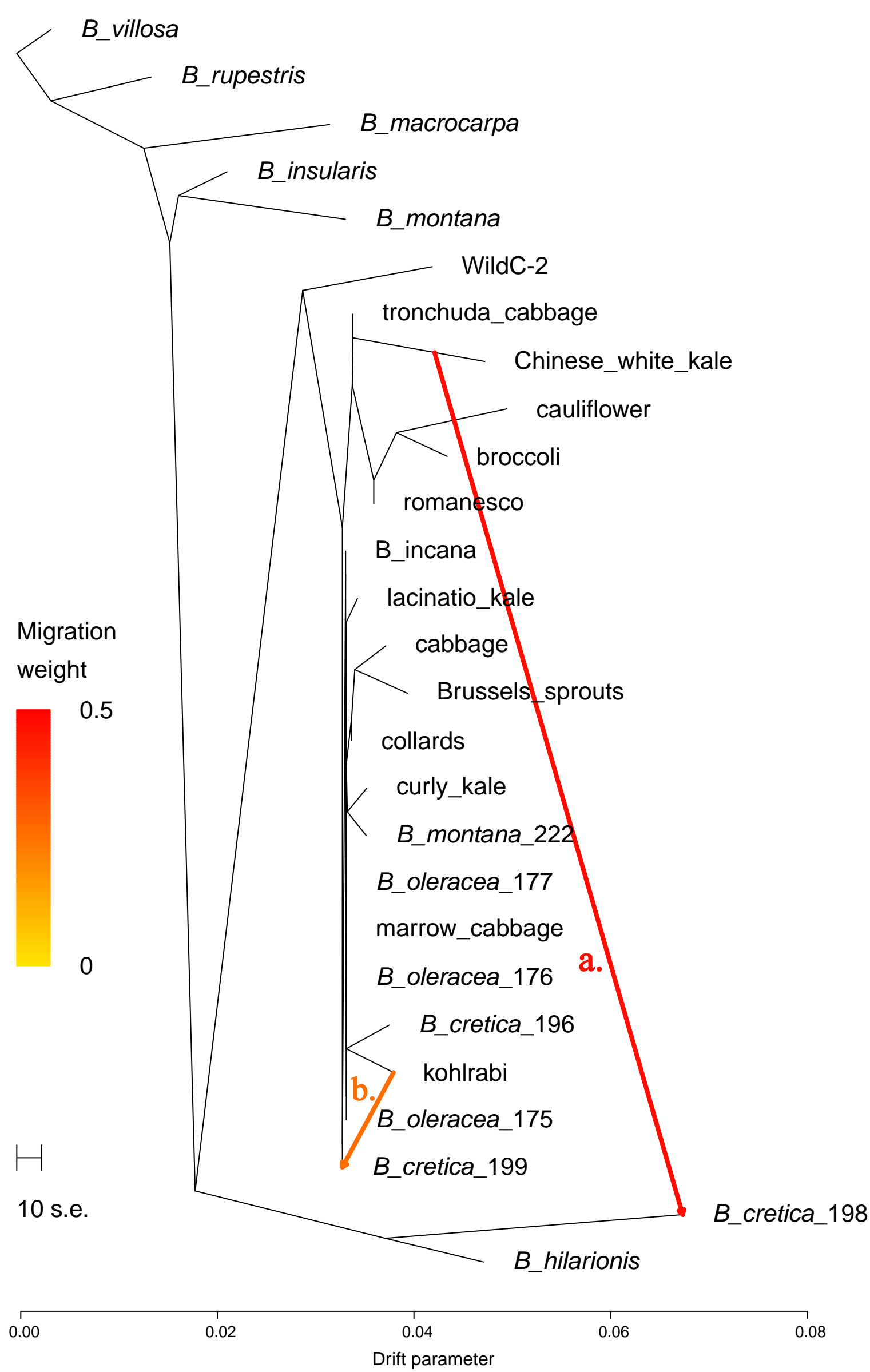
A. No migration inferred



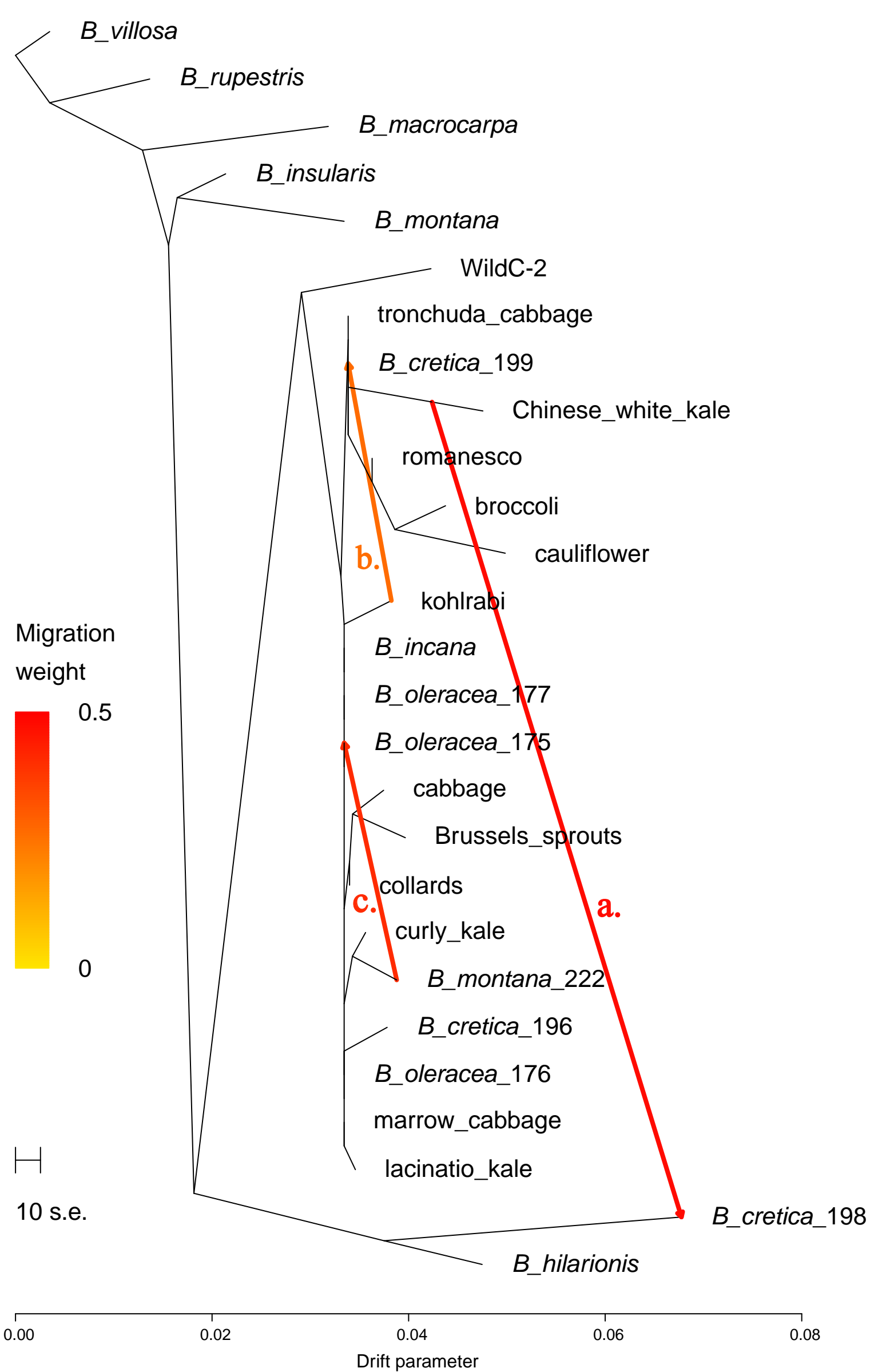
B. One migration event inferred



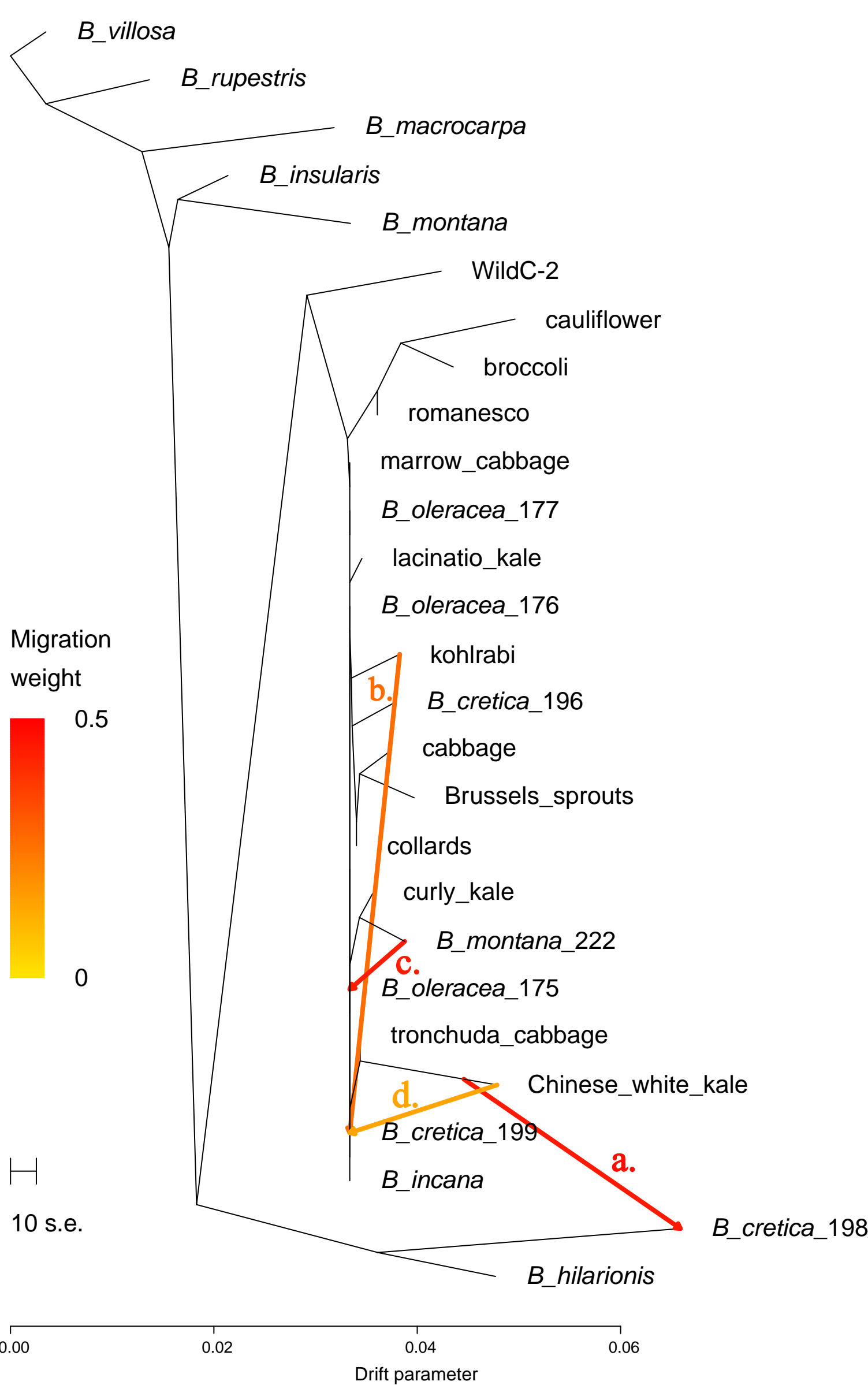
C. Two migration events inferred



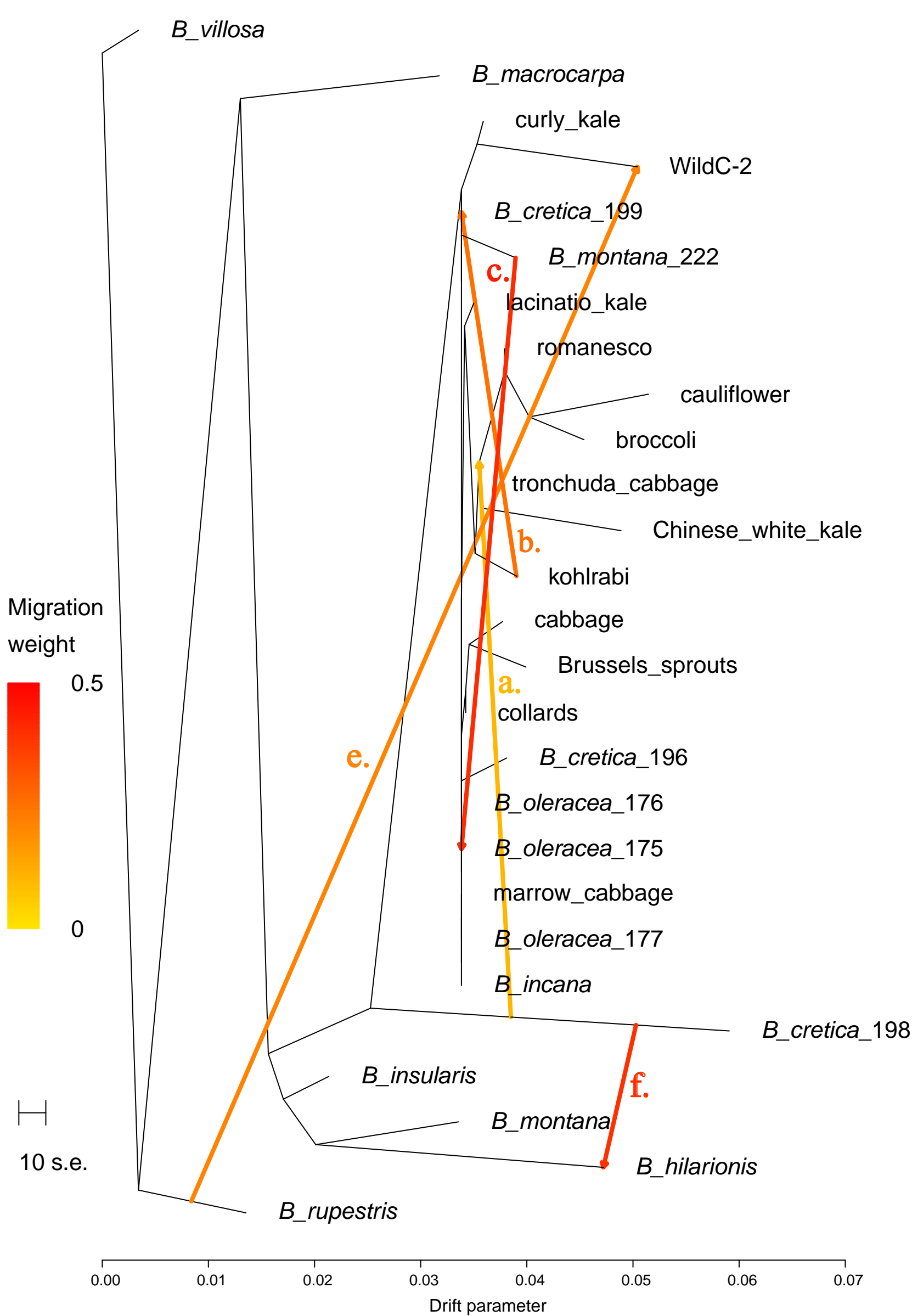
D. Three migration events inferred

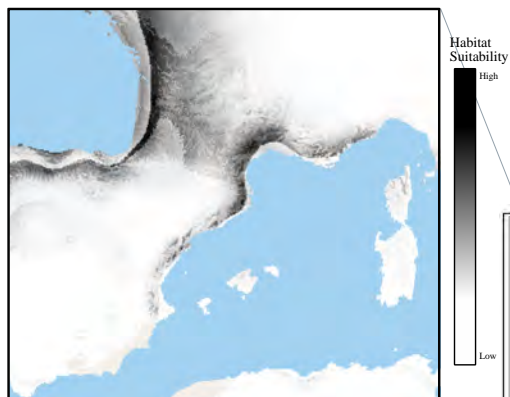
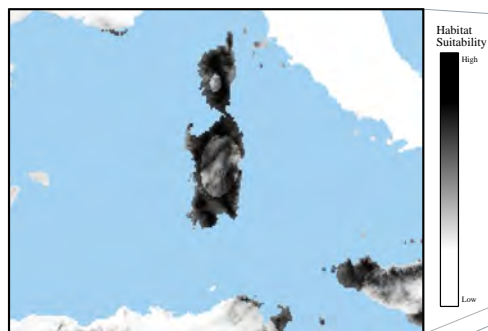
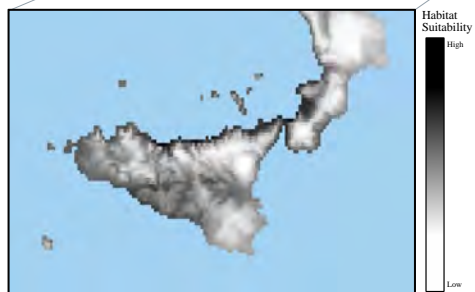
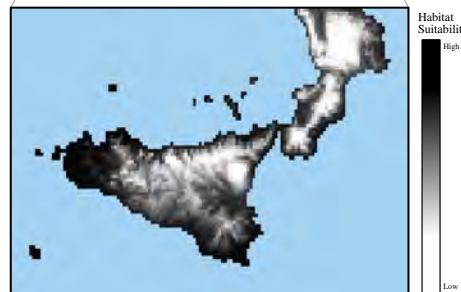
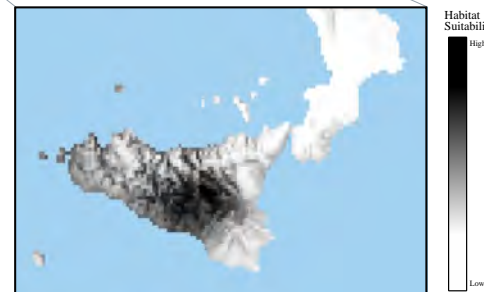
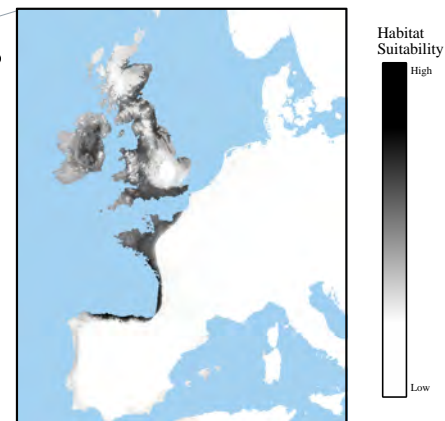
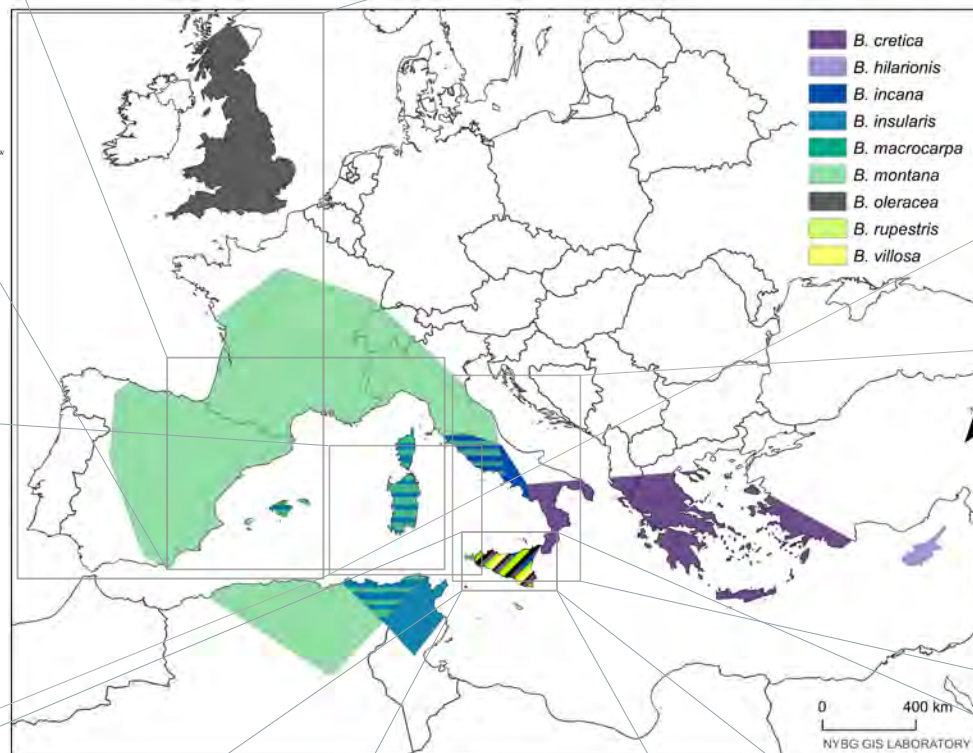
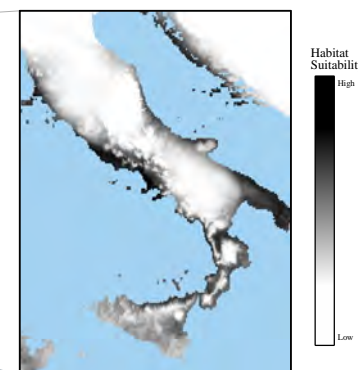


E. Four migration events inferred



F. Five migration events inferred



**A.****B.****C.****D.****E.****G.****F.**



**A.** *B. oleracea* -175 Rep A, B, C, D



**B.** *B. oleracea* -176 Rep A, B, C, D



**C.** *B. oleracea* -177 Rep A, B, C, D



**D.** *B. cretica* -196 Rep A, B, C



**E.** *B. cretica* -199 Rep A, B, C, D



**F.** *B. montana* -222 Rep A, B, C, D



**G.** *B. incana* -204 Rep A, B, C, D



**H.** *B. incana* -207 Rep A, B, C, D



**A.** *B. cretica* -195 Rep A, B, C, D



**B.** *B. incana* -205 Rep A, B, C, D



**C.** *B. incana* -208 Rep A, B, C, D







**D.** *B. incana* -209 Rep A, B, C, D











**E.** *B. villosa* -233 Rep A, B, C, D







**Table S1.** *Brassica oleracea* crop types with common name, species name, Kew cultivar group, other used names, and phenotypic descriptions modified from <sup>1</sup>Bailey (1922) or <sup>2</sup><http://www.missouribotanicalgarden.org/> (last accessed 5/18/21). Illustrations by Andi Kur.

Common Name	Species Name	Kew Cultivar Group	Other Used Names	Phenotypic Description	Phenotype
Broccoli	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>italica</i>	Botrytis Group		“Stout erect plant: grown for the thickened flower-shoots that are produced in the crown and also from the leaf axils, making a more or less open short large panicle: these shoots may bear flowers that are not abortive and that are taken for eating before the flowers open, or they may be less or elongated branches on which heads or knobs of abortive flowers are borne; the shoots are usually produced in the spring (plants 1 year old); fertile inflorescence open and branching as in other forms of the species, the bracts large and leafy, prominently toothed and sometimes laciniate.” <sup>1</sup>	
Brussels spouts	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>gemmifera</i>	Gemmifera Group		“Stout, simple, erect, 5-1m with large soft buds 2-3 cm. diam. Borne in the axils of the leaves practically throughout the length of the stem: leaves short and broad, blade 12-30 cm diam and about as long, short-oblong to nearly circular, sometimes unlobed but commonly with one or two rounded ear-like lobes near the base, the margins entire or only repand; petiole not winged; leaves of young plants often exhibit the characteristic shape and continuous margins; leaves of flowering stems obovate to oblong, obtuse, tapering to a petiole, margins usually obscurely shallowly toothed: flowers produced in the second year.” <sup>1</sup>	
Cauliflower	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i>	Botrytis Group		“Stout erect plant, leaves usually standing higher, bearing a single head of transformed flower-clusters: leaves long-oblong or elliptic, 15-24 cm broad and usually twice or more as long, with long flat mostly winged base or petiole, usually undivided but sometimes obscurely and irregularly lobed below, margins entire or minutely denticulate, strong ascending and overtopping the head or center: head composed of a condensed mass of short thick decolored peduncles and pedicles and thickened undeveloped flowers together with the attendant bracts; the little consolidate inflorescences are combined into a larger globular-topped clusters, forming the ‘curds’ of the head: flowering panicle arising in the second year, usually bearing in its lower part many little clusters of undeveloped flowers, but in the upper part producing the regular functional cabbage-like whitish flowers and elongated fruits; bracts small and mostly few, entire or nearly so.” <sup>1</sup>	
Chinese White Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>alboglabra</i>	Alboglabra Group	Chinese broccoli, Gai laan, Kai lan	“A distinct-looking annual plant with its glaucous character, glabrous foliage, oval leaves which are petioled or not clasping, elongated inflorescence, and large while flowers.” <sup>1</sup>	

Collard Greens	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>viridis</i>	Acephala Group		“Biennial or potential perennial, with a simple stout stock 1m high in developed old plants: leaves very glaucous, in a heavy crown but not forming a solid head, the larger ones with blades 40-50cm long and nearly or quite as broad, rounded or oblong in outline, margin mostly sinuate or shallowly lobed, which more or less small lobing at the base; young plants many be harvested entire, but from old over-wintered plants the leaves may be taken as wanted.” <sup>1</sup>	
Curly Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>sabellica</i>	Acephala Group	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i>	“Plant mostly under 1m tall. Blooming in the second year. Stem scarcely woody. No solid heads, enlarged axillary buds. or condensed head-like thickened flower-clusters produced; grown for the foliage, the leaves. Leaves with wavy to frilled margins.” <sup>1</sup>	
Giant Jersey Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>longata</i>	Acephala Group	Couve Galega, Cow cabbage, Jersey Cabbage, Portuguese tree kale, Walking stick kale	“Perennial, usually or often not blooming till third year, the stem simple and mostly straight, becoming 2-4 m tall: leaves large, heavy and glaucous, harvested for food or mostly for fodder for cattle and also for pigs, rabbits and chickens as the plant grows, or falling naturally, the rosette therefore at the top, in some forms lobed at the base and in other undivided, sometimes fringed or curled.” <sup>1</sup>	
Kohlrabi	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>gongylodes</i>	Gongylodes Group		“Biennial, low and stout, erect, 30-60 cm over all when not in bloom, glaucous and glabrous throughout: stem short, beginning to swell at 2-4 cm above the ground and producing a solid oblong globular or depressed globular leaf bearing edible tuber 5-10cm and more in diameter and which may continue to enlarge in the upper part producing a misshapen object: leaves thin and relatively small, 20-30 or 40 cm long of which about one-third to one-half is slender marginless petiole with an expanded base; blades oval to round-oval or oval-oblong, margins prominently irregularly dentate or notched, base of blade with one lobe on one side or one on either side; petiole usually bearing a very few little lobes or leaf-fragments; leaves of main flowering stem much like the radical ones but smaller, the petiole distinct and slender; upper leaves of flowering stems as in B. oleracea: fruit as in B. oleracea, but beak usually very short and often swollen at base: seed small, 1-1.5-2 mm diameter, minutely alveolate, mostly strongly angled.” <sup>1</sup>	

Lacinato kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>palmifolia</i>	Acephala Group	Black Tuscan palm, Dinosaur kale, Italian kale, Palm tree kale, Tuscan kale	“Plant mostly under 1m tall. Blooming in the second year. Stem scarcely woody. No solid heads, enlarged axillary buds. or condensed head-like thickened flower-clusters produced; grown for the foliage, the leaves. Leaves dark, almost blue-green with bumpy texture similar to Savoy cabbage.” <sup>1</sup>	
Marrow Cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>medullosa</i>	Acephala Group	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i>	“Much like the Tree kales, but the stem begins to form a thick trunk with a tender flesh or marrow much relished by cattle.” <sup>1</sup>	
Ornamental cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i>	Acephala Group	Ornamental kale	“Typically develops large rosettes of broad flat leaves or curly, ruffled leaves in a tight rosette. Leaf colors are usually quite showy, including white/cream, pink, rose, red and purple.” <sup>2</sup>	
Perpetual Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>ramosa</i>	Acephala Group	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i> , Borecole, Branching kale, Thousand-headed kale	“Erect strong branching plants making a bush head standing 1-2m high and nearly as broad, perennial or potentially so: the stem usually begins to branch at 20-50 cm from the ground.” <sup>1</sup>	



Romanesco	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i>	Botrytis Group	Broccolo Romanesco, Roman cauliflower, Romanesco broccoli	“Spiraling cone-shaped heads of light green florets forming a fractal pattern.” <sup>2</sup>	
Savoy Cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>capitata</i> f. <i>sabauda</i>	Capitata Group		“Similar to White Cabbage but the leaves are bullate or blistered.” <sup>1</sup>	
Tronchuda Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Group	Chou tronchuda, Coure tronchuda Portuguese cabbage, Portuguese kale, Seakale cabbage	“Biennial or annual: plant low with a simple stout stock and cabbage-like aspect but making no head although sometimes producing a loose tuft or rosette in the center, very glaucous: main leaves large and cabbage-like, with prominently developed whitish rib and veins, margin often finely serrate, basal lobes about 2 and small.” <sup>1</sup>	
White Cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>capitata</i> f. <i>alba</i>	Capitata Group		“Plant low and stout: stem simple, producing one terminal head or giant leaf bud 10-30 cm or more diam, which in height and breadth usually exceeds the stem or stump: leaves large (large ones reaching 40 cm long and broad), spreading, at maturity more or less cucullate or ‘full’, oblong-ovovate to nearly circular, the larger ones mostly unlobed and tapering to a very short broad winged petiole, some of them slightly lobed at base, margins undulate and variously obscurely toothed: leaves of flowering stems mostly prominently toothed, tapering to short semi-clasping base or the uppermost becoming nearly linear and much narrowed below: flower-stems arising from the axils in the heads (heads usually being split to let them out) or sometimes from the stump, produced in second year. Many forms include red cabbage which has red-purple foliage.” <sup>1</sup>	

**Table S2.** Sample information with species, variety, cultivar, germplasm, accession, sample #, location of original collection (year collected), and SRA #. Asterisks (\*) next to sample # indicate those samples that were recovered as monophyletic and used in species tree reconstruction. USDA-ARS PGRU = United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service, Plant Genetic Resources Unit, IPK = The Leibniz Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, UPM = Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, NordGen = The Nordic Genetic Resource Centre, GC = Gomez Campo Collection, Innes = John Innes Center, DH = doubled haploid lines, Pires = J.C. Pires personal collection.

Genus	Species	Variety	Cultivar	Germplasm	Accession	Sample #	Location	SRA #
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662796	180	United States	SRR13508900
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662798	190*	United States	SRR13508890
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662804	184	United States	SRR13508895
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662805	189	United States	SRR13508891
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662806	181	United States	SRR13508899
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662807	186	United States	SRR13508893
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI6628080	191	United States	SRR13508889
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662809	183*	United States	SRR13508896
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662814	182*	United States	SRR13508898
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662815	178*	United States	SRR13508902
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI6628160	193*	United States	SRR13508887
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662817	179	United States	SRR13508901
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662828	192*	United States	SRR13508888
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662831	185*	United States	SRR13508894
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662833	187*	United States	SRR13508892
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>viridis</i>	Collards	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI6628410	194*	United States	SRR13508885
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA1491	54*	Netherlands	SRR13508803
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA1841	53*	Poland	SRR13508804
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA1899	55*	Sweden	SRR13508802
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2116	59*	Germany	SRR13508798
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2187	50*	Germany	SRR13508808
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2239	51*	Japan	SRR13508806
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2286	52*	Germany	SRR13508805
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2449	49*	Germany	SRR13508809
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA2456	48*	Germany	SRR13508810
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA960	56*	Denmark	SRR13508801
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA963	57*	France	SRR13508800
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabellica</i>	Curly Kale	IPK	BRA964	58*	Germany	SRR13508799
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabauda</i>	Savoy Cabbage	Pires	Pires Collection 1	102	Unknown	SRR13508972
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabauda</i>	Savoy Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI246117	100	Netherlands	SRR13508753
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabauda</i>	Savoy Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343603	99	Russian Federation	SRR13508754
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>sabauda</i>	Savoy Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI507856	101	Hungary	SRR13508973
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30718	115	United Kingdom	SRR13508958
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30724	116	New Zealand	SRR13508957
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA1213	103	Republic of Georgia	SRR13508971
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA1259	109	Italy	SRR13508965
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA1891	105	Portugal	SRR13508969
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA2382	112	France	SRR13508961
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA2782	108	Colombia	SRR13508966
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA2784	113	Serbia	SRR13508960
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	IBRA2905	111	Germany	SRR13508962

<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA2952	104	United Kingdom	SRR13508970
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA2956	114	United Kingdom	SRR13508959
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA3138	106	United Kingdom	SRR13508968
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	BRA67	110	Unknown	SRR13508964
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>ramosa</i>	Perpetual Kale	IPK	K9829	107	United Kingdom	SRR13508967
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	Pires	Arias Collection 1	1*	Unknown	SRR13508976
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	Pires	Pires Collection 2	2*	Unknown	SRR13508975
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	IPK	BRA1905	5*	Argentina	SRR13508818
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	IPK	BRA1906	4*	Unknown	SRR13508829
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	IPK	BRA2846	6*	Italy	SRR13508807
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	IPK	BRA3073	7*	Unknown	SRR13508796
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Lacinato kale	Pires	Pires Collection 3	3*	Unknown	SRR13508864
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>palmifolia</i>	Giant Jersey Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30723	174	United Kingdom	SRR13508906
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	Wild oleracea	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30186	175	Canada	SRR13508905
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	Wild oleracea	NordGen	NGB16241	177	Germany (Helgoland) - 2004	SRR13508903
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	Wild oleracea	NordGen	NGB21657	176	Denmark (Rødvig) - 2004	SRR13508904
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30717	35	United Kingdom	SRR13508824
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30859	36*	United Kingdom	SRR13508823
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30862	37	United Kingdom	SRR13508822
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1235	44	United Kingdom	SRR13508814
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1238	47	France	SRR13508811
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1256	43*	United Kingdom	SRR13508815
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1295	46*	Netherlands	SRR13508812
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1317	42	United Kingdom	SRR13508816
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1410	45*	Poland	SRR13508813
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1431	40*	Germany	SRR13508819
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR1454	41*	Poland	SRR13508817
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	IPK	CR2545	39	Spain	SRR13508820
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>medullosa</i>	Marrow Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662703	38*	United Kingdom	SRR13508821
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>longata</i>	walking stick kale	Pires	Pires Collection 4	172	Unknown	SRR13508909
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>longata</i>	walking stick kale	Pires	Pires Collection 5	173	Unknown	SRR13508907
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>longata</i>	walking stick kale	Pires	Pires Collection 6	171*	Unknown	SRR13508910
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	Early-Big	168*	Unknown	SRR13508839
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	Early-Big	76*	Unknown	SRR13508779
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	G21111	72*	United States	SRR13508783
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	G28865	71*	Italy	SRR13508784
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30416	70*	United States	SRR13508786
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30778	69*	Taiwan	SRR13508787
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30779	73*	United States	SRR13508782
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	GD33-DH	170*	Unknown	SRR13508837
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	GD33-DH	75*	Unknown	SRR13508780
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	Mar34-DH	169*	Unknown	SRR13508838
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	DH	Mar34-DH	74*	Unknown	SRR13508781
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI231210	60	Italy	SRR13508797
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662524	63	United Kingdom	SRR13508793
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662525	68	United Kingdom	SRR13508788
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662529	65	United Kingdom	SRR13508791
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662596	62*	United States	SRR13508794
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662597	61*	United States	SRR13508795
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662674	64*	United States	SRR13508792
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662712	66*	Italy	SRR13508790



<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>italica</i>	Broccoli	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662786	67*	United States	SRR13508789
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30762	90*	Italy	SRR13508764
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30935	84*	United Kingdom	SRR13508770
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	DH	HRIGRU005389	167*	Unknown	SRR13508911
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	IPK	BRA1889	85*	Italy	SRR13508769
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	IPK	BRA2349	89*	Netherlands	SRR13508765
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	IPK	BRA42	88*	Czech Republic	SRR13508766
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI096969	86*	Unknown	SRR13508768
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI188610	87*	Switzerland	SRR13508767
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662560	80*	Poland	SRR13508775
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662563	77*	Netherlands	SRR13508778
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662623	79*	United States	SRR13508776
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662624	82*	United States	SRR13508772
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662625	83*	United States	SRR13508771
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662671	81*	United States	SRR13508773
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gongylodes</i>	Kohlrabi	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662704	78*	Netherlands	SRR13508777
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30601	9*	Kazakhstan	SRR13508774
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30867	12*	United Kingdom	SRR13508963
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30869	24*	Netherlands	SRR13508836
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30870	11*	Denmark	SRR13508974
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30872	10*	Germany	SRR13508763
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI209942	14*	Australia	SRR13508941
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI243050	15*	Ireland	SRR13508930
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI244839	16*	United States	SRR13508919
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI249534	19*	Spain	SRR13508886
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI261775	21*	United States	SRR13508863
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI312902	17*	Netherlands	SRR13508908
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343669	22*	Russian Federation	SRR13508852
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343670	18*	Russian Federation	SRR13508897
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343671	20*	Russian Federation	SRR13508875
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343673	23*	Russian Federation	SRR13508841
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI365170	13*	United Kingdom	SRR13508952
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>gemmifera</i>	Brussels Sprouts	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI385957	8*	Kenya	SRR13508785
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662564	28*	Portugal	SRR13508832
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662565	27*	Portugal	SRR13508833
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662566	31*	Portugal	SRR13508828
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662567	32	Unknown	SRR13508827
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662568	33*	Portugal	SRR13508826
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662569	34*	Portugal	SRR13508825
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662659	30*	United Kingdom	SRR13508830
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662668	165*	Portugal	SRR13508840
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662668	29*	Portugal	SRR13508831
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662702	25*	Spain	SRR13508835
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>costata</i>	Tronchuda Kale	Pires	Pires Collection 7	26*	Unknown	SRR13508834
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI187232	159*	Belgium	SRR13508917
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI245012	164*	France	SRR13508912
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI246046	163*	Netherlands	SRR13508913
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI246059	162*	Netherlands	SRR13508914
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI246060	161*	Netherlands	SRR13508915
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Red Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI329197	160	Netherlands	SRR13508916
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Ornamental cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662701	144	Italy	SRR13508932

<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI171529	97	Turkey	SRR13508756
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI182149	96	Turkey	SRR13508757
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI225859	98*	Denmark	SRR13508755
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI263061	94*	Russian Federation	SRR13508759
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI320913	91	Hungary	SRR13508762
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI324236	92*	Sweden	SRR13508761
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI343514	93*	Russian Federation	SRR13508760
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>capitata</i>	Cabbage	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI518837	95*	China	SRR13508758
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Romanesco	Pires	Pires Collection 8	153*	Unknown	SRR13508922
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Romanesco	Pires	Pires Collection 9	155*	Unknown	SRR13508920
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Romanesco	Pires	Pires Collection 10	156*	Unknown	SRR13508918
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Romanesco	Pires	Pires Collection 11	154*	Unknown	SRR13508921
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G28888	122*	Germany	SRR13508950
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30435	126*	United States	SRR13508946
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30436	125*	United States	SRR13508947
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30438	124*	United States	SRR13508948
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30769	123*	Taiwan	SRR13508949
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	G30857	121*	United Kingdom	SRR13508951
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	DH	HRIGRU007826	128*	Unknown	SRR13508847
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	DH	HRIGRU007826	152*	Unknown	SRR13508923
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI231208	119*	Italy	SRR13508954
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI267724	127	United States	SRR13508945
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI267724	157*	United States	SRR13508842
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI269312	117*	Sweden	SRR13508956
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI271445	120*	India	SRR13508953
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>botrytis</i>	Cauliflower	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI291996	118*	Israel	SRR13508955
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	A12	131*	Unknown	SRR13508844
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	A12	148*	Unknown	SRR13508927
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	Pires	Pires Collection 12	143*	Unknown	SRR13508933
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	HRIGRU007543	130*	Unknown	SRR13508845
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	HRIGRU007543	146*	Unknown	SRR13508929
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	HRIGRU013023	132	Unknown	SRR13508843
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	HRIGRU013023	147	Unknown	SRR13508928
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1006	134	Egypt	SRR13508943
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1143	139	Spain	SRR13508937
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1210	133*	China	SRR13508944
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1211	141*	China	SRR13508935
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1244	142*	China	SRR13508934
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1658	138*	Thailand	SRR13508938
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA169	137*	China	SRR13508939
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1747	140*	Netherlands	SRR13508936
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA1909	136*	Netherlands	SRR13508940
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	IPK	BRA990	135*	Unknown	SRR13508942
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI249556	149*	Thailand	SRR13508926
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI435900	150*	Spain	SRR13508925
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662520	151*	China	SRR13508924
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	TO1000	129*	Unknown	SRR13508846
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>oleracea</i>	<i>alboglabra</i>	Chinese White Kale	DH	TO1000	145*	Unknown	SRR13508931
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>cretica</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA3053	198*	Turkey (Kalamaki-Aydin) -1997	SRR13508882
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>cretica</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA3092	199	Greece	SRR13508881
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>cretica</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662588	195	Greece -1991	SRR13508884

<i>Brassica</i>	<i>cretica</i>	-	-	UPM	UPM6346	196	Turkey (Kushadasi, Millipark)	SRR13508883
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>hilarionis</i>	-	-	Innes	HRIGRU011463	203*	Cyprus (Kyrenia Range)	SRR13508880
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>incana</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA1262	204*	Unknown (likely Crimea)-1983	SRR13508879
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>incana</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2918	205	Italy (Messina, Sicily)-1989	SRR13508878
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>incana</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662584	208	Italy (Tindari, Sicily)-1975	SRR13508876
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>incana</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662591	209	Italy (Tindari, Sicily)- 1975	SRR13508874
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>incana</i>	-	-	UPM	UPM5974	207*	Russia (Crimea, Cape Aju-Dag, Russia)	SRR13508877
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>insularis</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2996	213*	Italy (Sardinia) -1993	SRR13508872
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>insularis</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA3050	214*	Italy (Monte Tuttavista, Sardinia) -1993	SRR13508871
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>insularis</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA3051	215*	Italy (Isola Rossa, Sardinia) -1993	SRR13508870
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>insularis</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA3052	216*	Italy (Isola di Figarolo, Sardinia) - 1993	SRR13508869
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>insularis</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662587	212*	Greece - 1971	SRR13508873
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>macrocarpa</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2854	218*	Italy (Favignana)-2002	SRR13508868
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>macrocarpa</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2944	219*	Unknown	SRR13508867
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>macrocarpa</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	CO7031	220*	Unknown	SRR13508866
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>macrocarpa</i>	-	-	USDA-ARS PGRU	PI662585	221*	Italy (Egadi, Sicily) - 1975	SRR13508865
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>montana</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA1644	222	Unknown - 1983	SRR13508862
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>montana</i>	-	-	GC	3607-75	224*	Spain (Gerona)	SRR13508861
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2851	226*	Italy (Palermo, Sicily) -1998	SRR13508860
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2945	227*	Italy (Palermo, Sicily) -1988	SRR13508859
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2992	228*	Italy (Isnello, Sicily) - 1989	SRR13508858
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	GC	3822-75	229*	Unknown	SRR13508857
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	IPK	K10259	230	Italy (Trapani, Sicily) - 1998	SRR13508856
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	IPK	K10260	231*	Italy (Palermo, Sicily) - 1998	SRR13508855
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>rupestris</i>	-	-	UPM	UPM6575	232*	Italy (Caccamo, Sicily)	SRR13508854
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>villosa</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA1896	233	Italy (Messina, Sicily) - 1991	SRR13508853
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>villosa</i>	-	-	IPK	BRA2853	234*	Italy (Trapani, Sicily) - 1998	SRR13508851
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>villosa</i>	-	-	IPK	K10263	236*	Italy (Caltanissetta, Sicily) - 1998	SRR13508850
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>villosa</i>	-	-	IPK	K10264	237	Italy (Palermo, Sicily) - 1998	SRR13508849
<i>Brassica</i>	<i>villosa</i>	-	-	UPM	UPM6581	238*	Italy (Castelmare di Golfo, Sicily)	SRR13508848

**Table S3.** WGCNA predicted gene modules with number of genes in each module, the number of annotated *Arabidopsis thaliana* genes using blast and synteny, and the percent of syntenic genes represented in the module. Module number with asterisks (\*) represent the five modules with the largest percent of syntenic genes in the module.

Module	Gene Number	# of <i>Arabidopsis</i> hits (Blast)	# of <i>Arabidopsis</i> hits (Synteny)	Percent of syntenic genes in module
1	35981	20982	18178	50.5
2	2268	1263	954	42.1
3	2241	2015	1991	88.8
4	1051	868	805	76.6
5	1007	860	849	84.3
6	726	454	308	42.4
7*	717	629	648	90.4
8	675	541	586	86.8
9	597	243	170	28.5
10	558	336	227	40.7
11	464	427	397	85.6
12	424	131	102	24.1
13*	420	385	378	90.0
14	382	327	306	80.1
15	304	240	269	88.5
16	297	99	75	25.3
17	291	267	260	89.3
18	270	92	74	27.4
19	267	92	71	26.6
20	224	65	46	20.5
21	178	161	153	86.0
22	177	154	159	89.8
23	173	71	47	27.2
24	133	37	24	18.0
25	128	124	105	82.0
26	111	73	45	40.5
27	109	31	20	18.3
28	108	33	20	18.5
29	106	25	18	17.0
30*	91	84	85	93.4
31*	80	78	75	93.8
32	75	71	67	89.3
33	71	17	13	18.3
34*	70	66	63	90.0
35	69	17	17	24.6
36	61	27	12	19.7
37	57	15	12	21.1
38	54	24	14	25.9
39	49	13	12	24.5
40	47	20	11	23.4
41	45	14	9	20.0
42	44	14	8	18.2
43	44	7	8	18.2
44	44	12	9	20.5
45	40	39	33	82.5
46	39	11	7	17.9
47	37	14	9	24.3
48	34	8	7	20.6

**Table S4.** Top five WGCNA modules with largest percent of syntenic genes represented in the module with corresponding annotated GO biological process with the largest fold enrichment, and p-value.

<b>Module</b>	<b>GO Biological Process</b>	<b>Fold Enrichment</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>7</b>	branched-chain amino acid catabolic process	17.86	1.32E-03
	phototropism	16.58	1.29E-02
	detection of abiotic stimulus	14.21	2.79E-02
	detection of external stimulus	14.21	2.79E-02
	fatty acid beta-oxidation	12.55	1.03E-02
<b>13</b>	mitochondrial transcription	93.62	4.82E-02
	snoRNA 3'-end processing	53.5	2.37E-05
	polyadenylation-dependent snoRNA 3'-end processing	49.93	1.04E-02
	endonucleolytic cleavage involved in rRNA processing	48.01	6.80E-04
	U4 snRNA 3'-end processing	45.39	1.41E-02
<b>30</b>	suberin biosynthetic process	> 100	3.52E-08
	phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process	54.01	5.32E-10
	phenylpropanoid metabolic process	43.61	3.23E-09
	secondary metabolite biosynthetic process	33.01	3.43E-08
	pectin catabolic process	26.94	4.29E-03
<b>31</b>	cytidine to uridine editing	75.81	1.25E-03
	mitochondrial RNA modification	60.3	1.14E-04
	base conversion or substitution editing	58.96	3.08E-03
	mitochondrial mRNA modification	56.86	3.51E-03
	RNA modification	42.34	6.27E-37
<b>34</b>	wax biosynthetic process	> 100	3.59E-12
	wax metabolic process	> 100	4.61E-12
	fatty acid derivative biosynthetic process	> 100	7.43E-12
	cuticle development	> 100	1.45E-11
	very long-chain fatty acid biosynthetic process	> 100	2.62E-04

**Table S5:** P-value results from ANOVA tests for differences in transcriptome abundance (Transcripts Per Million; TPM) between wild relatives, feral samples, and cultivars with Post-hoc Tukey Tests for top five WGCNA modules with largest syntenic overlap with *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Feral = *B. cretica* (196, 199); *B. incana* (204, 207); *B. montana* (222); and wild *B. oleracea* (175, 176, 177) + wild C - clade 2 (*B. incana* - 205, 208, 209; *B. villosa* - 233, and *B. cretica* - 195). Significance indicated as \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.01, \*\*\* < 0.001.

	Module 7	Module 13	Module 30	Module 31	Module 34
ANOVA overall F-test	< 2e-16***	< 2e-16***	2.19e-11***	< 2e-16***	< 2e-16***
cultivar - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.00274**	< 0.001***	0.8777	< 0.001***	0.52584
feral - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.98915	0.00148**	0.6153	0.64813	0.99979
<i>B. hilarionis</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.04872*	< 0.001***	0.9772	0.00786**	0.99999
<i>B. insularis</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.46058	< 0.001***	<0.001***	0.16945	0.14638
<i>B. macrocarpa</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.0025**	0.89108	0.9357	0.99181	0.35236
<i>B. montana</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.96827	0.00372**	1	0.95002	0.48072
<i>B. rupestris</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.85884	< 0.001***	0.5024	0.25341	1
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. cretica</i>	0.79588	< 0.001***	0.6899	0.06089	0.02287*
feral - cultivar	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	0.7272	< 0.001***	< 0.001***
<i>B. hilarionis</i> - cultivar	0.99998	0.75125	1	0.99255	0.23947
<i>B. insularis</i> - cultivar	< 0.001***	0.02175*	<0.001***	0.03896*	< 0.001***
<i>B. macrocarpa</i> - cultivar	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	1	< 0.001***	< 0.001***
<i>B. montana</i> - cultivar	0.00728**	0.00941**	0.2518	0.00227**	0.9979
<i>B. rupestris</i> - cultivar	< 0.001***	1	0.5648	< 0.001***	< 0.001***
<i>B. villosa</i> - cultivar	< 0.001***	0.99898	0.9689	0.38616	< 0.001***
<i>B. hilarionis</i> - feral	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	1	0.04125*	0.98463
<i>B. insularis</i> - feral	0.25387	0.11857	<0.001***	0.65499	< 0.001***
<i>B. macrocarpa</i> - feral	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	0.9892	0.82098	< 0.001***
<i>B. montana</i> - feral	0.0593	0.99961	0.0777	0.99971	0.19953
<i>B. rupestris</i> - feral	0.94733	< 0.001***	0.9999	0.8622	0.8588
<i>B. villosa</i> - feral	0.88344	< 0.001***	1	0.16468	< 0.001***
<i>B. insularis</i> - <i>B. hilarionis</i>	< 0.001***	0.08348	0.0643	0.43415	0.34999
<i>B. macrocarpa</i> - <i>B. hilarionis</i>	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	1	0.00598**	0.63699
<i>B. montana</i> - <i>B. hilarionis</i>	0.23313	0.01619*	0.8558	0.05712	0.24936
<i>B. rupestris</i> - <i>B. hilarionis</i>	< 0.001***	0.85892	0.9992	0.25267	1
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. hilarionis</i>	< 0.001***	0.93863	1	0.71374	0.08142
<i>B. macrocarpa</i> - <i>B. insularis</i>	0.02963*	< 0.001***	<0.001***	0.11338	0.99929
<i>B. montana</i> - <i>B. insularis</i>	< 0.001***	0.93591	<0.001***	0.73906	< 0.001***
<i>B. rupestris</i> - <i>B. insularis</i>	0.93961	0.11517	<0.001***	0.99993	< 0.001***
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. insularis</i>	0.993	0.08769	<0.001***	0.9984	0.95976
<i>B. montana</i> - <i>B. macrocarpa</i>	< 0.001***	0.00737**	0.5367	0.99978	< 0.001***
<i>B. rupestris</i> - <i>B. macrocarpa</i>	< 0.001***	< 0.001***	0.9449	0.19816	0.00529**
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. macrocarpa</i>	0.00151**	< 0.001***	0.9969	0.01668*	0.71258
<i>B. rupestris</i> - <i>B. montana</i>	0.00909**	0.02415*	0.0511	0.87996	0.0253*
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. montana</i>	0.00738**	0.01758*	0.1528	0.37787	< 0.001***
<i>B. villosa</i> - <i>B. rupestris</i>	1	0.99999	1	0.94283	< 0.001***

**Table S6:** Archaeological *Brassica* reports from Europe and the Eastern Mediterranean. BP = years before the present (1950).

Date	Countries	Notes	References
<b>Middle Bronze Age ca. 3550 - 3350 BP</b>	Austria, Friaga	3 charred seeds, hilltop settlement in the southern Alps. Unusually early date, but no reason to suspect contamination from later occupation etc.	<sup>1</sup>
<b>ca. 3250 - 2970 BP</b>	Gibala, NW Syria	C14 dated seeds from pottery vessels associated with a destruction layer. Seeds have been SEM; Seeds could be <i>Brassica cretica</i> .	<sup>2</sup>
<b>La Tène 2400 - 2050 BP</b>	Switzerland/France	Preservation not specified but is absent in Roman samples. Refers to identification problems.	<sup>3</sup>
<b>Late Iron Age 2350 - 2050 BP</b>	Germany	Review of various finds including <i>Brassica oleracea</i> from the German Late Iron Age	<sup>4</sup>
<b>Roman-Iron Age 1950 - 1650 BP</b>	Egypt, Mons Claudianus	charred/desiccated seeds resembling <i>Brassica oleracea</i>	<sup>5</sup> p.200
<b>1950 – 1550 BP</b>	Italy, Vado Ligure, Liguria	possible seeds found in Roman well	<sup>6</sup>
<b>1907-1540 BP</b>	England	recorded from 3 military and 2 town sites	<sup>7</sup>
<b>Roman 1850-1650 BP</b>	Germany, Otterbach, Kaiserslautern	11 waterlogged seeds of probable <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i> from a well in Otterbach	<sup>8</sup>
<b>1550-850 BP</b>	Sweden, Denmark, Netherlands	seeds of <i>Brassica oleracea</i>	<sup>9, 10</sup>
<b>1150-700 BP</b>	Czech Republic, Žatec	Finds of waterlogged <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i>	<sup>11</sup>

<b>1050-850 BP</b>	Great Britain, York	Finds of waterlogged <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i>	12
<b>1050-850 BP</b>	Great Britain, York	Finds of waterlogged <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i>	13
<b>850 BP</b>	Denmark	One to four chance finds from cultural layers	14
<b>Early Medieval 850-750 BP</b>	England, Raunds, Northants	Residues of <i>Brassica</i> leaves identified within pottery sherds.	15, 16
<b>727-650 BP</b>	Montgomery, Powys, Wales	Single waterlogged seed comparable to <i>Brassica oleracea</i> from pit fill associated with castle	17
<b>750 - 650 BP</b>	Germany, Einbeck / Greifswald	Archaeobotanical material including mid. 14th century sewers. <sup>19</sup> p.150	18, 19
<b>Late Middle Ages 650 - 450 BP</b>	Denmark, København	Archaeobotanical finds	20
<b>Medieval 550 - 450 BP</b>	Hungary, Budapest	Waterlogged seeds in well	<sup>21</sup> (Table 6.1)
<b>650-350 BP</b>	Germany, Stralsund, Kiel; Lüneburg; Greifswald	Mainly waterlogged seeds of <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i>	22, 23
<b>450- 350 BP</b>	Netherlands, Haarlem	Uncertain identification of mineralised seed of <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i>	24
<b>450- 350 BP</b>	Germany, Rostock	archaeobotanical finds	25
<b>350-250 BP</b>	Belgium, Antwerpen	Seeds found in contents of 17th Century waste pit at Antwerpen	26



350-250 BP	Hungary, Buda	Probable charred seed of cabbage ( <i>Brassica</i> cf. <i>oleracea</i> ) found within waste pit	27
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**Table S7:** Literary and artistic sources covering the Classical Greek, Roman, and medieval and post-medieval sources. BP = years before the present (1950).

Date	Countries	Notes	References
2500-2000 BP	Ionian Greece	Earliest textual reference. Refers to a "seven-leaved" cabbage in iambic verse. Perhaps as an oath or offering.	Hipponax, Fr.104 <sup>1</sup> p. 145
2410-2320 BP	Classical Greece	Refers to cabbage in a few medicinal recipes	Hippocrates, <i>Nat Mul.</i> 32, <i>Mul</i> 1.78 <sup>2</sup> p. 75
ca. 2320-2238/2235 BP	Classical Greece	3 varieties: smooth & seedless (capita), larger leafed, sweeter parsley/curly-leaved, and a wild type bitter taste with many branches and smaller leaves may be <i>B. cretica</i> (see <sup>3</sup> p. 20)	Theophrastus <i>Historia Plantarum</i> VII. iv .4-6 <sup>4</sup> pp. 84-85 Athenaeus <i>The Deipnosophists</i> 9.9 <sup>5</sup> pp. 582-3
ca. 2150-2250 BP	Cyclades, Greece	States the finest cabbages grow in Cyme, but bitter in Alexandria. Seed brought from Rhodes produces a sweet cabbage than after a year taste degenerates.	Diphilus of Siphnus (the Siphnian). Athenaeus <i>The Deipnosophists</i> 9.9 <sup>5</sup> pp. 582-3
ca. 2150-2050 BP	Classical Greece	3 varieties smooth, parsley-leaved and salty. Last has delicate taste and grows in Eretria, Cyme and Rhodes (and in Cnidos and Ephesus).	Eudemus f. 85, Quoted in Athenaeus <i>The Deipnosophists</i> 9.9 <sup>5</sup> pp. 582-3
ca. 2150-2050 BP	Greece +	Smooth leaved, sometimes found wild. Also a curly leaved and one of reddish color.	Nicander <i>Georgics</i> . f.85. Athenaeus <i>The Deipnosophists</i> 9.9 <sup>5</sup> pp. 582-3
ca. 2110 BP	Classical Roman Italy	Lists smooth-leaved, curly leaved (apiaca), a small stalked, pungent tender variety and wild type	Cato, Marcus <sup>6</sup> <i>De Agricultura</i> . Capitula CLVI-CLVII:156-157, 1 pp. 144-151
1873-1871 BP	Classical Roman Italy	Lists many varieties.	<sup>7</sup> 41.19.
1700-1500 BP	Egypt	List of Monastic sources from Egyptian papyri	Oxyrhynchus Papyri XIV 1656 (BL), <sup>8</sup>
1600-1500 BP	Roman	Cited in nine recipes attributed to Apicius: dealing with Cimæ (cymae) & Coliculi (refers to sprouts, young cabbage and soft cabbage)	<sup>9</sup> Apicus III, ix.87-92, x.94, xii.99 & xv.103
1180-1150 BP	France/Germany	Capitularies of Charlemagne Caulos & Ravacaulos (Kohlrabi)	Capitulare de Villis <sup>10</sup> p. 90
Medieval 1150-650 BP	Poland, Krakow	archaeobotanical and literary sources. See <sup>11</sup> for identification criteria (also <sup>12</sup> )	<sup>11</sup> , <sup>12</sup>
Medieval Spain ca. 990-600 BP	Spain	Translations of qannabit & kurunb would indicate cauliflower & cabbage from c.960 AD	<sup>13</sup>
750-550 BP	France/Switzerland	Le Viandier de Taillevent: Collection of medieval recipes. Mentioned in one recipe.	<sup>14</sup>

<b>Late Middle Ages 650-450 BP</b>	Czech Republic	Reference to cabbage, garlic and onion in cooking and medicine	15
<b>Late Middle Ages 650-450 BP</b>	Estonia, Tartu	Written and artistic depictions of <i>Brassica oleracea</i>	16, 17
<b>450-250 BP</b>	Flanders and Netherlands	Depictions of cauliflower and cabbages in art.	18
<b>450-350 BP</b>	Russia		Sil'vestr's Domostroi
<b>396 BP</b>	Flemish	lists 5 types of cabbage - white, red, savoy, Roosken (pale red) and curly kale	19
<b>370 BP</b>	England	Refers to time of sowing and Ionians holding them as sacred	20
<b>303 BP</b>	Denmark	<i>Brassica oleracea capitata</i> referred to as garden plant in <i>Horticultura Danica</i>	21

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**Table S8.** Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) values for Maxent environmental niche model runs for putative wild relatives of *Brassica oleracea* crops.

Species	AUC
<i>B. hilarionis</i>	0.988
<i>B. insularis</i>	0.954
<i>B. macrocarpa</i>	0.982
<i>B. montana</i>	0.972
<i>B. oleracea</i>	0.989
<i>B. rupestris</i>	0.979
<i>B. villosa</i>	0.977
<i>B. incana</i>	0.967
<i>B. cretica</i>	0.988

**Table 1.** Wild species which have been proposed as progenitor species for *B. oleracea* crop types. Specific location in parentheses if indicated by the author.

<b>Cultivar</b>	<b>Wild relative</b>	<b>Author</b>
Broccoli	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Hedrick (1919) *
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Giles (1941) **
	<i>B. montana</i>	Hegi (1919)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (from Italy)	Giles (1941)
	<i>B. cretica</i>	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)
Brussels sprouts	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (western Europe)	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (western Europe)	Snogerup (1980)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)
Cabbage	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	de Candolle (1824)
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Hedrick (1919) *
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Bailey (1930)
	<i>B. montana</i>	Hegi (1919)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (western Europe)	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (western Europe)	Snogerup (1980)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)
Cauliflower	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	de Candolle (1824)
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Bailey (1930)
	<i>B. montana</i>	Hegi (1919)
	<i>B. cretica</i>	Schulz (1936)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (from Cyprus)	Giles (1941)
	<i>B. cretica</i>	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)
	<i>B. cretica</i>	Tutin et al. (1964)
Kale	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Hedrick (1919) *
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Bailey (1930)
	<i>B. montana</i>	Hegi (1919)
	<i>B. montana</i>	Netroufal (1927)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> (western Europe)	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. cretica</i> , <i>B. incana</i> , <i>B. rupestris</i>	Snogerup (1980)
	<i>B. incana</i> and <i>B. insularia</i>	Hosaka et al. (1990)
Kohlrabi	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)
	<i>B. oleracea</i>	Linnaeus
	<i>B. rupestris</i>	Netroufal (1927)
	Unknown Mediterranean species	Gates (1953)
	<i>B. oleracea</i> and <i>B. alboglabra</i>	Song et al. (1990)

\* edited observations by Sturtevant in the late 19th century, \*\* referring to Prof Buckman's experiment