

Evidence of genetic connectivity between fragmented pig populations in a tropical urban city-state

Joshua J-M. Koh*, Frank E. Rheindt, Elize Y.X. Ng & Edward L. Webb

Abstract. Forest fragmentation as a result of urbanisation can adversely affect gene flow between wildlife populations. Although gene flow among fragmented populations has been investigated for many species, there has been little research into the effects of urbanisation on gene flow in large mammals. Singapore is a small, densely urbanised tropical city-state where more than 99% of its original forest has been cleared. The wild pig is currently the largest native terrestrial mammal in Singapore and has important roles in maintaining plant diversity and seed dispersal. Pigs are widespread and present in the Central Catchment Nature Reserve (CCNR) as well as other forest patches in Singapore. Due to the extent of urbanisation, it is unclear if genetic connectivity exists between the CCNR and other forest fragments. In this study, genome libraries from 48 samples of pig blood were collected from two sites: 1) the CCNR and 2) forest fragments in the northeast of Singapore. Genome-wide SNP loci were used to understand the population genomics of the two pig populations. The results indicated that the pig populations formed two distinct genetic clusters that did not align with the respective sites. Both sites included individuals with signatures from both genetic clusters, although with different frequencies. This suggests that pigs can move across heavily urbanised landscapes. Future studies should involve long term collaring studies to identify specific corridors used by the pigs for dispersal, and a larger population genomic assessment to understand pig dispersal and gene flow to and from forest patches other than the CCNR and the Northeast.

Key words. Fragmentation, gene flow, population genetics, *Sus scrofa*, urbanisation

INTRODUCTION

The expansion and intensification of agricultural and urban areas is one of the major causes of deforestation and habitat fragmentation (Andr n, 1994). Globally, more than half of the mixed and temperate broadleaf forest biome, and almost a quarter of the tropical rainforest biome, have been fragmented or removed by humans (Wade et al., 2003). Habitat fragmentation can alter spatial patterns that affect wildlife biodiversity and habitat quality (Gascon & Lovejoy, 1998; Jules et al., 1999; Kurki et al., 2000). One particular consequence of habitat fragmentation is the creation of barriers that reduce opportunities for animals to disperse (Arnold et al., 1993; Diffendorfer et al., 1995). This decrease in connectivity can constrain gene flow between fragmented populations, resulting in the reduction of genetic diversity and the loss of adaptive potential, inbreeding depression and the accumulation of deleterious mutations within fragmented populations (Slatkin, 1987; Allendorf & Lundquist, 2003; Keyghobadi, 2007).

Gene flow among fragmented populations has been investigated for many large mammals such as brown bears (Waits et al., 2000), common wallaroos (Arnold et al., 1993), European roe deer (Coulon et al., 2004), polar bears (Paetkau et al., 1995), red deer (P rez-espona et al., 2008), western grey kangaroos, (Neaves et al., 2009), and desert bighorn sheep (Epps et al., 2005). However, the populations in these studies were fragmented by geographical features such as mountains and water bodies, agricultural areas or man-made structures such as aqueducts and highways. Until now, there has been little research into the effects of urbanisation on gene flow in large mammals (Epps et al., 2005; Frantz et al., 2012).

With the advent of novel high-throughput sequencing (HTS) technologies, the analysis of thousands of genome-wide markers has become much more affordable and accessible for both model and non-model organisms (Wagner et al., 2013). Based on their abundance throughout the genome and ease of modelling, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are increasingly being used for population genomic analyses (Brumfield et al., 2003; Morin et al., 2004; Ng et al., 2017). Unlike traditional markers such as mitochondrial DNA and microsatellites, the abundance of SNPs in the genome can reveal genomic information at a higher resolution (Kjeldsen et al., 2016; Wagner et al., 2013).

The wild pig, *Sus scrofa*, is a large mammal that has a wide native distribution in most of Eurasia and North Africa

Department of Biological Science, National University of Singapore, 14 Science Drive 4, Singapore 117543; Email: j.ignatiuskoh@gmail.com (*corresponding author)

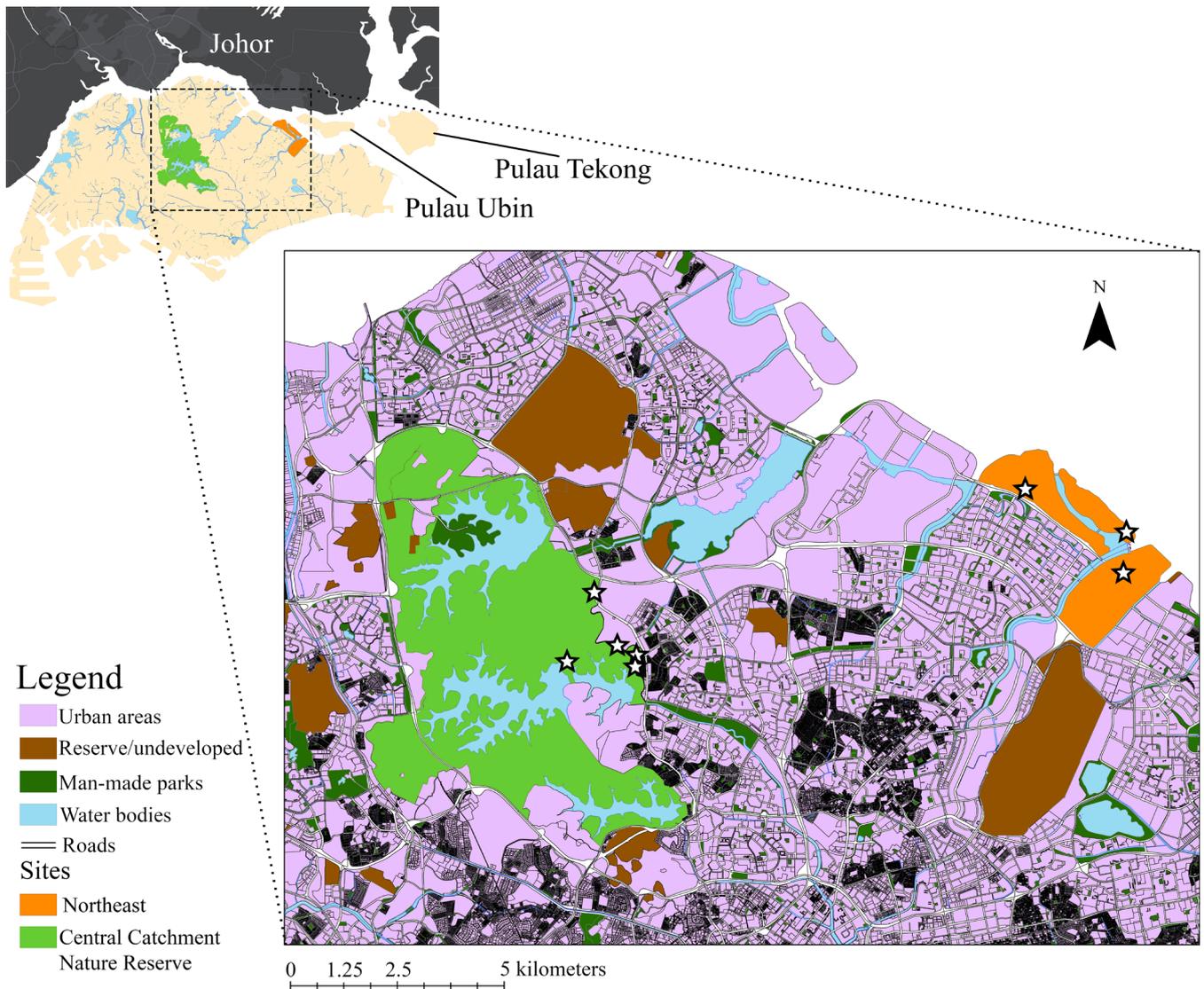


Fig. 1. Map of Singapore, in relation to Johor (Malaysia), showing various land-use types and the study sites (Central Catchment Nature Reserve, Northeast). Offshore islands Pulau Tekong and Pulau Ubin where pigs are also present are labelled. White stars indicate locations of cage traps.

and was subsequently introduced into other parts of the world by early explorers (Barrios-Garcia & Ballari, 2012). Because of their destructive behavior, pigs can heavily impact the environment and are considered ecosystem engineers (Crooks, 2002) that are important in maintaining plant diversity (Kotanen, 1995; Welander, 1995; Arrington et al., 1999), seed dispersal and colonisation (Matias et al., 2010). Additionally, wild pigs are generalists and can exploit the contact zones between natural habitats and urban areas (Radeloff et al., 2005; Cahill et al., 2012). This often results in conflicts between wild pigs and humans (Loker & Decker, 1998) and can range in severity, from damaged parks and backyards, to traffic accidents and attacks on humans and companion animals (Kotulski & König, 2008).

Singapore is a small (~700 km²), densely urbanised island city-state, with approximately 5.61 million human residents (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2018), located south of the southernmost tip of peninsular Malaysia (1°17'N, 103°50'E). Since the 1870s, more than 99% of the original forest in Singapore has been cleared (Corlett, 1992; Turner

et al., 1997). Today, 22.47% (163.07 km²) of Singapore's land area is forested, of which 11.13 km² is primary and old secondary forest, and 142.88 km² is young secondary forest comprising mostly of abandoned plantations that are both floristically and structurally much simpler than the original forest (Corlett, 1992; Yee et al., 2011). The remnant primary and old secondary forests are found exclusively in the largest reserve in Singapore, the Central Catchment Nature Reserve (CCNR) that covers approximately 32 km².

Although previously extirpated on the main island of Singapore, the wild pig is now widespread and has apparent strongholds in the CCNR, a group of forest fragments in the northeast of Singapore (Fig. 1) and forest fragments in western Singapore (Yong et al., 2010). Owing to the local extinction of its natural predators (*Panthera tigris tigris* and *Panthera pardus delacouri*), the pig is not naturally regulated by predators and is currently the largest native terrestrial mammal in Singapore (Corlett, 1992; Brook et al., 2003). It is unclear when wild pigs were extirpated on the main island of Singapore and when or how they recolonised it.

One hypothesis is that wild pigs were never locally extinct (Harrison, 1974) and escaped/were released from pig farms that existed in the northeastern side of Singapore's main island until 1990 (Taiganides, 1992). Because pigs are capable of swimming across 9 km of sea (Wallace, 1895), another hypothesis is that wild pigs swam across the narrow Straits of Johor from Pulau Ubin, Pulau Tekong, or Johor (Fig. 1) and established populations in forest fragments along the coasts of Singapore's main island.

Currently no studies have investigated how and when wild pigs recolonised Singapore's main island or if gene flow exists between the fragmented pig populations on Singapore's main island or between Singapore's main island and Malaysia/Singapore's offshore islands. In this study, genome-wide SNPs were used to understand gene flow and connectivity between two wild pig (*Sus scrofa*) populations on the small tropical urbanised island of Singapore.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sample collection. Due to limitations of the research permit, blood samples were only collected in the CCNR and the Northeast. A total of 48 blood samples were collected from individuals between June and September 2016. Of the 48 blood samples, 34 were collected from individuals caught on the eastern side of the CCNR, and the remaining 14 from the Northeast were donated by the Agri-Food and Veterinary Authority of Singapore (Fig. 1, Table 1). Individuals in the CCNR were caught using baited cage traps, which consisted of five to six modular steel panels and one trap door. Each steel panel was 2 m wide and 1.5 m tall and the trap door would fall when an animal enters the cage trap, triggering the release mechanism by pulling on a bait-filled mesh box. Cage traps were checked every weekday morning and bait was replenished every day. To prevent injury to the animals, the interior of the cage traps was lined with plastic barrels and the exterior was lined with an opaque shroud. Cage traps were only deployed on the eastern side of the CCNR as the pig population in the CCNR was most dense in that area (Koh, 2018).

Individuals that weighed more than 25 kg were too large to safely restrain and were sedated with a blow-pipe by a licensed veterinarian on-site. The veterinarian collected 3 ml of blood from the trapped individuals intravenously, introduced immediately into a falcon tube filled with 45 ml of 95% ethanol and mixed thoroughly. Trapped individuals were then tagged with ear tags, to prevent re-sampling, and released safely. Following blood collection, the falcon tubes were transported to the laboratory where they were stored at -20°C .

DNA extraction and ddRADSeq library preparation. DNA extraction was carried out with a DNEasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen) using a modified version of the manufacturer's protocol for blood. To maximise DNA yield, the samples were incubated overnight to allow for complete digestion of blood with Proteinase K. Additionally, at the end, extracted

DNA was eluted in two successive steps with 100 μL of molecular grade water. The Qubit® dsDNA Broad Range Assay Kit (Invitrogen) was used with the Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen) to determine the concentration of double stranded DNA (dsDNA) in each extracted sample.

Genome subsamples were prepared using double digest restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (ddRADSeq). We used the protocol introduced by Peterson et al. (2012) with two main differences. First, during the double digest phase, a minimum of 500 ng of extracted dsDNA from each sample was double digested with the restriction enzymes EcoRI and MspI for 3.5 hours at 37°C and then held at 4°C . Second, during adapter ligation, the combined digested DNA, adapters and unique barcodes, which would allow for individual sample identification during multiplexing, were incubated with T4 DNA ligase at 16°C for 16 hours. The T4 DNA ligase was then inactivated at 65°C for 10 minutes and then the temperature was decreased to 23°C at a rate of 1°C per minute to allow the dsDNA to reanneal.

After pooling, size selection was carried out with Pippin Prep (Sage Science) to retain a fragment peak of 420 bp (fragment range: 385 to 455 bp), which is within the optimal fragment size range for Illumina HiSeq 4000 sequencing. After another round of cleanup with magnetic beads, the size selected fragments were amplified with polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for 12 cycles. After PCR, the four concentration bands were pooled at equimolar volumes consisting of approximately 37 ng of DNA. Because one sample from the Northeast did not have sufficient dsDNA after restriction, only 47 individual libraries were successfully prepared (34 from the CCNR and 13 from the Northeast). The final multiplexed library was then sent to Novogene AIT Genomics Pte Ltd for sequencing on a single lane of Illumina HiSeq 4000 to produce 150 bp paired end reads. The library was spiked with 40% phiX to increase base diversity. The 47 unique barcodes (Table S1) and indexes (Table S2) can be found in the Appendix.

Identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms. The sequencing quality of the raw sequence reads was checked with FastQC (Babraham Bioinformatics) to determine Phred scores across all base positions. Using the process_radtags program in Stacks v1.44 (Catchen et al., 2013), sequenced reads were demultiplexed and cleaned by removing reads with an uncalled base or low-quality scores. To ensure a minimum of 99.9% accuracy in base calling, the sequenced reads were truncated to 145 bp, with interquartile Phred scores greater than 30. The demultiplexed sequences were then aligned to a pig (*Sus scrofa*) genome from Li et al. (2017) using the default settings in bwa.mem (Li & Durbin, 2009). To streamline the aligned sequences for further data processing, they were sorted according to coordinate order using samtools sort (Li et al., 2009).

To identify SNPs, refmap.pl with all three components (pstacks, cstacks and sstacks) in Stacks v1.44 (Catchen et al., 2013) was used. With the exception of -m (minimum stack depth), which is the minimum number of identical

aligned reads required to consider a stack of reads as a locus in the pstacks component, all other parameters were left at default. SNPs were identified at $m=5$ and $m=10$, with the latter being a stricter method of identifying loci. As sufficient loci were identified at $m=10$ (55,076 loci), we used this setting for downstream analyses. Loci were then processed using the populations program (Catchen et al., 2013) and retained only when a locus was present in at least 90% of individuals (-r). Individuals were partitioned into one population. The parameter to filter for a minimum minor allele frequency (-min_maf) was left at its default setting of 0.05. All other parameters were left at their default settings except the function write_single_snp, which was used to extract the first SNP from each locus, resulting in a set of unlinked SNPs.

The extracted SNPs were then filtered for linkage disequilibrium and checked for missing data in PLINK v1.9 (Chang et al., 2015). A total of five individuals (one from the CCNR and four from the Northeast) had more than 30% missing data and the analyses mentioned above were conducted again without these individuals, leaving 42 samples for downstream analyses. Pairwise genetic distances were also calculated using the identity-by-state (IBS) and Hamming distance calculation engine implemented in PLINK v1.9. BayeScan (Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008) was then used to check for selection neutrality in the SNP loci.

Bioinformatic analysis. To understand the population structure of individuals, a model-based clustering method was implemented in STRUCTURE v2.3.4 (Pritchard et al., 2000) where individuals were probabilistically assigned to a user-defined number of genetic clusters ($K=1$ to 5). Ten Markov Chain Monte-Carlo chains (replicates) were run for each value of K and each chain had a burn-in of 100,000 iterations followed by 500,000 more iterations for analysis. Additionally, the admixture model was used to jointly assign individuals that exhibited genetic admixture to two or more clusters. The marginal likelihood corresponding to the number of genetic clusters identified in STRUCTURE was calculated using the program Structure Harvester (Earl & vonHoldt, 2012). Observed (H_o) and expected (H_e) heterozygosities, were estimated for the CCNR and Northeast with the function bootstrapHet in the package PopGenKit (Paquette, 2012) in R 3.5.0 (R Core Team, 2018). Individuals were resampled with 1,000 bootstraps to estimate the mean H_o and mean H_e along with the 95% confidence intervals. To test for equal variances between the observed heterozygosities and expected heterozygosities of the two study sites, Bartlett's test of homogeneity of variances was first conducted with the function bartlett.test in the package adegenet (Jombart & Ahmed, 2011) in R 3.5.0. Because Bartlett's test found that the variances were significantly different, Welch's t-test (Welch, 1947), for unequal variance between samples, was conducted to test for significant differences between the observed heterozygosities and expected heterozygosities; this was performed using the function t.test in R 3.5.0.

To further investigate the genetic structure of individuals, a principal component analysis (PCA) of pairwise codominant

genetic distances was conducted with the package SNPRelate (Zheng et al., 2012) in R 3.5.0. PCA coordinates were then plotted in R 3.5.0 with ggplot2 (Wickham, 2011). Finally, fixation indices (F_{ST}) were estimated using the R package hierfstat (Goudet, 2005) to investigate the genetic variation between the two sites. To calculate the statistical significance of the F_{ST} , the 95% confidence limits were calculated with 5,000 bootstraps using the function boot.ppfst found in the package hierfstat. Kinship values were also obtained using maximum likelihood estimation with the function snpgdsIBDSelection found in the package SNPRelate.

RESULTS

Of 1,081 pairings, only 50 pairs had kinship values > 0.2 (14 individuals from the CCNR). However, the PCA excluding individuals with high kinship values did not differ from the PCA that included them (Fig. S1, Table S3). Therefore, the remaining analyses included individuals with high kinship values. The final PCA found two distinct genetic clusters (Fig. 2). The first genetic cluster (henceforth referred to as Cluster A) consisted of three individuals (P03, P06 and P07) from the Northeast, and all the individuals from the CCNR except P21 (Fig. 2). The second genetic cluster (henceforth referred to as Cluster B) consisted of the remaining individuals from the Northeast, excluding P09 and P13, which occurred with P21 in between the two genetic clusters (Fig. 2). On closer inspection of the individuals with kinship values < 0.2 , P07 from the NE was closely related to individuals P18 (kinship value = 0.193), P27 (kinship value = 0.199) and P47 (kinship value = 0.189) from the CCNR (Table S3).

The population genomic analysis with STRUCTURE found that the marginal likelihood was maximised and the structure found in the data was best explained when there were two distinct genetic clusters ($K=2$) (Fig. S2). STRUCTURE identified the same genetic clusters as the PCA (Fig. 3). It depicted the individuals that occurred between the two clusters (P09, P13 and P21) from the PCA with a signature of genetic admixture between Clusters A and B. The genetic makeup of P09 (~67% Cluster B and ~33% Cluster A), P13 (~67% Cluster B and ~33% Cluster A) and P21 (~25% Cluster B and 75% Cluster A) in the STRUCTURE plot was in agreement with these samples' positions in the PCA plot (Fig. 2). The estimated F_{ST} value between the Northeast and CCNR was 0.152 and was outside the 95% confidence limits (0.187 to 0.194). This indicates that the level of genetic differentiation between the two populations was significantly lower than expected and corroborates with the STRUCTURE and PCA analyses as five out of nine of the individuals in the Northeast were related to Cluster A.

Overall, the observed and expected heterozygosities of the CCNR population were lower than the Northeast population. Within each population, Welch's t-test found that the H_o was significantly different from the H_e (Northeast: $H_o = 0.245$, $H_e = 0.308$, p -value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; CCNR: $H_o = 0.168$, $H_e = 0.164$, p -value = 0.042). Between populations, Welch's t-test found that the H_o of the CCNR was significantly lower from

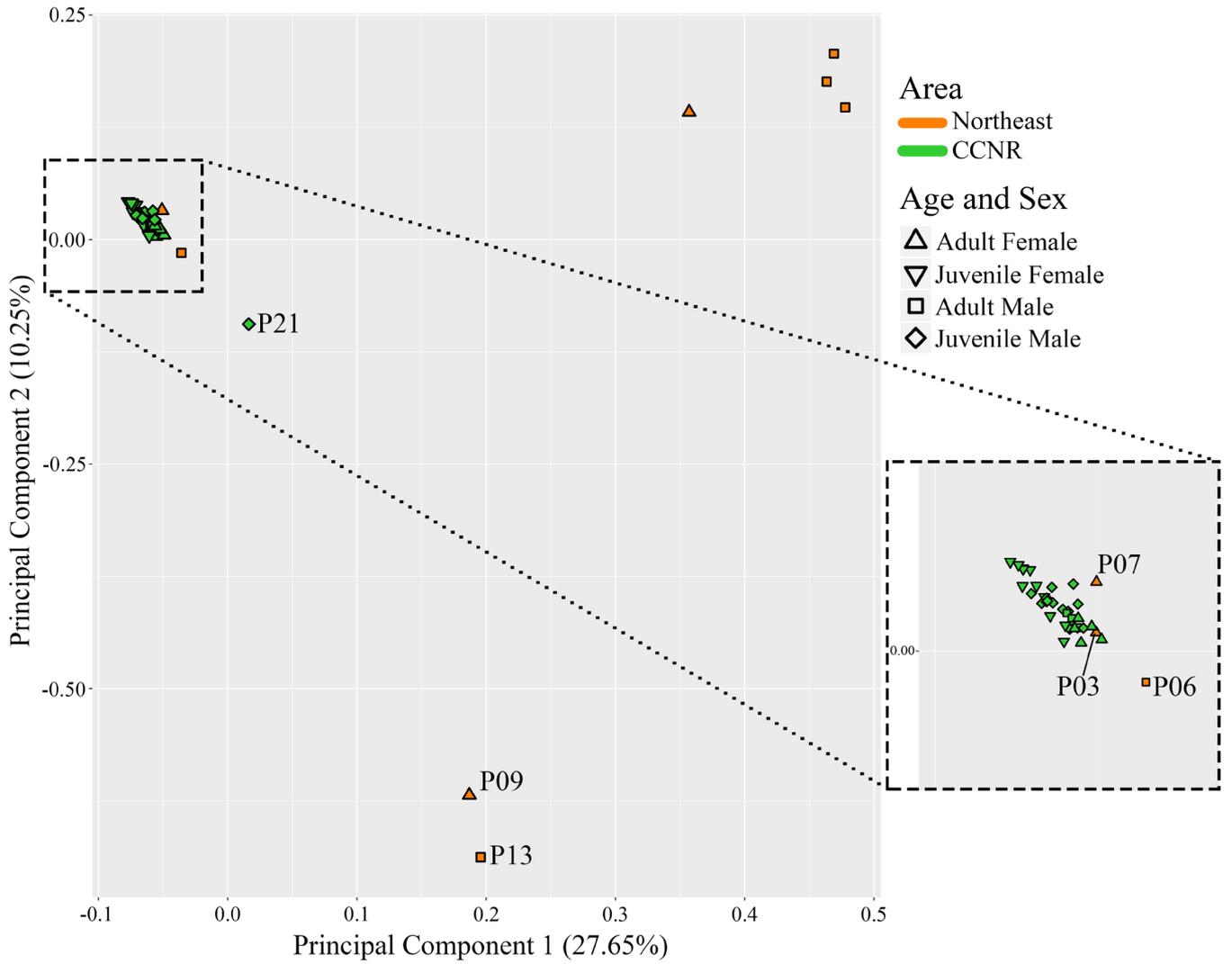


Fig. 2. Principal Component Analysis plot showing the 42 individuals from the Central Catchment Nature Reserve (CCNR) and the Northeast differentiated by sex and age class. Individuals exhibiting genetic admixture are labelled. Percentage variation accounted for by each principal component is indicated in brackets.

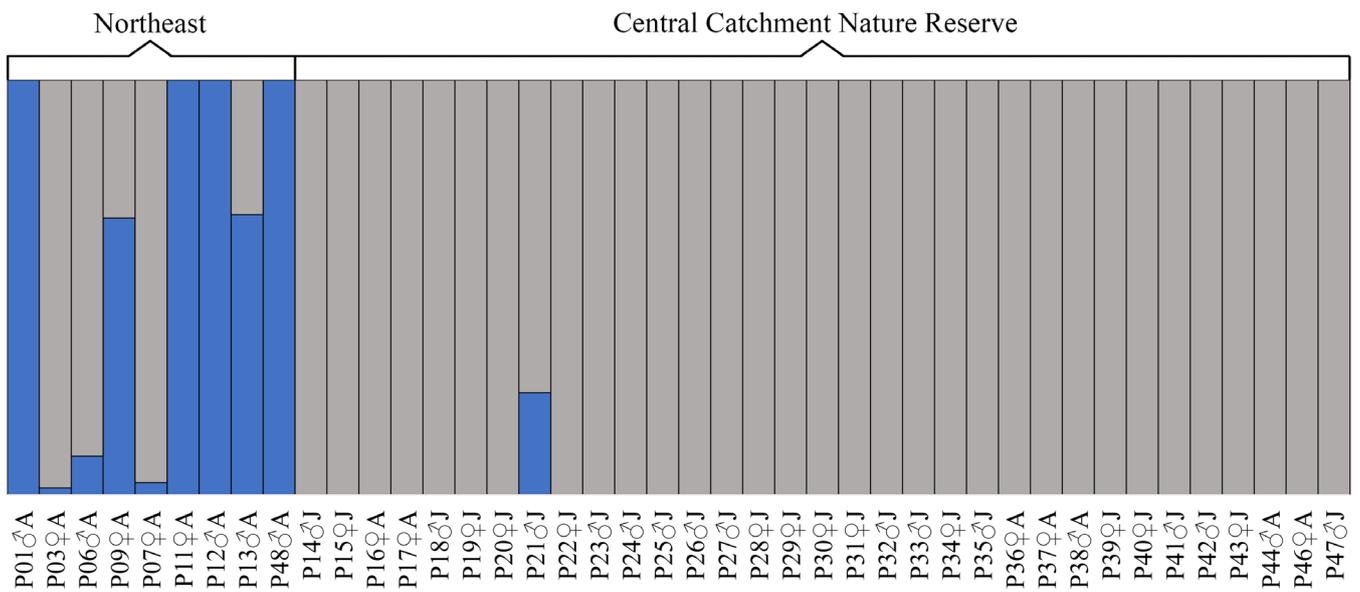


Fig. 3. STRUCTURE plot at K=2. Individuals are labelled according to 1) ID number, 2) sex and 3) age class (A for adult, J for juvenile). Sampling localities are indicated by brackets above the bars.

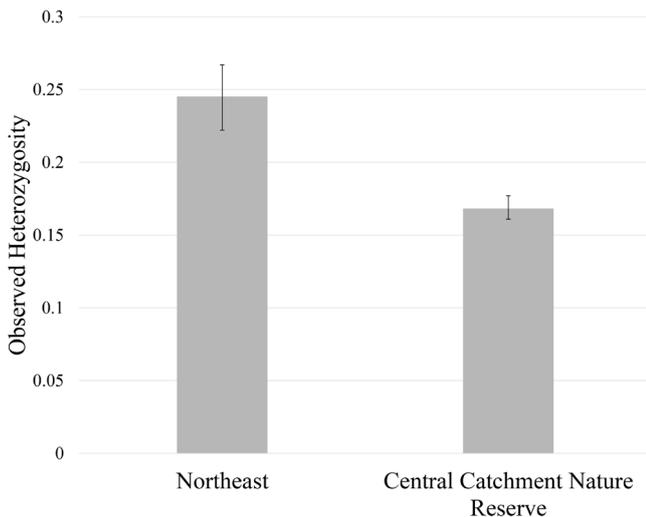


Fig. 4. Mean observed heterozygosities of the Northeast population and the Central Catchment Nature Reserve population. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals of the mean.

the H_0 of the Northeast ($t = -44.797$, $df = 53131$, $p\text{-value} < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

Our results indicated that while most samples from the CCNR had a homogenous genomic profile, samples from the Northeast showed a mixed signature that indicated partial affinity with the CCNR samples, and a significant genomic component unrelated to the CCNR. Given that pigs were previously locally extinct in the CCNR (Teo & Rajathurai, 1997), the similar genetic signatures in the CCNR and the Northeast imply that pigs from the Northeast dispersed across densely urbanised areas (approximately 9.68 km) and re-colonised the CCNR. Alternatively, both forest fragments may have been colonised by pigs from a similar source population. Both scenarios required pigs to have moved across the urban landscape. This is also supported by the kinship values of P07 from the NE to P18, P27, and P47 from the CCNR. P07 was an adult female while P18, P27 and P47 were juveniles. It is possible that they may have the same mother and/or father that dispersed from the NE to the CCNR. Alternatively, P07 may have mothered P18, P27 and P47 in the CCNR and then dispersed to the NE. It is important to note that juvenile pigs are weaned and can move independently of adults before reaching sub-adulthood and losing their stripes (Diong, 1973). This extends to the juvenile individual P21 (Fig. 3) which could have dispersed from the Northeast to the CCNR. Previous studies have shown that pigs can cross man-made infrastructure such as bridges, adapted culverts and highways (Mata et al., 2008; Corlatti et al., 2009; Frantz et al., 2012). Pigs have also been reported to exploit features such as riparian and forest corridors, hedges and ditches to travel over long distances of unfavorable habitat (Caley, 1997; Thurfjell et al., 2009; García et al., 2011). Therefore, the dispersal of pigs across Singapore's urban landscape may have been aided by man-made parks, waterways, and small forest patches in

undeveloped land (Fig. 1). This hypothesis is also supported by evidence of a satellite collared-pig moving out of the CCNR into a nearby forest patch and then into a man-made park (Koh et al., 2018).

The pig population in the CCNR emerged as genetically less diverse than the pig population in the Northeast (Figs. 2, 3). Because this study examined populations of the same species, the differences in levels of genetic diversity between both populations can be caused by factors such as the initial population size, population bottlenecks and ecological disturbances (Furlan et al., 2012; Leffler et al., 2012; Romiguier et al., 2014). It is possible that the Northeast population receives migrants from surrounding islands and Malaysia while the CCNR population does not, resulting in the higher genetic diversity in the Northeast population. It is also possible, given the similar genetic signatures of the Northeast and CCNR populations, that the comparatively low genetic diversity of the CCNR population was caused by a small initial population that dispersed from the NE and other forest fragments. Despite the hypothesis from Harrison (1974), it is unlikely that the CCNR was repopulated by escapees from nearby pig farms. This is because all pig farming was phased out by 1990 (Taiganides, 1992) and no evidence of pigs were detected within the CCNR in the four-year survey conducted from 1993 to 1997 (Teo & Rajathurai, 1997). Because pigs have a high reproductive rate (Massei & Genov, 2004) and can heavily impact the environment (Crooks, 2002), it is also unlikely that their signs of rooting, wallowing and nest construction would have been missed in the four-year survey.

Without additional SNP data from pig populations in other forest fragments on Singapore's main island, Singapore's offshore islands and Malaysia, it is difficult to deduce the origins of both pig populations, and the direction and frequency of gene flow between the CCNR and Northeast populations.

Management implications. This study suggests that pigs are capable of dispersing between forest fragments (approximately 9.68 km apart) in a highly urbanised landscape. To aid in the understanding of the pigs' movements across Singapore, long term collaring studies should be conducted to identify the specific corridors used by the pigs for dispersal. These corridors can then be improved by planting additional shrubs and trees for cover, and/or constructing wildlife passes. The identification of specific corridors can also help mitigate road kill and vehicular impact accidents. Finally, a larger population genomic assessment should be conducted to understand pig dispersal within Singapore and how they re-colonised Singapore's main island.

This study has also shown that pigs are an exception to the general pattern shown by other large mammals, where there are usually significant impacts on dispersal and gene flow by urbanised areas (Huck et al., 2010; Ordeñana et al., 2010; Tammleht et al., 2010). This result should be taken into consideration when implementing management strategies for pig populations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank the National Parks Board of Singapore, which approved and funded this study (Research number NP/RP14-056-1). We also thank the National University of Singapore for permitting this research collaboration with NParks (IACUC protocol B16-0304) and the Agri-Food and Veterinary Authority of Singapore for donating the 14 blood samples from the Northeast. Within the National Parks Board, we owe special thanks to J. Gan, T.W. Wong, J. Narayanan, and J. Ng, who aided in site recce, cage trap setup and numerous permit-related issues. We would also like to thank J. Pang and his team, L.C. Hsu and N. Chng for their help in catching, sedating, restraining, collecting the blood samples and releasing the pigs unharmed. Within the National University of Singapore, we would like to thank M. Thangavelu for handling and organising the purchase of consumables. J. Koh would also like to thank V.L. Phua, V. Pwa, and R. Oh for helping out with library preparation.

LITERATURE CITED

- Allendorf FW & Lundquist LL (2003) Introduction: Population biology, evolution, and control of invasive species. *Conservation Biology*, 17(1): 24–30.
- Andr n H (1994) Effects of habitat fragmentation on birds and mammals in landscapes with different proportions of suitable habitat: a review. *Oikos*, 71(3): 355–366.
- Arnold GW, Steven DE, Weeldenburg JR & Smith EA (1993) Influences of remnant size, spacing pattern and connectivity on population-boundaries and demography in euros *Macropus robustus* living in a fragmented landscape. *Biological conservation*, 64(3): 219–230.
- Arrington DA, Toth LA & Koebel JW (1999) Effects of rooting by feral hogs *Sus scrofa* L. on the structure of a floodplain vegetation assemblage. *Wetlands*, 19(3): 535–544.
- Barrios-Garcia MN & Ballari SA (2012) Impact of wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) in its introduced and native range: a review. *Biological Invasions*, 14(11): 2283–2300.
- Brook BW, Sodhi NS & Ng PKL (2003) Catastrophic extinctions follow deforestation in Singapore. *Nature*, 424(6947): 420–426.
- Brumfield RT, Beerli P, Nickerson DA & Edwards SV (2003) The utility of single nucleotide polymorphisms in inferences of population history. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 18(5): 249–256.
- Cahill S, Llimona F, Caba eros L & Calomardo F (2012) Characteristics of wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) habituation to urban areas in the Collserola Natural Park (Barcelona) and comparison with other locations. *Animal Biodiversity and Conservation*, 35(2): 221–233.
- Caley P (1997) Movements, activity patterns and habitat use of feral pigs (*Sus scrofa*) in a tropical habitat. *Wildlife Research*, 24: 77–87.
- Catchen J, Hohenlohe PA, Bassham S, Amores A & Cresko WA (2013) Stacks: an analysis tool set for population genomics. *Molecular Ecology*, 22(11): 3124–3140.
- Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM & Lee JJ (2015) Second-generation PLINK: rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. *GigaScience*, 4(1): 7.
- Corlatti L, Hackl nder K & Frey-Roos F (2009) Ability of wildlife overpasses to provide connectivity and prevent genetic isolation. *Conservation Biology*, 23(3): 548–556.
- Corlett RT (1992) The ecological transformation of Singapore, 1819–1990. *Journal of Biogeography*, 19(4): 411–420.
- Coulon A, Cosson JF, Angibault JM, Cargnelutti B, Galan M, Morellet N, Petit E, Aulagnier S & Hewison AJM (2004) Landscape connectivity influences gene flow in a roe deer population inhabiting a fragmented landscape: an individual-based approach. *Molecular Ecology*, 13(9): 2841–2850.
- Crooks JA (2002) Characterizing ecosystem-level consequences of biological invasions: the role of ecosystem engineers. *Oikos*, 97(2): 153–166.
- Diffendorfer JE, Gaines MS & Holt RD (1995) Habitat fragmentation and movements of three small mammals (*Sigmodon*, *Microtus*, and *Peromyscus*). *Ecology*, 76(3): 827–839.
- Diong CH (1973) Studies of the Malayan wild pig in Perak and Johore. *Malayan Nature Journal*, 26: 120–151.
- Earl DA & vonHoldt BM (2012) STRUCTURE HARVESTER: a website and program for visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. *Conservation Genetics Resources*, 4(2): 359–361.
- Epps CW, Palsb ll PJ, Wehausen JD, Roderick GK, Ramey RR & McCullough DR (2005) Highways block gene flow and cause a rapid decline in genetic diversity of desert bighorn sheep. *Ecology Letters*, 8(10): 1029–1038.
- Foll M & Gaggiotti O (2008) A genome-scan method to identify selected loci appropriate for both dominant and codominant markers: a Bayesian perspective. *Genetics*, 180(2): 977–993.
- Frantz AC, Bertouille S, Eloy MC, Licoppe A, Chaumont F & Flamand MC (2012) Comparative landscape genetic analyses show a Belgian motorway to be a gene flow barrier for red deer (*Cervus elaphus*), but not wild boars (*Sus scrofa*). *Molecular Ecology*, 21(14): 3445–3457.
- Furlan E, Stoklosa J, Griffiths J, Gust N, Ellis R, Huggins RM & Weeks AR (2012) Small population size and extremely low levels of genetic diversity in island populations of the platypus, *Ornithorhynchus anatinus*. *Ecology and Evolution*, 2(4): 844–857.
- Garc a G, Vergara J & Lombardi R (2011) Genetic characterization and phylogeography of the wild boar *Sus scrofa* introduced into Uruguay. *Genetics and Molecular Biology*, 34(2): 329–337.
- Gascon C & Lovejoy TE (1998) Ecological impacts of forest fragmentation in central Amazonia. *Zoology*, 101: 273–280.
- Goudet J (2005) HIERFSTAT, a package for R to compute and test hierarchical F-statistics. *Molecular Ecology*, 5(1): 184–186.
- Harrison J (1974) An Introduction to the Mammals of Singapore and Malaya. *Malayan Nature Society*, Singapore, 340 pp.
- Huck M, J drzejewski W, Borowik T, Mi sz-Cielma M, Schmidt K, J drzejewska B, Nowak S & Myslajek RW (2010) Habitat suitability, corridors and dispersal barriers for large carnivores in Poland. *Acta Theriologica*, 55(2): 177–192.
- Jombart T & Ahmed I (2011) adegenet 1.3-1: new tools for the analysis of genome-wide SNP data. *Bioinformatics*, 27(21): 3070–3071.
- Jules ES, Frost LS & Tallmon DA (1999) Ecological consequences of forest fragmentation in the Klamath region. *Natural Areas Journal*, 19: 368–378.
- Keyghobadi N (2007) The genetic implications of habitat fragmentation for animals. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 85(10): 1049–1064.
- Kjeldsen SR, Zenger KR, Leigh K, Ellis W, Tobey J, Phalen D, Melzer A, FitzGibbon S & Raadsma HW (2016) Genome-wide SNP loci reveal novel insights into koala (*Phascolarctos cinereus*) population variability across its range. *Conservation Genetics*, 17(2): 337–353.
- Koh J-MJ, Webb EL & Leung K-PL (2018) Using a spatial mark-resight model to estimate the parameters of a wild pig (*Sus scrofa*) population in Singapore. *Raffles Bulletin of Zoology*, 66: 494–505.

- Kotani PM (1995) Responses of vegetation to a changing regime of disturbance: effects of feral pigs in a Californian coastal prairie. *Ecography*, 18(2): 190–199.
- Kotulski Y & König A (2008) Conflicts, crises and challenges: wild boar in the Berlin City – a social empirical and statistical survey. *Natura Croatica : Periodicum Musei Historiae Naturalis Croatici*, 17(4): 233–246.
- Kurki S, Nikula A, Helle P & Linden H (2000) Landscape fragmentation and forest composition effects on grouse breeding success in boreal forests. *Ecology*, 81: 1985–1997.
- Leffler EM, Bullaughey K, Matute DR, Meyer WK, Ségurel L, Venkat A, Andolfatto P & Przeworski M (2012) Revisiting an old riddle: What determines genetic diversity levels within species? *PLOS Biology*, 10(9): e1001388.
- Li H & Durbin R (2009) Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics*, 25(14): 1754–1760.
- Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G & Durbin R (2009) The sequence alignment/map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics*, 25(16): 2078–2079.
- Li M, Chen L, Tian S, Lin Y, Tang Q, Zhou X, Li D, Yeung CKL, Che T, Jin L, Fu Y, Ma J, Wang X, Jiang A, Lan J, Pan Q, Liu Y, Luo Z, Guo Z, Liu H, Zhu L, Shuai S, Tang G, Zhao J, Jiang Y, Bai L, Zhang S, Mai M, Li C, Wang D, Gu Y, Wang G, Lu H, Li Y, Zhu H, Li Z, Li M, Gladyshev VN, Jiang Z, Zhao S, Wang J, Li R & Li X (2017) Comprehensive variation discovery and recovery of missing sequence in the pig genome using multiple de novo assemblies. *Genome Research*, 27(5): 865–874.
- Loker CA & Decker DJ (1998) Changes in human activity and the ‘not-in-my-backyard’ wildlife syndrome: suburban residents’ perspectives on wildlife. *Gibier Faune Sauvage*, 15: 725–734.
- Mata C, Hervás I, Herranz J, Suárez F & Malo JE (2008) Are motorway wildlife passages worth building? Vertebrate use of road-crossing structures on a Spanish motorway. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 88(3): 407–415.
- Massei G & Genov PV (2004) The environmental impact of wild boar. *Galemys*, 16: 135–145.
- Matías L, Zamora R, Mendoza I & Hódar JA (2010) Seed dispersal patterns by large frugivorous mammals in a degraded mosaic landscape. *Restoration Ecology*, 18(5): 619–627.
- Morin PA, Luikart G, Wayne RK & the SNPwg (2004) SNPs in ecology, evolution and conservation. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 19(4): 208–216.
- Neaves LE, Zenger KR, Prince RIT, Eldridge MDB & Cooper DW (2009) Landscape discontinuities influence gene flow and genetic structure in a large, vagile Australian mammal, *Macropus fuliginosus*. *Molecular Ecology*, 18(16): 3363–3378.
- Ng EYX, Garg KM, Low GW, Chattopadhyay B, Oh RRY, Lee JGH & Rheindt FE (2017) Conservation genomics identifies impact of trade in a threatened songbird. *Biological Conservation*, 214(Supplement C): 101–108.
- Ordeñana MA, Crooks KR, Boydston EE, Fisher RN, Lyren LM, Sudyala S, Haas CD, Harris S, Hathaway SA, Turschak GM, Miles AK & Van Vuren DH (2010) Effects of urbanisation on carnivore species distribution and richness. *Journal of Mammalogy*, 91(6): 1322–1331.
- Paetkau D, Calvert W, Stirling I & Strobeck C (1995) Microsatellite analysis of population structure in Canadian polar bears. *Molecular Ecology*, 4(3): 347–354.
- Paquette SR (2012) PopGenKit: Useful functions for (batch) file conversion and data resampling in microsatellite datasets. CRAN. <https://rdrr.io/cran/PopGenKit/>. (Accessed 4 June 2018).
- Pérez-espona S, Pérez-barbería FJ, Mcleod JE, Jiggins CD, Gordon IJ & Pemberton JM (2008) Landscape features affect gene flow of Scottish Highland red deer (*Cervus elaphus*). *Molecular Ecology*, 17(4): 981–996.
- Peterson BK, Weber JN, Kay EH, Fisher HS & Hoekstra HE (2012) Double digest RADseq: an inexpensive method for de novo SNP discovery and genotyping in model and non-model species. *PLoS One*, 7(5): e37135.
- Pritchard JK, Stephens M & Donnelly P (2000) Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data. *Genetics*, 155(2): 945–959.
- R Core Team (2018) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <https://www.r-project.org/>. (Accessed 6 May 2018).
- Radeloff VC, Hammer RB, Stewart SI, Fried JS, Holcomb SS & McKeefry JF (2005) The wildland-urban interface in the United States. *Ecological Applications*, 15(3): 799–805.
- Romiguier J, Gayral P, Ballenghien M, Bernard A, Cahais V, Chenuil A, Chiari Y, Dernet R, Duret L, Faivre N, Loire E, Lourenco JM, Nabholz B, Roux C, Tsagkogeorga G, Weber AA-T, Weinert LA, Belkhir K, Bierne N, Glémin S & Galtier N (2014) Comparative population genomics in animals uncovers the determinants of genetic diversity. *Nature*, 515(7526): 261–263.
- Singapore Department of Statistics (2018) Latest Data. In: Statistics. <http://www.singstat.gov.sg/statistics/latest-data#16>. (Accessed 1 November 2018).
- Slatkin M (1987) Gene flow and the geographic structure of natural populations. *Science*, 236(4803): 787–792.
- Taiganides EP (1992) Pig waste management and recycling: the Singapore experience. International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, Canada, xiv + 368 pp.
- Tammeleht E, Remm J, Korsten M, Davison J, Tumanov I, Saveljev A, Männil, Kojola I & Saarma U (2010) Genetic structure in large, continuous mammal populations: the example of brown bears in northwestern Eurasia. *Molecular Ecology*, 19(24): 5359–5370.
- Teo RCH & Rajathurai S (1997) Mammals, reptiles and amphibians in the Nature Reserves of Singapore - Diversity, abundance and distribution. *Gardens’ Bulletin Singapore*, 49: 353–425.
- Thurfjell H, Ball J, Åhlén P-A, Kornacher P, Dettki H & Sjöberg K (2009) Habitat use and spatial patterns of wild boar *Sus scrofa* (L.): agricultural fields and edges. *European Journal of Wildlife Research*, 55(5): 517–523.
- Turner IM, Wong YK, Chew PT & Ibrahim A (1997) Tree species richness in primary and old secondary tropical forest in Singapore. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 6: 537–543.
- Wade TG, Ritters KH, Wickham JD & Jones KB (2003) Distribution and causes of global forest fragmentation. *Conservation Ecology*, 7(2): 7.
- Wagner CE, Keller I, Wittwer S, Selz OM, Mwaiko S, Greuter L, Sivasundar A & Seehausen O (2013) Genome-wide RAD sequence data provide unprecedented resolution of species boundaries and relationships in the Lake Victoria cichlid adaptive radiation. *Molecular Ecology*, 22(3): 787–798.
- Waits L, Taberlet P, Swenson JE, Sandegren F & Franzén R (2000) Nuclear DNA microsatellite analysis of genetic diversity and gene flow in the Scandinavian brown bear (*Ursus arctos*). *Molecular Ecology*, 9(4): 421–431.
- Wallace AR (1895) *Island Life: Or the Phenomena and Causes of Insular Faunas and Floras Including a Revision and Attempted Solution of the Problem of Geological Climates*. 2nd Edition. MacMillan and Co., London and New York, 73 pp.
- Welander J (1995) Are wild boars a future threat to the Swedish flora? *IBEX Journal of Mountain Ecology*, 3: 165–167.
- Welch BL (1947) The generalization of ‘student’s’ problem when several different population variances are involved. *Biometrika*, 34(1-2): 28–35.
- Wickham H (2011) *ggplot2*. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Statistics, 3(2): 180–185.

Yee ATK, Corlett RT, Liew SC & Tan HTW (2011) The vegetation of Singapore - an updated map. Gardens' Bulletin Singapore, 63(1 & 2): 205–212.

Yong DL, Lee BPY-H, Ang A & Tan KH (2010) The status on Singapore island of the Eurasian wild pig *Sus scrofa* (Mammalia: Suidae). Nature in Singapore, 3: 227–237.

Zheng X, Levine D, Shen J, Gogarten SM, Laurie C & Weir BS (2012) A high-performance computing toolset for relatedness and principal component analysis of SNP data. Bioinformatics, 28(24): 3326–3328.

APPENDIX

Table S1. The 47 unique barcodes used in the library preparation.

Barcode Name	Oligo Sequence
GCATG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGCATG
AACCA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAACCA
CGATC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGATC
TCGAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCGAT
TGCAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTGCAT
CAACC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCAACC
GGTTG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGGTTG
AAGGA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAAGGA
AGCTA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAGCTA
ACACA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACACA
AATTA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAATTA
ACGGT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACGGT
ACTGG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACTGG
ACTTC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACTTC
ATACG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTATACG
ATGAG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTATGAG
ATTAC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTATTAC
CATAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCATAT
CGAAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGAAT
CGGCT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGGCT
CGGTA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGGTA
CGTAC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGTAC
CGTCG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGTCG
CTGAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCTGAT
CTGCG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCTGCG
CTGTC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCTGTC
CTTGG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCTTGG
GACAC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGACAC
GAGAT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGAGAT
GAGTC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGAGTC
GCCGT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGCCGT
GCTGA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGCTGA
GGATA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGGATA
GGCCA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGGCCA
GGCTC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGGCTC
GTAGT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTAGT
GTCCG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTCCG

Barcode Name	Oligo Sequence
GTCGA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTCGA
TACCG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTACCG
TACGT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTACGT
TAGTA_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTAGTA
TATAC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTATAC
TCACG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCACG
TCAGT_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCAGT
TCCGG_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCCGG
TCTGC_EcoRI_P1.1	ACACTCTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCTGC

Table S2. The indexes used for both polymerase chain reactions in the library preparation.

Index Name	Oligo Sequence
PCR 1	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTCCCTACACGACG
PCR2_Idx_ATCACG	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATCGTGATGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGC
PCR2_Idx_2_CGATGT	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATACATCGGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGC
PCR2_Idx_3_TTAGGC	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATGCCTAAGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGC
PCR2_Idx_4_TGACCA	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATTGGTCAGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGC

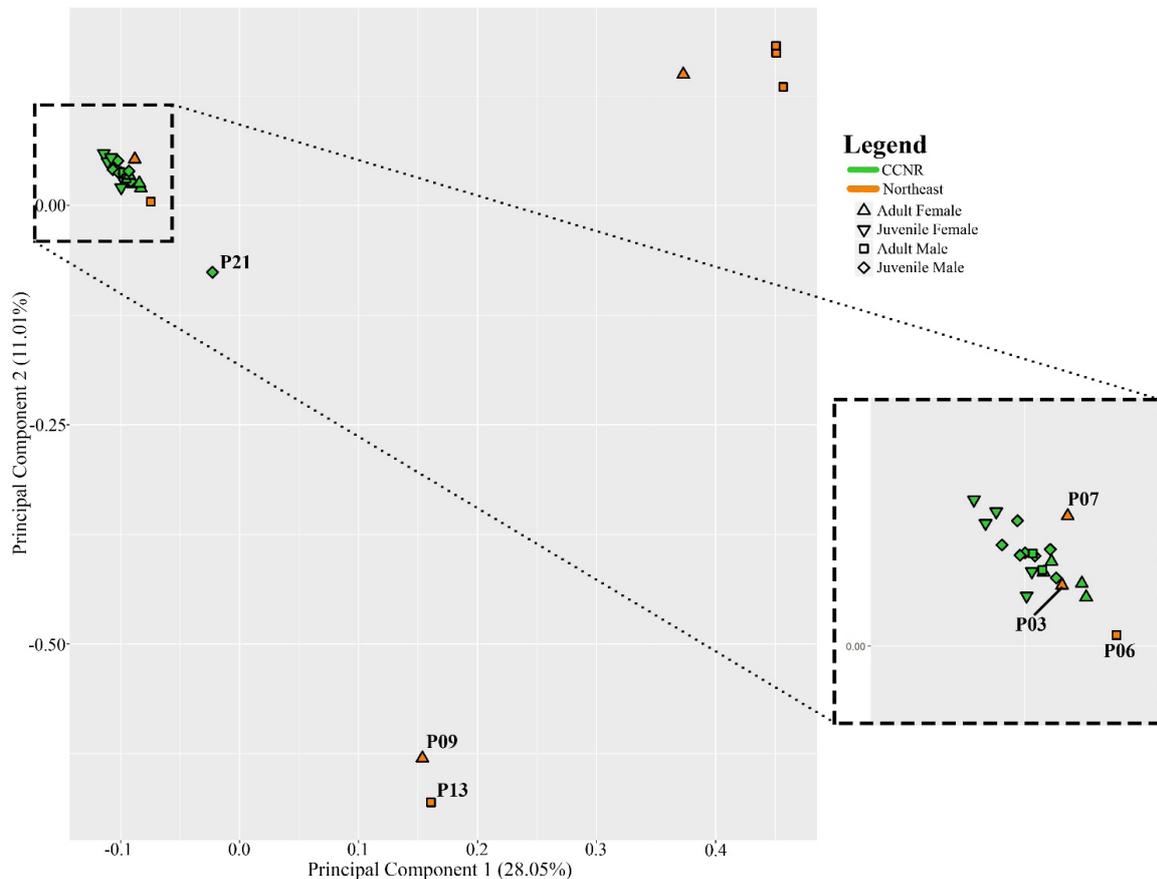


Fig. S1. Principal Component Analysis plot showing 28 out of 42 individuals from the Central Catchment Nature Reserve (CCNR) and the Northeast with kinship values < 0.2. Individuals are differentiated by sex and age class. Individuals exhibiting genetic admixture are labelled. Percentage variation accounted for by each principal component is indicated in brackets.

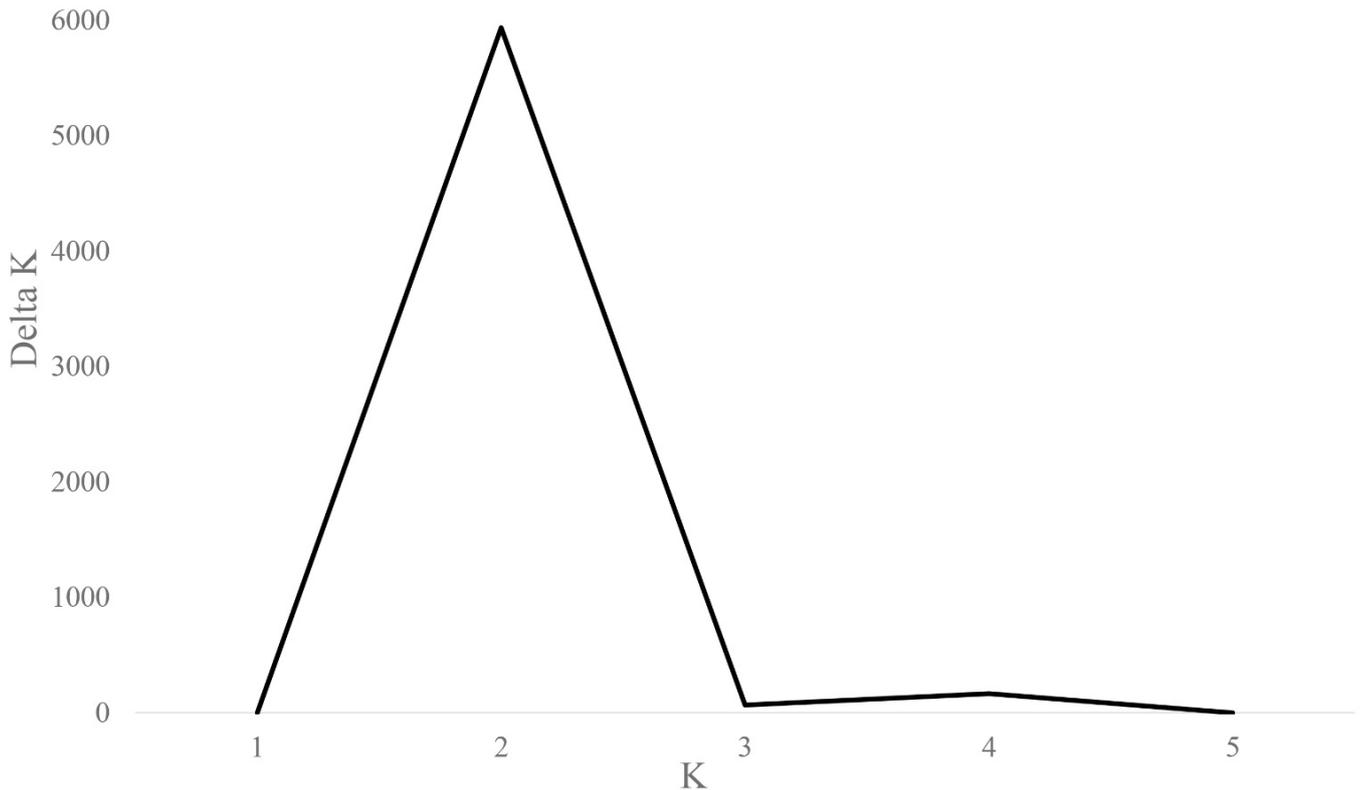


Fig. S2. Plot of Delta K from STRUCTURE output showing the Delta K values for the corresponding K values. The higher the Delta K value, the better the genetic structure is explained.

Inbreeding coefficients were also calculated for each individual and averaged for each site using the program Coancestry 1.0.1.8 (Wang, 2011). Using the allelic frequencies from the empirical data, a simulated dataset with known relatedness estimates was generated and analysed to determine the estimator that best fit the empirical data. From the analysis of the simulated dataset, the dyadic likelihood estimator (Milligan, 2003) was the most accurate and subsequently used to estimate inbreeding coefficients.

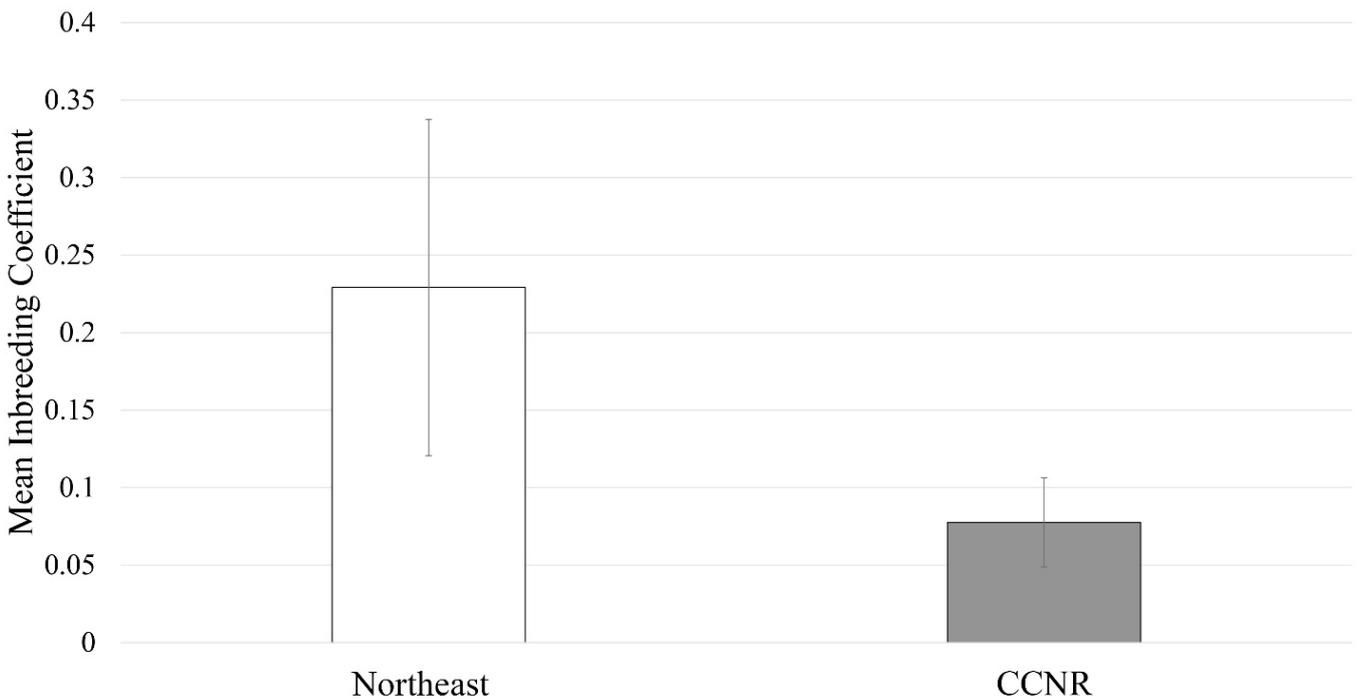


Fig. S3. Mean inbreeding coefficients of the populations of pigs found in the Northeast and the CCNR (Central Catchment Nature Reserve). Error bars represent 95% confidence interval.

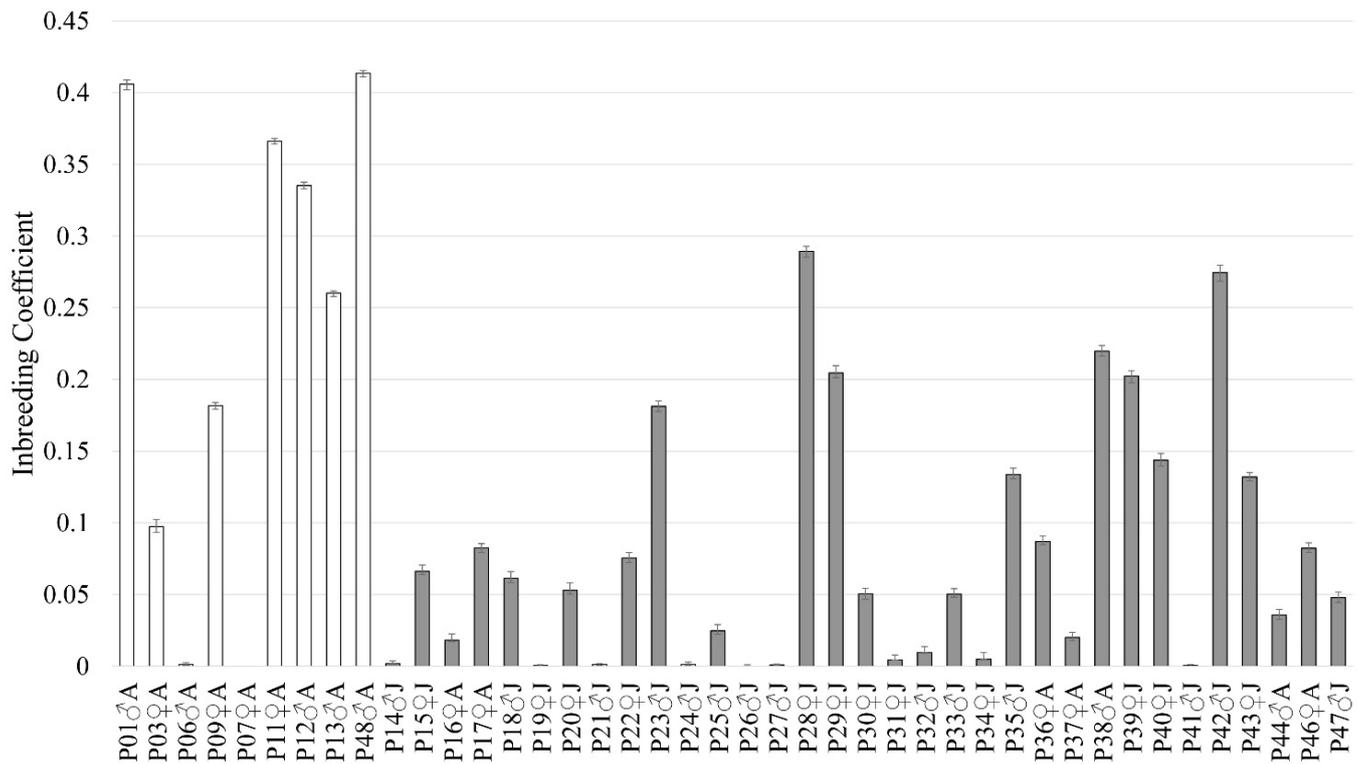


Fig. S4. Inbreeding coefficients of each individual. White bars represent individuals from the Northeast and grey bars represent individuals from the Central Catchment Nature Reserve. Error bars represent 95% confidence interval.

The inbreeding coefficients were not used in the main text as they were skewed and inconsistent with the results from STRUCTURE and the principal component analysis. The main reason why the inbreeding coefficients were biased is due to sample size (Northeast had nine individuals and CCNR had 33 individuals); where small sample sizes can result in biased genetic estimators (Da Costa et al., 2015).

References

- Da Costa LS, Corneio NS & Stefenon VM (2015) Conservation of Forest Biodiversity: how sample size affects the estimation of genetic parameters. *Anais da Academia Brasileira de Ciências*, 87: 1095–1100.
- Milligan BG (2003) Maximum-likelihood estimation of relatedness. *Genetics*, 163: 1153–1167.
- Wang J (2011) coancestry: a program for simulating, estimating and analysing relatedness and inbreeding coefficients. *Molecular Ecology Resources*, 11: 141–145. doi:10.1111/j.17550998.2010.02885.x.

Table S3. Individuals included in the Principal Component Analysis of Fig. S1, their pairing with other individuals and the corresponding kinship values.

Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value	Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value
P07Lh	P27Pi	0.19979	P26Pi	P35Pi	0.13755
P28Pi	P39Pi	0.199058	P16Pi	P27Pi	0.136666
P11Lh	P12Lh	0.19833	P01Pu	P48Ci	0.134703
P28Pi	P31Pi	0.198295	P07Lh	P24Pi	0.133451
P18Pi	P47Pi	0.197958	P07Lh	P28Pi	0.131268
P18Pi	P27Pi	0.197759	P22Pi	P44Pi	0.129368
P31Pi	P39Pi	0.196587	P28Pi	P47Pi	0.128922
P27Pi	P47Pi	0.196552	P35Pi	P43Pi	0.12864
P37Pi	P46Pi	0.196189	P24Pi	P44Pi	0.123863
P22Pi	P46Pi	0.195421	P03Pu	P38Pi	0.122892
P07Lh	P18Pi	0.193219	P26Pi	P38Pi	0.122874
P11Lh	P48Ci	0.190306	P24Pi	P26Pi	0.122823
P07Lh	P47Pi	0.188531	P36Pi	P43Pi	0.121752
P26Pi	P28Pi	0.185137	P36Pi	P44Pi	0.118587
P27Pi	P39Pi	0.177524	P07Lh	P16Pi	0.118196
P24Pi	P28Pi	0.176009	P22Pi	P37Pi	0.118126
P24Pi	P31Pi	0.171916	P31Pi	P37Pi	0.11779
P22Pi	P25Pi	0.170786	P37Pi	P44Pi	0.117103
P01Pu	P12Lh	0.170332	P35Pi	P38Pi	0.115545
P27Pi	P31Pi	0.169812	P24Pi	P47Pi	0.114334
P16Pi	P46Pi	0.166511	P25Pi	P26Pi	0.113055
P31Pi	P47Pi	0.16487	P22Pi	P43Pi	0.112969
P26Pi	P44Pi	0.161385	P43Pi	P44Pi	0.111949
P26Pi	P39Pi	0.161301	P24Pi	P37Pi	0.109409
P07Lh	P39Pi	0.159502	P26Pi	P43Pi	0.109395
P01Pu	P11Lh	0.159395	P24Pi	P39Pi	0.10905
P24Pi	P25Pi	0.153777	P38Pi	P44Pi	0.108731
P22Pi	P24Pi	0.153706	P25Pi	P38Pi	0.108269
P36Pi	P37Pi	0.153149	P24Pi	P46Pi	0.107991
P12Lh	P48Ci	0.152094	P22Pi	P36Pi	0.107848
P07Lh	P31Pi	0.152092	P18Pi	P24Pi	0.105931
P24Pi	P27Pi	0.150239	P35Pi	P44Pi	0.105197
P27Pi	P28Pi	0.145479	P16Pi	P31Pi	0.103871
P16Pi	P47Pi	0.145075	P44Pi	P46Pi	0.100323
P36Pi	P46Pi	0.142515	P31Pi	P35Pi	0.098549
P39Pi	P47Pi	0.141675	P25Pi	P44Pi	0.09666
P09Pu	P13Lh	0.140059	P16Pi	P25Pi	0.096482

Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value	Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value
P25Pi	P43Pi	0.095636	P16Pi	P39Pi	0.07201
P18Pi	P37Pi	0.094463	P22Pi	P35Pi	0.071821
P26Pi	P31Pi	0.093212	P03Pu	P07Lh	0.071548
P25Pi	P31Pi	0.092763	P25Pi	P36Pi	0.068903
P16Pi	P24Pi	0.092153	P03Pu	P37Pi	0.067682
P16Pi	P22Pi	0.091946	P18Pi	P28Pi	0.06767
P35Pi	P36Pi	0.091139	P37Pi	P43Pi	0.067585
P31Pi	P43Pi	0.091139	P24Pi	P43Pi	0.066621
P06Pu	P26Pi	0.090519	P25Pi	P46Pi	0.066108
P06Pu	P43Pi	0.089638	P22Pi	P26Pi	0.065955
P22Pi	P31Pi	0.089219	P06Pu	P31Pi	0.065941
P18Pi	P44Pi	0.088916	P18Pi	P38Pi	0.065759
P28Pi	P35Pi	0.087743	P25Pi	P35Pi	0.065744
P18Pi	P39Pi	0.087697	P44Pi	P47Pi	0.065559
P16Pi	P38Pi	0.085385	P25Pi	P37Pi	0.064491
P16Pi	P18Pi	0.085239	P03Pu	P25Pi	0.063489
P03Pu	P26Pi	0.084611	P31Pi	P46Pi	0.0625
P03Pu	P27Pi	0.08441	P35Pi	P39Pi	0.062146
P38Pi	P43Pi	0.08438	P03Pu	P31Pi	0.060948
P03Pu	P18Pi	0.084355	P18Pi	P36Pi	0.060312
P28Pi	P38Pi	0.082752	P06Pu	P24Pi	0.060236
P24Pi	P35Pi	0.082607	P28Pi	P43Pi	0.059558
P16Pi	P43Pi	0.081887	P07Lh	P26Pi	0.058593
P18Pi	P43Pi	0.081509	P03Pu	P44Pi	0.058319
P38Pi	P39Pi	0.079806	P22Pi	P28Pi	0.058098
P39Pi	P43Pi	0.079743	P26Pi	P47Pi	0.057669
P18Pi	P35Pi	0.079685	P43Pi	P46Pi	0.057642
P36Pi	P38Pi	0.079339	P18Pi	P26Pi	0.057327
P06Pu	P35Pi	0.07926	P35Pi	P47Pi	0.057237
P03Pu	P06Pu	0.07752	P22Pi	P47Pi	0.056759
P18Pi	P31Pi	0.077255	P27Pi	P35Pi	0.056457
P16Pi	P28Pi	0.076806	P25Pi	P47Pi	0.055478
P03Pu	P39Pi	0.076311	P25Pi	P28Pi	0.055365
P06Pu	P38Pi	0.075951	P03Pu	P43Pi	0.053428
P16Pi	P37Pi	0.075278	P37Pi	P39Pi	0.052888
P26Pi	P27Pi	0.074322	P27Pi	P38Pi	0.052631
P03Pu	P28Pi	0.074299	P37Pi	P47Pi	0.052336
P03Pu	P16Pi	0.072924	P03Pu	P22Pi	0.052309
P22Pi	P38Pi	0.072035	P06Pu	P18Pi	0.051949

Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value	Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value
P03Pu	P36Pi	0.051823	P18Pi	P22Pi	0.035328
P27Pi	P46Pi	0.050166	P06Pu	P07Lh	0.034769
P16Pi	P44Pi	0.04938	P07Lh	P46Pi	0.033844
P25Pi	P27Pi	0.048271	P16Pi	P26Pi	0.033713
P06Pu	P27Pi	0.047091	P07Lh	P25Pi	0.031958
P16Pi	P35Pi	0.046907	P35Pi	P46Pi	0.031853
P27Pi	P37Pi	0.04665	P07Lh	P37Pi	0.031755
P46Pi	P47Pi	0.046025	P43Pi	P47Pi	0.03168
P03Pu	P47Pi	0.045981	P06Pu	P39Pi	0.030346
P37Pi	P38Pi	0.045045	P16Pi	P36Pi	0.028293
P39Pi	P44Pi	0.044861	P24Pi	P38Pi	0.027393
P06Pu	P25Pi	0.044459	P26Pi	P37Pi	0.024285
P18Pi	P25Pi	0.044043	P21Pi	P36Pi	0.024089
P06Pu	P47Pi	0.043958	P03Pu	P35Pi	0.023694
P28Pi	P44Pi	0.043174	P38Pi	P46Pi	0.023173
P03Pu	P46Pi	0.042738	P31Pi	P44Pi	0.020812
P28Pi	P46Pi	0.042076	P03Pu	P21Pi	0.019684
P06Pu	P46Pi	0.042051	P22Pi	P39Pi	0.0173
P06Pu	P16Pi	0.041996	P06Pu	P37Pi	0.015482
P06Pu	P28Pi	0.041875	P09Pu	P21Pi	0.015419
P01Pu	P09Pu	0.040841	P21Pi	P25Pi	0.01208
P31Pi	P36Pi	0.040658	P36Pi	P47Pi	0.011789
P09Pu	P48Ci	0.040541	P06Pu	P44Pi	0.011264
P24Pi	P36Pi	0.040185	P06Pu	P36Pi	0.010859
P38Pi	P47Pi	0.04006	P39Pi	P46Pi	0.008445
P26Pi	P46Pi	0.040005	P13Lh	P21Pi	0.0079
P12Lh	P13Lh	0.039779	P28Pi	P37Pi	0.007636
P01Pu	P13Lh	0.039721	P21Pi	P22Pi	0.007324
P25Pi	P39Pi	0.03937	P27Pi	P43Pi	0.007193
P26Pi	P36Pi	0.039356	P06Pu	P22Pi	0.006591
P35Pi	P37Pi	0.039301	P27Pi	P44Pi	0.0043
P03Pu	P24Pi	0.039256	P22Pi	P27Pi	0.00365
P07Lh	P35Pi	0.039231	P21Pi	P38Pi	0.003325
P09Pu	P12Lh	0.039179	P21Pi	P43Pi	0.003101
P11Lh	P13Lh	0.038589	P06Pu	P21Pi	0.002659
P13Lh	P48Ci	0.038008	P01Pu	P03Pu	0
P31Pi	P38Pi	0.037161	P01Pu	P06Pu	0
P09Pu	P11Lh	0.036165	P01Pu	P07Lh	0
P07Lh	P38Pi	0.035546	P01Pu	P16Pi	0

Koh et al.: Gene flow between pig populations

Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value	Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value
P01Pu	P18Pi	0	P09Pu	P18Pi	0
P01Pu	P21Pi	0	P09Pu	P22Pi	0
P01Pu	P22Pi	0	P09Pu	P24Pi	0
P01Pu	P24Pi	0	P09Pu	P25Pi	0
P01Pu	P25Pi	0	P09Pu	P26Pi	0
P01Pu	P26Pi	0	P09Pu	P27Pi	0
P01Pu	P27Pi	0	P09Pu	P28Pi	0
P01Pu	P28Pi	0	P09Pu	P31Pi	0
P01Pu	P31Pi	0	P09Pu	P35Pi	0
P01Pu	P35Pi	0	P09Pu	P36Pi	0
P01Pu	P36Pi	0	P09Pu	P37Pi	0
P01Pu	P37Pi	0	P09Pu	P38Pi	0
P01Pu	P38Pi	0	P09Pu	P39Pi	0
P01Pu	P39Pi	0	P09Pu	P43Pi	0
P01Pu	P43Pi	0	P09Pu	P44Pi	0
P01Pu	P44Pi	0	P09Pu	P46Pi	0
P01Pu	P46Pi	0	P09Pu	P47Pi	0
P01Pu	P47Pi	0	P11Lh	P16Pi	0
P03Pu	P09Pu	0	P11Lh	P18Pi	0
P03Pu	P11Lh	0	P11Lh	P21Pi	0
P03Pu	P12Lh	0	P11Lh	P22Pi	0
P03Pu	P13Lh	0	P11Lh	P24Pi	0
P03Pu	P48Ci	0	P11Lh	P25Pi	0
P06Pu	P09Pu	0	P11Lh	P26Pi	0
P06Pu	P11Lh	0	P11Lh	P27Pi	0
P06Pu	P12Lh	0	P11Lh	P28Pi	0
P06Pu	P13Lh	0	P11Lh	P31Pi	0
P06Pu	P48Ci	0	P11Lh	P35Pi	0
P07Lh	P09Pu	0	P11Lh	P36Pi	0
P07Lh	P11Lh	0	P11Lh	P37Pi	0
P07Lh	P12Lh	0	P11Lh	P38Pi	0
P07Lh	P13Lh	0	P11Lh	P39Pi	0
P07Lh	P21Pi	0	P11Lh	P43Pi	0
P07Lh	P22Pi	0	P11Lh	P44Pi	0
P07Lh	P36Pi	0	P11Lh	P46Pi	0
P07Lh	P43Pi	0	P11Lh	P47Pi	0
P07Lh	P44Pi	0	P12Lh	P16Pi	0
P07Lh	P48Ci	0	P12Lh	P18Pi	0
P09Pu	P16Pi	0	P12Lh	P21Pi	0

Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value	Individual 1	Individual 2	Kinship Value
P12Lh	P22Pi	0	P16Pi	P48Ci	0
P12Lh	P24Pi	0	P18Pi	P21Pi	0
P12Lh	P25Pi	0	P18Pi	P46Pi	0
P12Lh	P26Pi	0	P18Pi	P48Ci	0
P12Lh	P27Pi	0	P21Pi	P24Pi	0
P12Lh	P28Pi	0	P21Pi	P26Pi	0
P12Lh	P31Pi	0	P21Pi	P27Pi	0
P12Lh	P35Pi	0	P21Pi	P28Pi	0
P12Lh	P36Pi	0	P21Pi	P31Pi	0
P12Lh	P37Pi	0	P21Pi	P35Pi	0
P12Lh	P38Pi	0	P21Pi	P37Pi	0
P12Lh	P39Pi	0	P21Pi	P39Pi	0
P12Lh	P43Pi	0	P21Pi	P44Pi	0
P12Lh	P44Pi	0	P21Pi	P46Pi	0
P12Lh	P46Pi	0	P21Pi	P47Pi	0
P12Lh	P47Pi	0	P21Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P16Pi	0	P22Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P18Pi	0	P24Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P22Pi	0	P25Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P24Pi	0	P26Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P25Pi	0	P27Pi	P36Pi	0
P13Lh	P26Pi	0	P27Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P27Pi	0	P28Pi	P36Pi	0
P13Lh	P28Pi	0	P28Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P31Pi	0	P31Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P35Pi	0	P35Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P36Pi	0	P36Pi	P39Pi	0
P13Lh	P37Pi	0	P36Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P38Pi	0	P37Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P39Pi	0	P38Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P43Pi	0	P39Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P44Pi	0	P43Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P46Pi	0	P44Pi	P48Ci	0
P13Lh	P47Pi	0	P46Pi	P48Ci	0
P16Pi	P21Pi	0	P47Pi	P48Ci	0