1	Functional connectivity in northern swamp deer (Rucervus duvaucelii duvaucelii)
2	population across a fragmented, human-dominated landscape along Gangetic Plains of
3	north India: Implications for conservation in non-protected areas
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51 Abstract

The Indian subcontinent has witnessed disproportionate declines in large mammalian herbivore 52 53 communities. The northern swamp deer (Rucervus duvaucelii duvaucelii) exemplifies the 54 conservation challenges of typical non-protected area species, where apart from distribution status other ecological information is limited for the upper Gangetic basin population. We 55 combined elements of radio-telemetry and conservation genetics to evaluate dispersal patterns, 56 57 population connectivity and assess genetic variation and inbreeding status of this population living across a highly human-dominated area. We genetically identified 266 unique swamp 58 59 deer and further analyses revealed presence of two spatially-admixed genetic lineages with moderate heterozygosity ($H_0=0.51$, SD=0.10) and low inbreeding ($F_{IS}=0.133$) status. Multi-60 disciplinary evidence suggests that the small, isolated grassland patches between Jhilmil Jheel 61 62 Conservation Reserve (JJCR) and Hastinapur Wildlife Sanctuary (HWLS) are highly preferred by swamp deer during migrations and are genetically connected. The southern part of the area 63 in HWLS showed early signatures of genetic discontinuity that require immediate conservation 64 65 attention. We hypothesized that the human settlement history of this landscape, river dynamics and species' ability to negotiate various pressures and disperse has helped to maintain such 66 connectivity. While these signatures are encouraging for this small, isolated cervid population, 67 careful management interventions are required to ensure the integrity and functionality of this 68 landscape. We recommend a scientifically robust population estimation approach across this 69 landscape and a multi-stakeholder-driven strategies to augment population and habitat 70 recovery, plantation and riverscape management to ensure long-term survival of this species. 71

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73 Keywords:

Grassland conservation, Herbivore population dynamics, Migratory movement patterns,
Genetic health, Cervid behaviour, Phylogeography and population estimation

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76 **1. Introduction**

The wild large mammalian communities have experienced severe population declines during 77 last century (Ceballos et al. 2010; Ripple et al. 2015). Largely driven by various anthropogenic 78 factors including overexploitation of natural resources, habitat loss and hunting (Isaac et al. 79 2007; Morrison et al. 2007), large proportions (~50%) show reduced population size whereas 80 ~25% are threatened with extinction (Schipper et al. 2008; Karanth et al. 2010). The 81 82 conservation challenges are further exacerbated due to complex and inherent life-history strategies, habitat-specificity, endemism and outside protected area distributions in many 83 84 species (Harihar 2011; Ripple et al. 2016; Punjabi and Rao 2017; Dorji et al. 2019). In particular, survival of the species residing within human-dominated landscapes will depend on 85 critical assessment of important factors that govern their ecology, demography and other 86 87 biological parameters across their distributions. The Indian subcontinent, being considered as mega-biodiversity hotspot retains a large number of such conservation-concerned species. 88 Particularly the large herbivore assemblages are facing strong impacts of anthropogenic 89 pressures where ~80% of the species are classified as 'Threatened' by IUCN (Ripple et al. 90 2015). The habitat-specialist herbivores (for example, rhinoceros, wild buffalo, swamp deer, 91 92 brow-antlered deer etc.) were designated as the most affected (Karanth et al. 2010) with recommendations for generating detailed information for their long-term conservation. 93

The obligate, grassland-dwelling swamp deer (*Rucervus duvaucelii*) is currently considered one of the most extinction-prone megaherbivore in the Indian subcontinent (Karanth et al. 2010). Once distributed across the riverine floodplains between Pakistan and Bangladesh through India, it is now restricted to isolated pockets in some parts of north, north-east and central India and south-west Nepal (Schaller 1967; Groves 1982; Sankaran 1989; Qureshi et al. 2004). Out of the three known subspecies (Pocock 1943; Ellerman and Morridon-Scott 1951; Groves 1982; Qureshi et al. 2004), the northern counterpart (*Rucervus duvaucelii*)

101 *duvaucelii*) makes up $\sim 80\%$ the global species population, distributed across two different areas in India namely the Sharda and Ganges habitat blocks spread through the northern states of 102 Uttarakhand and Uttar Pradesh (Paul et al. 2020). The Sharda habitat block is part of the Terai 103 Arc landscape whereas the Ganges habitat block represents the western-most distribution of 104 the species (Qureshi et al. 2004; Paul et al. 2020). The swamp deer populations of the Sharda 105 habitat block are relatively well studied and received adequate conservation attention as 106 107 majority of them are found within protected areas (Qureshi et al. 2004; Ahmed and Khan 2008). On the other hand, the information on swamp deer from the Ganges habitat block has been 108 109 insufficient till very recent time. Information on certain aspects of swamp deer ecology (group composition, feeding habits, activity budget- Tewari and Rawat 2013a, b, c, d, e; habitat 110 assessment- Khan et al. 2003) was available from protected areas of the Gangetic habitat block. 111 Recently, Paul et al. (2018, 2020) mapped the grassland habitats, documented detailed 112 distribution and reported potentially small, inbred and scattered populations of the northern 113 swamp deer across multiple fragmented grasslands covering both protected and non-protected 114 areas in the upper part of the Gangetic habitat block. While this information has been critical 115 in designating 'Priority Conservation Areas' in this habitat block (Paul et al. 2020), appropriate 116 conservation planning would require further detailed assessments of migration routes, 117 inbreeding status and genetic variation of this population. This is important as the Gangetic 118 block swamp deer exhibit seasonal migratory behaviour (Paul et al. 2021) and no information 119 120 on the genetic status and connectivity is available for this landscape so far.

In this paper, we investigate movement patterns and genetic status of the upper Gangetic population of the northern swamp deer. More specifically, our objectives were (1) to assess the genetic variation and inbreeding status of Gangetic swamp deer population and (2) evaluate their movement patterns and population connectivity using different approaches. We used a multidisciplinary approach through ecological surveys, radio-telemetry and genetic tools to address these questions. Our findings have critical conservation implications for this speciesand the grassland habitats within this human-dominated landscape.

128 **2. Materials and Methods:**

129 <u>2.1 Research permissions</u>

All required permissions for fieldwork and sampling were accorded by the Forest Departments
of Uttarakhand (Permit Nos: 1575/C-32 and 978/6-32/56) and Uttar Pradesh (Permit Nos.:
2233/23-2-12 and 3438/23-2-12). The radio-collaring permission was approved by the
Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change (MoEF&CC), Government of India and
Uttarakhand Forest Department (Permit No: 1-76/2017WL). Ethical approvals were provided
by the Uttarakhand Forest Department.

136 *<u>2.2 Study Area</u>*

This study was conducted in the upper Gangetic habitat block between Jhilmil Jheel 137 Conservation Reserve (JJCR), Haridwar (in Uttarakhand) and southern boundary of Hastinapur 138 Wildlife Sanctuary (HWLS), Uttar Pradesh (Fig. 1a). The area covers ~120 km stretch of the 139 Ganges river along with its tributaries Banganga and Solani. A maximum width of 8 km from 140 both banks of all these rivers was considered as the survey regions as all swamp deer habitats 141 were earlier reported within 5-6 km of the river banks (Paul et al. 2018, 2020). In total, the 142 study area comprised $\sim 3173 \text{ km}^2$ of habitat covering both protected (HWLS and JJCR- 1677 143 km² area) as well as non-protected (1496 km² area) regions. This landscape is one of the most 144 145 densely populated areas of the entire country (population density of 1164 people/ km² compared to national average of 382 people/km² (Cenus of India 2011)) with a mosaic of land 146 use patterns including agricultural fields (76%), waterbodies (7%), forest (6%), grassland (6%), 147 settlement (4%) and scrubland (1%) (Paul et al. 2021). Despite such high human footprint, 148 these habitats retain rich faunal biodiversity including swamp deer (Rucervus duvaucelii 149 duvaucelii), hog deer (Axis porcinus), nilgai (Boselaphus tragocamelus), fishing cat 150

(*Prionailurus viverrinus*), Wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) and birds such as sarus crane (*Grus antigone*),
black-necked stork (*Ephippiorhynchus asiaticus*), lesser adjutant (*Leptoptilos javanicus*),
Pallas's fish eagle (*Haliaeetus leucoryphus*) and bar-headed goose (*Anser indicus*) (Bashir et
al. 2012; Grimmett et al. 2013).

155 <u>2.3 Biological sampling, DNA extraction and species identification</u>

We used earlier field-collected ungulate samples that were obtained as part of swamp deer surveys between JJCR and southern boundary of HWLS (Paul et al. 2018, 2020) in northern India. A total of 258 antlers and 2499 pellet samples were available to estimate genetic diversity of this population. We selected a total of 488 samples (258 antlers and 230 fresh pellets) for genetic analyses as they provided homogenous spatial representation of the study area ((Fig. 1b; Supplementary Table S1). We decided to use all the antler samples as they are known to provide good quality DNA for genetic analyses (Gupta et al. 2013; Venegas et al. 2020).

In the laboratory, we performed DNA extraction from the antler and pellet samples using 163 already-established protocols (Paul et al. 2019). In brief, we cut each antler using individual 164 sterile saw blades from the base and collected the powders in separate tubes. About 20 mg of 165 the powder was weighed, decalcified (in 0.5M EDTA (pH 8) for 48 hours) followed by lysis 166 (with 40µl Proteinase K and 400µl of ATL solution at 56°C for seven days). For pellets, we 167 swabbed the top layer of each sample using sterile swabs (Biswas et al. 2019). In both cases, 168 DNA extraction was done using spin-column protocol of the QIAamp DNA Tissue Kit (Qiagen 169 170 Inc, Hilden, Germany) and DNA was eluted twice in 100µl preheated 1X TE buffer. Negative controls were kept to monitor any possible contamination. To reduce the contamination 171 chances from poor-quality samples, all pellet extractions were performed in a physically 172 separate laboratory space dedicated for non-invasive samples ensuring geographic separation 173 between pre and post-PCR workspace. Antler DNA was extracted in a separate DNA extraction 174 facility at the institute. In addition, standard procedures including regular sterilization (through 175

UV and bleach) of the laboratory between processing of different batches of samples, inclusionof extraction and PCR negatives etc. were maintained.

178 The antler samples did not require any molecular species identification due to their distinctive morphological features (six-tined patterns) (Qureshi et al. 2004). However, we used swamp 179 deer-specific molecular assays for pellet DNA (Paul et al. 2019) to remove other co-existing 180 ungulates from further genetic analyses. The PCR reactions (10µl volume) contained 4µl 181 182 multiplex buffer (QIAGEN Inc.), 4µg of BSA (4mg/ml), 0.25 µM of primer mix and 2µl each of 1:10 diluted DNA extracts and DNAse-RNAse free water with following conditions: initial 183 184 denaturation (95°C for 15 min); 45 cycles of denaturation (95°C for 30 sec), annealing (50°C for 40 sec) and extension (72°C for 40 sec), followed by a final extension (72°C for 10 min). 185 Negative controls were included to monitor contamination. The amplified products were 186 checked in 2% agarose gel for species-specific band patterns (Paul et al. 2019). Samples not 187 confirmed with swamp deer-specific markers were subjected to an ungulate-specific molecular 188 assay (Gupta et al. 2014). Amplified products were cleaned with Exonuclease (Thermo 189 Scientific, Waltham, USA) and Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase (Amresco, Solon, USA) mixture 190 and sequenced bidirectionally in an ABI 3500XL bioanalyzer (Applied Biosystems). The 191 sequences were aligned, manually screened for any ambiguities and matched against the 192 Genbank database. 193

194 2.4 Individual identification and molecular sexing

The swamp deer population along the upper Gangetic plains is known to be small, fragmented and potentially inbred (Paul et al. 2020), and thus it was important to develop a marker panel for individual identification with high statistical support. We selected a set of 48 microsatellite markers (developed for red deer, Coulson et al. 1998) based on available information on polymorphism, amplicon size and success in cross-species amplification. We adopted a costeffective universal M13 primer-based approach (Schuelke 2000; Csencsics et al. 2010)) to 201 screen these markers with a set of reference swamp deer samples (24 antlers and 18 genetically identified pellets). The shortlisting criteria included (i) amplification success, (ii) amplicon 202 size, (iii) polymorphism, (iv) ease in allele calling and (v) stable allele characteristics (Hoffman 203 and Amos 2005; Pompanon et al. 2005; Linacre et al. 2011; Johnson et al. 2014; Ghosh et al. 204 2021). PCR reactions were performed in 10µl volumes containing 4µl Qiagen multiplex PCR 205 master mix (QIAGEN Inc.), 0.2µM forward primer, 0.1µM reverse primer, 0.2µM labelled 206 207 M13 primer, BSA (4mg/ml) and 2µl of the DNA extract (1:10 diluted) with negative controls. PCR reactions included an initial denaturation at 95°C for 15 min; 45 cycles of denaturation at 208 209 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 57°C for 40 sec, extension at 72°C for 40 sec; final extension at 72°C for 20 min. PCR products were genotyped (with HIDI formamide and Liz 500 size 210 standard) in an automated sequencer ABI 3500XL (Applied Biosystems). To ensure good data 211 212 quality each marker was amplified three independent times. Alleles were scored using program GENEMARKER (Soft genetics Inc., Pennsylvania, United States) and data quality was 213 maintained by using 'quality index' approach (Miquel et al. 2006; Modi et al. 2018), where a 214 quality score of 0.66 or above was approved. The final set of markers was individually labeled. 215 standardised as multiplex reactions and compared (with the M13 data) for data consistency. 216 We used molecular sexing assay (Paul et al. 2019) to ascertain sex of the individually identified 217

pellet samples. The PCR reactions contained 4µl multiplex buffer (QIAGEN Inc.), 4µg of BSA
(4mg/ml), 0.25 µM of primer mix, 2µl each of 1:10 diluted DNA extracts and DNAse-RNAse
free water. PCR conditions included an initial denaturation (95°C for 15 min); 45 cycles of
denaturation (95°C for 30 sec), annealing (57°C for 40 sec) and extension (72°C for 40 sec),
followed by a final extension (72°C for 10 min). Negative controls were included to monitor
contamination. The amplified products were checked in 3% agarose gel for sex-specific band
patterns (Paul et al. 2019).

225 2.5 Data analysis

226 <u>2.5.1 Genetic variation</u>

We ascertained genetic recaptures by comparing all the genotype data in program CERVUS 227 (Kalinowski et al. 2007). After removing the recaptures, we used program GIMLET (Valière 228 2002) to identify the low-frequency alleles (less than 10% in the entire data set) for 229 confirmation and calculated PID(sibs) for the dataset. For the final microsatellite panel, we 230 calculated locus-wise and overall summary statistics (GIMLET (Valière 2002) and genotyping 231 232 error rates (MICROCHECKER v 2.2.369 (Van Oosterhout et al. 2004), FreeNA (Dempster et al. 1977; Chapuis and Estoup 2007) and data-based calculations (Broquet and Petit 2004)). 233 234 Program ARLEQUIN (Excoffier et al. 2005) was used to determine Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and linkage disequilibrium. 235

236 <u>2.5.2 Population structure detection</u>

We used both Bayesian (STRUCTURE and GENELAND) as well as non-Bayesian (DAPC) 237 approaches to infer patterns of swamp deer genetic structure within the study area. In 238 STRUCTURE analyses, we performed 10 independent runs for each cluster value (K) between 239 1 and 10 with both non-spatial and locprior models, along with correlated allele frequency 240 model. A total of 450,000 iterations and 50,000 burn-in were performed. For the locprior 241 model-based analyses, we stratified the 120 km stretch of Ganges river in the study area into 242 five continuous blocks (each block length ~24 km) based on earlier recorded swamp deer 243 movement patterns in this landscape (Paul et al. 2021). The optimal value of K was assessed 244 245 using the "Evanno" method in STRUCTURE HARVESTER web version (Earl and vonHoldt 2012). The individuals were sorted as "pure" or "admixed" based on 70% ancestry coefficient 246 threshold values (Ashrafzadeh et al. 2021). We also used another Bayesian clustering approach 247 248 implemented in program GENELAND version 4.0.3 (Guillot et al. 2005) to assess spatial patterns of genetic structure without assuming admixture (Guillot et al. 2005; De et al. 2021). 249 We used the spatial model assuming 10 clusters (with no uncertainty on coordinates), 250

correlated allele frequencies and ran the analyses with 100000 iterations of which every 100th 251 observation was retained. Additionally, to test the extent of genetic structuring in this 252 landscape, we used a non-Bayesian programme, Discriminant Analysis of Principal 253 Components (DAPC) using R-package 'adegenet' (Jombart et al. 2010) in R studio 1.1.463. 254 This approach transforms the genetic data into principal components, followed by clustering to 255 define group of individuals with a consideration of minimum within-group variation and 256 257 maximum between-group variations among the clusters. We used the apriori population cluster assignment approach (five locations as used in Structure locprior model) where we selected the 258 number of Principal Components based on optimisation of 'a' score through spline 259 interpolation (De et al. 2021). We calculated genetic differentiation (pairwise Fst) in 260 ARLEQUIN version 3.1 (Excoffier et al. 2005) between the genetic groups used in Structure 261 analysis (Estes-Zumpf et al. 2010; He et al. 2010; Zachos et al. 2016). 262

263 <u>2.5.3 Inbreeding and relatedness analysis</u>

264 We used individual-level genetic data to assess the degree of inbreeding in this population. We calculated inbreeding coefficient (FIS) using program FSTAT (version 2.9.3.2; (Goudet 2002), 265 where p value was computed through 13000 randomisations (Gibbs et al. 1997; Heuertz et al. 266 2004; Hernández et al. 2020). Further, we used program ML-RELATE (Kalinowski et al. 2006) 267 to calculate maximum likelihood estimates of pair-wise relatedness and relationship categories 268 between individuals. We selected highly related individuals (relatedness value of >0.6) with 269 100% amplification at all loci and plotted their geographical distribution in this landscape to 270 establish genetic signatures of movements (Rodzen et al. 2004; Puill-Stephan et al. 2009; 271 272 D'Aloia et al. 2018).

273 <u>2.6 Capture, collaring and telemetry analysis</u>

We undertook radio-collaring study to understand movement patterns of swamp deer in this landscape. We collared two apparently healthy female swamp deer using drive net approach in

JJCR, Uttarakhand during May-June 2018 (Kock et al. 1987; López-Olvera et al. 2009). The 276 animals were acclimatised (for three months) to the conditions before collaring operations. 277 Once captured in the net, the animals were blindfolded and administered with a mild dose of 278 sedative Azaperone (40mg/ml dose) and fitted with GPS Vertex Plus satellite collars 279 (Vectronic Aerospace). The collars were set to provide information on latitude, longitude, time 280 and temperature at every 2-hour interval. The two collared animals were monitored for 14 281 282 months (Female 1) and 11 months (Female 2), respectively to understand their movement routes and identify the critical stopover sites (based on 10% of total locations in any site, 283 284 (Sawyer and Kauffman 2011). We analysed various movement parameters (total distance travelled, longest distance from starting point, mean step length, mean speed etc.) in ArcGIS 285 10.2.2. using the ArcMET (version 3) (Wall et al. 2013; Wall 2014). We performed Net squared 286 displacement (NSD) analysis to categorise the movement patterns into different classes 287 (migratory, mixed migratory, nomadic, dispersal and home range) for each individual 288 (Bunnefeld et al. 2011). 289

290 **3. Results:**

Out of 230 field-collected faecal pellets, 159 were confirmed as swamp deer, making the total sample size as 417 (258 antlers and 159 pellet samples) for downstream analysis. The remaining samples either belonged to other herbivores (n=44, nilgai-22; hog deer-16; barking deer-3 and domestic goat-3) or did not produce any results (n=27, possibly due to poor DNA quality).

296 <u>3.1 Microsatellite markers and swamp deer genetic diversity</u>

During initial standardization, 27 of the initially selected 48 markers were rejected due to various reasons (no amplification- two loci, inconsistent amplification- five loci, multiple bands- 16 loci, non-specific bands- four loci). Further scrutiny of the remaining markers (n=21) revealed that two loci showed excessive stutter bands and low RFUs, three loci did not produce stable allele characteristics and three markers showed inconsistent results with antler and pellet DNA, resulting in a final microsatellite panel consisting 13 loci (Supplementary Table S2). During individual identification, samples with at least 10 loci data were considered based on a statistically strong $P_{ID(sibs)}$ value of $1*10^{-4}$ (given that the global population of swamp deer is ~5000 individuals, (Duckworth et al. 2015).

We generated 10 or more loci data from 298 samples (190 antlers and 108 pellet samples), 306 307 which resulted in identifying 266 unique swamp deer individuals (from 168 antlers and 98 faecal pellets). Remaining 32 genotypes were identified as genetic recaptures (ranging from 1-308 309 3 recaptures of already identified individuals). The standardized STR panel showed a mean 91.19% success rate (84.93-95.14% range) and low genotyping errors (mean frequency of null 310 alleles, false alleles and mean allelic dropout rate was 0.06 (range 0-0.17), 0.09 (range 0.05-311 312 0.15) and 0.09 (range 0.04-0.18), respectively). Overall, the panel was found to be moderately polymorphic with a mean of 6 alleles (SD 3.48, varying between 2-13 alleles) and expected 313 and observed heterozygosity of 0.60 (SD 0.15) and 0.51 (SD 0.10), respectively. None of the 314 loci deviated from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and we found no strong linkage 315 disequilibrium. Loci-wise summary statistics are shown in Table 1. Molecular sexing of the 316 faecal pellets (n=98) ascertained 47 female and 51 male samples (219 males and 47 females in 317 total). 318

319 *<u>3.2 Population Structure</u>*

The STRUCTURE results (with locprior model) show three genetic lineages (based on ancestry admixture coefficient threshold of 70%) in the swamp deer population (K=3). These three genetic lineages can be divided into the following groups: Group I- 44 individuals, Group II-126 individuals and Group III- 16 individuals, respectively. In addition, remaining 80 individuals showed signatures of mixed genetic lineages (mostly between Groups I and II) (Fig. 2a). The non-spatial model indicated K=2, where 87, 81 and 98 individuals were assigned to

Group I, Group II and Group III (admixed), respectively. The DAPC analysis (with five apriori 326 groups) showed the first four groups were overlapping whereas the fifth group formed a distinct 327 entity. When examined closely, we found that individuals forming Group I, II and the mixed 328 group (from STURCTURE locprior analysis) and first four groups (from DAPC analysis) were 329 found throughout the landscape. The Group III from STRUCTURE locprior and the fifth 330 DAPC group was mostly restricted to southern part of HWLS below Bijnor Barrage (Blocks 4 331 332 and 5) (Figs. 2b, 2c). Taken together, we interpret that the swamp deer population between JJCR and HWLS is genetically connected. The genetic differentiation among these five groups 333 334 ranged between 0.005-0.09 (Table 2). However, the results of the GENELAND analyses suggests two genetic clusters (mode of posterior distribution at K=2) across the study 335 landscape: the first cluster corresponding with the STRUCTURE locprior results (Group I, II 336 and the mixed lineages formed a single group) and the second cluster corroborated with the 337 separate group (Group III in case of STRUCTURE locprior and fifth group as per the DAPC 338 analysis) (Fig. 2d). 339

340 3.3 Inbreeding status

Based on the genetic data from the swamp deer individuals sampled in the upper Gangetic 341 habitat (n=266), we found the inbreeding co-efficient (mean F_{IS} value) to be 0.128 (p<0.05), 342 indicating low levels of inbreeding. Overall, the males (n=219) show slightly higher F_{IS} value 343 of 0.175 (p < 0.05) than the females (n=47, F_{IS}- 0.133 (p < 0.05)). Pair-wise average relatedness 344 345 ranged between 0.0001-0.93 across the dataset. When the locations of all the highly-related individual pairs (relatedness>0.6, n=39 pairs) were plotted, eight pairs were found to be spread 346 across the study landscape, supporting recent movement of individuals in this landscape 347 (Supplementary Fig. S1). 348

349 <u>3.4 Radio-collaring</u>

Path trajectory analyses for both females (Female 1-14 months and Female 2- 11 months) 350 showed a downward linear distance movement of 18 and 28 km for them, respectively. The 351 352 maximum linear distance travelled, average step length, speed and other parameters for both the collared individuals are summarised in Table 3 (Figs. 3a, 3b). NSD analysis suggests that 353 Female 1 exhibited mixed migratory (returning to a location situated midway between initial 354 point and furthest point) whereas Female 2 showed migratory (returning back to its original 355 356 location after 9 months) type movement patterns (Figs. 3c, 3d). Some of the important stopover points during swamp deer movement routes between JJCR and HWLS are grassland patches 357 358 within Ranjeetpur and adjacent river island complex (Point c in Figs. 3a, 3b), Amichand-Nangal complex (Point d in Figs. 3a, 3b) and Sukhapur-Manwala-Chandpuri complex (Point e 359 in Fig. 3b). 360

361 4. Discussion

The densely-populated upper Gangetic plains of north India currently retain the westernmost 362 distribution of swamp deer population that faces acute anthropogenic pressures in the form of 363 habitat loss from rapid urbanisation, expanding human population and associated agricultural 364 activities (Paul et al. 2020). As significant portion of these available habitats fall outside 365 protected area jurisdictions, habitat conservation and population management is experiencing 366 serious challenges. Further, scattered and inadequate information on their habitat use and 367 movement patterns across the landscape make any conservation plan difficult. This study has 368 369 generated probably the most exhaustive primary information on swamp deer dispersal patterns and genetic status in this landscape showcasing the importance of the remaining patchy 370 grassland habitats for their future survival. Our assessments based on a combination of genetic 371 372 and radio-telemetry approaches revealed that the entire fragmented landscape between JJCR and HWLS is functionally connected and the small, isolated patches of the grasslands are 373 regularly used by swamp deer for their seasonal dispersals. These results substantiate the earlier 374

research focused on the importance of the remnant grassland habitats from this landscape 375 (Khan and Khan 1999; Khan et al. 2003; Qureshi et al. 2004; Tewari and Rawat 2013b; Paul 376 et al. 2018, 2020; Mondol et al. 2019). Such combined approaches have been adopted in other 377 studies to derive conclusions about connection between geneflow and movement patterns 378 (Riley et al. 2006; Boulet et al. 2007; Kaczensky et al. 2011; Gustafson et al. 2017; Carvalho 379 et al. 2018). One of the most important outcome of this study is identification of 266 northern 380 381 swamp deer individuals within the Gangetic habitat block region. This is probably the first report of confirmed minimum numbers of this subspecies from this landscape. The latest 382 383 assessment of the northern subspecies population size is reported as ~3500 (Prakash et al. 2012; Duckworth et al. 2015; Wildlife Institute of India 2017; Islam et al. 2022), but the methods 384 through which this assessment have been made (for example, direct count by foot and elephant 385 back- Sinha et al. 2007; direct count elephant back and vehicle sampling- Ahmed and Khan 386 2008; focal sampling- Rastogi et al. 2023 method used in Jhilmil Jheel Conservation Reserve 387 and Dudhwa Tiger Reserve) require detailed validations. There is an urgent need to compare 388 different population estimation approaches for swamp deer and establish a reliable method for 389 this. Results from such accurate population estimation across their distribution will strongly 390 help in re-evaluating the species conservation status (currently considered as 'Vulnerable' by 391 IUCN (Duckworth et al. 2015)) and help in their conservation. This is particularly important 392 as significant portion of the northern swamp deer distribution is outside protected area regime, 393 394 where conventional management/ conservation efforts based on Government regulations are ineffective. In this regard, future efforts should consider using standard genetic (microsatellites 395 as in this study and others-Coulon et al. 2006 Frantz et al. 2006Miotto et al. 2011Atterby et al. 396 397 2015 Vergara et al. 2015) or genomic (SNPs-Edea et al. 2013; Viengkone et al. 2016; Brito et al. 2017; Hua and Minghai 2017) markers in a mark capture-recapture framework to estimate 398 swamp deer populations in this landscape (Andreotti et al. 2016; Kierepka et al. 2016; Sethi et 399

al. 2016; Viengkone et al. 2016; Blåhed et al. 2019; Cook et al. 2020; Li et al. 2020) and assess
landscape-scale genetic and demographic parameters, as other standard population estimation
approaches such as Camera Trap, Line Transect- (Andriolo et al. 2005; Fragoso et al. 2016;
Meek et al. 2019; Paul et al. 2019). are not conducive in the human-dominated landscape.

The extensive swamp deer genetic sampling throughout this landscape has provided some 404 unexpected insights into the species genetic connectivity and health in the Gangetic habitat 405 406 block. Earlier studies and information suggested that the swamp deer population in this region is small, scattered and possibly inbred (due to limited connectivity through human-dominated 407 408 areas) (Paul et al. 2018). However, our results clearly disproved such notions regarding swamp deer movement patterns through the geneflow analyses. The weak genetic structure, random 409 spatially-distinct distribution of some highly-related individuals (n=16 individuals (13M: 3F), 410 411 r=0.6) and no isolation by distance patterns reflect movement events despite fragmentation in this landscape. Although very small numbers of related individuals are found in this study, the 412 implications are very important for this highly-fragmented natural patches of grassland 413 habitats. Large number of studies conducted on various terrestrial mammalian systems report 414 a direct relationship between habitat loss/fragmentation and reduction in genetic connectivity 415 (carnivore- Riley et al. 2006; Carvalho et al. 2018; herbivore- Niedziałkowska et al. 2012; 416 herbivore- (Fraser et al. 2019); omnivore- (Sato et al. 2014)), but several works on ungulates 417 corroborate our findings (Caribou- Boulet et al. 2007; Mager et al. 2013 White-tailed deer-418 419 Blanchong et al. 2013; African Buffalo- Epps et al. 2013). Such findings often result from a complex interplay between the environment dynamics and the species ability to disperse and 420 breed successfully (Ito et al. 2013; Mager et al. 2013). The radio-telemetry data confirmed 421 these patterns by providing fine-scale insights on swamp deer dispersal and intensive use of 422 the grassland patches as 'stopover sites' during their movement. Net Squared Displacement 423 (NSD) results suggested that the two individuals exhibited migratory (Female 2) and mixed 424

migratory (Female 1) patterns, respectively. The stopover sites identified on the movement 425 routes of both individuals between JJCR and HWLS probably act as important refugia for 426 swamp deer and aid in maintaining genetic connectivity (as evident from the 2nd individual 427 movement data (Fig. 3b)). These results support earlier reports of swamp deer congregations 428 during summer months (to feed on young vegetation in the floodplains) and migrations at the 429 onset of monsoon (Schaaf 1978; Qureshi et al. 2004). Further, the sugarcane fields possibly 430 431 help in movement between stopover sights in certain time of the year (Paul et al. 2021), as reported from other studies from India (Wikramanayake et al. 2004; Athreya et al. 2007, 2013; 432 433 Talukdar and Sinha 2013; Warrier et al. 2020). It is however important to realise that these inferences are based on only two collared individual females, and future efforts to radio-tag 434 more animals (including both male and females) from different parts of this landscape could 435 help us to ascertain the main drivers of such seasonal movement events. The spatially 436 exhaustive, homogenous sampling comprising both male (n=219 individuals) and female 437 (n=47 individuals) based analyses also indicate non-biased, gender-common movement 438 pattern, as reported in other cervids (White-tailed deer- Long et al. 2005, 2008, Roe deer-439 Gaillard et al. 2008; Bonnot et al. 2010, Red deer- Perez-Espona et al. 2010. Another 440 encouraging result from this study that has significant swamp deer conservation implications 441 is the moderate heterozygosity and low inbreeding status of this population. The heterozygosity 442 value ranged between 0.38 to 0.84 across loci (Average Ho= 0.51, SD=0.10) and is consistent 443 444 with other deer species (Kuehn et al. 2003; Feulner et al. 2004; Lee et al. 2015; Mukesh et al. 2015), including previous studies on swamp deer (Kumar et al. 2017). However, the low 445 inbreeding value (F_{IS}) contradicts earlier reports from JJCR (Kumar et al. 2017) which forms 446 only a part of the entire Ganges population. This pattern of genetic admixture, moderate 447 heterozygosity, relatively low inbreeding and random spatial organisation of related 448 individuals can be explained to some extent by the species biology and history of this 449

landscape. Till the 1940s-1950s, impenetrable swamps and high incidences of malaria 450 infestation made this region inhabitable. The subsequent eradication of malaria with 451 introduction of DDT (as an anti-mosquito agent) and major resettlement of people from 452 erstwhile East Pakistan by the Government of India (Johnsingh et al. 2004) resulted in a sharp 453 human-population increase. Severe encroachment of grasslands for agriculture has led to 454 decline of these swampy grassland habitats from the 70s and 80s (Johnsingh et al. 2004). 455 456 Despite such loss of habitats, the seasonal movement behaviour of swamp deer (Martin and Gopal 2015) helps maintaining genetic mixing among these fragmented grassland patches, 457 458 which has earlier been reported as their breeding grounds (Paul et al. 2021). This is also evident from the patterns of very low pairwise F_{ST} values (between Zones 1 to 5). Manifestations of 459 genetic discontinuity might take a longer period as it is reported that Fst has a lag time of about 460 200 generations before it can be detected due to the formation of new barriers (Landguth et al. 461 2010). IBD tests have a much shorter lag period (1-15 generations) to detect barrier effects 462 (Landguth et al. 2010), but for a vagile species like swamp deer we did not expect to observe 463 impacts of IBD given the movement patterns seen in this relatively small landscape. Our 464 results indicate presence of two intermixing swamp deer genetic lineages along the Gangetic 465 habitat blocks and further efforts are required to understand their origin and status by sampling 466 the Sharda habitat block, which is the largest population of northern swamp deer. Additionally, 467 preliminary evidences also indicate slightly different genetic signatures from the samples 468 469 collected from the southern part of the study area (zone 5). This area is known to harbour very low-density swamp deer-occurring habitats (Mondol et al. 2019; Paul et al. 2020) and further 470 sampling from these areas is required to ascertain the actual patterns. 471

472 **5.** Conservation implications

473 Our genetic and radio-collaring data suggest that despite severe anthropogenic pressures
474 between JJCR and HWLS, the swamp deer population is connected, retains moderate genetic

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diversity, and exhibits low levels of inbreeding. These are encouraging signatures for a small, 475 fragmented and isolated cervid population and should be considered carefully for appropriate 476 477 conservation/management plans. It is important to understand that even though the landscape continues to be functional (active geneflow and animal movement), maintaining the integrity 478 and functionality with very high human density (1164 people/km²- (Census of India 2011) and 479 associated anthropogenic activities will remain the most important challenge in future. Recent 480 481 reports indicate ~57% loss of grassland habitats (to agricultural conversion) along the upper Gangetic plains during last 30 years (Paul et al. 2021), and therefore conservation of the 482 483 identified 'stopover sites' is absolutely critical as landscape changes can impact gene flow in fragmented landscapes (Fraser et al. 2019). Our field-based mapping and radio-telemetry data 484 points show that majority of the heavily-used stopover sites (at least from the two collared 485 animals) are found in the non-protected areas bordering the states of Uttarakhand and Uttar 486 Pradesh. Therefore, we recommend a jointly-prepared protection and grassland recovery plan 487 by Uttarakhand and Uttar Pradesh Forest departments to control encroachment and grazing 488 pressures on these grassland patches and ensure functional connectivity between JJCR and 489 HWLS. Our intensive survey efforts and subsequent identification of individuals indicate an 490 unequal swamp deer distribution in this landscape, where the area above Bijnor Barrage 491 harbours more individuals (n=216 individuals in 1714 km²) compared to below the Barrage 492 (n=50 individuals in 1459 km²). This corroborates with the available habitat loss information 493 494 (~50% loss in upper part of Bijnor Barrage and ~65% loss below Barrage area) (Paul et al. 2021). Recent conservation initiatives have identified "Priority Conservation Areas" (Paul et 495 al. 2020) in this landscape and ensured government approval of HWLS boundary 496 497 reappropriation (Mondol et al. 2019) and therefore it is critical to focus on the management of the lower part of Bijnor Barrage. The Gangetic ecosystem is highly dynamic and protecting the 498 grasslands would require collaborative efforts involving multiple stakeholders including 499

500 several government departments (Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare, Ministry of 501 Housing and Urban Affairs, Department of Water Resources, River Development and Ganga 502 Rejuvenation, Department of Revenue etc.) to strategize appropriate habitat recovery, 503 plantation management, distribution of minimum numbers of agricultural licenses along rivers, 504 review of the land tenure/revenue records, the release of water from dams/barrages etc. Such 505 comprehensive effort only can ensure long-term viability of these productive habitats.

506 Around 5,000 swamp deer remain in the wild globally (Duckworth et al. 2015), but currently the focus of their conservation is limited to the protected areas (Mondol et al. 2019; Paul et al. 507 508 2020). The Gangetic habitat population represents the western-most distribution of the species and the future is promising, provided that connectivity is maintained and habitat management 509 becomes an important conservation agenda in immediate future. We hope that the results 510 presented in this study would bring out the conservation attention to all concerned stakeholders 511 and help ensuring the long-term persistence of this species outside protected area habitats. 512 Given that a large number of species are distributed outside protected areas globally, this study 513 could become an example to deal with the conservation challenges faced by them. 514

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900 Statements and Declarations

901 Author contributions

- SM, DM, BP conceived the study idea. SM and BP generated funds and supervised the study.
- BH procured the collars. PN spearheaded the collaring-operation. SP, BP, SM, DM and BH all
- supported in collaring-operation. SP conducted sampling and data generation. SS and GP
- supported in data generation and analysis. SP and SM wrote the initial manuscript. SP, SM and
- 906 SS revised the draft and all authors approved the final draft.

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- 912 The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis decision to publish, or
- 913 preparation of the manuscript.

914 Data availability

- 915 The data generated in this study is available in Figshare
- 916 (https://figshare.com/s/fe0cb79541ca8b3ae2ea)

917 Competing interests

- 918 The authors have not disclosed any competing interests
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925 Figure Legend:

Fig. 1: Representation of the study area and sampling efforts between Jhilmil Jheel Conservation Reserve (JJCR), Uttarakhand and Hastinapur Wildlife Sanctuary (HWLS), Uttar Pradesh. The section (a) (left panel) shows the protected areas (JJCR and HWLS) along with all the digitized grassland patches along the rivers Ganges and its tributaries Banganga and Solani. The section (b) (right panel) shows the locations of various types of samples used in this study within five distinct study blocks (24 km long stretches based on earlier recorded swamp deer movement patterns) along river Ganges.

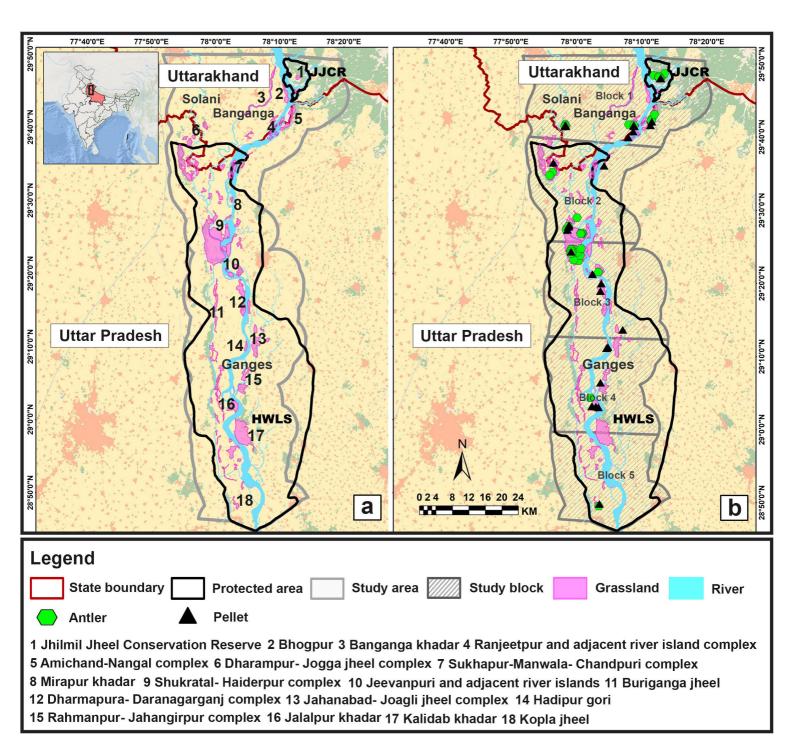
Fig. 2: Outcomes of various Bayesian (STRUCTURE and GENELAND) and non-Bayesian (DAPC) genetic connectivity analyses for northern swamp deer. Panel (a) shows the distribution of different swamp deer genetic groups across this landscape; Panel (b) shows the DAPC results indicating genetic clusters (K=5) corresponding to the five study blocks; Panel (c) showing the genetic admixture patterns of the identified individuals based on sampled study blocks and; Panel (d) showing GENELAND outputs at K=2 where clear genetic discontinuity of study block 5 is depicted.

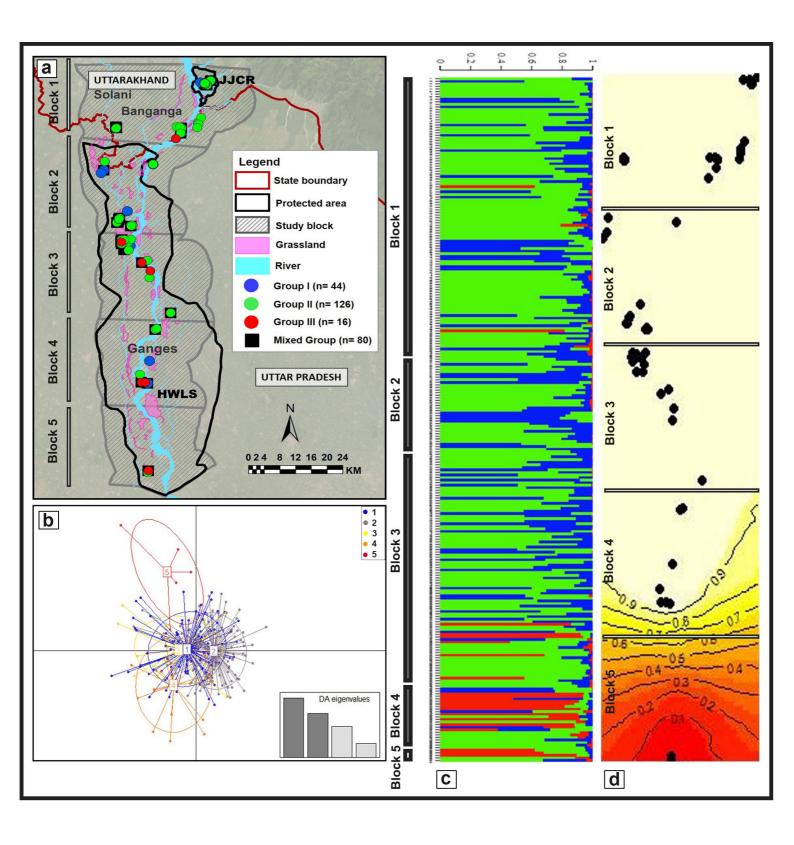
Fig. 3: Movement patterns of two collared swamp deer females. Both panels (a) and (b) show
the movement trajectory paths, intensive use areas and stopover sites along the river Ganges.
Panels (c) and (d) shows the NSDs of the respective individuals depicting their migration types.
Supplementary Fig. 1: Representation of spatial heterogeneity among some related
individuals (r>0.6) sampled in our survey, indicating genetic connectivity and recent
movement events within this landscape. Each pair of related individuals (total eight pairs) is
indicated by same symbols presented in the figure.

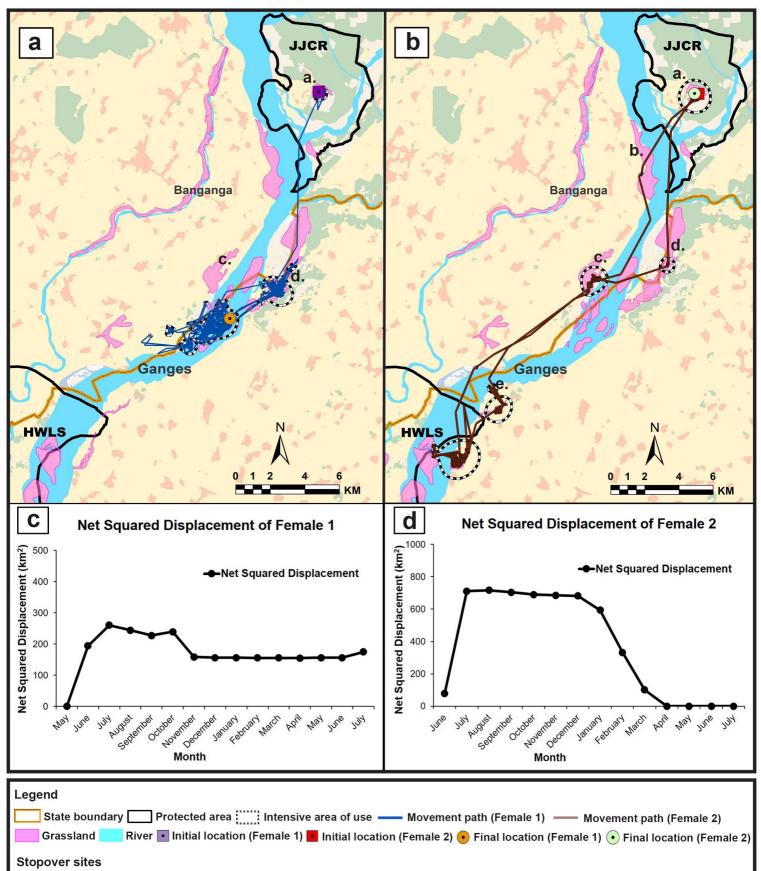
947 Table Legend:

Table 1: Summary statistics of the 13 microsatellite loci used for population genetic analysesof swamp deer in this study.

- **Table 2:** Genetic differentiation (pairwise Fst) between five study blocks in the upper Gangetic
- 951 plains, north India.
- **Table 3:** Basic movement parameters calculated for the two collared swamp deer females in
- 953 this study.
- 954 Supplementary Table 1: Details (Grasslands, Blocks, Districts, States) of all locations of the
- antlers and pellets collected in this study.
- 956 Supplementary Table 2: Details of the initial set of 48 primers tested for swamp deer
- 957 individual identification.







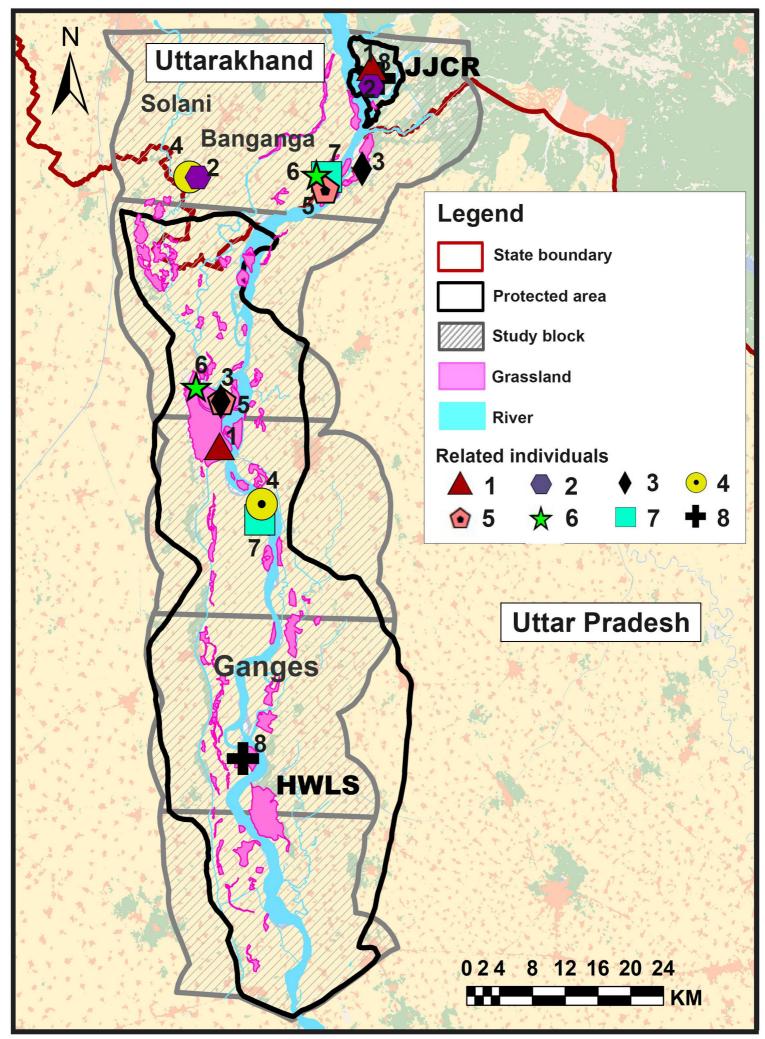
a. Jhilmil Jheel Conservation Reserve b. Bhogpur c. Ranjeetpur and adjacent river island complex d. Amichand-Nangal complex e. Sukhapur-Manwala-Chandpuri complex

SL No.	Locus	Species	Success rate (%)	No of alleles	Allelic Size Range	\mathbf{H}_{E}	Ho	Null allele	Allelic Dropout rate	False allele rate	P _{ID(sibs)}
1	CEH53	Swamp deer	86.95	13	48	0.84	0.59	0.11	0.04	0.10	3.43*10-1
2	CEH33	Swamp deer	90.98	12	24	0.81	0.56	0.13	0.04	0.15	1.23*10-1
3	CEH82	Swamp deer	93.71	11	26	0.81	0.66	0.07	0.06	0.12	4.42*10-2
4	CEH56	Swamp deer	91.81	7	12	0.71	0.61	0.05	0.06	0.14	1.90*10 ⁻²
5	CEH35	Swamp deer	88.97	5	8	0.66	0.34	0.17	0.07	0.13	8.77*10 ⁻³
6	CEH50	Swamp deer	95.14	5	8	0.62	0.54	0.04	0.06	0.07	4.36*10 ⁻³
7	CEH52	Swamp deer	84.93	8	18	0.59	0.5	0.05	0.08	0.06	2.23*10-3
8	CEH58	Swamp deer	89.56	6	22	0.56	0.46	0.07	0.11	0.06	1.19*10 ⁻³
9	CEH75	Swamp deer	93.12	4	8	0.53	0.59	0	0.08	0.05	6.75*10 ⁻⁴
10	CEH71	Swamp deer	88.61	2	8	0.46	0.61	0	0.18	0.08	4.18*10-4
11	CEH47	Swamp deer	93.71	6	14	0.43	0.35	0.07	0.17	0.09	2.60*10-4
12	CEH43	Swamp deer	95.02	4	6	0.42	0.44	0	0.12	0.05	1.65*10-4
13	CEH51	Swamp deer	93.00	3	10	0.38	0.38	0.01	0.13	0.06	1.10*10-4
	Mear	1	91.19	6.61		0.6	0.51	0.06	0.09	0.09	
SD			3.185	3.477		0.158	0.107	0.053	0.047	0.035	<u> </u>

Genetic differentiation among five spatial blocks							
Blocks	1	2	3	4	5		
1	0						
2	0.033*	0					
3	0.009*	0.024*	0				
4	0.006*	0.039*	0.021*	0			
5	0.064*	0.091*	0.089*	0.067*	0		

*Significant at P< 0.05 using 10,000 randomizations

Movement Parameters	Female 1	Female 2	
Tracking duration (month)	14	11	
Mean step length (km)	0.117	0.082	
Mean speed (km/hr)	0.058	0.040	
Maximum linear distance			
travelled from starting	18	28	
location (km)			
Total distance (km)	584.3	309.3	
Total displacement (km)	15.2	0.227	
Migration type	Mixed migratory	Migratory	



SI No.	Name of the area	BlockDistrict, StateBlock 1Haridwar, UK		No. of antlers	No. of pellets	
1	Jhilmil Jheel Conservation Reserve (JJCR)			88	41	
2	Bhogpur	Block 1	Haridwar, UK	0	0	
3	Banganga khadar	Block 1	Haridwar, UK	0	0	
4	Ranjeetpur and adjacent river islands	Block 1	Haridwar, UK & Bijnor, UP	4	17	
5	Amichand and Nangal	Block 1	Haridwar, UK & Bijnor, UP	4	15	
6	Dharampur- Jogga Jheel Complex	Block 1 & Block 2	Haridwar, UK & Muzaffarnagar, UP	15	9	
7	Sukhapur- Manwala- Chandpuri complex	Block 2	Bijnor, UP	0	21	
8	Mirapur khadar	Block 2	Bijnor, UP	0	0	
9	Shukratal- Haiderpur complex	Block 2 & Block 3	Muzaffarnagar & Bijnor, UP	141	36	
10	Jeevanpuri and adjacent river islands	Block 3	Bijnor, UP	1	13	
11	Buriganga jheel	Block 3	Meerut, UP	0	2	
12	Dharmapura- Daranagarganj complex	Block 3	Muzaffarnagar & Bijnor, UP	1	16	
13	Jahanabad- Joagli jheel complex	Block 3 & Block 4	Bijnor, UP	0	6	
14	Hadipur Gori	Block 4	Meerut, UP	0	9	
15	Rahmanpur- Jahangirpur complex	Block 4	Bijnor, UP	0	2	
16	Jalalpur khadar	Block 4	Meerut, UP	1	27	
17	Kalidab khadar	Block 4 & Block 5	Amroha, UP	0	0	
18	Kopla jheel	Block 5	Hapur, UP	3	16	

Supplementary Table 1: Details (Grasslands, Blocks, Districts, States) of all locations of the antlers and pellets collected in this study.

*UK= Uttarakhand; UP= Uttar Pradesh

Supplementary Table 2: Details of the initial set of 48 primers tested for swamp deer

individual identification.

SI No.	Marker Name	Selection Status	Reason for Rejection
1	CEH 4	Not selected	Multiple bands
2	CEH 22	Not selected	Multiple bands
3	CEH 45	Not selected	Multiple bands
4	CEH 60	Not selected	Multiple bands
5	CEH 73	Not selected	Multiple bands
6	CEH 79	Not selected	Multiple bands
7	CEH 63	Not selected	Multiple bands
8	CEH 15	Not selected	Multiple bands
9	CEH 44	Not selected	Multiple bands
10	CEH 80	Not selected	Multiple bands
11	CEH 81	Not selected	Multiple bands
12	CEH 6	Not selected	Multiple bands
13	CEH 38	Not selected	Multiple bands
14	CEH 78	Not selected	Multiple bands
15	СЕН 39	Not selected	Multiple bands
16	СЕН 23	Not selected	Multiple bands
17	CEH 57	Not selected	No amplification
18	CEH 85	Not selected	No amplification
19	CEH 31	Not selected	Non-specific bands
20	CEH 55	Not selected	Non-specific bands
21	CEH 72	Not selected	Non-specific bands
22	CEH 70	Not selected	Non-specific bands
23	CEH 28	Not selected	Inconsistent amplification
24	CEH 49	Not selected	Inconsistent amplification
25	CEH 86	Not selected	Inconsistent amplification
26	CEH 34	Not selected	Inconsistent amplification
27	CEH 48	Not selected	Inconsistent amplification
28	CEH 68	Not selected	Excessive stutter bands and low RFUs
29	CEH 74	Not selected	Excessive stutter bands and low RFUs
30	CEH 87	Not selected	Unstable allele characteristics
31	CEH 77	Not selected	Unstable allele characteristics
32	CEH 84	Not selected	Unstable allele characteristics
33	CEH 61	Not selected	Inconsistent results with antler and pellet DNA
34	CEH 64	Not selected	Inconsistent results with antler and pellet DNA
35	CEH 76	Not selected	Inconsistent results with antler and pellet DNA
36	CEH 53	Selected	-
37	CEH 58	Selected	-
38	CEH 71	Selected	-
39	CEH 35	Selected	-
40	CEH 33	Selected	-
41	CEH 43	Selected	-
42	CEH 52	Selected	-
43	CEH 50	Selected	-
44	CEH 82	Selected	-
45	CEH 56	Selected	-
46	CEH 51	Selected	-
47	CEH 47	Selected	<u> </u>
48	CEH 75	Selected	-