



"Biodiversity: Exploration, Exploitation, Conservation and Management – Vision and Mission"

*Proceedings of the UGC Sponsored
National Seminar*

19-20th November, 2016

Editor-in- Chief

Dr. Sumana Saha

Associate Editors

*Dr. Madhumita Manna, Dr. Jayati Ghosh,
Dr. Sanjoy Podder, Dr. Enamul Haque
Dr. Srikanta Guria, Sri Somaditya Dey*

Organised by



**Post Graduate Department of Zoology
Barasat Government College**

In Collaboration with



The Zoological Society, Kolkata



West Bengal Biodiversity Board





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Reviewer

Prof. Jerzy Borowski
Department of Forest Protection and Ecology, SGGW,
Warsaw, Poland

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Dr. Sumana Saha

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SECTION : I

Message

It gives me immense pleasure to learn that the Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College in association with West Bengal Biodiversity Board is organising a Two- day- UGC – sponsored National Seminar on ***Biodiversity : Exploration, Exploitation, Conservation and Management – Vision and Mission*** at the Barasat Government College on November 19 - 20, 2016.

Biodiversity is relevant in all aspects and at all levels of socio-economics. India is rich in biodiversity and its preservation is of utmost importance. Drastic utilization of biodiversity to harness materials and profits for mankind will lead to an imbalance that will affect the overall environment. This must be checked. What we need is an optimal utilization of biodiversity for production of food and nutrition, pharmaceuticals, industrial raw materials and in applications for remediation of industrial pollutants and toxicants.

I hope the seminar will discuss all aspects of biodiversity mentioned above and will come up with positive recommendations so that biodiversity is protected, maintained and/or restored.

I wish the seminar all success.

Prof. Basab Chaudhuri

Kolkata
November 3rd, 2016

Vice-Chancellor
West Bengal State University

Message

I am glad to know that the Post Graduate Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College is going to organize the National Seminar on “***Biodiversity : Exploration, Exploitation, Conservation and Management – Vision and Mission***” during 19-20 November, 2016 in Barasat.

I am also happy to know that the seminar will bring out an “Abstract Book” containing the articles of the delegates and participants to commemorate the occasion.

The theme of the conference is very relevant in the present context and will surely address the key issues related to biodiversity. I congratulate the organizers for hosting the event.

I convey my best wishes for grand success of the conference.

Prof. Nirmal Chandra Saha

Burdwan
October 24, 2016

Vice-Chancellor
University of Burdwan

Message

It gives me immense pleasure to know that the Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College, West Bengal is organising a UGC sponsored National Seminar on “**Biodiversity : Exploration, Exploitation, Conservation and Management – Vision and Mission**” during 19-20 November, 2016.

Biodiversity is the base of our sustainability. Conservation of biodiversity and rational use of the same, in the backdrop of expanding human population, is therefore a daunting task. The theme of the proposed seminar is very relevant in the present context and will surely help generating awareness among the younger generations, the ways and means to conserve the depleting biodiversity for sustenance of life system on the Earth.

I extend my best wishes to the organisers and the participants and hope that the deliberations and interactions in the seminar will help the scholars and students to become the successful custodian of our biodiversity heritage.

I wish grand success of the event.

Dr. Asok Kanti Sanyal

Chairman

West Bengal Biodiversity Board

Kolkata

November 4, 2016

Message

Coming at a time when environmental concerns, world over, are gathering credence. The topic of the proposed seminar, '**Biodiversity : Exploration, Exploitation. Conservation & Management – Vision & Mission**' is very pertinent. The true inventory of biodiversity could be several times higher than what is known today. Lack of trained taxonomists, however, is a serious constraint to achieve this. Conserving what we have today is hampered by lack of management measures including outreach and our ability to predict what would live in India and lack of data relating changes in biodiversity to those of environment. So, the fact that the biodiversity in Indian perspective, its proper assessment and documentation, focus the gap areas for exploration and judicious utilization of bioresources are the main theme of the seminar. The deliberations at this seminar, coming as they will from eminent academicians and experts, are expected to shed light on various aspects of these issues and also offer valuable inputs on the proper harnessing of bioresources without disturbing ecological balances.

I am sure our students and teachers will appreciate and enjoy the proceedings of this seminar thoroughly.

I wish the organizers of this seminar all success in their endeavour to make this seminar worthwhile.

Dr. Subhasis Dutta

Principal

Barasat Government College

Kolkata

November 12, 2016

From the Convenor's Desk

People depend on the earth's living systems for both life and livelihood. Constant technological innovations ushered a radical change in the overall biodiversity and ecosystems with explosive speed. Such activities on our part have brought the entire human race to the brink of an ecological disaster. These deeds have also put even the survival of our future generation into great peril. India has a vast resource of biodiversity. It is a common knowledge that bioresources are important component of progress and the economic activities of a nation. At the same time we are aware that the impediment of a huge population explosion is working at draining resources. Efforts on the sustainable use of these resources also have much to be desired. This is perhaps the greatest challenge faced by the global scientific community.

Against this backdrop, the Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College arranged a two- day UGC – sponsored National Seminar entitled "**Biodiversity: Exploration, Exploitation, Conservation & Management-Vision & Mission**" during 19 – 20 November, 2016 to provide a platform to discuss various aspects about biodiversity, its proper assessment and documentation, focus the gap areas for exploration and judicious utilization of bioresources and hopefully generate the interest and awareness deserved. Not only that, there would be an appeal to the Conservationists, Scientists, NGOs, Civil Society Organisations especially people living close to forests, wetlands, sanctuaries, etc. to contribute their ideas, knowledge and efforts on nature and sustain the precious bioresources of our country which are of immense value and role in the human welfare. We have also aimed to make the seminar more accessible to students while retaining its authority and scope.

It is my proud privilege to extend my cordial thanks to the distinguished and celebrated Scientists and Professors, erudite researchers, scholars and students who have joined this National Seminar. I express my heartfelt thanks to Prof. Basab Chaudhuri, Vice-Chancellor, West Bengal State University (Patron), Prof. Namai Chandra Saha, Vice-Chancellor, Burdwan University (Patron & Chief Guest of the seminar), Dr. Asish Kumar Ghosh, Director, Centre for Environment and Development, Kolkata (Guest of Honour), Dr. Asok Kanti Sanyal, Chairman, West Bengal Biodiversity Board (Patron) for their kind help, valuable suggestions, active participation and cordial cooperation.

This seminar could not have been organised without significant input from various quarters. I take this opportunity to thank profusely to all the invited speakers, chairpersons and judges who agreed to spare their valued time for the seminar and deliberate in the proceedings. However, all the delegates – teachers, research scholars and students are the most important component without whom the seminar cannot reach to its success. Indeed it is my proud privilege to thank them all for their kind presence and constructive participation. We express our sincere gratitude to you all.

I on behalf of the department like to express our sincere gratitude to our Principal for his constant encouragement, advice and necessary assistance.

We consider it a pleasant duty to thank UGC for sponsoring the seminar and all the collaborators for agreeing to confederate in the seminar. Special thanks are due to all the vendors who extended contributions for seminar.

I owe to all my departmental colleagues, non-teaching members, and students for their effective support and cooperation rendered at various stages so as to make the seminar a grand success.

Last but not the least, thanks are also due to Prof. D. Raychaudhuri, External Expert member of Post Graduate Department of Zoology for his sincere support and untiring efforts for successful completion of the seminar as well as for bringing out the Proceedings of the Seminar which will be an important document in research in various aspects of biodiversity.

Dr. Sumana Saha

Head

Post Graduate Department of Zoology

*Kolkata
April 4, 2017*

About the Proceedings

Keeping in mind the importance of biodiversity, its exploration, sustainable utilization, conservation and proper documentation, the need of the day is to generate awareness as how to protect it for survival and sustainable development of humankind and how people's participation is needed to achieve the target. The UGC sponsored National Seminar of Biodiversity held during 19-20 November, 2016 organised by the Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College, Barasat, Kolkata in collaboration with The Zoological Society, Kolkata & West Bengal Biodiversity Board discussed some of the urgent issues and concerns of biodiversity and future strategies for conservation. The present Proceedings of the Seminar is a compendium wherein the invited lectures (abstracts/full Paper) as well as submitted papers (full length papers), presented both through oral and poster presentations have been accommodated along with the Messages from the well known dignitaries; From the Convenor's Desk; A Brief History of the Department of Zoology; Organising Committee; Programme Schedule, Report about Seminar, etc.

The papers have been arranged under four (4) sections viz., under Section II : Key Note Address (abstract only), Section III : Invited lectures (abstracts/full Paper), Section IV : Papers presented.

This compendium would provide very valuable and updated information on diverse aspects of biodiversity and its conservation and it is expected to shed light on future strategies to be adopted by policy makers, planners, researchers, etc. Though utmost efforts were made to make this proceedings error-free but yet if there are any, the Editor-in Chief urge the readers/users begging excuse.

The Editor-in-Chief takes the privilege of expressing her sincere thanks to the organising committee for various suggestions regarding the publication of the Proceedings. The financial support received from UGC is also gratefully acknowledged.

*Dr. Sumana Saha
Editor-in-Chief*

Brief report on the seminar

In lexical term, a seminar is a formal meeting of people with a shared interest. In the world of scientific endeavours, especially a titanic one like biodiversity with myriad interrelated topics, where one idea is explored by people having different perception, understanding and depth of knowledge, it is absolutely necessary for a person to share or discuss his or her idea with a fellow researcher. This national seminar, having practitioners of various fields in biodiversity in attendance, was surely a platform to that and we acknowledge our gratitude to Dr. Subhasis Dutta, Principal, Barasat Govt. College for his constant encouragement, advice and assistance, sponsorer – the UGC for funding the seminar, our collaborators, The Zoological Society & West Bengal Biodiversity Board, Kolkata, all the eminent invited speakers from different reputed institutes, across the country, the chairpersons, the young scientists for their oral/poster presentations, other faculty members, the non-teaching staffs, participants, distinguished guests and last but not the least, our research scholars and students for making the two-day seminar a grand success.

Dr. Subhasis Dutta, Principal, Barasat Govt. College, in his welcome address, pointed out the relevance of this seminar on biodiversity, particularly in Indian perspective, its proper assessment and documentation, especially when the irreversible loss of biodiversity & the massive floral & faunal extinctions, are major concerns for the biologists. Dr. Ashish Kumar Ghosh, Former Director, ZSI, in his keynote address, elaborated the present conservation strategy and the potentials of bio-resource for economic growth of the country through people's participation. Prof. (Dr.) Nimai Chandra Saha, Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, Burdwan University, graced the occasion with his presence & delivered a special talk on key issues of biodiversity. The two- day seminar was comprised of eight invited lectures, arranged in four specific technical sessions, viz., 'Exploration of faunal diversity', 'Sustainable exploitation of faunal diversity', 'Conservation & Management of Wild Life' and 'Assessment & Documentation of Bioresources', chaired by the eminent personalities of those fields of research like, Dr. A.K. Sanyal, Chairman, West Bengal Biodiversity Board, Dr. R. Roy, Ex-HOD, P G Dept. of Zoology, Barasat Govt. College, Dr. J.R.B. Alfred, Ex-Director, ZSI & Dr. Amalesh Chowdhuri, Ex-Professor, Dept. of Marine Sciences, University of Calcutta, respectively.

Among the invited speakers, Dr. S.K. Gupta, Ex-Joint Director, ZSI, Kolkata, Dr. B.K. Mahapatra, Principal Scientist & O.I.C., ICAR-CIFE and, Dr. D. Ghose, Species & Landscape Programme, WWF-India, emphasized mainly on the following areas of their research like, Acarine Entomology, Fish biodiversity of West Bengal & it's status and Wildlife conservation at landscape scale- issues, respectively.

On the second day, we were fortunate enough to have Dr. G. K. Saha, Professor of Zoology, University of Calcutta, Prof. (Dr.) S. Sathyakumar, Scientist-G, WII-India and Prof. D. Raychaudhuri, Dept. of Agricultural Biodiversity, RMVU, Kolkata as the invited speakers. The major areas, discussed in those technical sessions were, conservation breeding, wildlife conservation & management in Himalayan regions & documentation of biodiversity and sustainable utilization of those potential bioresources.

Forty eight research papers (Oral presentations: 10 & Poster presentations: 38) were presented by the participants (Students : 76; Research Scholars : 28 , Faculties : 32), some of which were highly appreciated by the resource persons. The judges & experts, from different reputed Institutes, have selected four research papers two from each - as the best presentations. The best presenters were duly rewarded.

Lastly, although this conference is on *biodiversity*, but it doesn't mean that it caters exclusively to that subject. Knowledge surmised from this seminar can also be used to understand other threats & concerns regarding the biodiversity, and with the collective advice, guidance and help from the entire world, hopefully wouldn't be difficult to counteract the current problems.

A Few Moments of the Seminar

Day 1



Day 2



Day 2 (contd.)



Department of Zoology - A Brief History

Established in 1996 under University of Calcutta for undergraduate study with limited resources, the Department of Zoology, has taken giant strides to gain reputation of being one of the premiere Departments for undergraduate study with 49 seats under West Bengal State University (WBSU). It has also upgraded itself to Post Graduate status (with academic autonomy under WBSU) in 2009, adding to the prestige of the College. An updated course based on the UGC National curriculum for both undergraduate and postgraduate caters to the present needs of the students.

The Department has gradually become well equipped with spacious and modern e-classrooms and laboratories, an enriched zoological museum and a seminar library. Separate laboratories are available for the various specializations of M.Sc. curriculum while the faculties also have their own laboratories for research. In addition, an air conditioned computer laboratory is there to meet the requirements of the B.Sc. and M.Sc. curricula. The Department has a central instrumentation facility, well equipped with sophisticated instruments.

The Department, which has provision for nine teaching posts, including one Professor (vacant), is currently run by seven experienced and energetic teachers. Reputed retired teachers and scientists also impart quality education in the capacity of part-time and guest lecturers. Apart from giving emphasis on teaching, the Department has also consistently encouraged collaborative research programmes that will take it to new heights of excellence in the years to come. The teachers have a rich academic background with publications in reputed journals and keep themselves cognizant with the latest information and developments. Considerable research funding has been tapped from various national and state agencies for both major and minor projects and teachers provide guidance to research scholars pursuing their Ph.D. degree. The laboratory technicians and attendants are friendly and dutiful and work in tandem with the teachers to ensure smooth functioning of the Department.

The rate of success of the students is impressively high with many securing First Class and some procuring top positions in the University Merit List. They always maintain their high scholastic achievements throughout the country. Educational excursions are regularly organised not only to observe animals in their natural habitat and their biodiversity but also to strengthen the camaraderie between the students themselves and with the teachers. Warm relationships shared by the faculty and students add to the general richness of the academic environment of the Department.

Learning is an odyssey that never ends. Team Zoology of the Department is making this journey interesting and fruitful.

Dr. Rupendu Ray
(Former Head of the Department)

BIODIVERSITY: EXPLORATION, EXPLOITATION, CONSERVATION & MANAGEMENT – VISION & MISSION

Organized by
Post Graduate Department of Zoology, Barasat Government College

In collaboration with
Zoological Society, Kolkata
&
West Bengal Biodiversity Board

19th – 20th November, 2016

President	Dr. Subhasis Dutta Principal, Barasat Government College
Patrons	Prof. (Dr.) Basab Chaudhuri Vice-Chancellor, West Bengal State University
	Prof. Nimai Chandra Saha Vice-Chancellor, Burdwan University (Former Director of Public Instructions, Higher Education Department, Govt. of West Bengal)
	Dr. Kailash Chandra Director, Zoological Survey of India
	Dr. Asok Kanti Sanyal Chairman, West Bengal Biodiversity Board
	Dr. J. R. B. Alfred President, The Zoological Society, Kolkata
Advisory Committee	Dr. Madhusudan Ghosal, Dr. Salil Kumar Gupta, Dr. Rupendu Roy, Prof. Dinendra Raychaudhuri, Dr. Subhra Kumar Mukhopadhyay, Prof. Jukta Adhikary, Prof. Anilava Kaviraj, Prof. Subir Chandra Dasgupta, Prof. Sumit HomeChaudhuri, Prof. Goutam Kumar Saha, Prof. Narayan Ghorai, Prof. Shilanjan Bhattacharya, Prof. Chiranjib Pal
Convenor	Dr. Sumana Saha Head, Department of Zoology
Organizing Secretaries	Dr. Madhumita Manna & Dr. Sanjoy Podder

Treasurer	Dr. Srikanta Guria & Sri Somaditya Dey
Steering Committee	Dr. Jayati Ghosh, Dr. Enamul Haque, Dr. Srikanta Guria, Sri Somaditya Dey, Ms. Indrani Banerjee
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<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Sumana Saha & Dr. Jayati Ghosh
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<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Srikanta Guria & Sri Somaditya Dey
<i>Member</i>	Smt. Indrani Banerjee
Hospitality Committee	
<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Madhumita Manna & Dr. Jayati Ghosh
<i>Members</i>	Dr. Sumana Saha, Dr. Sanjoy Podder, Dr. Enamul Haque, Dr. Srikanta Guria, Sri Somaditya Dey
Decoration Committee	
<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Jayati Ghosh & Sri Somaditya Dey
<i>Members</i>	Dr. Sanjoy Podder, Dr. Enamul Haque, Smt. Indrani Banerjee
Technical Session Committee	
<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Madhumita Manna & Dr. Jayati Ghosh
<i>Members</i>	Dr. Enamul Haque, Dr. Srikanta Guria, Sri Somaditya Dey
Oral/Poster Session Committee	
<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Enamul Haque & Sri Somaditya Dey
<i>Members</i>	Dr. Sumana Saha, Dr. Madhumita Manna, Dr. Jayati Ghosh, Dr. Srikanta Guria, Smt. Indrani Banerjee
Refreshment Committee	
<i>Convenors</i>	Dr. Sanjoy Podder & Dr. Srikanta Guria
<i>Members</i>	Dr. Sumana Saha, Dr. Madhumita Manna, Dr. Jayati Ghosh, Dr. Enamul Haque, Sri Somaditya Dey

BIODIVERSITY : EXPLORATION, EXPLOITATION, CONSERVATION & MANAGEMENT – VISION & MISSION

PROGRAMME SCHEDULE

19TH November, 2016
Venue: Rabindra Bhavan

9.30 am -10.00 am
10.00 am – 11.00 am

REGISTRATION
INAUGURAL SESSION
Welcome Address

Dr. Subhasis Dutta
Principal, Barasat Govt. College

Key Note Address

Dr. Ashish Kumar Ghosh
Director, Centre for Environment
& Development, Honorary
President, ENDEV (Former
Director, Zoological Survey of India)

11.00 am – 11.15 am

TEA BREAK

TECHNICAL SESSION I : **Exploration of Faunal Diversity**

Chairperson

Dr. Asok Kanti Sanyal
Chairman, West Bengal
Biodiversity Board, Kolkata,
West Bengal

11.15 am – 12.00 noon

Invited Lecture 1

Prof. Nimai Chandra Saha
Vice-Chancellor, Burdwan
University (Former Director of
Public Instructions Higher
Education Department, Govt. of
West Bengal)

12.00 noon – 12.45 pm

Invited Lecture 2

Dr. Salil Kumar Gupta
Former Jt. Director, Zoological
Survey of India

12.45 pm – 1.45 pm

LUNCH BREAK

TECHNICAL SESSION II : **Sustainable Exploitation of Faunal
Diversity**

Chairperson

Dr. Kailash Chandra
Director, Zoological Survey of India

1.45 pm – 2.00 pm

Invited Lecture 3

Dr. Sumit HomeChaudhuri
Professor, Department of Zoology.
University of Calcutta, Kolkata, West
Bengal, India

2.00 pm – 2.30 pm	Invited Lecture 4	Dr. Bijoy Kali Mahapatra Principal Scientist & Officer-in-charge ICAR- Central Institute of Fisheries Education, Ministry of Agriculture (GOI), Kolkata Centre
2.30pm – 3.15 pm	Invited Lecture 5	Dr. Dipankar Ghose Director, Species & Landscape Programme at WWF, India
3.15 pm – 3.30 pm	TEA BREAK	
3.30 pm – 5.30 pm	ORAL PRESENTATION	

20TH NOVEMBER, 2016

**Venue : Seminar Room, Annex Building, 2nd Floor,
Barasat Government College**

TECHNICAL SESSION III : Conservation & Management of Wild Life

Chairperson :

Dr. J.R.B. Alfred
President, The Zoological Society,
Kolkata (Former Director,
Zoological Survey of India)

10.00 am – 10.45 am	Invited Lecture 6	Dr. Goutam Kumar Saha Professor, Dept. of Zoology, Universityof Calcutta, Kolkata, West Bengal, India
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10.45 am – 11.30 am	Invited Lecture 7	Dr. S. Satyakumar Scientist – G & Senior Professor WildLife Institute of India Dehradun, Uttarakhand, India
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11.30 am – 11.45 am	TEA BREAK
11.45 am - 1.00 pm	POSTER PRESENTATION
1.00 pm – 2.00 pm	LUNCH BREAK

TECHNICAL SESSION IV : Assessment & Documentation of Bioresources

Chairperson :

Prof. Amalesh Chowdhury
Former Professor, Dept. of Marine
Science, University of Calcutta

2.00pm – 2.45 pm

Invited Lecture 8

Prof. Dinendra Raychaudhuri

Hony. Professor, Dept. of Agricultural Biotechnology, IRDM Faculty Centre, Ramakrishna Vivekananda University (Former Professor, Dept. of Zoology, University of Calcutta)

2.45 pm – 4.30 pm

ORAL PRESENTATION

4.30 pm - 4.45 pm

VALEDICTORY SESSION

4.45 pm - 5.00 pm

VOTE OF THANKS

5.00 pm onwards

CERTIFICATE DISTRIBUTION

SECTION : II

Key Note Address

BIODIVERSITY: EXPLORATION, EXPLOITATION, CONSERVATION & MANAGEMENT - VISION & MISSION

A. K. Ghosh

Centre for Environment and Development, Kolkata
E-mail: cedkolkata@yahoo.com
www.cendev.org

ABSTRACT

Biological Diversity has sustained the human society since the origin of *Homo sapiens* and the days of hunter gathers. Interestingly, even in 21st Century, all major needs of human society are being largely met from living natural resources, be it food, fibre, pulses, spices, pulp and paper, textile, skin and hide, beverage, natural pigments, and aromatic or medicinal plants, etc. Industrial Revolution only helped to add value to biological products and generate extra wealth for human development. In the process, over exploitation of species of economic importance created a crisis of survival for many species which becomes vulnerable, threatened or extinct forever. The world leaders in the historic UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in June 1992, proposed for the first time a Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) which has been signed by 193 countries. This Convention declared for the first time that all countries have a sovereign right over their biological resource, and henceforth access to bio-resource or transferring bio-resource from one country to the other, for commercial uses need prior informed consent; it also stipulates that if access and transfer is permitted, it should be on a principle of benefit sharing on mutually agreed terms. India, as a signatory, enacted its own Biological Diversity Act in 2002 and published the Rules in 2004. Indian Act provided a three tier system of governance, viz. a National Biodiversity Authority at the apex, a State Biodiversity Board in every state and a Biodiversity Management Committee (BMC) at the local level. The most distinctive feature of the Act is decentralization of power and empowering the local community to have control over its own resources. For this purpose, the major task of every BMC is to prepare a People's Biodiversity Register providing details of land, water, and the community as also current status of wild and domesticated biodiversity and their uses. This document will act as the basis of as how much bio-resource can be profitably utilized by the community either as raw material or as value added product. It also provides opportunity to promote conservation and propagation of the species within their area of jurisdiction which can help achieving higher economic growth. A local biodiversity fund to be set up by BMC, as per the law, can help to promote such activities and recognize the contribution of individual who might have acted as a pioneer. Over exploitation of resources from the wild need to be controlled to prevent future extinction; researches are urgently required to be conducted for cultivating or breeding those wild species which can provide better economic return to the community without endangering the wild species. The paper has discussed in details the present conservation strategy and the potential of bio-resource for economic growth of the country through people's participation.

SECTION : III

Invited Lectures

Lecture - I

Acari Diversity And Their Importance As Foes And Friends

Salil Kumar Gupta

Medicinal Plants Research and Extension Centre, Rama Krishna Mission Ashrama Narendrapur,
Kolkata – 700103
E-mail: salil_zsidumdum@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The present paper reviews the acarine diversity of India focussing their early history, habits, habitats and economic importance of those relating to agricultural, veterinary and public health aspects. This provides an up-dated data regarding status of Indian acarines.

Keywords: Acarine diversity, Foes & friends, Indian scenario

INTRODUCTION

Among the non-insect pests of agricultural crops, mites are gaining increasing importance throughout the world as some act as foes, being injurious pests of agricultural crops and do substantial economic loss to the growers, while some act as friends, being effective and potential predators, helping enormously to bring down the pest mite population below economic injury level. Likewise, there are many mites and ticks which are pests of veterinary animals, poultry birds and human beings and are responsible for causing various types of disease related to bacteria, virus, protozoa, rickettsia, spirochaete, etc. In addition, they also cause inconvenience, irritation, itching, inflammation, anaemia, paralysis, etc. to the hosts. Hence, those have tremendous importance in medical, veterinary and public health aspects. Some mites occur in house dust and are responsible for causing various types of respiratory allergic disorders. Mites also occur in water bodies (fresh water and salt water) and some act as indicator species for detecting water pollution. The mites inhabiting stored products including stored grains cause substantial damage to the grains making those unsuitable for human consumption and even for germination. Those mites which inhabit soil help enriching soil fertility by forming humus as well as act as indicator species for soil health and soil pollution. Gupta (1985, 2010, 2012), Gupta & Gupta (1999) summarized the available information on Indian Acarines.

Considering the above stated manifold importance, the Acari, comprising mites and ticks, have received world attention since last several hundred years and works on diverse aspects have been done. So far as India is concerned, a reasonably good amount of work has been done and the present paper provides an overview of that highlighting their importance as foes and friends.

EARLY HISTORY OF ACARINES

A tick transmitted fever was reported in ancient Egyptian papyrus in as early as 1550 BC. Homer mentioned in 850 BC the occurrence of a tick on dog of Ulysses. Aristotle described a parasitic mite collected from body of a locust. Hippocrates, Pliny and others reported mites/ticks several hundred years back. Until 1660, mites were referred as "lice" or "beetles" and it was only in 1860, the term "Acari" or "Akari" was used which meant headless creatures. After World War-II, the importance of acari increased further as many of those were related to transmission of diseases on one hand and also on the other hand due to random uses of broad spectrum pesticides like DDT, BHC, etc. which aggravated the agricultural mite problem further.

HABITAT AND SPECIES DIVERSITY OF ACARINES

Acari are rival to insects regarding habitat diversity. Hardly any habitat on earth is known where these creatures do not occur. Their occurrence has been reported from bottom of ocean to top of mountain and from hottest desert to arctic region as well as snow-clad mountains. Up to 1970, only 30,000 species were known from the world (Krantz, 1970). Up to 2000, as many as 55,000 species under 5500 genera were known (Walter & Proctor, 1999). As per guess estimate, presently about 0.5-1.0 million species exist. Of these, the estimated plant feeding mites are 0.4 million and vertebrate parasitic mites are 0.12 million. It is believed that if all possible habitats are explored, the number of Acari will exceed the number of insects.

ACARI AS FOES

Mites act as important pests of agri-horticultural crops, stored products and do enormous economic loss. Many ticks and some mites attack various veterinary animals, poultry birds as well as man causing a number of diseases besides causing inconvenience, nuisance, loss of blood, paralysis, scabies, mange etc. Many ticks cause protozoan, rickettsial, viral, bacterial, spirochaete diseases causing loss of life. All these invited world attention for conducting diverse studies on Acari.

ACARI AS FRIENDS

Some mites act as predators of crop pests and stored grain pests while some others like aquatic mites feed on mosquito larvae. Some parasitize insect pests of crops, house flies etc. By these, they contribute towards biological control. The soil mites help enriching soil fertility by forming humus. Some mites even help determining post-mortem interval. Even there are instances where the tribal people have been reported to use mites in preparing some traditional medicines for treatment of human ailments.

PROGRESS OF INDIAN ACARINE STUDIES IN FAUNAL EXPLORATION

Table 1. Indian Acarine Diversity

First report of Acarine from India (Tick)	One Tick species on Elephant (<i>Acarus elephanticus</i>)	Linnaeus, 1758
First report of Acarine from India (Mite)	One Mite species on tea (<i>Tetranychus bimaculatus</i>)	Peal, 1868
Known species up to 1899	3 spp.(Mites)	Prasad, 1982
Known species up to 1950	35 spp. (Mites)	Gupta & Gupta, 1999
Known species up to 1964	65 spp. (Mites)	Ghai 1964 Gupta & Gupta, 1999
Known species up to 1974	769 spp. (only Mites)	Prasad, 1974
Known species up to 1999	1800 spp. (Mites)	Gupta & Gupta, 1999
Known species up to 2012 Known species up to 2016	1400 spp. (Mites) 3365 spp. (Total Acari) 3255 (Mites) 110 (Ticks)	Gupta 2012 Updated Data

HABITAT-WISE STUDIES ON INDIAN ACARINES

1. Plant Mites –

Habitats-These mites occur in all kinds of agri-horticultural crops/ plants

Nature of damage- The mites damage plant tissues, suck plant sap and make the plants weak, causing retardation of growth and development and yield. Often they kill the plants. They produce different types of damage symptoms like chlorosis, blistering, russetting, curling, bronzing of leaves, defoliation, gall formation, deformation, of plant parts, and act as vectors of viral diseases. All these cause economic loss from 5-100%.

Number of spp. from India- 1490 spp.

Phytophagus- 1213 spp., 110 genera, 6 families, Predatory- 277 spp., 80 genera, 18 families.

2. Vertebrate associated mites –

Vertebrates attacked- These mites occur as ecto/endo parasites of all vertebrates from fish to mammals.

Nature of injury- Their biting and sucking of blood cause anaemia, itching, irritation, inflammation, dermatitis, rashes, scabies disease, scrub typhus disease, rickettsial disease, etc.

Extent of mortality- 5-50%.

Total species known from India- 350 spp., 110 genera, 40 families.

Some important spp.- *Sarcoptes scabiei*, *Neotrombicula deliense*, *Psoroptes* spp. etc.

3. Invertebrate associated mites –

Invertebrates attacked- These mites attack insects, millipedes, centipedes, mussels, slugs, snails, cray fish, scorpion, hermit crab, etc.

Nature of association- Phoretic, commensals, haemolymph feeder, parasitic, predators, often act as good bio-control agents of insect/ mite pests. Some cause virulent disease to honey bees.

No. of species known from India- 155 spp., 58 genera, 22 families.

Important species- *Acarapis woodi*, *Varroa jacobsoni*, *Eutrombidium trigonum*, etc.

4. Soil mites –

Habitat- These mites occur in soil, leaf litter under logs, etc.

Nature of association- They act as decomposer of soil organic matter to form humus for increasing soil fertility. They also help soil aeration/ dissemination of fungal spores and bacteria, while some feed on algae, mosses, etc.

No. of spp. known from India- 707 (Mesostigmata- 170, Prostigmata-17, Astigmata- 20, Cryptostigmata- 500).

5. Water mites –

Habitats- These mites occur in fresh water, marine water and oceanic bottom.

Nature of association- Some fresh water mites act as good bio-control agents of mosquito and house fly larvae

Number of spp. known from India- 245 spp., 60 genera, 25 families.

6. Stored product mites –

Stored Products attacked- These mites infest grains/ dried fish/ powder milk/ dry fruits/ various food & food products/ drugs/ farinaceous products/ cheese/ hide /seeds/ potato chips/ spices, etc.

Nature of damage- They make the infested articles unsuitable for human and animal consumption/ grains become unsuitable for germination. They also invite fungal attack.

Extent of damage- 5-20% loss.

Total species known from India- 93 species, 50 genera, 20 families.

Important species- *Acarus siro/ Tyrophagus putrescentiae/ Tyrolichus casei/ Caloglyphus berlesei/ Lardoglyphus konoi/ Rhizoglyphus echinopus/ Cheyletus eruditus/ C. malaccensis.*

7. Nest associated mites –

Habitats- These mites occur in bird and rodent nests. The nest acarine fauna shows succession of species in different nesting stages like- nest building/ egg laying/ hatchlings/ deserting of nest

Importance- These mites often invade human houses, bite man and cause irritation, itching, dermatitis and also may act as vectors of different diseases.

Number of spp. known from India- 92 spp.

8. Dust mite –

Habitats- These mites occur in both floor and bed dust, more in dampy and non-airy houses and also in those houses occupied by respiratory allergic patients

Importance- They cause respiratory allergic disorders (Asthma, Rhinitis), contract urticaria, etc. Some feed on human semen present in bed, if any, and are suspected to be carriers of Hepatitis-B, HIV, CMV, etc.

Number of spp. known from India- 123 spp., 43 genera, 25 families (Gupta, 2010).

9. Ticks (Soft & Hard ticks) –

Habitats- These ticks occur in all vertebrates

Nature of association- These are exclusively blood feeders causing diseases like anaplasmosis, babesiosis, piroplasmosis, theileriasis, typhus, encephalitis, anaemia, paralysis, leucocytozoonosis, etc.

Number of spp. known from India- 110 spp., 12 genera, 2 families.

MAJOR GROUPS OF PLANT MITES

Spider mites (Family – Tetranychidae) :

These mites are exclusively plant sap feeders. They are variously coloured, 8 legged, occur on under-surface of leaves (some may occur on upper surface also), make colonies there and cover that with thin webs like spiders (hence called spider mites). Many species are important pests of agri-horticultural crops. Size – 350-450 microns.

False Spider mites (Family – Tenuipalpidae) :

These mites are flat, pear shaped, 8 legged, brightly coloured, colonize on under-surface of leaves, also on twigs, fruits. These are plant sap suckers and some cause plant viral diseases. They never cover their colonies with webs (hence called false spider mites). Size – 300-350 microns.

Yellow mite/Broad mite (Family – Tarsonemidae) :

These tiny mites are yellowish white, move fast, 8 legged, plant sap suckers and occur on under-surface of leaves preferably on young apical leaves, causing curling of leaves. Size – 250-300 microns.

Gall mite / Erineum mite (Eriophyoidea) :

These mites are tiny, whitish, light brownish, 4 legged only, look worm-like and occur on under-surface of leaves/fruits, causing erineum/gall formation. Size – 200 microns.

MAJOR GROUPS OF PLANT MITES

Tetranychidae
(Spider mite)

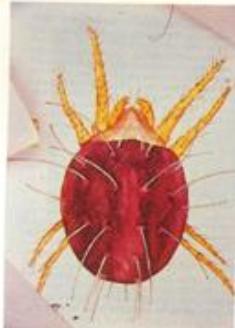


Fig.1 : A Common red spider mite
(Tetranychidae)

Tenuipalpidae
(False Spider mite)

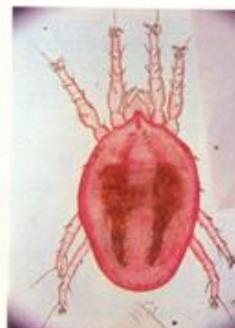


Fig.2 : A Common false spider mite
(Tenuipalpidae)

Eriophyid Mite



Tarsonemidae
(Broad Mite)



Fig.4 : A Common broad/yellow mite
(Tarsonemidae)

DIVERSITY OF DAMAGE SYMPTOMS CAUSED BY PLANT MITES

Since these mites are exclusively plant sap suckers, they puncture the leaves with their stylet-like chelicerae and suck plant sap. While feeding, they damage tissues, chlorophyll and due to this they produce various types of damage symptoms, the photographs of some of those are provided



Gall on Red Maple



Gall on Plum



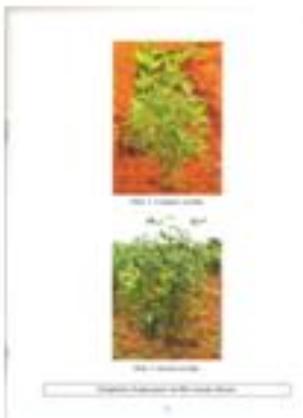
Gall on Black Walnut



Maple Erineum mite



Gall on Ash tree



Sterility mosaic disease of
Arhar



Ballooning of mites for
Migration



Bhendi leaf damage



Litchi Erineum mite



Rice panicle mite : *Steneotarsonemus spinki*



Coconut Perianth mite : *Aceria guerreronis*



Citrus Rust mite:
Phyllocoptruta oleivora



Grapevine gall mite: *Colomerus vitis*

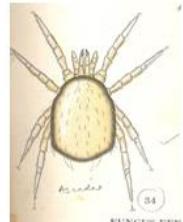


Citrus mite damage

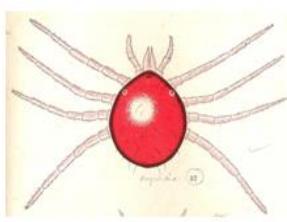
Photographs showing damage symptoms caused by mites

DIVERSITY OF PREDATORY MITES

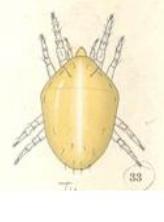
As there are pest mites, there are also predatory mites which belong to Phytoseiidae, Cunaxidae, Anystidae, Stigmaeidae, etc. And those contribute in biological control of pest mites. The photographs of some of the mites are given



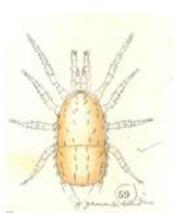
Ascidae



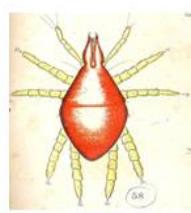
Anystidae



Tydeidae



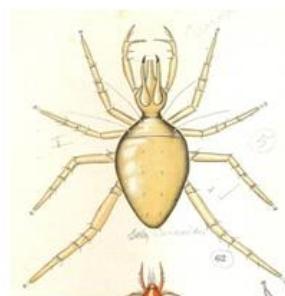
Digamasellidae



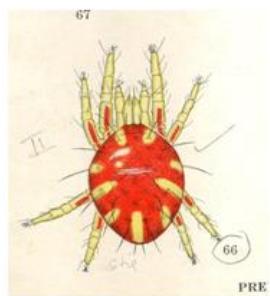
Bdellidae



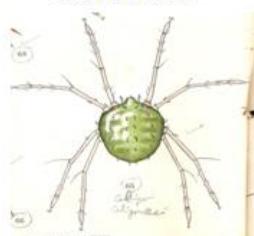
Cheyletidae



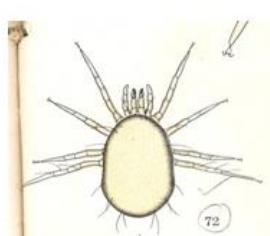
Cunaxidae



Stigmaeidae



Caligonellidae



Phytoseiidae



Phytoseiulus persimillis feeding on different stages of two spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus urticae*

EXTENT OF CROP LOSS DUE TO MITE PEST ATTACK ON VARIOUS CROP LOSS

Information regarding extent of damage on various crops caused by mites is given below (Gupta 2012) -

- Mango malformation mite- 50-80%
- Litchi erineum mite- 30%
- Paddy white mite- 20-25%
- Sugarcane red mite- 20-30%
- PPSM –15-30%
- Cotton 2- Spotted spider mite- 20-30%
- Vegetable mite- 10-15%
- Tea Red Spider Mite- 5-11%
- Ber gall mite- 20-25%
- Brinjal Red mite- 13-31%
- Bhendi mite- 23-27%
- Chilly leaf curl mite- 27-29%
- Total crop failure- Mango malformation and PPSM
- Coconut 10-20%- 50-60%

Loss in terms of money-Rs. 8616.63/ ha in case of brinjal 2-spotted mite

HOST PREFERENCE AND VARIETAL RESISTANCE

Some of the information regarding studies on these aspects are given below (Gupta, 2012)-

Morphological

Leaf texture- Rough surface- more mite
Leaf venation- Deeper Midrib- more mite
Leaf thickness- Thick leaves- less mites
Leaf webbing- more webbing- more mite
Leaf age- Matured leaves- more mite

Biochemical factors

	Susceptible var.	Resistant var.
Starch content	higher	lesser
Free Amino Acid	more	lesser
N	more	higher
Na	more	lesser
K	lower	higher
Protein	lower	higher
Phenolics	higher	lesser

Plant volatiles- play important role in causing susceptibility/resistance of plants (not always true), (Gupta, 2012)

TICKS / MITES CAUSING DIFFERENT DISEASES OF MEDICAL , VETERINARY, AND PUBLIC HEALTH IMPORTANCE

The ticks and mites are responsible for causing different diseases of medical, veterinary and public health importance and some of those are listed in the following tables – (as per Gupta, 2010)

Disease Man	Pathogen	Vector
Tick paralysis	Tick toxin	<i>Dermacentor andersoni</i>
Tularamia	Bacterial	<i>Dermacentor andersoni</i>
Rocky mountain spotted fever	Rickettsial	<i>Dermacentor andersoni</i>
Q fever	Rickettsial	<i>Dermacentor andersoni</i>
Relapsing fever	Spirochaetal	<i>Ornithodoros moubata</i>

Langet encephalitis	Viral	<i>Ixodes persulcatus</i>
CCHF	Viral	<i>Hyalomma marginata</i>
Tick borne Haemorrhagic fever	Viral	<i>Haemaphysalis spinigera</i>
Rickettsial pox	Rickettsial	<i>Allodermanyssus sanguineus</i>
Encephalitis	Viral	<i>Ornithonyssus sylviarum</i>
KFD	Viral	<i>Haemaphysalis spinigera</i>
Scabies/ Itch mite	Mite toxin	<i>Sarcoptes scabiei</i> <i>Pyemotes ventricosus</i>
Scrub typhus	Rickettsial	<i>Neotrombicula deliense</i>
Lyme disease	Spirochaetal	<i>Ixodes persulcatus</i>
Respiratory allergies	Mite toxin	<i>Dermatophagoides farinae</i> <i>D. pteronyssinus</i> Orchard mites

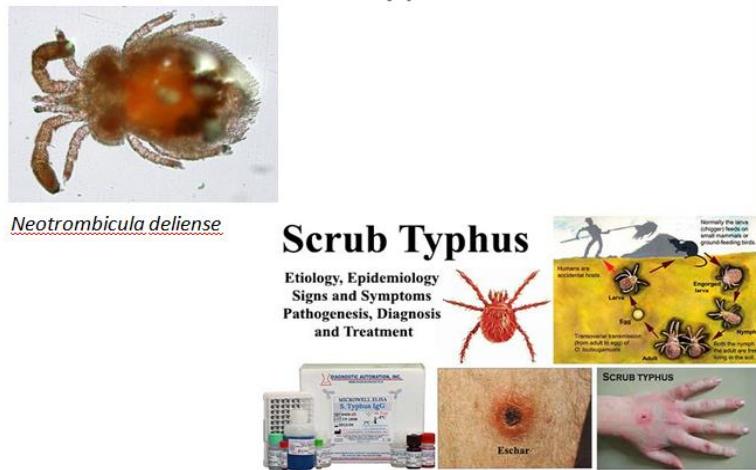
Veterinary Animals		Poultry birds	
Babesiosis	Protozoan	Fowl spirochaetosis	Spirochaetes
Anaplasmosis	<i>Anaplasma marginale</i>	Scaly leg of fowl	Mite toxin
Tick paralysis	Tick toxin	Depluming mite	Mite feeding
Biliary fever	Protozoan	Tropical Fowl mite	Mite feeding
Mange mite	Mite toxin	Red mite of Poultry	Do
Louping ill	Viral	Relapsing fever	Spirochaete
Tick typhus	Rickettsial		



Acarine Diseases in Cattle

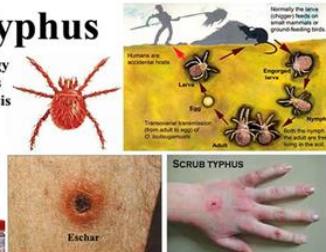


Scrub typhus



Scrub Typhus

Etiology, Epidemiology
Signs and Symptoms
Pathogenesis, Diagnosis
and Treatment



Psoroptic Mange in Cattle



Some Tick Borne Diseases



Colorado Tick Fever

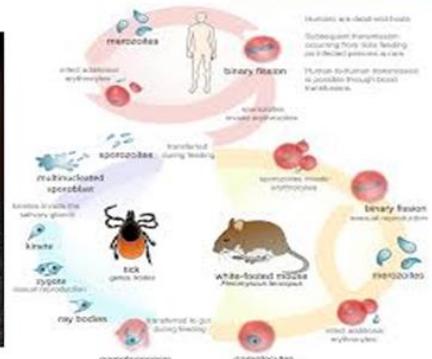


Rocky Mountain Spotted Fever (RMSF)

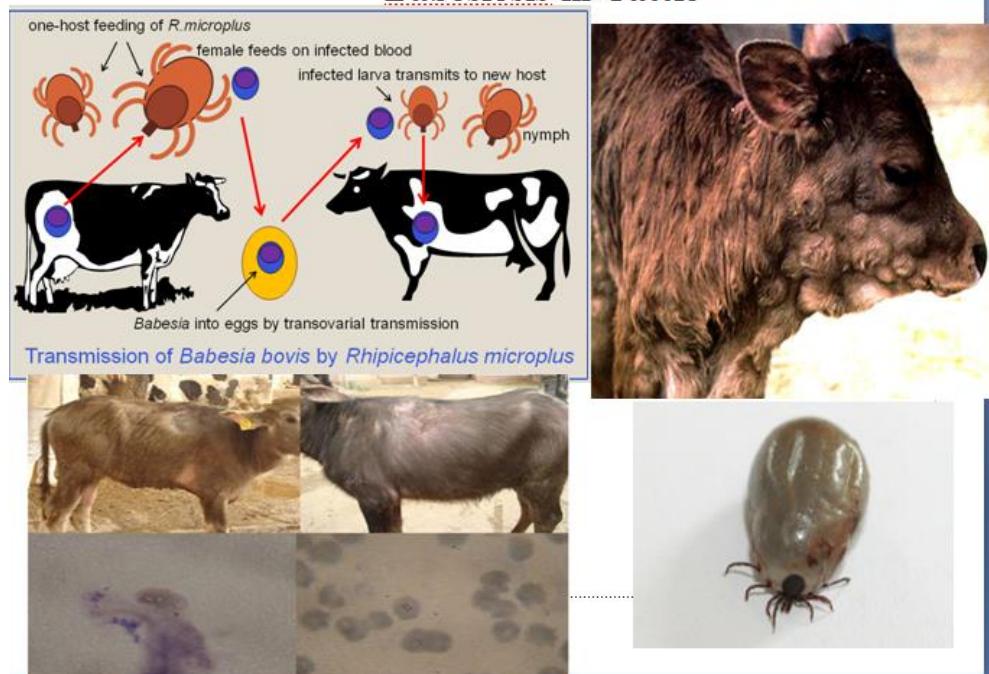
- *Rickettsia rickettsii*
 - Zoonosis –
 - Reservoir: mammals
 - Vector: ticks
 - Characteristic hemorrhagic rash – maculopapular – starts on palms and soles (unlike measles!)
 - Can damage vital organs



Tick Typhus



Babesiosis in Cattle



Sarcoptic Mange



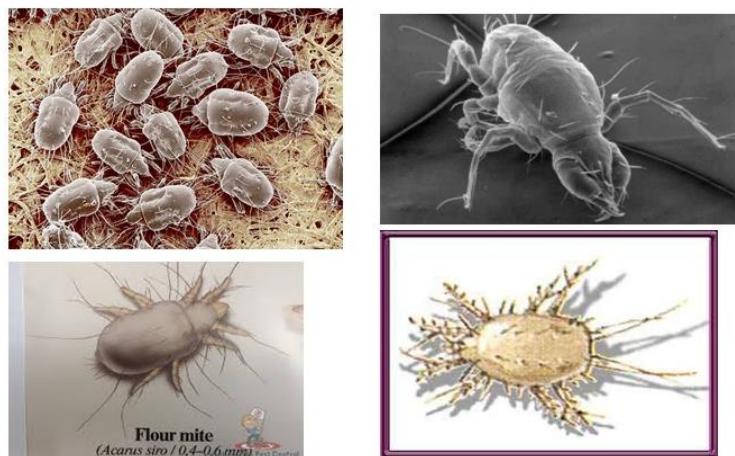
Sarcoptic mange in cattle



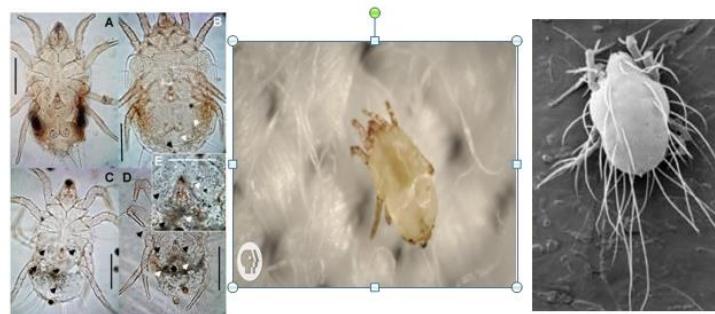
Sarcoptic mange in dog

MITES OCCURRING IN DIFFERENT HABITATS

Stored Product Mites



Dust Mites



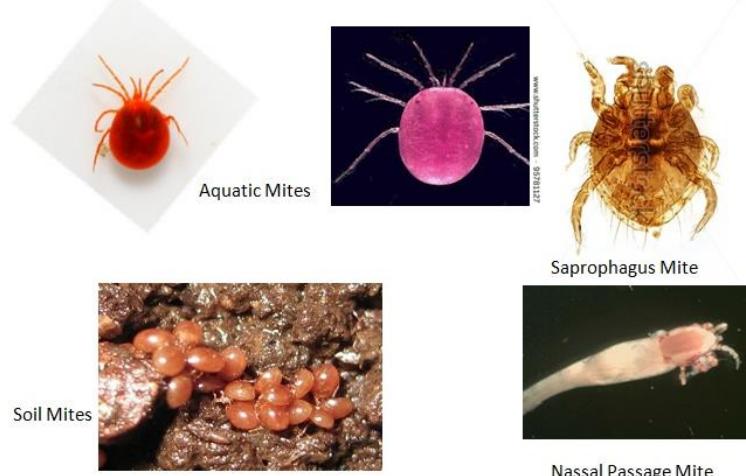
Reptile and Rodent Associated Acarines



Insect Associated Acarines (Mites)



Mites in Different Habitats



Mites on Birds and Bird Nest



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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EXPLAINING THE PROCESS AND PATTERN OF AQUATIC BIODIVERSITY –LINKING QUESTIONS OF HUMAN CARRYING CAPACITY BASED ON RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

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University of Calcutta

ABSTRACT

Contrary to the theories that assess biodiversity and strategies for conservation, the fact indicates that biodiversity is rooted in precise points on earth at definite times. Precision to the concept makes its qualitative assessment for economic policy and planning applications more feasible. Process and pattern of biodiversity at temporal and spatial scales could be explained from contrasting views of assembly and unified neutrality. Competitive and dispersal ability of organisms therefore make of evolutionary advantage for coexisting and survival in a given region. In view of this, while concentrating on the taste of aquatic organisms, 3 different perspectives viz species-sorting, mass-effect and patch dynamics can be analyzed to explain fish meta community and regional pool of species. Management of bioresource productivity from aquatic systems, marine brackish water and freshwater largely depend on scientific data on the biological traits defining competitive and dispersal. The goal of conservation effort can be satisfactorily evaluated from current mathematical models. However, such information needs to be implemented through actions in reality for reaping benefits for human population of a given society at precise points of resource hotspots. To achieve this we view bioresource to remain at K, the carrying capacity in nature. However humans can increase the effective carrying capacity of resources, via technological breakthrough with deep questions about sustainability beyond optimum. Relevant questions include (1) Can we keep developing new technologies and abilities to use new reasons that enable increase in K? (2) Can we set human carrying capacity at a given region based on resource availability? And most importantly (3) Can we develop a science based economy for bioresource use for desired quality of life of humans. The purpose of my writing this is to provoke thoughts within young minds and intellect to shape on future in right direction following eco-ethics.

FISH BIODIVERSITY OF WEST BENGAL: STATUS, POTENTIALS, THREATS AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

West Bengal is on the eastern bottleneck of India, stretching from the Himalayas in the north to the Bay of Bengal in the south. The state has a total area of 88,752 square kilometres (34,267 sq. m). The Ganga-Padma river artery divides the states in two parts, North and South Bengal. West Bengal's climate varies from tropical savannah in the southern portions to humid subtropical in the north. West Bengal is endowed with 7.5% of the water resource including rivers (1.72 Lakh ha), canals (0.80 Lakh ha), ponds/tanks (2.87 Lakh ha), reservoir (0.27 lakh ha), beel & Boar (0.41 Lakh ha) and Brackish water fishery (2.10 Lakh ha) of the country. The multifunctional wetland ecosystem consists of an area of 12,500 hectares. Kangsabati in West Bengal is the main reservoir on the Ganga (11,396 ha). 190 native freshwater fish species were recorded from the West Bengal contributing nearly 23% of the Indian freshwater fishes. Near about 403 species of marine fishes are available in the state. In West Bengal there are a wide range of shellfishes have been found which comprises different groups such as, Crustaceans (Shrimp, Prawn, Lobster, Crayfish and Crab), Molluscs (Clam, Mussel, Oyster and Scallop) and others (Octopus, Snails and Sea-urchins etc.). According to ZSI 64 fresh water and low saline water molluscs are present in the state. There are also 94 estuarine and marine water molluscs belonging to 65 genera and 42 families. 251 crustaceans species are also available in this state. Highest number of fresh water molluscs reported from Darjeeling and marine molluscs from South 24 Parganas. About 288 exotic ornamental fish species are popular in West Bengal among these 27 species are liver bearer and 261 species are egg layerer. *Tenualosa ilisha* is the state fish of West Bengal. The fish is commonly known at West Bengal as Ilish in Bengali. Total 14 cultured species have been adopted and presently available throughout the state among which *Catla catla*, *Labeo rohita*, *Cirrhinus mrigala*, *Clarias batrachus*, *Anabas testudineus*, *Labeo bata* are the main cultured species. Apart from these *Pangasius pangasius*, *Ompok pabda*, *Channa striata*, *Channa marulius*, *Notopterus chitala*, *Mugil cephalus*, *Lates calcarifer*, *Amblypharyngodon mola* are very much popular in fish culture farm and fetches high market value. Many exotic fishes are also very popularly cultured in the state. Silver carp, Common carp, Grass carp, Tilapia are common and valuable exotic food fish which play an important role in state fishery. It is reported that about 900 million seeds of *Penaeus monodon* are collected annually. Kolkata is the main place of ornamental fish trade contributed a major portion of the India's ornamental fish trade (85%). 90% of the export is based on natural wild collection. Out of the 140 potential native freshwater ornamental species available in different water bodies of the region, presently about 73 species are included in the export list. There are a number of species in threatened and endangered condition. The Critically Endangered species are: *Erethistes montana montana*, *Ompok bimaculatus*, *Pangasius pangasius*. Damming,

deforestation, diversion and withdrawal of water for irrigation, urban and industrial consumption has caused large scale changes in the channel bed and hydrology of the river in terms of flow, flow-rate, flood-rhythm and regime. Dam impedes upstream spawning migration of fishes and displaces populations from their normal spawning grounds. It may also result in separating a population into two smaller groups as in Hilsa (*Tenualosa ilisha*) above and below the Farakka barrage. The upland fast-moving habitat has been lost to reservoirs which are unfavourable for rheophytic species. Wanton killing by the use of dynamites, electric shocks and poisoning and brood fishes in spawning season and juveniles during post-monsoon periods have affected a number of food and game fishes of upland waters. Mass scooping of prawn seed in many Anicuts and Hilsa juveniles just below the Farakka barrage are examples of such destruction. Many alien species introduced have been found invasive and they have the ability to establish themselves, invade, out-compete native species and take over the new environments. Over-exploitation of fishery resources due to its higher economic value has exacerbated the vulnerability of the population in different ecosystems, viz. *Tor* spp. and *Schizothorax* spp. in upland waters, *Chitala chitala*, *Ompok bimaculatus*, *Pangasius pangasius*, *Eutropiichthys vacha*, *Semiplotus semiplotus*, etc. in warm water, *Mugil cephalus*, *Liza tade*, *Nematolosa nasus*, *Lates calcarifer*, etc. in brackish water and *Rhiniodon typhus*, *Polynemus indicus*, *P. heptadactylus*, *Pomadasys shasssta*, some sharks, skates and rays etc. in marine ecosystem; they are declining at an alarming rate. Global climate change is likely to result in severe droughts and floods with major impact on human health and food supplies. Due to factors such as human modifications to the environment, overexploitation, habitat loss, exotic species and others, aquatic biodiversity is greatly threatened. In order to preserve these threatened areas and species for future generations, immediate action in the form of aquatic biodiversity conservation strategies are necessary. The conservation policy should promote the management practices that maintain integrity of aquatic ecosystem, prevent endangerment and enhance recovery of the threatened species. The conservation of the coldwater fishes in the upper stretches should be considered as the priority. Restoring the natural fish stocks should be a priority, which includes ensuring minimum flow requirements and thereby sustaining the recruitment process. In addition, restoration of floodplain and associated wetlands should be a priority for conservation because floodplains play an integral part of riverine ecosystem. Efforts should be made to check the sediment flow by extensive plantation of native trees, shrubs, etc. on the riverbank and adjoining catchment area. Effective construction of fish passage structure is necessary. Capacities for the assessment, study and systematic observation and evaluation of biodiversity need to be reinforced. Effective national action and international cooperation is required for the in situ protection of ecosystems, for the ex-situ conservation of biological and genetic resources and for the enhancement of ecosystem functions. The participation and support of local communities are elements essential to the success of such an approach. Although the state and central government have already taken several measures to conserve the fish biodiversity in the River Ganga basin, I feel more conservation is needed in order to retain as many of the natural ecological processes and functions of the Rivers and associated water bodies as possible. Since the River basin is undergoing drastic deterioration as a consequence of anthropogenic changes, the conservation strategies must be innovative and integrated. Success will depend on the extent to which conservationists, water commissions, corporations, and municipalities work cooperatively in these places to maintain or restore natural water habitats of the state. Moreover, there is need to improve knowledge on biodiversity by strengthening the taxonomic capacity using computer, image analysis, and molecular tools etc. There is also an urgent need to maintain the integrity of these aquatic ecosystems by restoring ecological processes of the natural waters.

WILDLIFE CONSERVATION AT LANDSCAPE SCALE – ISSUES REGARDING EXPLORATION, EXPLOITATION, CONSERVATION AND MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Conservation of wild flora and fauna has been a culture in India, however, in the recent past, most of the efforts have been put in the Protected Areas, making them islands of wildlife conservation. It is time that one looks beyond the boundary of Protected Areas, and adopt the landscape approach for wildlife conservation. Landscapes include the Protected Areas, connecting sites or corridors and adjacent human dominated areas. This mosaic of differently used areas makes landscape conservation more challenging, and therefore, interesting. Exploration for wildlife at a landscape scale needs more resources, and on the other hand has the opportunity of involving more hands for the field surveys. Extrapolation of results could be done provided a study design is made properly and sampling from all the habitat mosaics is carried out. An example of this would be the recent efforts by the National Tiger Conservation Authority and Wildlife Institute of India with NGO partners and state governments in estimating the number of tigers in the country. Sampling is done in the Tiger Reserves, some other Protected Areas, Reserve Forests and interconnected sites, and then using statistical models, extrapolation is done to firstly come up with landscape wise numbers and then countrywide numbers. Exploitation at landscape level is the most challenging part, it is not just the flora and fauna, it is the minerals that also take a toll on wildlife conservation. Whereas the Forest Department is equipped to stop poaching of charismatic species like tigers, elephants and rhinos in a forest, or curb timber smuggling, they feel helpless when it comes to managing coal mining in a critical tiger movement corridor. It is the development prerogative of the state and country, that gets priority over tiger movement. Landscape scale conservation planning can ensure that these kind of development measures take into account conservation requirements and build the cost into the project. Landscape level management for wildlife conservation has not been picked up by the government at a large scale yet, however, there are indications that stakeholders are thinking about it. Some of the recent initiatives of the Government of India and state governments, like BCRLIP is a testimony of that. Landscape scale planning needs to be mainstreamed for wildlife conservation.

CONSERVATION BREEDING – A NEW HOPE TOWARDS WILDLIFE CONSERVATION

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ABSTRACT

Wildlife conservation in India dates back to the prehistoric times and is deep-rooted in the ethos of Indian civilization through ages. In the past, the scenario of wildlife conservation in India was completely different and was traditionally conserved through love, respect and reverence for nature. Admiration and affection for wildlife was considered to be a part of their lifestyle and vividly reflected in Indian myths, rituals, folklores and ancient literatures, art and culture. Besides, several animals are associated with many deities and as a consequence, these animals have been traditionally conserved through religious belief. Several tribal rituals in our country also reflect the age-old respect for several wild flora and fauna. Even today, several forest patches exist in many villages where killing any life form is forbidden by several religious and traditional belief. These areas regarded as 'sacred groves' serve as a good refuge for a number of wild flora and fauna and are often found teeming with rich biodiversity. Present day conservation initiatives have been scientifically categorized as in-situ and ex-situ conservation, of which ex-situ conservation is the procedure of conserving a species as a whole outside its natural habitat (viz. zoological garden or botanical garden) or a part of it in the form of gene bank or seed bank. However, the major problem associated with ex-situ conservation is the increased rate of inbreeding depression due to loss of genetic heterozygosity. To overcome this situation a special type of ex-situ conservation, popularly known as "Conservation Breeding" has become the talk of the time. Conservation breeding can be described as a breeding program that protects genetic diversity within a breed. Hence, conservation breeding has become an emergent field of research in ex-situ mode, which has successfully saved several species from extinction throughout the globe. Conservation breeding in true sense means breeding of threatened species in captivity or semi captive condition for the purpose of maintaining optimum heterozygosity in the species in order to protect the genetic diversity within a breed to avoid inbreeding depression and the offspring are rehabilitated in the wild as and when appropriate and desirable. Recently, 61 species of endangered animal species have been identified for conservation breeding programme in different zoological gardens of India. During last twenty years, the present group has initiated scientific research in different regions of the Eastern Himalayas and its adjacent areas giving emphasis on higher vertebrates like birds and mammals. During twenties, a research project was initiated on 'Bio-ecological status of Red Panda (*Ailurus fulgens fulgens*) in the Singhalila National Park, West Bengal, India' to document the presence/absence status, distribution and abundance of the red panda in the Singhalila National Park and its adjoining areas. Red Panda is found in the temperate forests with bamboo understorey between 1500 m to 4000 m in Himalayas. In India, range of Red Panda distribution encompasses four states - West Bengal, Sikkim, Meghalaya and Arunachal Pradesh. In the state of West Bengal, Red Panda is present in the Singhalila

National Park and Neora Valley areas in the hilly district of Darjeeling. The study also included different aspects of ecology such as habitat use, feeding ecology and other ecological requirements of red panda in the park. Special emphasis was given to investigate the problems of conservation and management of red panda involving local people and using traditional knowledge and cultural practices. At the same time, Padmaja Naidu Himalayan Zoological Park, Darjeeling initiated a conservation-breeding program on red panda and the prospects for breeding in the captivity looked promising. As the red panda breeding program became successful, the problem of the surplus animals as well as the threat of inbreeding started to arise which gave birth to the idea of reintroduction of these captive animals in the wild. After in depth ecological assessment, Singhalila National Park in Darjeeling district was considered as a suitable site of reintroduction of those captive breeds in the wild. Out of the two female offsprings released in the park, one mated in the wild and produced next generation offsprings making the project a success story of conservation breeding. Although several measures have been taken from time to time to conserve wildlife, it is the fundamental duty of every Indian citizen to protect wild flora and fauna. Thus, peoples' awareness and their active participation is the only ray of hope for proper conservation of wildlife in this mega diversity country.

WILDLIFE CONSERVATION AND MANAGEMENT IN HIMALAYAN REGION

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ABSTRACT

The Himalaya is the most prominent mountain systems in India covering 10% of India's geographical area and is well recognized for its rich biological, ecological, hydrological, aesthetical and socio-cultural values. The Himalaya is home to >10,000 species of plants, over 300 mammals, 980 birds, 175 reptiles, 105 amphibians, 251 fishes and several hundreds of species of invertebrate fauna. Many of these flora and fauna are endemic, rare, endangered and threatened including many that have global conservation significance. Over 100 wildlife protected areas covering approximately 10% of the Himalayan and Trans-Himalayan biogeographic zones and offer protection to wildlife species and their habitats. Human communities living in this region depend substantially on the natural resources for their sustenance. Conducting research or management of wildlife in the Himalaya poses serious challenges due to rugged terrain, cold climatic conditions and elusive behaviour of wildlife species. Conservation and management issues include poaching for meat and to cater to illegal wildlife trade, retaliatory killings to reduce negative human-wildlife interactions (conflicts), habitat loss, fragmentation and loss due to developmental activities, livestock grazing and other anthropogenic pressures, and the emerging threat from climate change. Wildlife research studies and management initiatives undertaken till date would be presented as case studies during the talk that range from single species approach to landscape approaches using modern tools and techniques. The way forward would be to address these using sound science based decision making that would include consolidation of protected area network, landscape level planning and management, reducing human-wildlife negative interactions through community participation and conservation education initiatives that illustrate the peculiarities and fragility of the local environment. There is an urgent need to increase trans-boundary co-operation between India and its neighbouring nations to ensure habitat connectivity and protection of species populations from poaching due to illegal trade in wildlife.

ASSESSING AND TRANSCRIBING BIODIVERSITY FOR BIORESOURCE !

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ABSTRACT

Recognition of potential, newer bioresources and their sustained use demand best possible output from biodiversity studies. Biodiversity studies on the other hand demand thorough and extensive knowledge on the species in question. Precisely Biodiversity demands 'knowing of a species' rather than merely describing or recording a species; contemporary taxonomy too. Sorry to say that a large segment of workers feel complacent with such data. To explain it further it would be relevant to cite few examples. Only 41 of the 2270 citations on *Hirudo medicinalis* Linnaeus in 2010 mentioned the presence of cryptic species and former misidentification of *H. medicinalis* and *H. verbena carena*. Hence, more than 95% of the analyses published explicitly dealt with *H. medicinalis* [covering a broad array of subjects, like genomes, proteomes, gene syntheses, medical novelties, etc] cannot be clearly assigned to this species nor to either of the two undescribed species within the *H. medicinalis* species complex nor to frequently misidentified *H. verbena*. Thus even well established species can become imprecise. We can expect more surprises during the era of molecular analyses, in various fields including human welfare. The recent findings of unknown subgroups within *Anopheles gambiae* Giles complex that exhibit a high susceptibility to infection with wild *Plasmodium falciparum* (Welch) must have to be cited in future analyses to acknowledge one's awareness of sympatric species with different ecological and behavioural strategies within the same strains. The finding of cryptic spitting cobras as well as the rearrangement of the large species complex of the Asian pit vipers into distinct genera has a direct bearing on categorization of their medical importance, also antivenin indication, prescription and research. Results are not restricted to small and cryptic living species but also comprise large animals like turtles, monitor lizards, antelopes or bovids with direct implications on conservation biology and related fields. May be it is the reason why some of the biodiversity and ecological studies focus on biomass production, CO₂ storage, functional groups or well known taxonomic groups like trees, birds as substitutes to alpha diversity measures. Workers involved in exploring Biodiversity &Bioresouce are probably ignorant or unaware of the shortfalls of such study. Precisely short falls are Linnean, Wallacean, Prestonian, Hutchinsonian, Raunkiaeran, Eltonian and Darwinian. Despite the constraints, there is an increasing demand on the documentation of the Biodiversity and Bioresources as far as practicable. To be honest we are far behind the start up line. In fine, a country/state can prosper only when a collective effort could be made taking the shortfalls into serious considerations. Otherwise it would remain as a happy-go-lucky way.

SECTION : IV

Presented Papers

Coastal Eutrophication as a Cause of Elimination of Lugworms: First record of *Arenicola* (Linn., 1758) from coastal areas of Bay of Bengal at Chandipur, Odisha, India

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ABSTRACT

Arenicola marina (Linnaeus, 1758), a marine polychaete worm of the phylum Annelida is rarely seen but its coiled castings are a familiar sight on a beach at low tide of both northern and southern hemisphere. The genus *Arenicola* enjoys a wide distribution and in the tropical and sub-tropical regions *A. cristata* is the dominant species. Apart from a few records on the beaches of Indian Ocean and Arabian Sea the genus has not been known so far from any other part of India. In a study on the sandy as well as mudflats of Bay of Bengal at Chandipur in Odisha, India, we observed quite a big numbers of castings of *Arenicola* during the end of December, 2015 and accidentally found a full grown individual at the sandy beach. From that point of view it is the first report of its kind from this part of the globe, especially from Bay of Bengal

Key words: Lugworm, *Arenicola*, Bay of Bengal, Chandipur, India

INTRODUCTION

Lugworms, *Arenicola marina* (Linnaeus, 1758) is a large marine polychaete worm of the phylum Annelida. The animal itself is rarely seen without dig the worm out of the sand but its coiled castings are a familiar sight on a beach at low tide. Lugworms are burrow-dwelling annelid worms and can reach densities as high as 100-150 per square meter in certain areas (Fish, 1996). The lifespan of lugworms is estimated to be 5-6 years (Howie, 1984), and they can make up to 30% of the biomass of an average sandy beach, making them a very important part of the food web in their habitat. They bioturbate (re-oxygenate) the sand and serve as a food source for a wide variety of other animals such as flatfish and birds.

The genus *Arenicola* enjoys a wide distribution and is generally divided into cold water and warm water species. *Arenicola marina* and *A. claviger* dominate the cold waters of the northern hemisphere and *A. assimilis* is more common in the southern hemisphere. In the tropical and sub-tropical regions *A. cristata* is the dominant species while *A. caroledna*, *A. glasselli*, *A. loveni* and *A. bombayensis* have also been reported. Bhatti and Soofi (1949) have

recorded *A. cristata* from Karachi and Ranade (1952) reported the occurrence of *Arenicola* from Bombay (later described as a new species *A. bombayensis* by Kewalramani *et al.* 1959). During a collection tour to the Andaman and Nicobar Islands in February-March 1960, Tampi and Rangarajan (1963) observed a few *Arenicola spp.*. Fauvel (1953) did not mention these in his compilation of the Polychaete Fauna of India and apart from these scanty records the genus has not been known so far from any other part of India.

In a study on the sandy as well as mudflats of Bay of Bengal at Chandipur in Odisha, India, we observed quite a big numbers of castings of *Arenicola cristata* during end of December, 2015 and accidentally found a full grown individual at the sandy beach. From that point of view it is the first report of its kind from this part of the globe and especially from Bay of Bengal.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Physiography and climate of Chandipur

The area under study is Bay of Bengal at Chandipur in Odisha, India. Chandipur is situated between 86° 20' to 87° 29' East (Longitude) and 21° 3' to 21° 59' North (Latitude). The uniqueness of the beach lies in the fact that during a low tide the water recedes up to 5 km. into the sea exposing the golden sands.

The sea is very shallow and long distances in the sea bed from the coast become exposed (dissipative) during low tide. The beach becomes harder after the exposure due to the muddy soil mixed with sand. Annual rainfall ranges from 800 to 5500 millimetres which commences in April and lasts up to November. December rainfalls are rare. Though the average temperature at Chandipur is 35°C during December it ranges from 12-22°C. Ocean currents originating from the Indian Ocean flow along this coastline in two directions - from North to South during December to May and from South to North from June to November. During December-January there is a shift in current direction along the coast of the Bay when there is a northerly flow of warm water originating from Indian Ocean. Once again during the end December, when the study was conducted, there is a northerly flow reversal of the current, the direction shifting southwards. So, there is a gradual overlap of cold current from the north with the strong warm current from the south. For this reason, the upper strata of water remains cold and the lower one is warm during the end of the year.

Rivers in the Coastal plains near Chandipur

The Odisha Coastal Plains are the depositional landforms of recent origin and geologically belong to the Post-Tertiary Period. This region is the combination of several deltas of varied sizes and shapes formed by the major rivers of Odisha, such as the Subarnarekha, the Budhabalanga, the Baitarani, the Brahmani, the Mahanadi, and the Rushikulya. Therefore, the coastal plain of Odisha is called the "Hexadeltaic region". It stretches along the coast of the Bay of Bengal having the maximum width in the Middle Coastal Plain (the Mahanadi Delta), narrow in the Northern Coastal Plain (Balasore Plain) and narrowest in the Southern Coastal Plain (Ganjam Plain). Chandipur is in the North Coastal Plain comprises the deltas of the Subarnarekha and the Budhabalanga rivers and bears evidences of marine transgressions.

A unique phenomenon at Chandipur beach

A unique phenomenon rarely seen anywhere else, the sea recedes by as much as five kilometres every day on the Chandipur beach, not just enthralling the onlooker but also offering an opportunity to literally walk into the sea. The sea recedes massively from the beach during ebb and returns to fill the emptiness during high tide. This hide-

and-seek of the sea comes to play twice a day have significant bearing on the benthic lives on the beach. The study was conducted twice a day on the long stretch of the beach, covered by a mudflat followed by sandy beach towards the sea during low tide. This mudflat region is due to the presence of the deltas of the Subarnarekha and the Budhabalanga rivers. As this place is quite thickly populated, human interferences enrich the riverine discharges in this coastal delta region.

RESULTS

In Chandipur, when we observed quite a good numbers of castings of *Arenicola* during end of December, 2015 on the sandy beaches just following the mudflats during low tide we had undertaken this study to find out the species near the castings and holes beside. However, it was not possible to dig them out of the holes because of the presence of shallow sea water in the evening. At night the high tide swept the entire sand and the mudflat of the beach. We started our search in the same site in the following morning, once again when the sea receded due to low tide and found a few full grown individual at the sandy beach. All of the lug worms however were dead and only one complete organism could be observed. We were interested because this is the first report of *Arenicola* from this part of the globe and especially from any beaches of Bay of Bengal.

Biology of lugworm

1. Morphology (Fig. 1)

When fully grown, the lung worm of the coasts of Europe measures up to 23 cm long and 1.0 cm in diameter. Other species of North American coasts range from 7.6 to 30.5 cm. The specimen recorded by us from the coast of Bay of Bengal, Chandipur, Odisha measures 26 cm in length and 1.5 cm in diameter. The body is like that of an earthworm, metamerically segmented. The head end is blackish-red in colour and without any tentacles or bristles. The middle part is greenish-black, broader which terminates into a thinner yellowish red tail end. The middle part possesses bristles along the sides and also pairs of feathery gills. The anterior end also has a muscular eversible pharynx. There is a well developed system of blood vessels with red oxygenated blood.

2. Feeding behaviour

Lugworms are found on middle to lower shores in sand and muddy-sand and in sheltered, estuarine sediments. They live in J-shaped burrows, about 20 cm below the surface and can tolerate salinities down to 12 ppt (Fish, 1996). These worms feed on organic material such as micro-organisms and detritus present in the sediment. They ingest the sediment while in the burrow, leaving a depression on the surface sand. Once the sediment is stripped of its useful organic content it is expelled, producing the characteristic worm cast. The animal lives in the burrow head down and correctly orient themselves for feeding. It has been shown that if an aquarium is tilted they will compensate for the difference and change position (Ruppert & Barnes, 1991).

Arenicola is a burrower. They dig tunnel in the ground which may reach 50cm and are lined by brown mucus. The depth of the burrow depends on body size; the smaller live in the surface whereas the larger worms penetrate deeper. In the head down posture they continuously swallow the ground containing food particles such as detritus, small animals, diatoms and green algae with their eversible pharynx. The posterior part of the body is stuffed with ground food particles. Lugworms in the tide pool feed all day long but those living in the drying burrows feed only when the burrows are under water.

3. Life History

Lugworms have separate sexes with external fertilization and are known as 'broadcast' spawners, breeding several times in their life. In the wild they are sexually mature at 2-3 years. These worms live in separate burrows, and entirely separated populations will release their eggs and sperm at low tide just before the winter. Spawning in males is accompanied by intermittent muscular contractions of the body wall, causing ejaculation which continues for more than an hour until the worm is exhausted.

Females take much longer to spawn (up to 19 hours) and the process is less active, which reflects the fact that females keep eggs in their burrows whilst males must eject sperm onto the sand surface outside their burrows. Spawning occurs at low tide and as the tide comes in, the viscous sperm puddles are washed, diluted and enter the burrows of the females. The sperm puddles contain inactive sperm, the addition of seawater triggers them to become active and begin swimming.

Fertilization occurs in the female burrow and the larvae undergo early development here, later moving to the surface to be transported by the tide to settle on firmer areas. They then develop in mucous tubes attached to the substratum. Once developed, the worms are carried by the tide to more sandy/mud sediments where they can burrow (Fish, 1996).

DISCUSSION

Although Fauvel (1953) did not mention *Arenicola* in his compilation of the Polychaete Fauna of India later it was found that in the tropical and sub-tropical regions *A. cristata* is the dominant species while *A. caroledna*, *A. glasselli*, *A. loveni* and *A. bombayensis* have also been reported. Bhatti and Soofi (1949) have recorded *A. cristata* from Karachi and Ranade (1952) reported the occurrence of *Arenicola* in Bombay (later described as a new species *A. bombayensis* by Kewalramani *et al.* 1959). Apart from these records the genus has not been known so far from any other part of India especially from the beaches of Bay of Bengal.

Several reports are there on total or partial local extinction of many littoral forms like *Solen*, *Gastrana*, *Donax*, *Donacilla* among molluscs and *Arenicola* and *Ophelia* among worms, *Eriphia* and *Chtamalus* among crustaceans due to eutrophication in coastal areas. We observed the same is true for these lug worms of Chandipur beach as during this time, which is in the day time a high degree of eutrophication in the sea water. The water turned dark green and the effect of such bloom could be observed even on the shore as the receding sea left a dark green patch all along the beach. We could easily correlate the reason of such bloom as nutrient discharge in the coastal areas also favours exceptional algal blooms. The delta region receives huge amount of riverine discharge which might triggered such eutrophication. Though, in the littoral zones lug worms are generally adapted to be exposed at low tide for different periods of time, from a few minutes to more than five hours but the extent of eutrophication and the anoxic condition created due to that might have been the reason for their elimination.

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Fig. 1. *Arenicola cristata* on the sandy beach of Chandipur, India

Study of Ant Faunal Diversity of Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary, West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

Ants are by far the most successful eusocial group of organisms. Present paper deals with ant survey in Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary also called Narendrapur Bird Sanctuary, West Bengal, India. A total of 36 species under 18 genera and 6 subfamilies are recorded from the survey. Area A1 records maximum (27) species whereas area A7 records least (08) species. Premonsoon period of the year shows maximum ant activities and Subordinate Camponotini seems to be the predominant Functional group in the forest.

Keywords: Ant Diversity, Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary, Premonsoon, Functional Groups

INTRODUCTION

Ants are by far one of the most successful eusocial group of organisms reigning the face of earth. They have colonised almost all the available habitats. They form about 15-25 % of any terrestrial biomass (Schultz, 2000) due to their ability to modify the habitat, resource mobilisation and their well defined social organisation which renders a strong protection to their colony. Ants have been in use for the study of evolution of polyphenism (Bonasio, 2014), as tools in biological control (Beth & Drummond, 2011) and as bioindicator organisms on the health of an ecosystem (Andersen *et. al.* 2004). Such role of ants have prompted scientists all over the world to study in great detail the ecology and diversity of the group. Till date estimates suggest worldwide around 22,000 ant species of which nearly 14,000 (Ohio State University, 2017) have been identified.

In Indian context the study of invertebrates in general remains poorly documented (Bharti *et. al.* 2016). India has approximately 828 valid ant species and subspecies belonging to 100 genera (op. cit.). This contributes about 6% of the total world species. Such a data prompt a thorough survey of ants at all the levels of biome.

The present paper deals with the study of diversity of ants in a protected area Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary located at the outskirts of the city of Kolkata.

MATERIALS & METHODS

The work involves the assessment of ant diversity continually throughout the year. The yearly collection schedule is divided into three halves viz. premonsoon (March to June), monsoon (July to October) and postmonsoon (November to February). Ant samples were collected at regular periods by various methods viz. hand picking, pitfall traps, bush beating techniques. The entire forest was divided into seven broad areas namely A1 to A7. Area A1 being located at the extreme south of the sanctuary whereas area A7 towards north which is almost open land. In each area about 15 pitfall traps were placed diagonally at an interval of 5

metres. Plastic containers were placed in Pitfall traps which were filled 1/3rd by 70% alcohol and kept for a period of 24 to 26 hours. Collection during Monsoon is affected by torrential rain in the area. Also the sanctuary is accessible to visitors particularly bird watchers which confers anthropogenic interference in the forest.

Collected samples were put in 70% alcohol and brought to the laboratory. These were taxonomically evaluated with the help of stereo zoom binocular microscopes using relevant literatures viz. Bingham (1903), Bolton (1995), Tiwari *et. al.* (1998), Sheela (2008), Bharti *et. al* (2016) and AntWiki (2017).

Abbreviations used: Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary (CKBS), Narendrapur Bird Sanctuary (NBS), India (IND), Tropical Climate Specialist (TCS), Subordinate Camponotini (SC), Opportunists (OPP), Generalised Myrmicinae (GM), Cryptic Species (CP), Specialised Predator (SP), and Dominant Dolichoderinae (DD).

The Study Area

Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary (CKBS) also called Narendrapur Bird Sanctuary (NBS) is a small island located within the urban sprawl of Kolkata, in the state of West Bengal, India. Only 17 km. from the heart of Kolkata city, the sanctuary is a home to an astonishing diversity of flora and fauna. Total area of the sanctuary is only 10 hectares. But the plethora of its flora and fauna gives it a unique status.

The sanctuary is shaped like an elongated rectangle (Fig. 1). Its length lies in a north-south direction along the eastern bank of Adiganga Drainage Scheme Canal. Lengthwise it stretches to around 820 m, while its breadth is on an average 170m. Out of the total area of approximately 10 Ha, nearly 1/3rd at its northern end is now almost devoid of vegetal cover, though the rest remains thickly vegetated. Being drained by the Adiganga channel the sanctuary is rich in alluvial soil which supports rich floral and faunal diversity. The seasonal glimpses of the forest is shown in Fig. 2(A-F).

RESULTS

Total 36 species of ants under 18 genera were taxonomically identified which were collected from different parts of the sanctuary. These belong to 6 subfamilies viz. Dolichoderinae, Dorylinae, Ponerinae, Formicinae, Myrmecinae and Pseudomyrmicinae recording 1, 1, 8, 21, 3 and 2 species respectively (Fig. 3). The total number of individuals collected from the seven areas of the sanctuary is 793. Subfamily Formicinae recorded the highest number of individuals (488) while subfamily Dolichoderinae reported least number of individuals (15). 33 species were available during the premonsoon season of the year whereas only 13 and 23 species could be recorded during monsoon and postmonsoon period respectively [Fig.4]. Area A1 seems to be rich in species diversity recording 27 species followed by A2 & A4 each with 12 species and A3, A5, A6 with 10 species in each. Area A7 recorded least (08) species. Functional group status of the recorded 36 species show 18 species are Subordinate Camponotini, 6 species each are Tropical Climate Specialists and Opportunists, 3 species are Specialised predator and 1 species each belonging to Dominant Dolichoderinae, Generalised Myrmicinae and Cryptic species (Fig. 5 & 6). All the functional groups are present in the forest which reflects a stable ecosystem condition. Dominant Dolichoderinae is not really dominant in the forest with only 1 species in A1, A4, A6 & A7. Subordinate Camponotini is the predominant group in the forest which is present throughout the forest with highest species and individuals. It is interesting to note that Opportunists are present throughout the forest which indicates certain degree of disturbance in the forest which might be attributed to the anthropogenic interference/ location of forest in urban area or process of reclamation since September 2004. More species richness in area A1 and least in

A7 might be attributed to the more density of the forest & least disturbance due to the nature of its core area status.

Table 1 shows the different group of ant species recorded, their distribution and the functional group status. Figures 7-11 shows the different ant groups on the basis of their Functional Status recorded from CKBS.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to acknowledge University Grants Commission, GOI, for funding the project (F. PSW-052/11-12 [ERO]); Teacher-in-Charge of Scottish Church College; Forest Department, Govt. of West Bengal; Sri. Supratim Laha, Research Fellow at University of Calcutta; Sri. Koushik Pal for their manifold assistance in the survey work. The author is immensely grateful for the overall guidance and support rendered by Prof. Dinendra Raychaudhuri of University of Calcutta. Also the assistance rendered by Dr. Alan Andersen, Chief Scientist, CSIRO Australia towards determining the functional groups of the ants is highly acknowledged.

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STUDY AREA

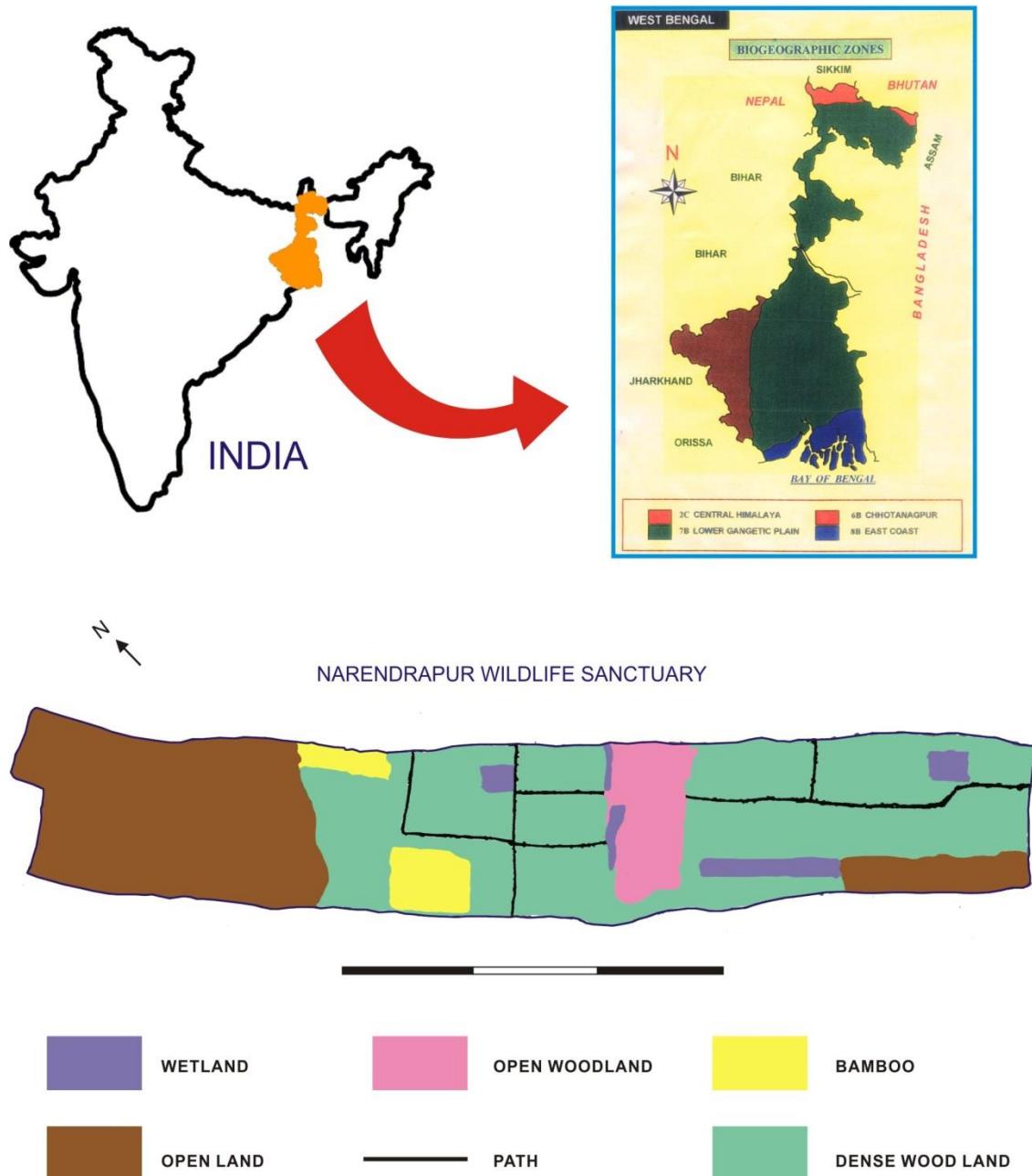
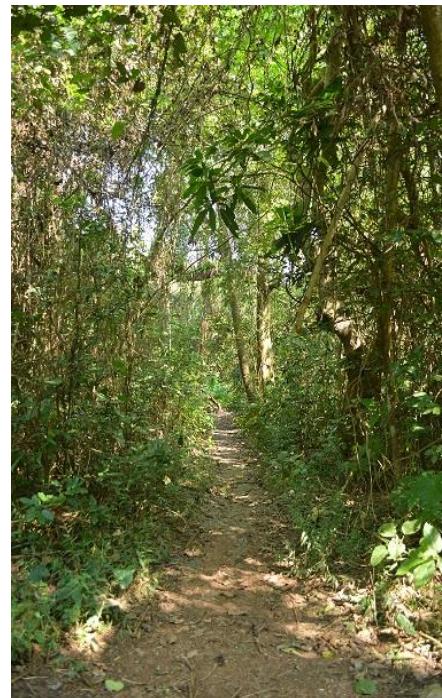


Fig. 1. Map of Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary



A



B



C



D



E

Fig. 2 (A-E) (A-E). Seasonal Glimpses of different parts of the CKBS:
A&B- Premonsoon C- Monsoon D- Postmonsoon E- Water Pit for bird

Table 1: List of Ants Collected from Chintamoni Kar Bird Sanctuary

Subfamily	Species	CKBS IND	DISTRIBUTION	Functional Status
Dorylinae	<i>Dorylus (Alaopone) orientalis</i> Westwood	A1	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Delhi, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand & West Bengal.	Tropical-Climate Specialist
Ponerinae	<i>Cerapachys aitkenii</i> Forel	A1 A6	Goa, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Meghalaya, Punjab, West Bengal	Specialist Predator
	<i>Leptogenys kitteli</i> (Mayr)	A1	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Specialist Predator
	<i>Diacamma scalpratum</i> (Smith)	A4	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal [Burdwan, Darjeeling, Jalpaiguri]	Opportunist
	<i>Diacamma vagans</i> Smith	A1-A7	Assam, Maharashtra, Orissa, Sikkim, West Bengal	Opportunist
	<i>Gnamtogenys bicolor</i> (Emery)	A3	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Sikkim, West Bengal	Opportunist
	<i>Hypoponera confinis</i> (Roger)	A1, A2	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Mizoram, Nagaland, Punjab, Sikkim, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Cryptic Species
	<i>Pseudoneoponera rufipes</i> (Jerdon)	A1, A4	Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Specialist Predator

	<i>Brachyponera jerdoni</i> (Forel)	A1, A2, A4, A5, A6	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Opportunist
Formicinae	<i>Oecophylla smaragdina</i> (Fabricius)	A1-A7	Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Delhi, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Manipur, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Tropical Climate Specialist
	<i>Plagiopeltis longipes</i> Jerdon	A7	Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Opportunist
	<i>Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) variegatus</i> (Smith)	A3	Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Kerala, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Western India	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus (Orthonomomyrmex) sericeus</i> (Fabricius)	A1, A2, A5	Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus (Myrmophincta) camelinus</i> var <i>singularis</i> Smith	A1, A7	Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Tripura, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus (Myrmepomis) wasmani</i> Emery	A2, A4	Assam, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) compressus</i> (Fabricius)	A1, A2, A3, A4	Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Delhi, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Manipur, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttarakhand, Uttar	Subordinate Camponotini

	<i>Camponotus (Myrmosericus) parius</i> Emery	A1	Pradesh, West Bengal	
			Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Goa, Haryana , Himachal Pradesh , Jammu & Kashmir , Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra , Meghalaya , Nagaland , Orissa, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu , Uttar Pradesh , Uttarakhand , West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus misturus fornaronis</i> Forel	A1	West Bengal, Kerala	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus variegatus infuscus</i> Forel	A1, A5	Andaman, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) barbatus taylori</i> Forel	A1, A6, A7	Kerala, Maharashtra , Orissa, Rajasthan , Sikkim , Tamil Nadu , West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis furcata</i> Smith	A1, A3, A4, A5	Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis affinis</i> Smith	A1, A3, A4, A7	West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis tibialis</i> Smith	A1	Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh, Assam , Karnataka, Kerala, Meghalaya , Sikkim, Tamil Nadu , Uttarakhand , West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis armata defensa</i> Smith	A1, A2, A5	Assam, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis bicolor</i> Smith	A1, A2, A5, A6	Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis laevissima</i> Smith	A1, A4, A5	Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh , Assam , Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Orissa, Sikkim, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini

	<i>Polyrhachis gracilior</i> Forel	A2, A4	Arunachal Pradesh , Assam , Karnataka, Kerala, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis thrinax</i> Roger	A3	Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh , Assam , Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Polyrhachis illaudata</i> Walker	A1, A2, A5, A6, A7	Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh, Assam , Goa, Himachal Prades, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka , Kerala, Meghalaya, Mizoram , Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
	<i>Paratrechina longicornis</i> (Latreille)	A1	Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Delhi, Goa, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh , Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram , Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan , Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Subordinate Camponotini
Pseudomyrmec inae	<i>Tetraponera (Tetraponera) alloborans</i> (Walker)	A1, A3	Andaman and Nicobar Islands , Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Goa, Gujarat , Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Uttarakhand , West Bengal	Tropical Climate Specialist
	<i>Tetraponera (Tetraponera) rufonigra</i> (Jerdon)	A3, A6	Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh , Assam, Bihar, Delhi, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand , Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram , Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu , Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand , West Bengal	Tropical Climate Specialist
Dolichoderinae	<i>Dolichoderus (Hypoclinea) affinis</i> Emery	A1, A4, A6, A7	Assam, Karnataka, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal	Dominant Dolichoderinae
Myrmicinae	<i>Monomorium orientale</i> Mayr	A1, A6	Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh , Assam , Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Manipur, Orissa, Sikkim,	Generalised Myrmicinae

	<i>Carerbara diversus</i> (Jerdon)	A2	Uttarakhand, West Bengal	Tropical Climate Specialist
	<i>Meranoplus bicolor</i> (Guérin-Meneville)	A1	Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram , Nagaland , Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand , West Bengal	Tropical-Climate Specialist

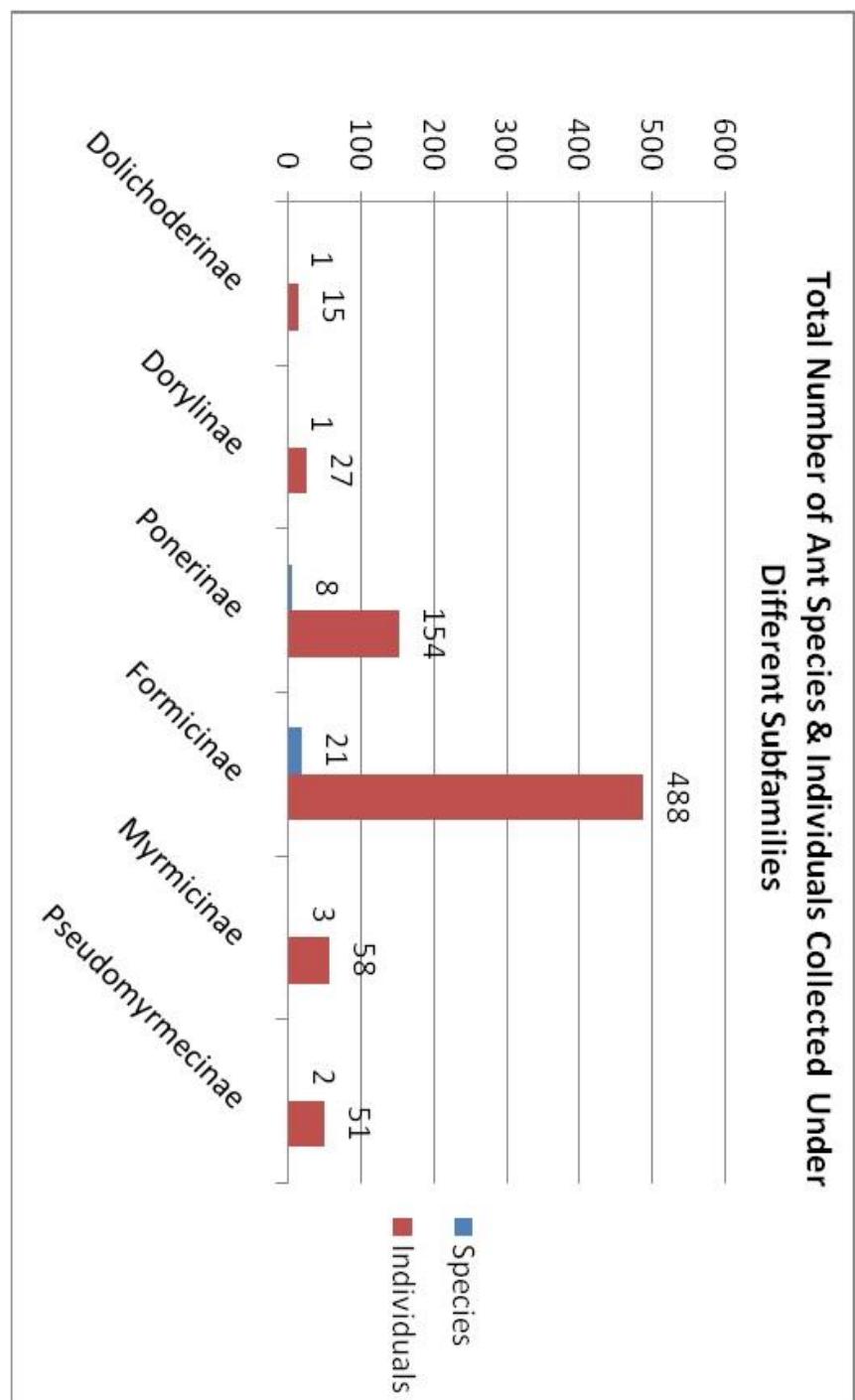


Fig. 3. Number of species and individuals of ants recorded from different parts of CKBS

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION OF ANT SPECIES

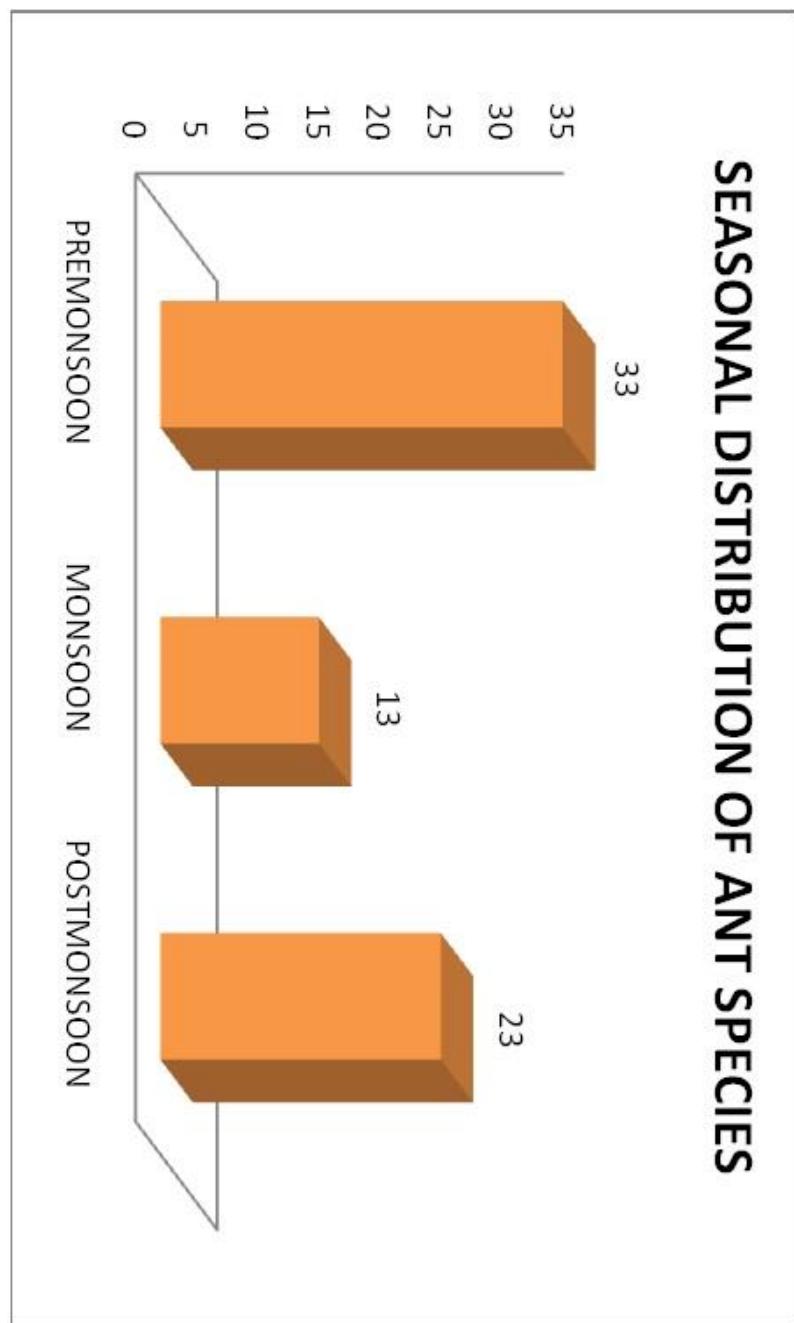


Fig. 4. Seasonal distribution of ant species

DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT FUNCTIONAL GROUPS OF ANTS

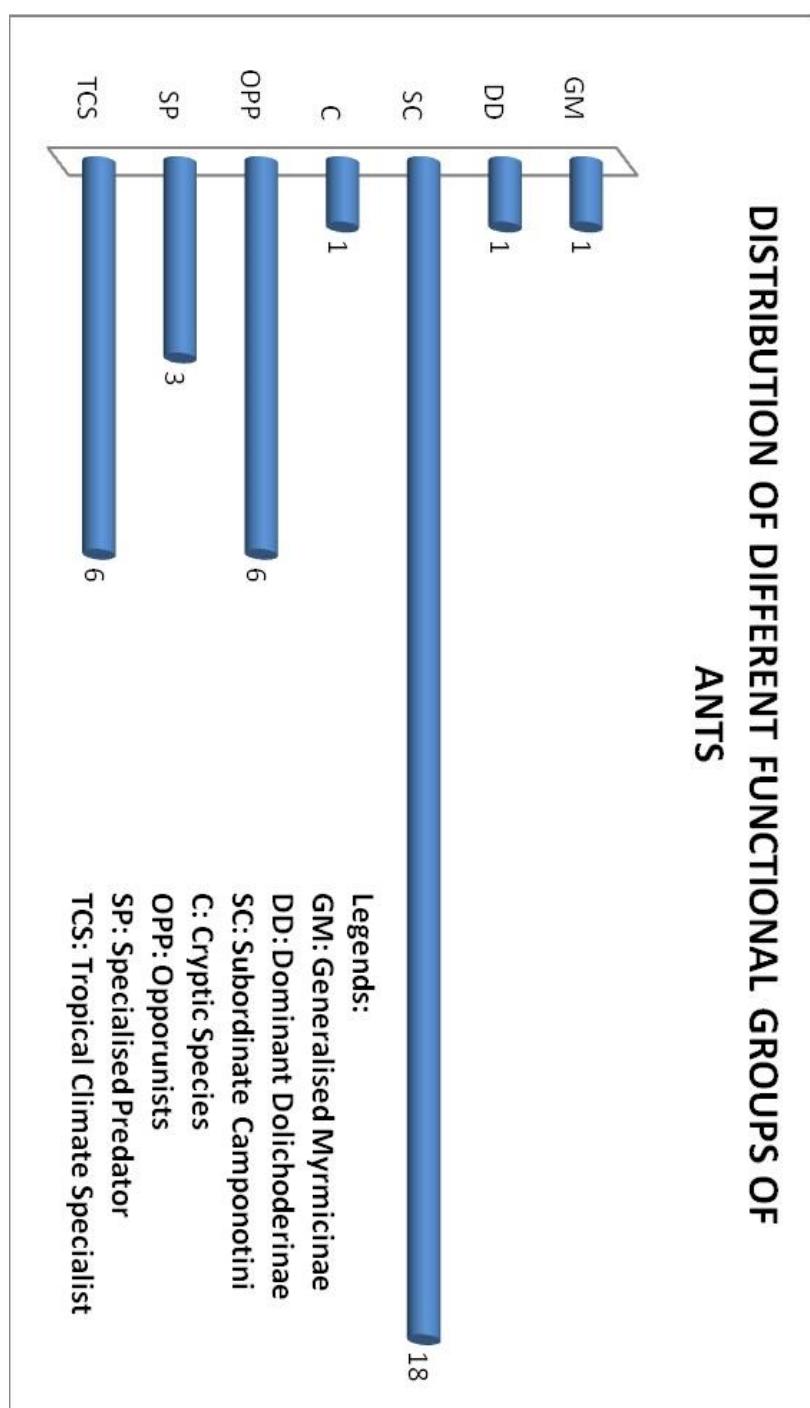


Fig. 5. Total number of ant species under each Functional Group

DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT FUNCTIONAL GROUPS IN CKBS WITH RELATIVE PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP IN EACH AREA

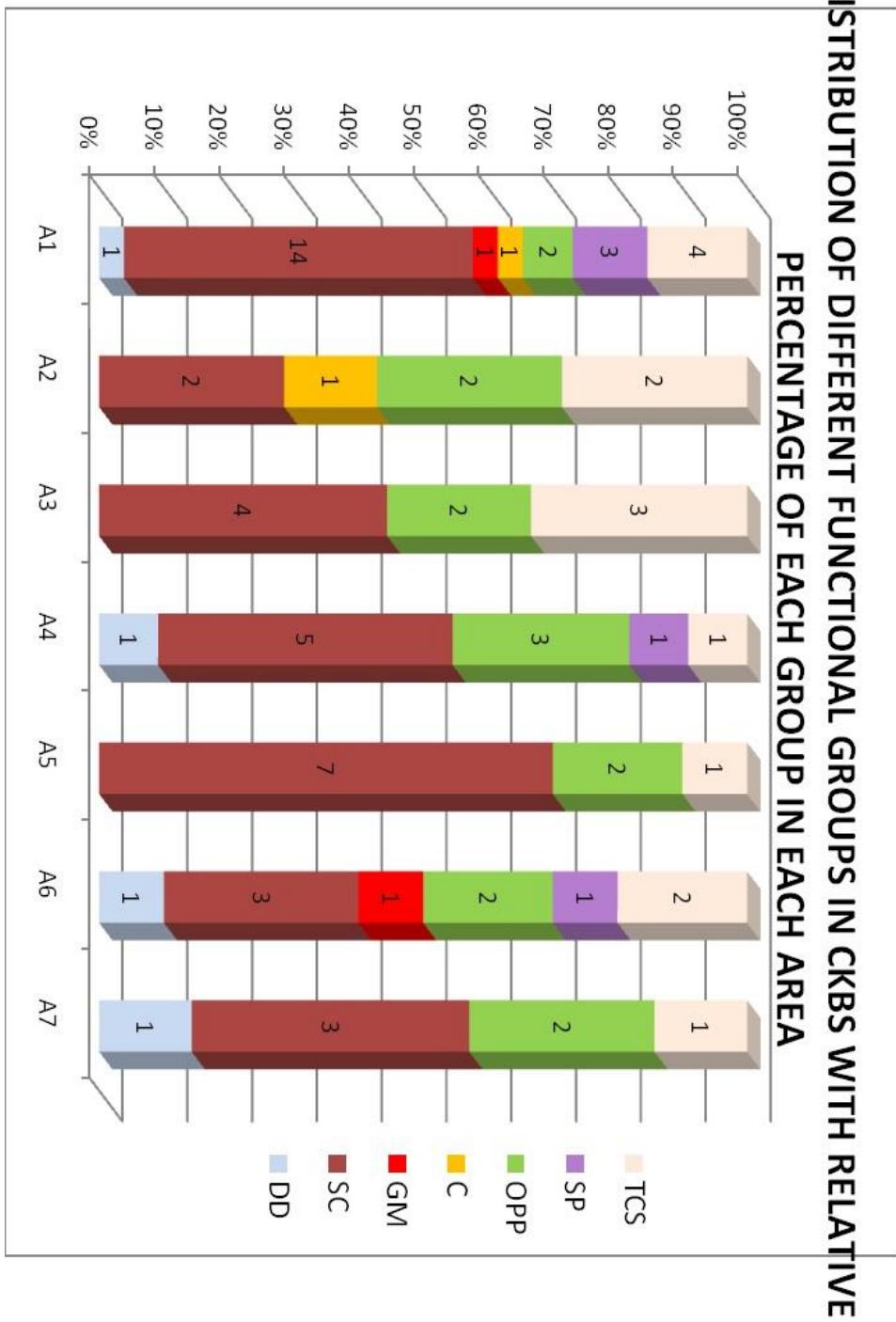


Fig. 6. Relative Ant Functional group distribution in each area of CKBS



*Dolichoderus (Hypoclinea)
affinis* Emery

DOMINANT DOLICHODERINAE



Monomorium orientale Mayr

GENERALISED MYRMICINAE

Fig. 7

SUBORDINATE CAMPONOTINI



*Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) variegatus
(Smith)*



*Camponotus (Orthonotomyrmex)
sericeus sericeus* (Fabricius)



Polyrhachis mayri Roger



Polyrhachis gracilior Forel

Fig. 8

OPPORTUNISTS



Diacamma scalpratum (Smith)



Diacamma vagans Smith



Gnamtogenys bicolor
(Emery)



Brachyponera jerdoni (Forel)



Plagiolepis longipes Jerdon

Fig. 9

CRYPTIC SPECIES



Hypoponera confinis (Roger)



Cerapachys aitkenii Forel



Leptogenys kitteli
(Mayr)



Pseudoneoponera rufipes (Jerdon)

SPECIALISED PREDATOR

Fig. 10

TROPICAL CLIMATE SPECIALIST



Dorylus (Alaopone) orientalis Westwood



Oecophylla smaragdina (Fabricius)



Tetraponera (Tetraponera) rufonigra (Jerdon)



Carerbara diversus (Jerdon)



Meranoplus bicolor
(Guérin-Meneville)

Fig. 11

Figs. 7-11. Functional Ant Groups

Documentation on the visiting profile of Quaker and Lime Blue to their native host plants as pollinating agents

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ABSTRACT

The native host plants bearing wildflowers with overlapping blooming periods provide resource for the butterflies, the significant pollinators next to bees. Few of the behavioural features of these diurnal pollinators are co adapted to the phenology as well as fragrance chemistry or floral morphologies of their host plants establishing an ecological specialization state often maintained by stabilizing selection. Such specialization may lead to the considerable variation among reproductive success rates of the host plants. Thus, species specific pollinating attributes over the seasonal continuum of the pollinators towards their common host plants may provide idea about their pollinating potentiality. Lycaenids, with 443 Indian species, are commonly termed as ‘blues’. Two representative species, the Quaker and Lime Blue are selected on the basis of their moderate to high abundance level in the study area. Few of their prominent ecological and ethological features concerned to their host plant visiting patterns are reported. The present study is important for highlighting the role of native pollinators to maintain the regional to landscape level floral diversity. The significance of conservation of such global bioindicators also cannot be neglected.

Keywords: butterflies, pollinators, wildflowers, lycaenids, conservation, bioindicators

INTRODUCTION

The diurnal lepidopterans are essential component of any natural terrestrial ecosystem. They are considered as relevant study group due to availability of existing standard tools. Sufficient information regarding their ecobiology is available. They could be considered as potential bioindicator for assessment of environmental health and hygiene (Pollard and Yates, 1993). Lycaenids are on the wing moderately throughout the year, frequently covering a wide range of habitat distribution.

Selection of host plants is based on the criteria of host preference (frequency of visits) and host dependence (on time spent basis). Throughout the study period, few of those plants topped the list with respect to habitat suitability prerequisites for butterflies. Among the climatic parameters, moisture content, rainfall and photoperiodic gradient act as the promoting factor for reproductive fitness. Being ectothermic, microhabitat determinants play crucial role for maintenance of delicate life history phases like oviposition, voltnism, diapauses, eclosion, etc. Latitudinal gradients affect the realized niche shifts on periodic basis to complete the life cycle. Often particular sets of host plants are optimized for different seasons by these poikilotherms, offering a kaleidoscopic assortment over native habitats

(Tiple *et al.* 2009). Floral units belonging to different plant families provide nectar pool with a gradient of sugar and other nutrients volume and concentrations. The nutritional value of consumed nectar promotes adult longevity and reproductive outputs like egg production and egg maturation. Switching of host plants occurs as a result of strong selection pressure to match its phenology with the temporal distribution. Thermal plasticity of host plant resource quality (e.g. Water and nitrogen content etc.) also act as key factor promoting shifting of host plant preference (Dronamraju, 1958; Weiss, 1997). Pollinator-host plant correlation co-evolved as highly diversified as well as unique ecologically sensitive balancing selection measure ensuring their survival. Psychophilic pollinators have established themselves as most effective natural pollinators, just next to the hymenopterans (bees). They are valuable pollinators for wild plants, thus serving key role for natural landscape sustainability (Tiple, 2012). Though the butterflies bear potentiality of playing role as flagship species, recently they are being threatened globally by the risk of habitat isolation, modification, fragmentation or habitat loss mainly due to the natural integrity deteriorating anthropogenic factors like industrialization, urbanisation or overexploiting agrobiological activities. Being extremely sensitive to subtle environmental changes they can act as efficient global bioindicator and the efficient value indicator of biotope quality (van Strien *et al.* 2009). Still a huge ratio of Indian species yet to be described with respect to their detailed ecological and behavioural functionality (Haribal, 1992). So, the present study is an observation based documentation on the visiting profile of the two commonly found local Lycaenids, Quaker and Lime Blue to their native host plants. The later, interestingly, reported to attain the pest status during their developmental phases to their commonest local host plant, the lime plants. Various behavioural aspects concerned to their resource utilization pattern have been reported as a measure of qualitative description of environmental hygiene. Present study site, Taki, North 24 Parganas, comprising of multiple land use patterns, is presently threatened with huge anthropogenic interventions, particularly the tourism load. Scope exists there for assessing the role of ecological and anthropogenic parameters influencing habitat exploration abilities of native butterfly communities which may become significant from the conservation approaches in turn.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area: Taki, 22.59°N and 88. 92°E. Taki-a municipality under Hasnabad P.S. of Basirhaat Subdivision in North 24 Pgs., West Bengal.. Global Positioning System (GPS; GPSMAP 76Cx, Garmin, Olathe, Kansas, USA) was used to record the geographic coordinates

Average elevation - 5 meters (16ft) at the bank of Ichhamati river

Climate: Subtropical with hot summer, from late March to Early June (avg. temp. range 25-40 °C). Monsoon dates from Mid-June to late August, receiving an average rainfall of 150 mm. A cool, dry winter ranges formulate Nov to early Feb (average temperature range 12-25 °C).

Duration of Study: April 2014 to March 2015

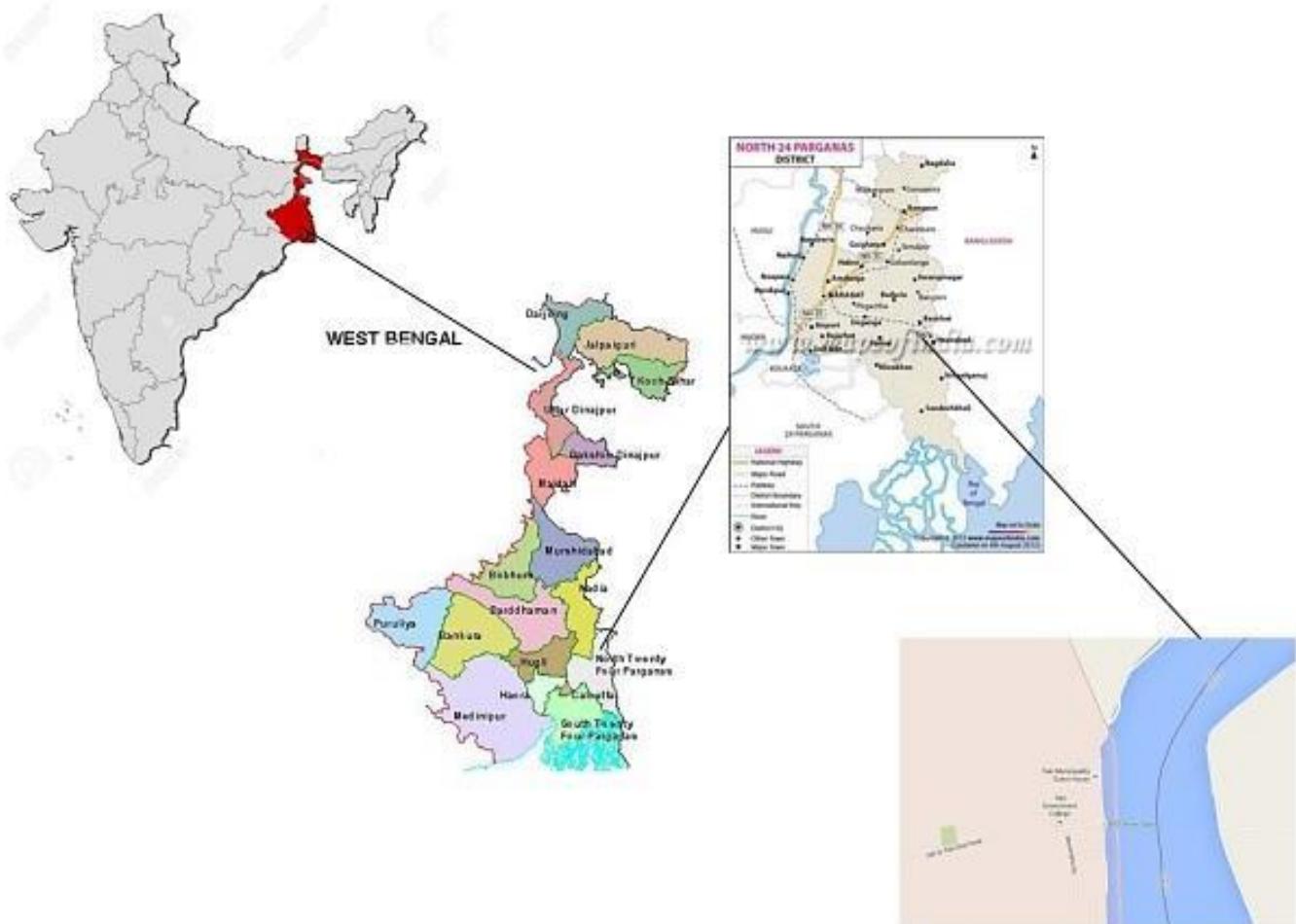
Survey Period: Monthly once; for thrice in a day : 9 am-11 am, 12 noon to 2 pm, 3 pm to 5 pm.

Division of seasons (summer, monsoon, post monsoon and winter) based on the variation of rate of precipitation and temperature.

Sampling Techniques: Seasonal availability is reported by presence-absence scoring method. Four randomized transect walks performed for 12 minutes during each survey period through the study areas following “Pollard Walk” method with necessary modifications. Fixed transect routes (250 m long and 5m wide) followed for a particular habitat patch.

Approximately a uniform pace was maintained at each study site. Prominent host plant trails are selected on the basis of >70% of visiting frequencies of the respective butterflies. Nectar and non-nectar host plants randomly selected from the same transect. 5-10 numbers of each host plant species, depending on availability were focussed. Stationary observation time fixed for 15 minutes per survey period at three suitable locations to watch host plant based interactions. Minimum distance for minute observation was constantly maintained to be 1.5 metres between the observer and the host plant. For assuming the visiting profile by butterfly to host plant, 10 frequently encountered and easily observable landing sites, including the floral units and other suitable units were selected for individual host plants. The number of butterflies encountering each host plant and their behavioural specificity were temporarily scanned and reported; duration of specific behaviours noted with the help of a stopwatch. Microhabitat details like canopy layers, foliage surfaces, substratum profiles are also noted. Encountered butterflies were identified using suitable keys (Kehimkar, 2008; Varshney and Smetacek 2015) Specific host plants were identified and recorded (Mukherjee, 1981).

Study sites:





RESULTS

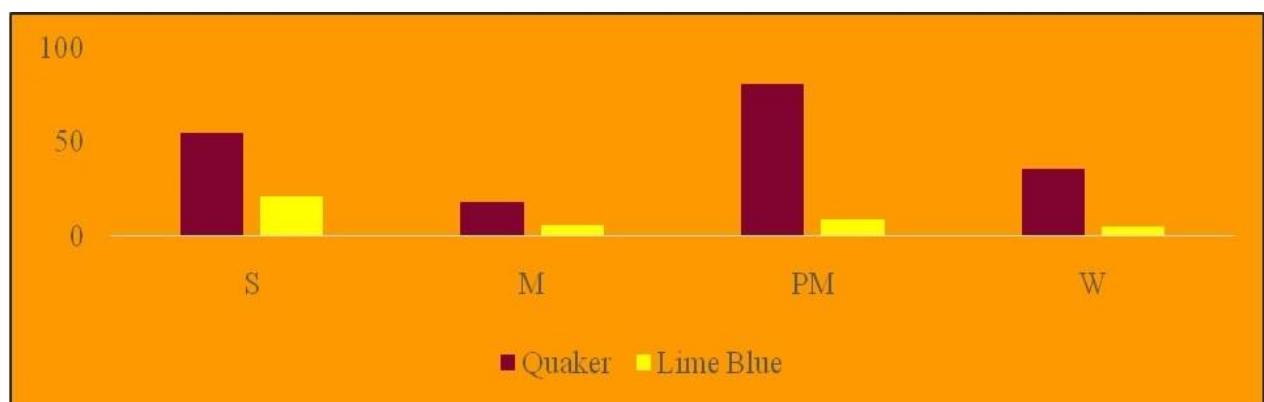


Fig. 1. Seasonal Abundance of the butterfly species

Table 1. Host Plant Profile
A. Quaker (*Neopithecops zalmora*, Butler)

Host plants	Type	Family	Habit and Habitat	Avg. height from ground level (m)	Blooming period	Description of the floral unit
<i>Glycosmis pentaphylla</i> (Ash - Sheora)	non nectar food plant; larval host plant	Rutaceae	wild evergreen Shrub; railway track, river bank, road side vegetation patches	1 -1.5	S, M, PM, W	Small, white flowers; compound inflorescence, racemose, 5 petals
<i>Lantana camara</i> (putush)	nectar plant	Verbenaceae	invasive evergreen shrub; railway tracks, river bank, uncultivated lands, roadside vegetation patches	2-2.5	S, M, PM, W	small white to yellow, orange to red, pink to violet; tubular, 4 petals
<i>Tagetes erecta</i> (taar gaanda)	nectar plant	Asteraceae	both wild and plantation variety; annual herb; garden, cultivated land	1	W	Yellow, orange flower; clustered, both ray and disc florets

B. Lime Blue (*Chilades lajus*, Stoll)

Host plants	Type	Family	Habit and Habitat	Avg. height from ground level (m)	Blooming period	Description of the floral unit
<i>Murraya paniculata</i> (kamini)	nectar plant, food plant, yearlong blooming	Rutaceae	evergreen; garden as well as wild flora	3-5	S, M, PM, W	White
<i>Citrus limon</i> (patilebu)	nectar plant, food plant, larval host plant, seasonal blooming	Rutaceae	evergreen; kitchen garden	upto 6	W, S	White

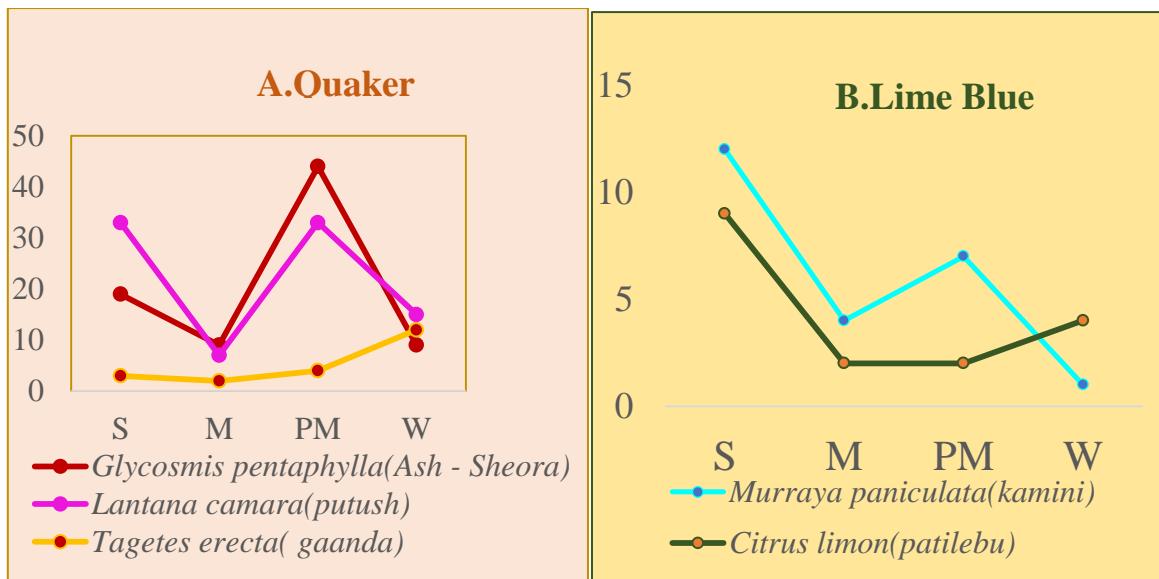


Fig. 2. Host plant based seasonal abundance pattern

Table 2. Seasonal profile of landing quotient on host plants

Landing on host plant includes both contacts and stoppages. Landing platforms provided by the floral units (blooming seasons) or other suitable parts (stem, leaves ,fruits) **landing quotient** is estimated as the number of pollinator landings /per avg. no of available landing sites on each plant/hour. It is considered as a qualitative assessment indicator for host preference.

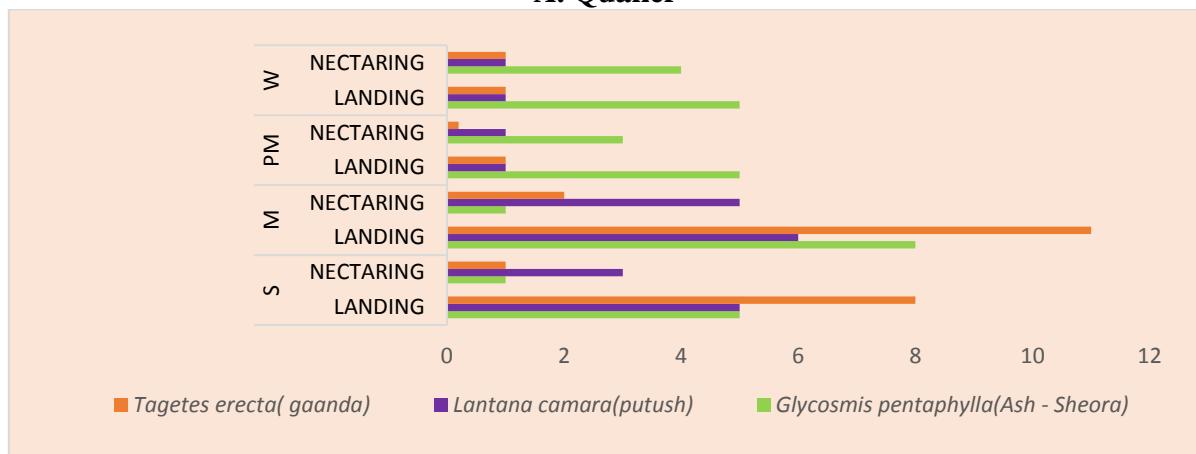
A. Quaker

Host plants	Landing quotient (no. of pollinator landings/available sites)			
	S	M	PM	W
<i>Glycosmis pentaphylla</i> (Ash - Sheora)	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.4
<i>Lantana camara</i> (Putush)	1.2	0.7	1	0.8
<i>Tagetes erecta</i> (Gaanda)	1.1	0.2	0.2	1.5

B. Lime Blue

Host Plants	Landing quotient (no. of pollinator landings/available sites)			
	S	M	PM	W
<i>Murraya paniculata</i> (kamini)	0.27	0.32	0.25	0.21
<i>Citrus limon</i> (patilebu)	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.43

A. Quaker



B. Lime Blue

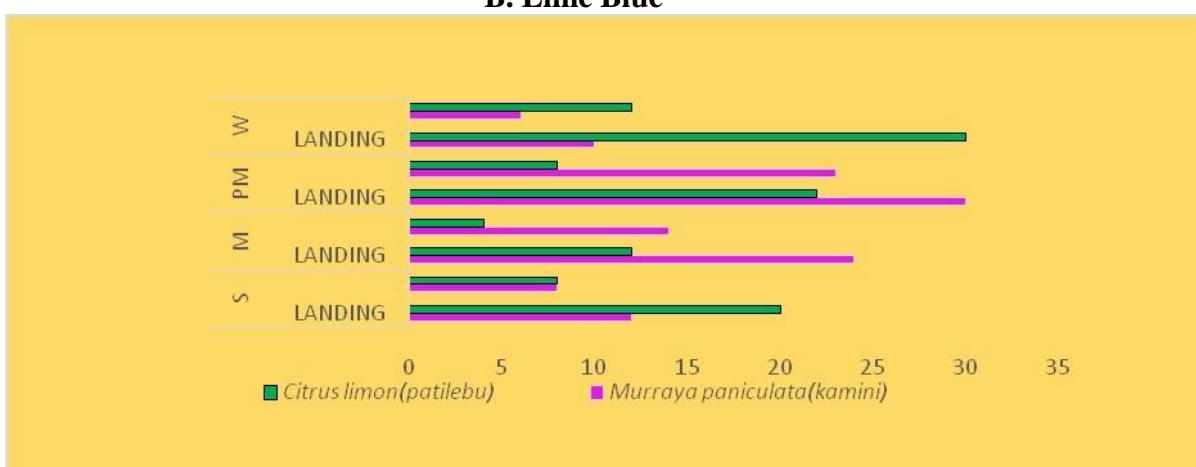


Fig. 3. Landing vs. nectaring profile: (addresses the overall tendency of host dependence for nutrient and other resources)

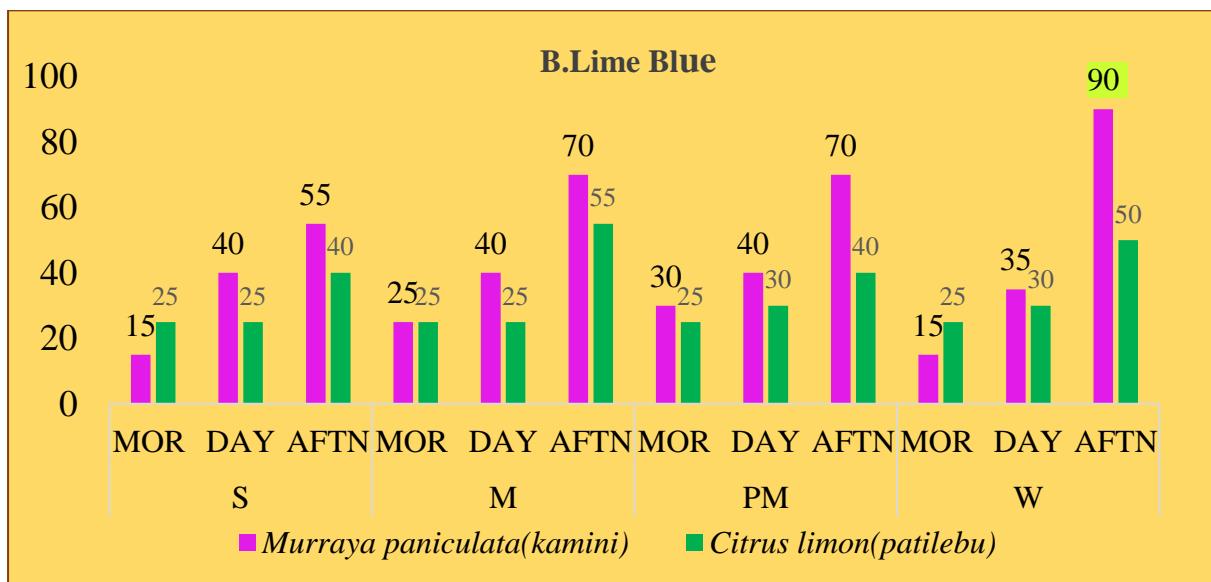
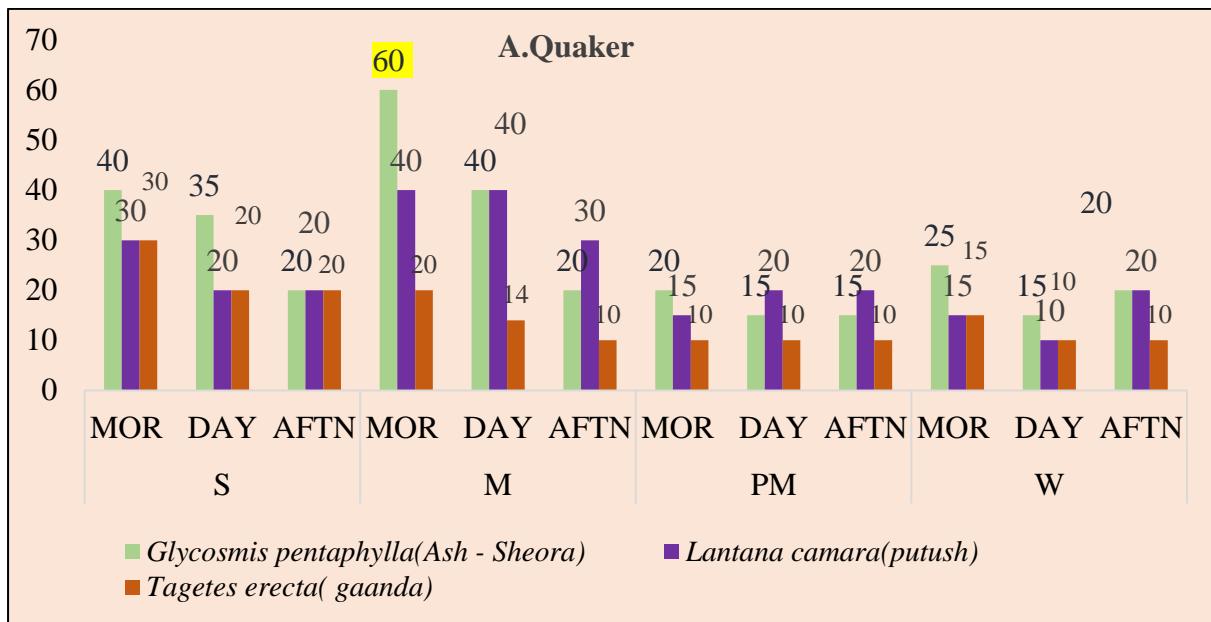


Fig. 4a. Foraging (a. perching b. nectaring) duration (secs);
Perching: sitting folded wing on floral unit or other plant parts to standardize the resource availability; [Avg. perching time /single visit to a single landing site (sec) recorded]

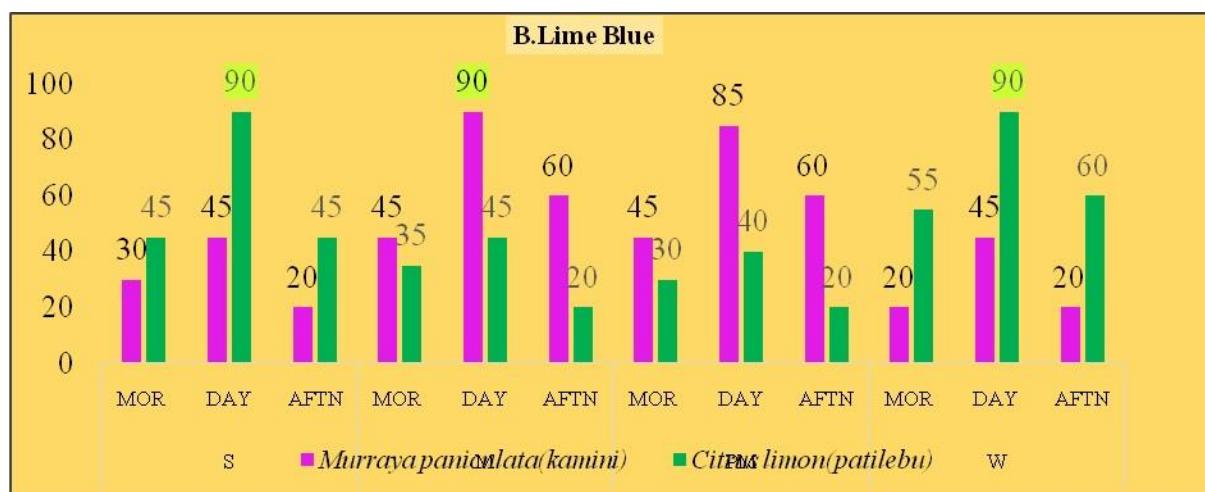
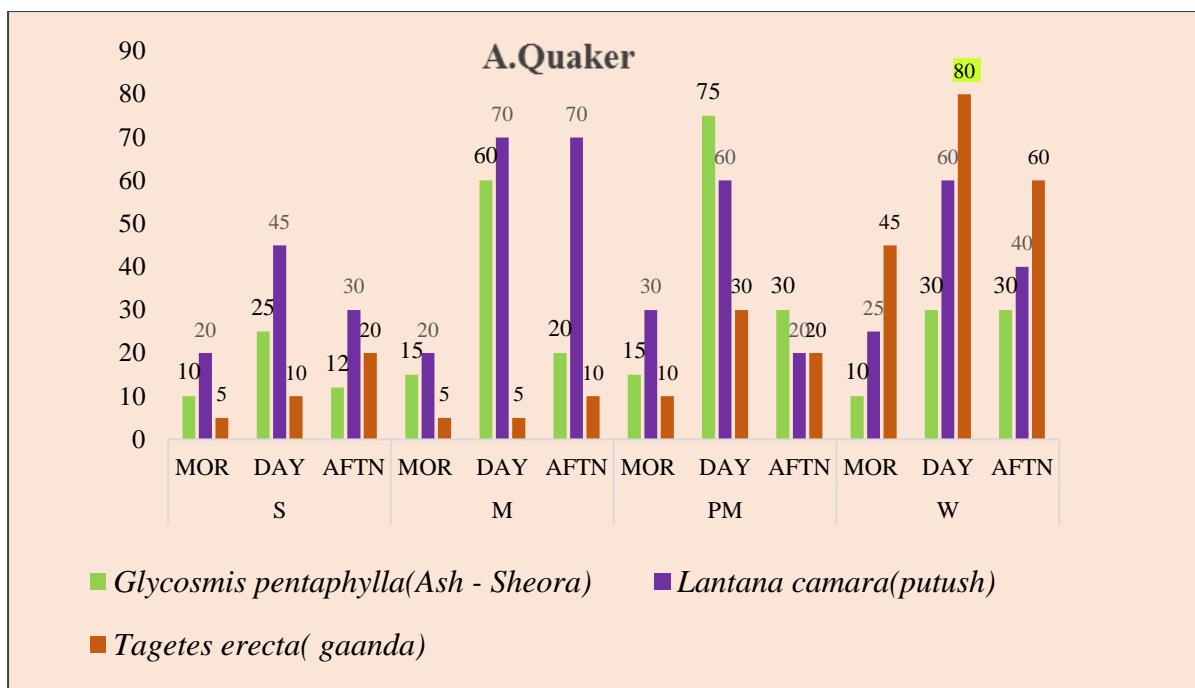
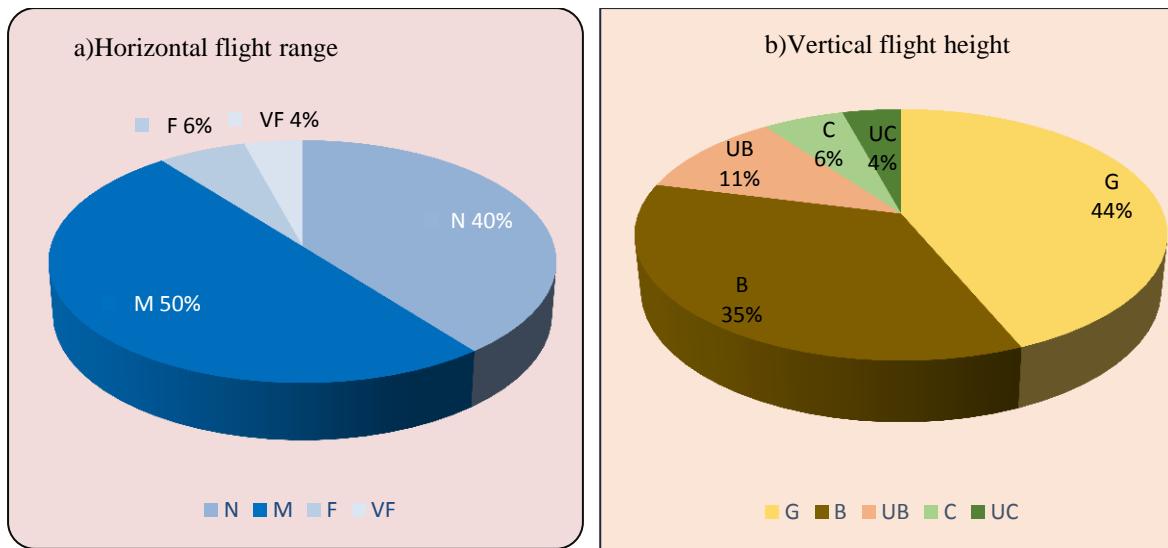


Fig. 4b. Nectaring; Nectaring duration recorded from the moment of dipping butterfly proboscis in the flower corolla till the moment of its withdrawal
[Avg. nectaring duration/single floral unit (secs)]

A) Quaker



B) Lime Blue

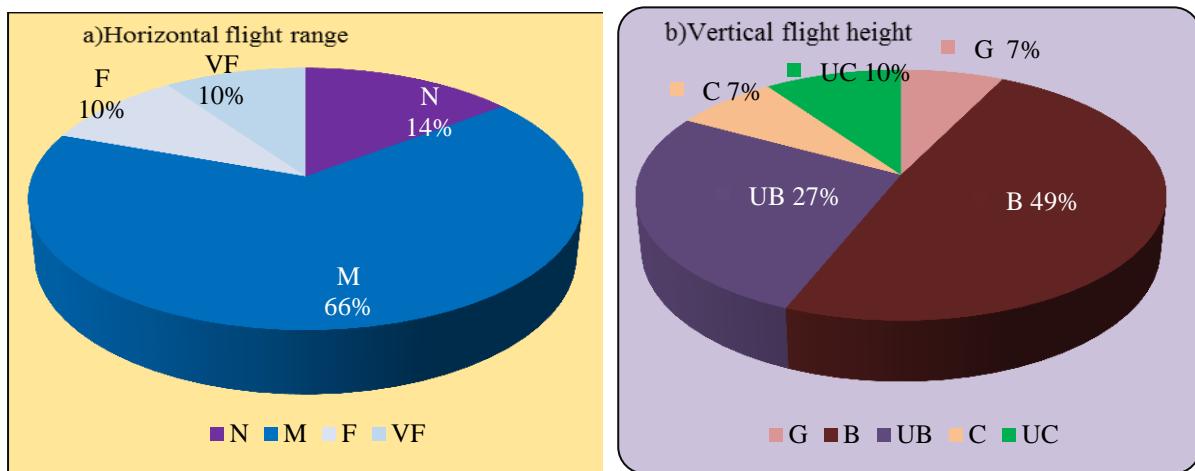


Fig. 5a. Horizontal flight range

Flight range; N- 1.5 m from observation point; M-4.5 m from observation point;
F-7.5 m from observation point->7.5 m from observation point

b) Vertical flight height

Flight -height – Ground (Ground – 1.5m); B-Bush level (Ground-3. 5m);
UB-Upper Bush level (Ground – 5m); C-Canopy level (Ground to 7.5m);
UC-Upper Canopy level (Ground to >7.5 m)

DISCUSSION

Quaker and Lime Blue both are common visitors to the habitats near human colonisations like railway trackside, urban roadsides, river bank and also in open meadow patches. Lime Blues are likely to visit lime plants in kitchen gardens , orchards and in wild, particularly in summer months. Their larvae being fruitborer they sometimes attain pest level

due to higher infestation rates to the fruits. The instars feed on the fruit pulp. Fig. 2 shows the graphical representation of the overlapping blooming period of the host plants and the annual abundance ratios of the butterflies. It also reflects the temporal correlation between host plant flowering and butterfly oviposition. They are on the wing mostly during summer and post monsoon, followed by that in winter. In Table 2, the landing quotients are listed as the qualitative indicator for host preference varying on seasonal basis. Highest (1.5) is for *Tagetes*, during winter by Quaker and lowest (0.2) is for the same plant during monsoon and post monsoon, which is the blooming period for other two nectar source options i.e. *Lantana* and *Glycosmis*. For Lime Blue, it is highest (1.1) for *Citrus* during post monsoon and lowest (0.21) for *Murraya* during winter. The host plant switching tendency is also reflected from this table. In Fig. 3, landing vs. nectaring ratios are displayed to address the overall tendency of host plant dependence for nutrient and other resources. For individual host plants, it can act as a measure of exclusive resource provision ability. In Fig. 4, an idea about foraging profile with respect to perching (4a) and nectaring proper (4b) is outlined. Perching is considered to be a behavioural strategy for standardizing resource availability. Sometimes the perching span equivalents to the average temporal spacing between the consecutive visits over a single floral unit. For Quaker, it is of maximum duration (60 secs) at monsoon morning on *Glycosmis pentaphylla*. Highest perching period for Lime Blue, (90 secs) is reported at winter afternoon on its wild host plant *Murraya paniculata*. Maximum nectaring duration (80 secs) for Quaker is reported at daytime in winter on blooming *Tagetes*. Significant nectaring span (85-90 secs) is reported for Lime Blue, mostly during the daytime throughout the year on both the host plants.

Lepidopteran flight may be categorized according to different functional aspects like: searching flight to locate the nutritional resources or appropriate egg laying site, patrolling flights with the scanning purpose, chasing flights, often displayed by males to maintain territory and last but not the least, the courtship(including the contesting) flights. Our study concentrates on the horizontal and vertical level flight patterns observed during regular foraging on host plants. Specific vertical flight patterns observed during foraging, territory maintainace (chasing) etc. Lack of any specific defensive measures against their enemies, such type of aerial displays sometimes make them highly vulnerable to predation. As per the horizontal flight range is considered, Quaker found to avail mostly the near (40%) to moderate (50%) ranges whereas Lime Blue avails the moderate range most frequently (66%). Considering the vertical flight height distribution, Quaker commonly occurs G (44%) to B (35%) levels, whereas Lime Blue frequents mostly the B (49%) level.

On the basis of findings from the present study, it can be concluded that, presence of series of host plant species flowering over all seasons may turn favourable for native butterfly species. Retention of wild floral den with at least few blooming all times provides sites for foraging, nesting, basking, resting and hiding purposes. These suitable conditions, if fulfilled, a spatio temporal mosaic of pollinator assemblage may generate. Presence of mud patches as water source and maintenance of suitable soil salinity level also the role of essential survival factors. Damaging anthropogenic activities like grazing, pesticidal over-exposure, excessive tourism load must be restricted to maintain the undisturbed ecological functioning of these insect pollinators (Dover and Settele, 2009).

Ecological outcomes of host-specificity and habitat association of these native pollinating agents encompass the local dispersion to metapopulational expansion. Often the species with narrow dietary breadth show higher larval advancement rates. Mechanical type of floral isolation, maintenance of allopatric speciation mechanisms and prevention of interbreeding between sympatric populations have been made possible by such type of coevolved host-pollinator interactions (Dronamraju, 1958).

Psychophyly helps framing of a pollination network by the polyphagous species in nature. Their ecological functionality could be justified for selecting them as focal indicator for climatic change and urbanization (Clark, Reed and Chew, 2007).

Pre-requisites for their conservation should cover their protection both at the levels of adult and developmental phases. Awareness about adult and larval habitat and mode of optimisation of the natural resources by the individuals over a spatial and temporal scale should be created. Conservation both at habitat and landscape level are equally important. Restoration approaches to be adopted keeping in mind that the habitat specialist species are vulnerable to habitat area isolation whereas generalists are more sensitive to landscape values. Sustainable microhabitat management is essential. Finally, minute and detailed information regarding species autecology would be of major help to improvise their conservation scheme.

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The authors express thanks to Smt Bidisha Ray, Faculty, Department of Zoology, Taki Government College, for her cooperation during field visits. Authors remain obliged to Dr. Santanu Saha, Associate Professor, Dept. of Botany, Bidhannagar Govt College for his valuable suggestions. Necessary logistic support extended by the respective Principals of the colleges is thankfully acknowledged. First author (SG) expresses sincere thanks to The Officer-in-charge & Head, Department of Zoology, Taki Government College for their support and encouragement. Sincere thanks are also due to Prof. Dinendra Raychaudhuri for his valuable suggestions during preparation of the manuscript.

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Faunistic Record of Click Beetles (Elateridae : Coleoptera) from Tea Gardens of Darjeeling, West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

Eleven species are recorded from six tea gardens of Darjeeling namely Badamtam T.E., Ging T.E., Happy valley T.E., Namring T.E., Selimhill T.E. and Thurbo T.E. of Darjeeling. Out of these six are recorded for the first time from Darjeeling. It is to mention that one species of *Melanotus* Eschscholtz is considered as new to science.

Keywords: Elateridae, Click beetle, Tea Garden, Darjeeling, West Bengal, India

INTRODUCTION

Elaterids are commonly called click beetles. They are one of the important group of insects having considerable significance as pests, predators and pollinators. These beetles are one of the classical example of insects exhibiting a wide range of diversity by virtue of their occurrence in the entire zoogeographical region. Nearly 16,740 species under 840 genera of elaterids are present globally (<http://insectoid.info/beetles/click-beetles/>). And in India about 527 species under 102 genera present (<http://insectoid.info/checklist/elateridae/india/>). In 1979, Stibik proposed the higher classification of elaterids. He (op.cit.) dealt up to tribes and provided keys and diagnosis for each of the higher taxa. In the past few decades several authors Vats & Chauhan (1991a,b,c; 1992a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h; 1993); Vats & Kashyap (1992a,b,c,d,e,f; 1995a,b; 1996); Vats & Vasu (1993a,b,c,d,e,f); Punan *et.al* (1995; 1997a,b,c); Punam & Saini (1996); Punam & Vasu (1996a,b); Garg & Vasu (1997; 1998; 1999a,b); Garg *et.al* (1998); Vasu & Garg (1998a,b; 1999); Chakraborty & Chakraborty (2000, 2006); Schimmel (2007); Patwardhan & Athalye (2008; 2010a,b; 2012); Patwardhan *et. al* (2008, 2009a,b); Schimmel & Tarnawski (2012); Sarkar *et.al* (2012; 2015a,b,c; 2016a,b) have enriched our knowledge on Indian Elateridae. In order to explore other available habitats, attempt is made to unveil the diversity spectrum of the said beetles in tea ecosystem of Darjeeling. The species are considered sensu <http://insectoid.info/beetles/click-beetles/>.

MATERIAL & METHODS

Click beetles were mainly collected during April, 2012 to March, 2014 by visual search, hand picking and UV light trap. Collected samples were preserved following Chakraborty & Chakrabarti (2006). The recorded samples were studied under Stereo Zoom Binocular Microscopes Olympus SZX7 and SZX 16.

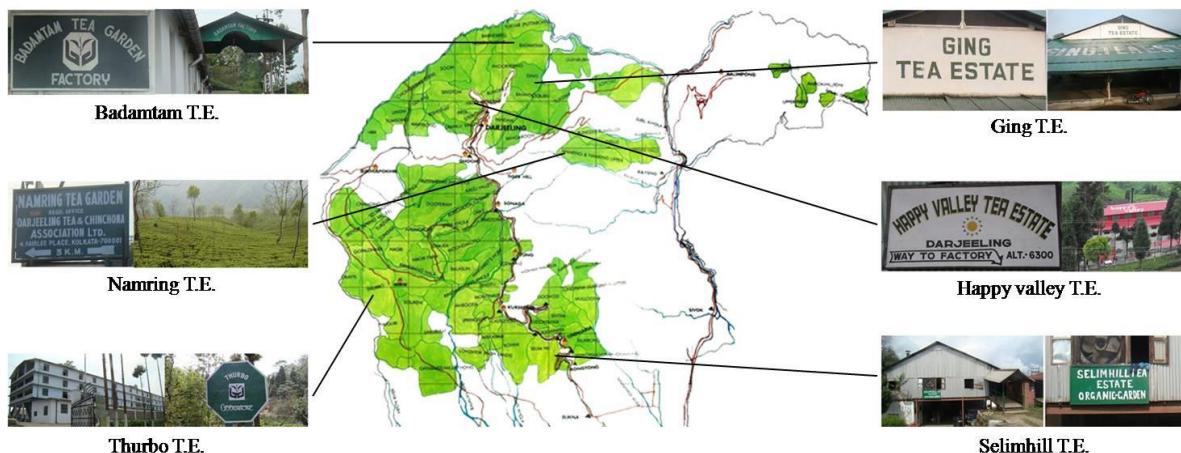
Materials are in the deposition of Department of Agricultural Biotechnology, Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda University.

Abbreviations and symbol used

T.E.- Tea Estate.

* New to Darjeeling.

Study Area



RESULTS

A. Subfamily : Agrypninae

I. Tribe : Agrypnini

1. *Agrypnus costicollis* (Candeze)

[Plate: 1, Fig. a]

1857. *Lacon costicollis* Candeze, Mem. Soc. r. Sci. Liege, 12 : 116.

1971. *Agrypnus costicollis* Ohira, Annls. Hist. Nat. Mus. Natn. hung, 63 : 205.

1973. *Agrypnus costicollis* von Hayek, Bull. Br. Mus. Nat. Hist. (Ent.) Suppl., 20 : 144.

1979. *Agrypnus costicollis* von Hayek, Bull. Br. Mus. Nat. Hist. (Ent.), 38(5) : 216.

Material Examined: 2♀♀, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: Assam, Sikkim, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal (Kolkata & Darjeeling); Cambodia, Nepal, Tonkin, Yunnan [Chakraborty & Chakrabarti, 2006; Ohira, 1971; Vats & Kashyap, 1992c; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/agrypnus_costicollis/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

II. Tribe : Oophorini

2. *Aeoloderma brachmana* (Candeze) *

[Plate: 1, Fig. b]

1859. *Aeolus brachmana* Candeze, Mon. Elat., II : 283, 345.

1929. *Aeoloderma brachmana* Fleutiaux, Ency. Ent., Coleoptera: 34.

1934. *Aeoloderma brachmana* Miwa, Fauna Elat. Japan: 192.

1967. *Aeloderma brachmana* Ohira, Ent. Rev., Japan, XIX (2): 41.

1970. *Aeloderma brachmana* Ohira, *Annls. Hist. Nat. Mus. Natn. hung.*, 62 : 211.
 1972. *Aeloderma brachmana* Ohira, *Pacific Insects*, 14(1): 5.

Material Examined: 1♀, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: West Bengal (Kolkata, North 24 Parganas & Darjeeling); Borneo, China, Formosa, Java, Myanmar, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan, Vietnam [Chakraborty & Chakrabarti, 2006; Ohira, 1972;
http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/aeolus_brachmana/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

III. Tribe : Monocrepidiiini

3. *Conoderus longipenis* Vats & Chauhan *

[Plate: 1, Fig. c; Plate: 2, Fig. l]

1992. *Conoderus longipenis* Vats & Chauhan, *Uttar Pradesh J. Zool.*, 12 (1): 33.

Material Examined: 2♂♂, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: Uttarakhand, West Bengal (Darjeeling) [Vats & Chauhan, 1992f;
http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/conoderus_longipenis/ accessed on 18.01.2017]

B. Subfamily : Cardiophorinae

IV. Tribe : Cardiophorini

4. *Cardiophorus flexus* Vats & Chauhan *

[Plate: 1, Fig. d; Plate: 2, Fig. m]

1991. *Cardiophorus flexus* Vats & Chauhan, *Res. Bull. (Sci.) Panjab University*, 42 (I-IV) : 15.

Material Examined: 2♂♂ & 1♀ , Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Raychaudhuri, 17.v.2013; 2♀♀ & 1♂ , Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Sarkar, 17.v.2013; 1♀, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Dhali, 17.v.2013; 1♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.v.2013; 2♂♂ & 1♀ , Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. T. K. Roy, 17.v.2013; 1♂, Namring T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. T. K. Roy, 18.v.2013; 1♀, Namring T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Raychaudhuri, 18.v.2013; 1♀, Namring T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Sarkar, 18.v.2013.

Distribution: India: Haryana, West Bengal (Darjeeling) [Vats & Chauhan, 1991b;
http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/cardiphorus_flexus/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

5. *Phorocardius moorii* (Candeze)

[Plate: 1, Fig. e; Plate: 2, Fig. n]

1860. *Cardiophorus moorii* Candeze, *Mon. Elat.*, 3 : 206.

1971. *Phorocardius moorii* Ohira, *Annls. Hist. Nat. Mus. Natn. hung.*, 63 : 215.

Material Examined: 1♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 25.iv.2013; 1♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Dhali, 26.iv.2013; 1♂ & 1♀ , Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Sarkar, 26.iv.2013; 1♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Raychaudhuri, 14.v.2013; 1♂, Ging T.E.,

Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. D. Raychaudhuri, 17.v.2013; 2♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Sarkar, 17.v.2013; 2♂, Ging T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. T. K. Roy, 17.v.2013.

Distribution: India: Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal (Darjeeling); Bhutan [Chakraborty & Chakrabarti, 2006; Ohira, 1971; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/phorocardius_moorii/ accessed on 18.01.2017]

6. *Horistonotus spatulatus* Vats & Chauhan *

[Plate: 1, Fig. f]

1993. *Horistonotus spatulatus* Vats & Chauhan, *J. ent. Res.*, 17(1): 37.

Material Examined: 1♀, Badamtam T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. T. K. Roy, 24.iv.2013.

Distribution: India: Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal (Darjeeling) [Vats & Chauhan, 1993]

http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/horistonotus_spatulatus/ [accessed on 18.01.2017]

C. Subfamily : Elaterinae

V. Tribe : Ampedini

7. *Melanotus cibiventris* Blatchley

[Plate: 1, Fig. g; Plate: 2, Fig. o]

1860. *Melanotus longicornis* Candeze, *Mon. Elat.* III : 332.

1910. *Melanotus cibiventris* Blatchley, An illustrated descriptive catalogue of the Coleoptera or beetles (exclusive of the Rhynchophora) known to occur in Indiana: 747.

Material Examined: 1♂, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: Assam, Sikkim, West Bengal, (Darjeeling & Kolkata); China, Sri Lanka, USA [Chakraborty & Chakrabarti, 2006; Ohira, 1971; Quate & Thompson, 1967; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/melanotus_cibiventris/ accessed on 18.01.2017]

8. *Melanotus fuscus* (Fabricius)

[Plate: 1, Fig. h; Plate: 2, Fig. p]

1801. *Elater fuscus* Fabricius, *Syst. Eleuth.*, II : 228.

1860. *Melanotus fuscus* Candeze, *Mon. Elat.*, III : 335.

Material Examined: 2♂♂, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012; 1♀, Namring T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Sarkar, 18.v.2013.

Distribution: India: Sikkim, Tripura, West Bengal. (Darjeeling, Jalpaiguri, Kolkata & Murshidabad); Ambon, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Mayanmar, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam, Yunnan. [Chakraborty & Chakrabarti, 2006; Ohira 1970; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/melanotus_fuscus/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

9. *Melanotus kumaunensis* Vats & Chauhan *

[Plate: 1, Fig. i]

1991. *Melanotus kumaunensis* Vats & Chauhan, *J. ent. Res.*, 15(3): 188.

Material Examined: 1♀, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: Uttarakhand, West Bengal (Darjeeling) [Vats & Chauhan, 1991a; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/melanotus_kamaunensis/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

[mis spelt in Vats & Chauhan, 1991;
http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/melanotus_kamaunensis/ accessed on 18.01.2017; Type locality : Almora that falls within Kumaun Himalaya; for further detail see Final Technical Report, L.K. Vats, 1991]

10. *Melanotus bifoveatus* Vats & Chauhan *

[Plate: 1, Fig. j]

1991. *Melanotus bifoveatus* Vats & Chauhan, *J. Ent. Res.*, 15(3):192.

Material Examined: 2♀♀, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: Uttrakhand, West Bengal (Darjeeling) [Vats & Chauhan, 1991a; http://insectoid.info/insecta/coleoptera/elateridae/melanotus_bifoveatus/ accessed on 18.01.2017].

11. *Melanotus* n. sp. (to be communicated elsewhere)

[Plate: 1, Fig.: k; Plate: 2, Fig. q]

Material Examined: 2♂♂, Happy valley T.E., Darjeeling, West Bengal, India, Coll. S. Saha, 17.vii.2012.

Distribution: India: West Bengal (Darjeeling).

DISCUSSION

First ever attempt to explore elaterids in tea ecosystem of Darjeeling has lead to the recognition of 11 species of which a *Melanotus* species is considered new to science. Six more species viz., *Aeoloderma brachmana* (Oophorini), *Conoderus longipennis* (Monocrepidiiini), *Cardiophorus flexus*, *Phorocardius moorii*, *Horistonotus spatulatus* (Cardiophorini) and *Melanotus kumaunensis* (Ampedini) are additions to the list of recorded species from Darjeeling. It is probable that such habitat is conducive for the click beetles to sustain. However, further data may conclude on their regular occurrence and exploitation of the habitat.

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Plate : 1



Fig. Dorsal habitus of **a.** *Agrypnus costicollis* (Candeze); **b.** *Aeoloderma brachmana* (Candeze); **c.** *Conoderus longipenis* Vats & Chauhan; **d.** *Cardiophorus flexus* Vats & Chauhan; **e.** *Phorocardius moorii* (Candeze); **f.** *Horistonotus spatulatus* Vats & Chauhan; **g.** *Melanotus cribriventris* Blatchley; **h.** *Melanotus fuscus* (Fabricius); **i.** *Melanotus kumaunensis* Vats & Chauhan; **j.** *Melanotus bifoveatus* Vats & Chauhan; **k.** *Melanotus* n. sp.

Plate : 2

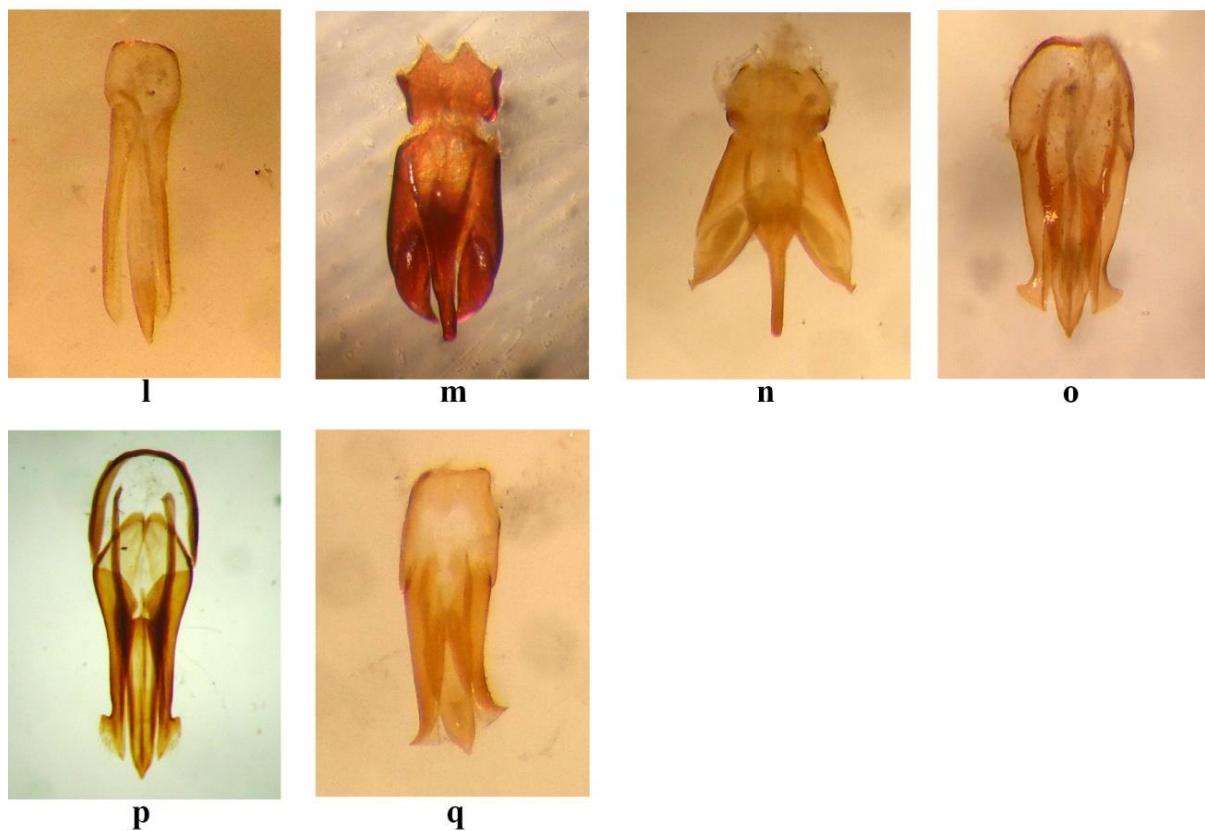


Fig. Male genitalia of **l.** *Conoderus longipenis* Vats & Chauhan; **m.** *Cardiophorus flexus* Vats & Chauhan; **n.** *Phorocardius moorii* (Candeze); **o.** *Melanotus cibriventris* Blatchley; **p.** *Melanotus fuscus* (Fabricius); **q.** *Melanotus* n. sp.

A Study on Nectar Plant Preference of Butterflies at Juvenile Detention Center, Barasat

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ABSTRACT

Nectar is the primary nutrient source for adult butterflies. Plant species vary in their nectar content that may influence the biological attributes of the dependent life forms. Butterflies too differ in the range of available nectar resources for exploitation. Seven flowering plant species were selected in the study area, Kisholoy, Juvenile Detention Center, Barasat, where butterflies visit the most. Data was generated from three individual plants of each of the seven plant species. Each plant individual was observed for scheduled time period in the morning to record the encounters of butterfly species. Thirty eight [38] butterfly species of five [5] families were recorded during the study period. It was found that, the encounter frequencies of butterfly species varied for different nectar plant species. It was also observed that butterflies of a particular family preferred a specific nectar plant species or even a particular plant of a selected species. None of the seven nectar plants did attract members of all the five butterfly families. Lycaenids were found to be the most frequent visitors in different nectar plants like *Aerva lanata*, *Acemella uliginosa* and *Sida* sp. In case of *Mikania micrantha*, nymphalids were frequent visitors following lycaenids.

Keywords: Butterfly, Nectar, Plant Preference

INTRODUCTION

Lepidoptera is the second largest order in the class Insecta and constitutes an important component of terrestrial biodiversity (New and Collins, 1991). In entire life cycle, butterflies mostly depend on two types of plants: host plants and nectar plants. Caterpillars feed on the foliage of their particular host plant species and adult butterflies feed on nectar from flowers of certain plants (Nimbalkar *et al.*, 2011). However, caterpillars are often limited to a single host plant, but adult butterflies utilize a wide variety of plant species for their nectar resources. Nectar, the primary nutrient for adult butterfly varies in plant species both in its carbohydrates and constituent components that may affect fecundity (Romeis and Wäckers, 2002). Therefore, both quality and quantity of nectar has direct bearing on the occurrence, distribution and density of different butterfly species (Fothergill and Vaughn, 2009).

Butterflies are the potential taxa for biodiversity conservation. They have enormous ecological importance. After bees, butterflies are the second category of insects which are very specific to their food plants. Presence of butterflies indicates healthy habitat enriched with flowering plants whereas diminishing number of butterflies indicates disturbed habitat (Roy *et al.*, 2012; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2015) and the presence of grass butterflies indicates complete conversion of forests into an agricultural ecosystem

(Borges *et al.*, 2003). Hence, documentation of butterfly species, their occurrence and characteristics may provide crucial information on the ecology of a particular region. The present study was carried out in a suburban area [Kisholoy, Juvenile Detention Center, Barasat] to understand nectar plant preference of some butterflies and to find out if nectar plant choice for a particular butterfly family is similar or not.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The overall study was carried out in Kisholoy (Juvenile Detention Center), near Vidyasagar Krirangan, Barasat (22.72° N, 88.48° E). The area is a mixed habitat comprising different types of marshy plants, shrubs, trees and scattered human settlements.

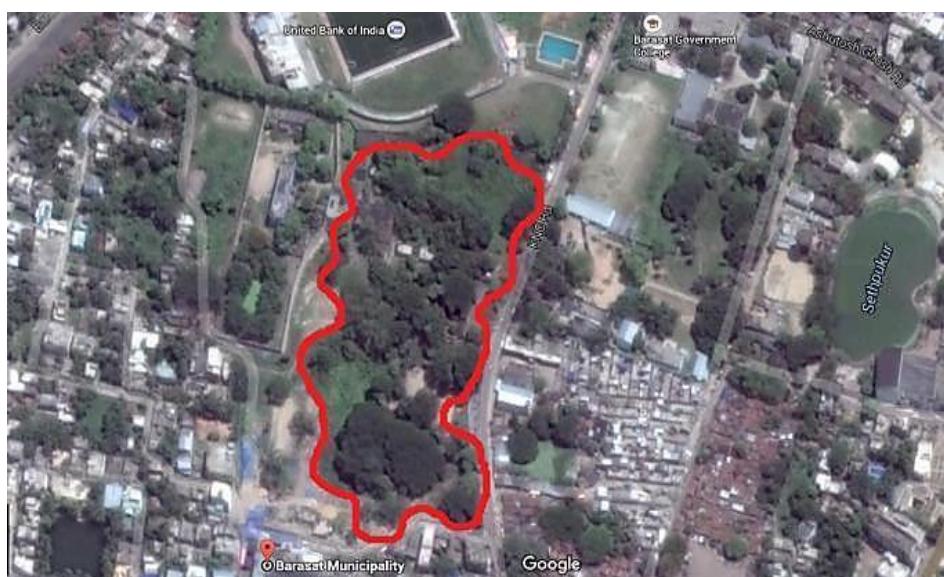


Figure 1. Map of the study site: Kisholoy, Barasat

Study Period

The study was conducted from November 2015 to April 2016. The data was recorded by personal observation for three [3] hours in the morning from 8:00 AM to 11:00 AM.

Methods of Study

Seven flowering plant species were selected from the entire study area ($10,400 \text{ m}^2$), where butterflies visit the most. Three [3] individuals of each plant species were tagged. A single plant was observed for 5 minutes followed by a 5 minutes interval. Every single visit of each butterfly species was counted within the 5 minutes observation time. The butterfly species were identified by visual observations and photo shots. The identification of butterfly species was confirmed with the help of "The Book of Indian Butterflies (Kehimkar, 2008)". The nectar plant species were identified by Botanical Survey of India, Kolkata.

RESULTS

Altogether sixteen [16] types of plant species (excluding trees) were found in the study area. Among those plants some were important host plants for butterflies like *Ricinus communis* (host: Common Castor), *Cassia sophera* (host: Mottled Emigrant), *Glycosmis pentaphylla* (host: Common Mormon, Lime butterfly) etc. However, for the present study, seven [7] flowering plant species namely *Luffa* sp. (NP1), *Urena lobata* (NP2), *Mikania micrantha* (NP3), *Aerva lanata* (NP4), *Acmella uliginosa* (NP5), *Sida* sp. (NP6), *Clerodendrum infortunatum* (NP7) were selected where butterfly visits were more. Total of thirty eight [38] butterfly species of five [5] families were recorded from the area. It was found that the encounter frequencies of the butterfly species vary for different nectar plant species. It was also observed that butterflies belonging to a particular family preferred a specific nectar plant species or even a particular plant of a selected species.

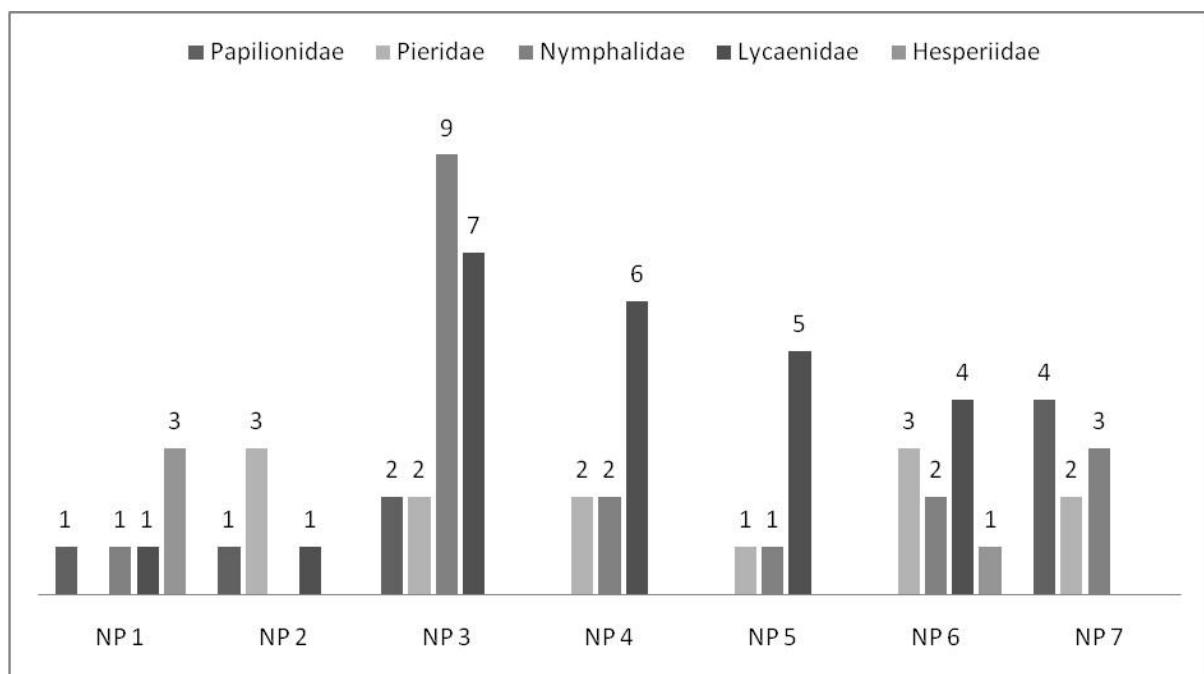


Figure 2. No of Butterfly species of the five families on the seven nectar plant under study

Table 1. Butterfly species found on the seven nectar plant and their visit number

Sl. No.	Species	<i>Luffa</i> sp.	<i>Urena lobata</i>	<i>Mikania micrantha</i>	<i>Aerva lanata</i>	<i>Acmella uliginosa</i>	<i>Sida</i> sp.	<i>Clerodendrum infortunatum</i>
1.	Common Pierrot		1	15	3	27	4	
2.	Plains Cupid			31	6	8		
3.	Eastern Striped Albatross		13	3	1		7	7
4.	Common Jezebel		12					19

5.	Plain Tiger			5	2	6	9	6
6.	Mottled Emigrant		19	2			6	
7.	Parnara Swift spp.	4						
8.	Common Silverline			24				
9.	Tawny Coster			7	11		5	
10.	Common Mormon							21
11.	Pale Grass Blue				2			
12.	Common Grass Yellow					4	13	
13.	Tailed Jay	6	2	5				
14.	Grey Pansy			13				
15.	Common Castor			11				
16.	Blue Tiger	4						5
17.	Gram Blue				4		4	
18.	Common Crow			5				2
19.	Lime Blue			4		3		
20.	Common Mime							6
21.	Tiny Grass Blue						6	
22.	Common Rose							4
23.	Slate Flash			4				
24.	Pierrot (<i>Tarucus</i> sp.)					4		
25.	Small Branded Swift	10					16	
26.	Lime Butterfly							3
27.	Great Eggfly			3				
28.	Peacock Pansy			3				
29.	Commander			3				
30.	Common Ciliate Blue	3						
31.	Common Leopard			2				
32.	Psyche				2			
33.	Pointed Ciliate Blue			2				
34.	Pea Blue				2			
35.	Dark Grass Blue				8	2	9	
36.	Common Dartlet	2						
37.	Common Jay			1				
38.	Common Red Flash			1				

Nectar Plant Species:

A total of seven [7] nectar plant species were identified in the study area. Most of them were shrubs like *Urena lobata* (1.5 m height) and *Clerodendrum infortunatum* (maximum

4 m in height). Some were climbers like *Luffa* sp. and *Mikania micrantha*. Others were herbs like *Sida* sp., *Acmella uliginosa* and *Aerva lanata*.

Luffa sp., *Aerva lanata* and *Clerodendrum infortunatum* belong to family Cucurbitaceae, Amaranthaceae and Lamiaceae respectively. *Urena lobata* and *Sida* sp. are under the family Malvaceae, while *Mikania micrantha* and *Acmella uliginosa* are under Asteraceae. *Urena lobata* and *Mikania micrantha* are invasive plant species whereas others are native.

DISCUSSION

Butterflies do not feed indiscriminately. They show preference for certain nectar flowers with specific chemical composition (Tiple *et al.*, 2006, Nair *et al.*, 2014; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2015). Flowers with a narrow corolla tube and flat rim characterize typical butterfly flowers. Although butterflies utilize both tubular and non tubular flowers, they show a strong preference for tubular flowers. Further, most of the plant species produce trace amount of nectar but produce numerous flowers on daily basis at plant level (Tiple *et al.*, 2006; Nimbalkar *et al.*, 2011). Butterflies need carbohydrates and low level of some other compounds such as amino acids, lipids and fats for their fertility, longevity and daily oviposition (Romeis and Wäckers, 2002). The diversity of butterflies for particular habitat is associated with the availability of larval host plants and adult nectar plants (Kunte, 2000). Many of the flowering plants are used by butterflies as nectar plants and support a rich diversity of butterflies.

In the present study, it was found that the encounter frequencies of butterfly species varied for different nectar plant species. It was also observed that butterflies belonging to a particular family preferred a specific nectar plant species raven a particular plant of a selected species. None of the seven necta plants attracted members of all the five butterfly families. Nymphalids were encountered most (with maximum number of butterfly species) on *Mikania micrantha*. The number of visit of butterfly pecies of Lycaenidae was found to be highest in three nectar plants, *Aerva lanata*, *Acmella uliginosa* and *Sida* sp. *Clerodendrum infortunatum* attracted various butterfly species of three families (Papilionidae, Pieridae, Nymphalidae) almost equally. Members of Hesperiidae was found to be an abundant visitor of *Luffa* sp. Common Red Flash butterfly appears to be first record from the area (Mukhopadhyay *et al.*, 2015).

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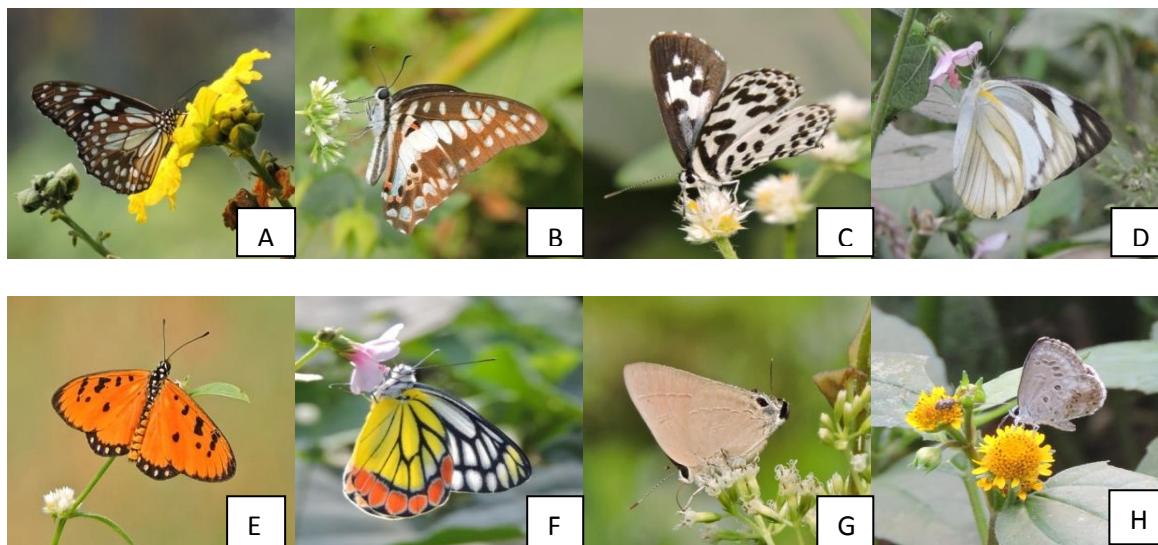


Figure 3. Some of the representative butterfly species encountered during the study period:
A. Blue Tiger; B. Common Jay; C. Common Pierrot; D. Eastern Striped Albatross;
E. Tawny Coster; F. Common Jezebel; G. Common Red Flash; H. Lime Blue.

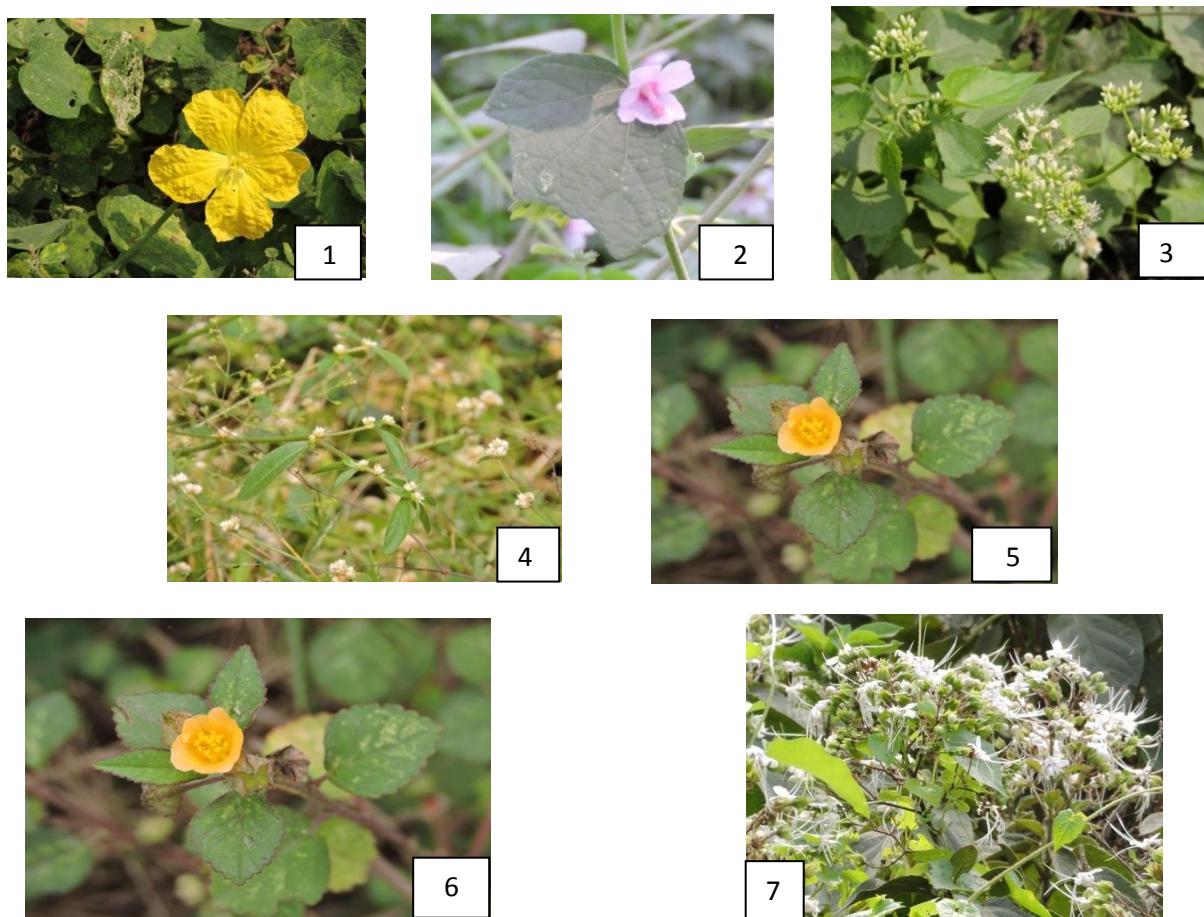


Figure 4. Nectar plant species under study: 1. *Luffa* sp.; 2. *Urena lobata*; 3. *Mikania micrantha*; 4. *Aerva lanata*; 5. *Acmella uliginosa*; 6. *Sida* sp.; 7. *Clerodendrum infortunatum*.

Spider Fauna of Meghalaya, India

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ABSTRACT

The present study is on the spider fauna of Nongkhylem Wildlife Sanctuary (NWS), Sohra (Cherrapunji) [included within East Khasi Hill District], Umsning (Ri Bhoi District) and their surrounding tea estates (Anderson Tea Estate, Byrnihat Tea Estate and Meg Tea Estate) of Meghalaya, India. A total of 55 species belonging to 36 genera and 13 families are sampled. Newly recorded taxa include four genera and 11 species of Araneidae, six genera of Salticidae, each represented by single species. The species recorded under *Tylorida* Simon and *Tetragnatha* Latreille of Tetragnathidae and *Camaricus* Thorell and *Thomisus* Walckenaer of Thomisidae are found to be new from the state. Also, three oxyopids and one miagrammopid are new. So far, Linyphiidae, Pisauridae, Sparassidae and Theridiidae were unknown from the state. Out of 55 species, 13 are endemic to India and thus exhibiting a high endemicity (23.6%). A family key of the State Fauna is provided along with relevant images of the newly recorded species.

Keywords: Spiders; New Records; Endemicity; Nongkhylem Wildlife Sanctuary; Sohra; Umsning; Tea Ecosystem; Meghalaya.

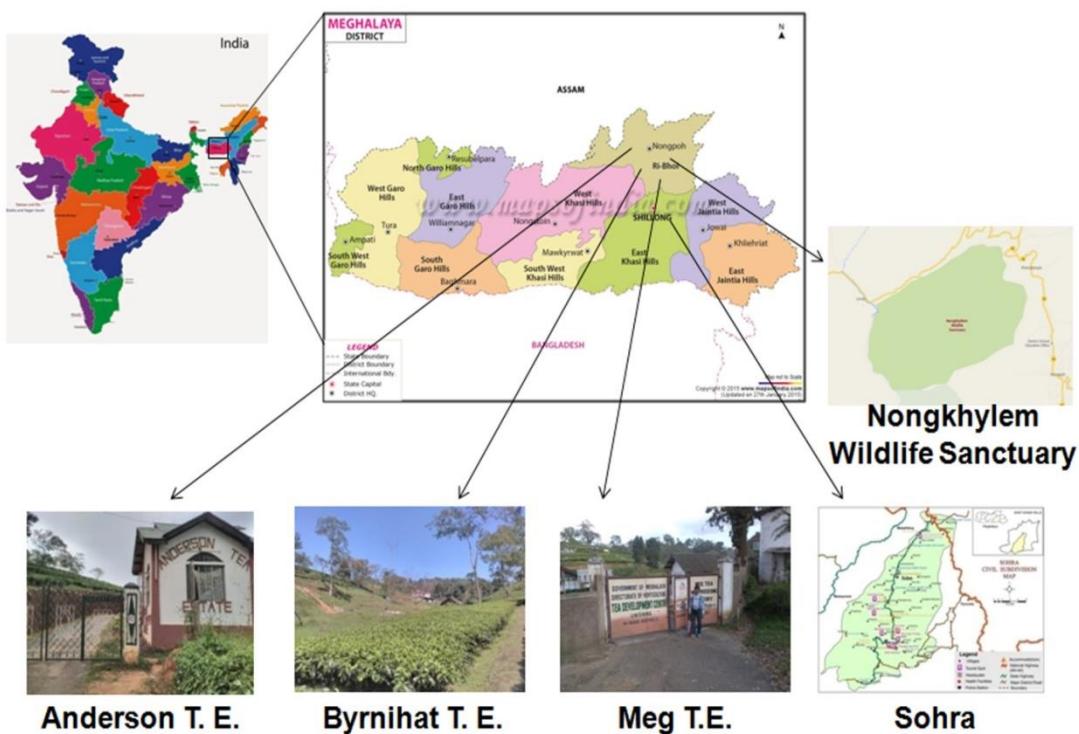
INTRODUCTION

Spiders are amongst the most omnipresent, numerous, generalist predators in both agricultural and natural ecosystem. They are nature's master spinners of silken webs. They exert considerable top down effect and have the potential to both lower and stabilize pest population making themselves excellent biological pest management candidates. They are also utilized as ecological indicators in many communities. Their abundance is being proved by the current world spider catalogue (2017) which includes 46433 species under 4029 genera distributed over 113 families. In India, there are 1686 species distributed over 438 genera of 60 families (Keswani *et al.*, 2012), while from Meghalaya, 92 species belonging to 38 genera and 10 families are known (Biswas & Majumder, 1995). However we have initiated a survey since 2015 for the spiders of Meghalaya with emphasis on the untouched areas. The study area (vide Map) included Nongkhylem Wildlife Sanctuary (NWS), Sohra (Cherrapunji) [included within East Khasi Hill District], Umsning (Ri Bhoi District) and their surrounding tea estates (Anderson Tea Estate, Byrnihat Tea Estate and Meg Tea Estate). So far we could record 55 species belonging to 36 genera and 13 families. Among the recorded taxa, four genera and 11 species of Araneidae, six genera of Salticidae, two species each of Tetragnathidae and Thomisidae, three species of Oxyopidae and one species of Uloboridae are new records from the state. Find of members of four families viz. Linyphiidae, Pisauridae, Sparassidae and Theridiidae are as such new. A family key of the State Fauna is provided along with relevant images of the newly recorded species.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Samples are collected from different area of the NWS and non reserve areas such as Sohra, Umsning and their surrounding tea estates (Anderson Tea Estate, Byrnihat Tea Estate and Meg Tea Estate) mainly by bush beating; inverted umbrella; hand picking; visual search and foliage, trunk & branch sampling methods. But in case of tea estates we had to rely mainly on hand picking; visual search and foliage, trunk & branch sampling methods. The survey was conducted during the period of October to November 2015 in different areas of the study sites.

STUDY AREA



Spider specimens thus sampled were preserved following Tikader (1987) and Barrion & Litsinger (1995). They were studied under Stereo Zoom Binocular Microscopes, model Olympus SZX-7 & and SZX-16.

Materials are in the deposition of Department of Agricultural Biotechnology, IRDM Faculty Centre, Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda University, Narendrapur, Kolkata.

Abbreviations used: NWS= Nongkhylem Wildlife Sanctuary, ATE= Anderson Tea Estate, BTE= Byrnihat Tea Estate, MTE= Meg Tea Estate, J= Juvenile, S= Sub adult, [®] = New record from Meghalaya, [€] = Endemic to India.

RESULTS : TAXONOMIC ACCOUNT

Order: Araneae
Suborder: Araneomorphae

Key to families:

1. Cribellum and calamistrum present, sometimes absent or reduced in male; femora with rows of long trichobothria; metatarsi IV compressed and curved under the line of calamistrum
 - Cribellum and calamistrum absent
 - Cribellate, **Uloboridae** Thorell
 - Ecribellate
2. Tarsi with 2 claws and claw tufts
 - Tarsi with 3 claws, claw tuft absent
 - 3
 - 6
3. Eyes usually in 3 rows, occupying the entire cephalic area, 1st row of eyes large on vertical face with anteromedians largest, anterolaterals smaller, in some genera moved into separate row behind anteromedians, posteromedians of 2nd row minute, located between anterolaterals and medium sized posterolaterals of 3rd row
 - Eyes in 2 rows
 - 4
 - Legs usually prograde; posterior spinnerets 2 segmented with distal segment distinctly conical; male palp with expanded retrotibial apophysis
 - Eutichuriidae** (Lehtinen)
 - Legs I and II usually laterigrade, in few less evident or never; posterior spinnerets not 2 segmented; male palp not so
 - 5
5. Metatarsal apex with soft trilobate membrane; epigynum with paired lateral lobes, often with a median piece; all metatarsi and tarsi with dense scopulae
 - Metatarsal apex without any such membrane; epigynum otherwise, usually with hood or guide pocket; metatarsi and tarsi III and IV never scopulate
 - Thomisidae** Sundevall
6. Eyes hexagonal, anterior row strongly procurved and posterior row strongly recurved; clypeus very high; leg spines long and prominent
 - Eyes never hexagonal, if approximately close then clypeus narrow
 - 7
7. Trochanters ventrally with a curved notch
 - Trochanters not so
 - 8
 - 9
8. Eyes arranged in 2 rows, often stalked; median tarsal claw with 2-3 teeth, anterior piece of lorum with a notch into which posterior piece fits
 - Eyes arranged in 3 rows, not stalked; median tarsal claw smooth or with a single tooth, anterior piece of lorum rounded behind and fits into a notch of the posterior piece
 - Pisauridae** Simon

	----- Lycosidae Sundevall
9. Tarsus IV ventrally with a distinct comb of strong, curved serrated bristles, in male may be poorly developed; labium not rebordered	----- Theridiidae Sundevall
- Tarsus IV without such comb; labium rebordered	----- 10
10. Eyes heterogenous with anteromedians dark; clypeus usually as high as or higher than median ocular area; chelicerae with stridulating ridges	----- Linyphiidae Blackwall
- Eyes homogenous; clypeus usually lower than the height of median ocular area; chelicerae without stridulating ridges	----- 11
11. Epigastric furrow procurved; chelicerae usually very large and powerful, devoid of boss; anterior and posterior spinnerets similar, epigyne without scape	----- Tetragnathidae Menge
- Epigastric furrow nearly straight; chelicerae moderate, usually with a boss; anterior and posterior spinnerets dissimilar; epigyne with scape	----- 12
12. Cephalothorax usually longer than wide; trichobothria present on tibiae only; male paracymbium usually flat and rectangular	----- Nephilidae Simon
- Cephalothorax flat, variable; trichobothria present on all leg segments except tarsi; paracymbium usually with a sclerotised hook	----- Araneidae Clerck

Family 1: **Uloboridae** Thorell

1. ***Miagrammopes* sp. nr. *kirkeensis*** [®] [€] Tikader
(Fig. 1)

Miagrammopes kirkeensis Tikader, 1971, *J. Asiat. Soc. Calcutta*, 213: 176.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record) (Tikader, 1971; Roy, 2013; WSC, 2017).

2. ***Uloborus khasiensis*** [€] Tikader
Uloborus khasiensis Tikader, 1969, *Proc. Indian Acad. Sci.*, 70(B): 127.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record) (Tikader, 1969; Dhali *et al.*, 2010b; Roy 2013; WSC, 2017).

Family 2: **Salticidae** Blackwall

3. ***Rhene decorata*** [®] [€] Tikader
(Fig. 2)

Rhene decorata Tikader, 1977, *Proc. Indian Acad. Sci.*, 85(B): 276.

Material examined: 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Assam, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal (Tikader & Biswas, 1981; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Majumder, 2005; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

4. *Thiania bhamoensis* ® Thorell

(Fig. 3)

Thiania bhamoensis Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 25: 357.

Material examined: 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Andaman Islands, Kerala, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Burma, China, Krakatau, Malacca, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, Sumatra, Vietnam (Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

5. *Telamonia dimidiata* ® (Simon)

(Fig. 4)

Viciria dimidiata Simon, 1899, *Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg.*, 43: 118.

Telamonia dimidiata (Simon) Prószyn'ski, 1984, *Annls Zool. Warsz.*, 37: 428.

Material examined: 2♀♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Bhutan, Indonesia, Singapore, Sumatra (Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

6. *Hyllus semicupreus* ® (Simon)

(Fig. 5)

Thyene semicuprea Simon, 1885, *Bull. Soc. Zool. Fr.*, 10: 4.

Hyllus semicupreus (Simon) Prószyn'ski, 1990, *Wyzsza Szkoła Rolniczo-Pedagogiczna W Siedlcach*: 177.

Material examined: 1♀, Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Saha

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Sri Lanka (Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

7. *Plexippus paykullii* (Audouin)

Attus paykullii Audouin, 1826, *Explication sommaire des planches d'arachnides de l'Egypte et de la Syrie publiées ... in "Description de l'Egypte..."* : 409.

Plexippus paykullii (Audouin) Peckham & Peckham, 1886, *Trans. Wiscons. Acad. Sci. Arts Let.*, 6: 296.

Material examined: 1♀, Umsning, 30.X.2015 coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Afghanistan, Algeria, American Samoa, Australia, Bermuda, Brazil, Canary Islands, Celebes, China, Costa Rica, Crete, Cuba, Egypt, Ethiopia, Fiji, France, French Polynesia, Galapagos Islands, Gambia, Greece, Hawaii, Hispaniola Island, Indochina, Iran, Italy, Japan, Java, Kenya, Krakatau, Lao, Libya, Malaysia, Malta, Marquesas Islands, Marshall Islands, Nepal, New Hebrides, Palmyra Atoll, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Singapore, Society Islands, South Korea, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname,

Taiwan, Tonga, Trinidad, Tuamotu Islands, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, USA, Venezuela, Vietnam, Yemen (Tikader & Biswas, 1981; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, 2004, 2006; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Majumder, 2005, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

8. ***Phintella vittata*** ® (C. L. Koch)

(Fig. 6)

Plexippus vittatus C. L. Koch, 1846, *Die Arachniden*, Nürnberg: 125.

Phintella vittata (C.L. Koch) Zabka, 1985, *Annls Zool. Warsz.*, 39: 429.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Nicobar Islands, Meghalaya, West Bengal; China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Penang Island, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Vietnam (Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Prószyn'ski, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

9. ***Myrmachne caliraya*** ® Barrion & Litsinger

(Fig. 7)

Myrmachne caliraya Barrion & Litsinger, 1995, *CAB International in association with the International Rice Research Institute, Philippines*: 56.

Material examined: 4♂♂ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 2♀♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy;

Distribution: India: Meghalaya, West Bengal; Philippines (Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Dhali *et al.*, 2010a; Keswani *et al.*, 2012; Sen *et al.*, 2015; Roy *et al.*, 2016; Metzner, 2017; WSC, 2017).

Family 3: **Eutichuridae** (Lehtinen)

10. ***Cheiracanthium melanostomum*** (Thorell)

Eutittha melanostoma Thorell, 1895, *Descriptive catalogue of the spiders of Burma*.
Lond.: 44.

Cheiracanthium melanostomum (Thorell) Simon, 1901, *Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond.*, (2): 67.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 10♀♀ (J), Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Assam, Bihar, Goa, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mysore, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal; Bangladesh, Bhutan, Burma, Myanmar, Sri Lanka (Majumder & Tikader, 1991; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Majumder, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

Family 4: **Sparassidae** ® Bertkau

11. ***Olios tener*** ® (Thorell)

(Fig. 8)

Sparassus tener Thorell, 1891, *Kongl. Svenska Vet.-Acad. Handl.*, 24(2): 80.

Olios tener (Thorell) Gravely, 1931, *Rec. Indian Mus. Calcutta*, 33: 244.

Material examined: 1♀ (S), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Bihar, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal; Burma, Myanmar, Pakistan (Sethi & Tikader, 1988; WSC, 2017).

Family 5: **Thomisidae** Sundevall

12. ***Camaricus formosus*** [®] Thorell

(Fig. 9)

Camaricus formosus Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 25: 262.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Arunachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Orissa, West Bengal; Burma, China, Indonesia, Philippines, Sumatra (Tikader, 1980; Tikader & Biswas, 1981; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, 2004, 2006; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Majumder, 2005, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen et al., 2009b; WSC, 2017).

13. ***Thomisus andamanensis*** [®] [€] Tikader

(Fig. 10)

Thomisus andamanensis Tikader, 1980, *Fauna of India* (Araneae), 1: 39.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 2♀♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Andaman Island, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record) (Tikader, 1980; Roy, 2013; WSC).

Family 6: **Oxyopidae** Thorell

14. ***Oxyopes shweta*** Tikader

Oxyopes shweta Tikader, 1970, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 64: 78.

Material examined: 2♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 2♀♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Tripura, West Bengal; China (Tikader, 1970; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, 2004, 2006; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Majumder, 2005, 2007; Gajbe, 2008; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali et al. 2010b; WSC, 2017).

15. ***Oxyopes matiensis*** [®] Barrion & Litsinger

(Fig. 11)

Oxyopes matiensis Barrion & Litsinger, 1995, *Riceland Spiders of South and Southeast Asia*: 329. (Figs. 195a-h, 196a-g)

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 2♀♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Assam (New record), Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record); Philippines (Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Roy, 2013; WSC, 2017).

16. *Oxyopes kamalae* [®] [€] Gajbe
(Fig. 12)
Oxyopes kamalae Gajbe, 1999, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 97(3): 56.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record) (Gajbe, 2008; Roy, 2013; WSC, 2017).

17. *Oxyopes javanus* [®] Thorell
(Fig. 13)
Oxyopes javanus Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 25: 329.

Material examined: 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam (New record), Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Nicobar Island, West Bengal; Bangladesh, China to Java, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Sumatra, Thailand (Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrión & Litsinger, 1995; Majumder, 2005; Gajbe, 2008; Roy, 2013; WSC, 2017).

Family 7: **Pisauridae** [®] Simon

18. *Dendrolycosa* sp. nr. *gitae* [®] [€] (Tikader)
(Fig. 14)
Pisaura gitae Tikader, 1970, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 64: 59.
Dendrolycosa gitae (Tikader) Jäger, 2011, *Zootaxa*, 3046: 13.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 2♀♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Assam, Andaman Island, Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal (Tikader, 1970; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

Family 8: **Lycosidae** Sundevall

19. *Pardosa sumatrana* (Thorell)
Lycosa sumatrana Thorell, 1890, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 30: 136.
Pardosa sumatrana (Thorell) Hogg, 1919, *J. Fed. Malay St. Mus.*, 8(3): 100.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, West Bengal; Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Japan, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatrana (Tikader & Malhotra, 1980; Tikader & Biswas, 1981; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, 2004, 2006; Barrión & Litsinger, 1995; Gajbe, 2004; Majumder 2005, 2007; Saikia & Baruah, 2009; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2012; WSC, 2017).

20. *Pardosa birmanica* Simon

Pardosa birmanica Simon, 1884, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 20: 333.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 2♀♀, ATE, 29.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttaranchal, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal; Bangladesh, Burma, China, Indonesia, Java, Myanmar, Pakistan, Philippines, Sumatra (Tikader & Malhotra, 1980; Tikader & Biswas, 1981; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, 2004, 2006; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Gajbe, 2004; Majumder 2005, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2012; WSC, 2017).

21. *Lycosa shillongensis* [€] Tikader & Malhotra

Lycosa shillongensis Tikader & Malhotra, 1980, *Fauna of India* (Araneae), 1: 403.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, ATE, 29.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Manipur, Meghalaya, West Bengal (Tikader & Malhotra, 1980; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Dhali *et al.*, 2012; WSC, 2017).

Family 9: **Theridiidae** [®] Sundevall

22. *Argyrodes gazedes* [®] Tikader

(Fig. 15)

Argyrodes gazedes Tikader, 1970, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 64: 11.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal (New record); Krakatau, Myanmar to Japan (Tikader, 1970; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

23. *Chrysso urbasae* [®] [€] (Tikader)

(Fig. 16)

Linyphia urbasae Tikader, 1970, *Rec. zool. Surv. India*, 64(1-4): 19-20.

Chrysso urbasae (Tikader) Breitling, 2015, *Contributions to Natural History* 30: 1-7.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 7♀♀, ATE, 29.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal (Tikader, 1970; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Breitling, 2015; WSC, 2017).

24. *Theridion indicum* [®] [€] Tikader

(Fig. 17)

Theridion indicum Tikader, 1977, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 72: 168.

Material examined: 3♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 3♀♀ & 3♀♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 4♀♀ & 2♀♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 4♀♀ & 1♀ (J), Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal (Tikader, 1977; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Majumder, 2005, 2007; WSC, 2017).

25. *Achaeearanea budana* ^{® ε} Tikader
(Fig. 18)

Achaeearanea budana Tikader, 1970, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 64: 16.

Material examined: 1♀ (S), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀ (J), Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal (Tikader, 1970; WSC, 2017).

Family 10: **Linyphiidae** [®] Blackwall

26. *Nereine sundaica* [®] (Simon)
(Fig. 19)

Linyphia sundaica Simon, 1905, *Mitteilungen aus dem Naturhistorischen Museum in Hamburg* 22: 59.

Nereine sundaica (Simon) van Helsdingen, 1969, *Zoologische Verhandelingen* 105: 191.

Material examined: 3♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 3♀♀ & 1♂ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 2♀♀ & 1♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Kerala, Meghalaya; Java, Lombok (WSC, 2017)

Family 11: **Tetragnathidae** Menge

27. *Tetragnatha ceylonica* [®] O. P.- Cambridge
(Fig. 20)

Tetragnatha ceylonica O. P.-Cambridge, 1869, *J. Linn. Soc. Lond. (Zool.)*, 10: 394.

Material examined: 1♀, Sohra, 01.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Kerala, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Africa, Japan, New Britain, New Guinea, Seychelles to Philippines, Southeast Asia, Taiwan, Thailand (Okuma, 1988; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Sen *et al.*, 2009c; WSC, 2017).

28. *Tylorida nicobarensis* ^{® ε} (Tikader)
(Fig. 21)

Linyphia nicobarensis Tikader, 1977, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India*, 72: 166.

Tylorida nicobarensis (Tikader) Breitling, 2015, *Contributions to Natural History* 30: 5.

Material examined: 2♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 3♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Nicobar Islands, Meghalaya, West Bengal (New record) (Tikader, 1977; Roy, 2013; WSC, 2017).

29. *Leucauge celebesiana* (Walckenaer)

Tetragnatha celebesiana Walckenaer, 1841, *Histoire naturelle des Insectes. Aptères.*
Paris 2: 222.

Leucauge celebesiana (Walckenaer) Hogg, 1919, *J. Federated Malay States Museums*,
8(3): 89.

Material examined: 11♀♀ (J) & 3♂♂, Sohra, 01.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha

Distribution: India: Assam, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Sikkim, TamilNadu, West Bengal; India to China, Burma, Japan, Korea, Laos, New Guinea, Russia, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Vietnam (Tikader, 1970, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Sen *et al.*, 2009c; WSC, 2017).

30. *Leucauge decorata* (Blackwall)

Tetragnatha decorata Blackwall, 1864, *Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist.*, (3) 14: 44.

Leucauge decorata (Blackwall) Simon, 1906, *Ann. Soc. Ent. Fr.*, 75: 282.

Material examined: 1♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Orissa, Pondicherry, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal; Burma, Myanmar, Pakistan, Paleotropical, South and South east Asia, Sri Lanka, (Tikader, 1970, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Saikia & Baruah, 2009; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009c; WSC, 2017).

31. *Leucauge tessellata* (Thorell)

Callinethis tessellata Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. civ. stor. nat. Genova*, 25: 135.

Leucauge tessellata (Thorell) Gravely, 1921, *Rec. Ind. Mus., Calcutta*, 22(4): 455.

Material examined: 3♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Bhutan, China, Laos, Moluccas, Myanmar, Taiwan (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, '04, '06; Biswas *et. al.*, 1997; Majumder, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et. al.*, 2009c; WSC, 2017).

Family 12: **Nephilidae** Simon

32. *Nephila pilipes* (Fabricius)

Aranea maculata Fabricius, 1793, *Ent. Syst.*, 2: 425.

Nephila pilipes (Fabricius), Harvey, Austin & Adams, 2007, *Invertebr. Syst.*, 21: 422.

Material examined: 1♀ & 3♀♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal; China, Philippines to Australia (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992, '06; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

Family 13: **Araneidae** Clerck

33. *Gasteracantha diadesmia* Thorell

Gasteracantha diadesmia Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 25: 225.

Material examined: 2♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Assam, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Burma, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand (Tikader, 1970, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Saha *et al.*, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

34. *Gasteracantha kuhlii* C.L. Koch

Gasteracantha kuhlii C.L. Koch, 1837, *Die Arachniden*: 20.

Material examined: 4♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Assam, Bihar, Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Bhutan, Burma, Hongkong, Indo- Malaysia, Japan, Myanmar (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017)

35. *Gasteracantha hasseltii* ® C. L. Koch

(Fig. 22)

Gasteracantha hasselti C. L. Koch, 1837, *Die Arachniden*: 29.

Material examined: 2♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 2♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Kerala, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; China to Moluccas (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Majumder, 2007; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

36. *Argiope aemula* ® (Walckenaer)

(Fig. 23)

Epeira aemula Walckenaer, 1841, *Hist. Nat. des Ins. Aptères. Paris*, 2: 118.

Argiope aemula (Walckenaer) Thorell, 1877, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 10: 364.

Material examined: 2♂♂, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♂, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Andaman & Nicobar Island, Assam, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal; Burma, China, Indonesia, Indo and Austro- Malaysia, Myanmar, New Hebrides, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

37. *Argiope pulchella* Thorell

Argiope pulchella Thorell, 1881, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 17: 74.

Material examined: 2♀♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 2♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ & 3♀♀ (J), ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. S. Saha.

Distribution: India: Andaman & Laccadive Islands, Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Orissa, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal; Burma, Java, Malaya Peninsula, Myanmar, Pegu Moulmein (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017, 2017).

38. *Cyrtarachne inaequalis* [®] Thorell
(Fig. 24)

Cyrtarachne inaequalis Thorell, 1895, *Descriptive catalogue of the spiders of Burma.*
Lond.: 201.

Material examined: 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy;

Distribution: India: Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Burma, Japan (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Roy *et al.*, 2010; WSC, 2017).

39. *Eriovixia excelsa* [®] (Simon)
(Fig. 25)

Glyptogona excelsa Simon, 1889, *J. Asiat. Soc. Bengal*, 58: 337.
Eriovixia excelsa (Simon) Grasshoff, 1986, *Zool. Wetensch.*, 250: 118.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀ (J), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 2♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; China, Indonesia, Pakistan, Philippines, Taiwan (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

40. *Chorizopes quadrifurcata* [®] Roy, Sen, Saha & Raychaudhuri
(Fig. 26)

Chorizopes quadrifurcata Roy *et al.*, 2014, *Rom. J. Biol. – Zool.*, 59 (1): 3–9

Material examined: 1♀ (S), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Meghalaya, West Bengal (WSC, 2017)

41. *Acusilas coccineus* [®] Simon
(Fig. 27)

Acusilas coccineus Simon, 1895, *Hist. Nat. des Araign. Paris*, 1: 785.

Material examined: 1♀, ATE, 29.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal; China to Moluccas (Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Roy *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2017; WSC, 2017).

42. *Cyclosa krusa* [®] Barrion & Litsinger
(Fig. 28)

Cyclosa krusa Barrion & Litsinger, 1995, *Riceland Spiders of South and Southeast Asia*: 596.

Material examined: 1♂, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Meghalaya, West Bengal; Pakistan, Philippines (Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Mukhtar & Mushtaq, 2005; Raychaudhuri *et al.*, 2016; Saha *et al.*, 2016; WSC, 2017).

43. *Cyclosa moonduensis* [®] Tikader
(Fig. 29)

Cyclosa moonduensis Tikader, 1963, *J. Univ. Poona (Sci. Tech.)*, 24: 46.

Material examined: 1♂ (S), NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal (Tikader, 1982; Roy *et al.*, 2017; WSC, 2017).

44. *Cyclosa bifida* (Doleschall)

Epeira bifida Doleschall, 1859, *Acta Soc. Sci. Ind.-Neerl.*, 5: 38.

Cyclosa bifida (Doleschall) Simon, 1895, *Hist. Nat. des Araign. Paris*, 1: 779.

Material examined: 4♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 3♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 10♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. S. Saha

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Malaysia, New Guinea, Philippines, Sri Lanka (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

45. *Cyclosa mulmeinensis* ® (Thorell)

(Fig. 30)

Epeira mulmeinensis Thorell, 1887, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 25: 221.

Cyclosa mulmeinensis (Thorell) Simon, 1909, *Bull. Sci. Fr. Belg.*, 42: 104.

Material examined: 1♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Africa to Japan, Arabia, Burma, Malacca, Malaysia, Philippines, Taiwan (Tikader, 1982; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; WSC, 2017).

46. *Cyclosa quinqueguttata* ® (Thorell)

(Fig. 31)

Epeira quinque-guttata Thorell, 1881, *Ann. Mus. Civ. Stor. Nat. Genova*, 17: 113.

Cyclosa quinqueguttata (Thorell) Roberts, 1983, *Zool. J. Linn. Soc.*, 77: 261.

Material examined: 3♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 3♀♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri; 13♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Saha

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Bhutan, China, Myanmar, Taiwan (Tikader, 1982; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

47. *Cyclosa spirifera* ® Simon

(Fig. 32)

Cyclosa spirifera Simon, 1889, *J. Asiat. Soc. Bengal*, 58: 337.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 14♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Pakistan (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Hazarika &

Chakraborti, 1998; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

48. *Parawixia dehaani* ® (Doleschall)
(Fig. 33)

Epeira dehaanii Doleschall, 1859, *Acta Soc. Sci. Ind.-Neerl.*, 5: 33.
Parawixia dehaani (Doleschall) Tikader, 1982, *Fauna of India* (Araneae), 2: 212.

Material examined: 2♀♀ (J), BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Assam, Karnataka, Meghalaya, Sikkim, West Bengal; Burma, Indo & Austro- Malaysia, Japan, Java, New Guinea, Philippines, Polynesia, Sumatra (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

49. *Neoscona bengalensis* € Tikader & Bal

Neoscona bengalensis Tikader & Bal, 1981, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India, Occ. Pap.*, 24: 15.

Material examined: 1♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali

Distribution: India: Assam, Meghalaya, West Bengal (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Majumder, 2005; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

50. *Neoscona nautica* (L. Koch)

Epeira nautica L. Koch, 1875, *Aegyptische und abyssinische Arachniden gesammelt von Herrn C. Jickeli*. Nürnberg: 17.

Neoscona nautica (L. Koch) Petrunkevitch, 1930, *Trans. Connect. Acad. Arts Sci.*, 30: 320.

Material examined: 1♀, Sohra, 01.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Burma, North America, Pakistan, Philippines (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Saha & Raychaudhuri, 2004; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; WSC, 2017).

51. *Neoscona punctigera* ® (Doleschall)
(Fig. 34)

Epeira punctigera Doleschall, 1857, *Nat. Tijdschr. Neder.-Ind.*, 13: 420.
Neoscona punctigera (Doleschall) Roberts, 1983, *Zool. J. Linn. Soc.*, 77: 275.

Material examined: 1♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Assam, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Austro- Malaysia, China, Japan, Reunion, South New Guinea (Tikader, 1982; Roy *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2017; WSC, 2017).

52. *Neoscona yptinika* [®] Barrion & Litsinger

(Fig. 35)

Neoscona yptinika Barrion & Litsinger, 1995, *Riceland Spiders of South and Southeast Asia*: 620.

Material examined: 1♂, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Meghalaya, West Bengal; Philippines (Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Roy *et al.*, 2010; Sen *et al.*, 2011; WSC, 2017).

53. *Neoscona theisi* (Walckenaer)

Epeira theis Walckenaer, 1841, *Hist. Nat. des Ins. Aptères. Paris*, 2: 53.

Neoscona theisi (Walckenaer) F. O. P.-Cambridge, 1904, In *Biologia Centrali-Americanica, Zool. Lond.*, 2: 470.

Material examined: 2♀♀, BTE, 03.XI.2015, coll. S. Saha; 1♀, NWS, 02.XI.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 2♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. S. Sen; 1♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 1♀, Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 1♀, Sohra, 31.X.2015, coll. D. Raychaudhuri

Distribution: India: Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Orissa, West Bengal; China to Pacific Island, New Guinea (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009; Saikia & Baruah, 2009; WSC, 2017).

54. *Neoscona shillongensis* Tikader & Bal

Neoscona shillongensis Tikader & Bal, 1981, *Rec. Zool. Surv. India, Occasional Paper* 24: 34.

Material examined: 7♀♀, Sohra, 01.XI.2015, coll. T. K. Roy

Distribution: India: Meghalaya; China, Pakistan (Tikader, 1982; WSC, 2017).

55. *Araneus mitificus* [®] (Simon)

(Fig. 36)

Epeira mitifica Simon, 1886, *Act. Soc. Linn. Bord.*, 40: 150.

Araneus mitificus (Simon) Simon, 1909, *Bull. Sci. Fr. Belg.*, 42: 109.

Material examined: 10♀♀, ATE, 30.X.2015, coll. T. K. Roy; 3♀♀ (J), MTE, 28.X.2015, coll. D. C. Dhali; 3♀♀ (J), Umsning, 28.X.2015, coll. S. Sen

Distribution: India: Assam, Chhattisgarh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, West Bengal; Bangladesh, Burma, Hongkong, Malaysia, Myanmar, New Guinea, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam (Tikader, 1982; Biswas & Biswas, 1992; Barrion & Litsinger, 1995; Kundu & Raychaudhuri, 1997; Hazarika & Chakraborti, 1998; Majumder, 2007; Roy *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Sebastian & Peter, 2009; Sen *et al.*, 2009a; WSC, 2017).

DISCUSSION

In fine, total catch of spiders reveals 55 species belonging to 36 genera distributed over 13 families. A comparative account of the spider taxa recorded from different study area shows that diversity is maximum in Nongkhylem Wildlife Sanctuary, followed by Byrnihat Tea Estate, Anderson Tea Estate, Umsning, Meg Tea Estate and Sohra. Species diversity is maximum in Araneidae (23), followed by Salticidae (7), Tetragnathidae (5), Oxyopidae (4),

Theridiidae (4) and Lycosidae (3). Both Thomisidae and Uloboridae are represented by two species. Nephilidae, Linyphiidae, Pisauridae, Sparassidae and Eutichuridae are represented single species. Out of 55 species, 13 are endemic to India, thus exhibiting a high endemicity (23.6%). Based on this, the decreasing order of family is Uloboridae > Pisauridae > Theridiidae > Thomisidae > Lycosidae > Oxyopidae > Tetragnathidae > Salticidae > Araneidae. Analysis of zoogeographical distribution reveals that $\frac{1}{4}$ th and 1/6 th Palaearctic and Australian elements contribute in composition of the fauna.

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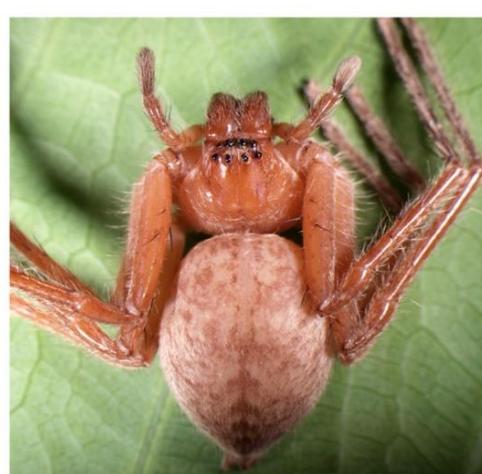
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Affirming Length of Body or Part/s and Weight There of as a Determinant of Capture Area of Spider Web

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ABSTRACT

A spider web is a device created by a spider out of proteinaceous silk extruded from its spinnerets, primarily to trap its prey. Among spiders, members of orb weavers (Families Araneidae, Nephilidae and Tetragnathidae) are unique for their webs of geometric precision. Web size and design may vary with the prey size, food availability and body dimensions. However, not all body dimensions are equally relevant to web design. Present study was conducted in the Happy Valley Tea Estate Darjeeling, West Bengal in order to affirm the query, does length of body or part/s and weight govern the capture area of spider web. Measures of the web structure were noted using a slide calipers. Equally several individuals of the orb weaving species that were taken into consideration were brought to the laboratory not only to measure the body/leg length under microscope but also for taxonomic evaluation. Present discourse is on the data generated during May –August, 2016. Our study was limited to the webs of *Neoscona rumpfi* (Thorell) (Araneidae) and *Leucauge decorata* (Blackwall) (Tetragnathidae). A total of 19 and 21 webs of the respective species were analyzed. Capture areas were calculated following Herberstein and Tso (2000). The result suggests that body length relates positively with the capture area of both the spider webs. However leg length, 4th leg plays a significant role in determining the capture area. Thus the present study once again confirms the fact that the capture area of spiders' web is largely dependent on the body dimensions. However it is also important to remember that capture area of a particular species depend on dimension of specific body part/parts.

Keywords: Capture area, orb web, Araneidae, Tetragnathidae

INTRODUCTION

Spider web is a device created by a spider by the proteinaceous silk extruded from its spinnerets, mainly for prey capture. The webs of spider can be of different types like orb web, tangle or cob web, funnel web and tubular web. The orb web spiders mainly belong to the family Araneidae, Nephilidae and Tetragnathidae. Orb webs are more appropriately distinguished from other types of spider webs by their round, 'wagon wheel'-shaped architecture. Orb –Weaving spiders are excellent models for studying various questions in behavior and ecology. By measuring the architectural features of the web many aspect of

spider behavior can be compared. In nature organisms compete for food and space. The orb web spiders usually do not compete for food (Wise, 1993), as different species use different predatory strategies (Henaut *et. al.*, 2006). One such strategy to reduce competition is construction of webs for prey capture.

The webs of orb-web weaving spiders shows great variations in their designs, on which depends the prey capturing specificity (Eberhard, 1986). Orb web design may vary both intra and inter specifically in response to prey size , food availability, web site etc. (Sandoval, 1994).

The web design (capture area) can relate to various measures of the body size like body length (Waldorf, 1976), carapace width (Olive, 1980), leg length and spider weight (Eberhard, 1988). However there are other studies which failed to find any such relationship (Leborgne & Pasquet 1987). Similarly, not all body dimensions may be equally relevant to web design.

The present study was aimed to understand the correlation of the body dimensions, weight of orb web spider with the capture area of their webs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area:

For this study specimens were collected from Happy Valley Tea Estate (Fig.1). Happy Valley Tea Estate is a tea garden in Darjeeling, West Bengal, India. Established in 1854, it is Darjeeling's second oldest tea estate. Spread over 437-acre, it is situated (27.0514° N, 88.2586° E) at a height of 2,100 m above sea level. The bushes in the garden are very old — the minimum age is 80 years, and some are 150 years old. Very little re-plantation has been done in the recent past.. Present discourse is on the data generated during May –August, 2016.

Web characteristics and calculation of capture area of web :

Only the webs of adult individuals were used for the study. Before recording the web data, each web was sprayed with flour to improve the resolution. The measurements of the web structure were done using slide calipers and scale and noted in the field note book. Capture areas were calculated following Herberstein and Tso (2000).

$$\text{Capture area: } [\frac{1}{2}\pi r_{au}^2 - \frac{1}{2}\pi(Hr_u)^2] + [\frac{1}{2}\pi r_{al}^2 - \frac{1}{2}\pi(Hr_l)^2]^*$$

$$* r_{au} = (r_u + d_h/2)/2 \text{ and } r_{al} = (r_l + d_h/2)/2.$$

The specimens were studied under Stereo Binocular Microscopes (Olympus SZX7) and identification was done following standard literatures.

Collection and identification of spider samples

Spiders were collected by hand picking or by holding the tube close to the webs from their respective webs as described earlier (Sen, *et. al.* 2010). The collected specimens are killed and preserved in 70% alcohol in a number of plastic tubes, each with a definite sample number. The measurements of body parts like body length, leg length, carapace width, abdomen length were taken (in mm) and the wet weight was also estimated (in mg).

Statistical analysis

The relationships of all body size measures (carapace width, body length, abdomen length, leg length) and wet weight to capture area of those webs were calculated using Pearson Correlations. Students t test was performed to check the level of significance.

RESULTS

For the study a total of 40 webs were taken into consideration. Out of these 19 were of *Neoscona rumpfi* (Thorell) (Araneidae) and 21 were of *Leucauge decorata* (Blackwall) (Tetragnathidae) (Fig. 3). The body length , leg length (4th leg), abdomen length, carapace width and wet weight were measured and the correlation with the capture area was checked. The measurements of *N. rumpfi* and *L. decorata* are given in Tables 1and 2 respectively. The correlation between the body length, leg length (4th leg), abdomen length, carapace width and wet weight and capture area were calculated (Figs 4 and 5)

Our result shows that the mean capture area of the studied *N. rumpfi* were 853.6 ± 186 cm² . The capture area shows correlation with body length, leg length, abdomen length, carapace width and wet weight. The calculated correlation coefficient were 0.39, 0.52, 0.22, 0.497, 0.244 respectively (Table 3). However the correlation was statistically significant only in case of leg length (0.0189) and carapace width (0.0288). This indicate that at least for the population of *N. rumpfi* studied, the capture area shows a significantly positive correlation with leg length and carapace width.

In case of *Leucauge decorata* the mean of capture area of the studied webs was less than that of *N. rumpfi* that is 476.7 ± 45.56 . The correlation coefficient of capture area to body length, leg length, abdomen length, carapace width and wet weight was respectively 0.45, 0.46, 0.45, 0.43 and 0.33. Out of all the parameters used capture area showed significant positive correlation with body length (0.04), leg length (0.028), abdomen length (0.037) and carapace width (0.049). However the correlation between capture area and wet weight was not significant statistically (Table. 3).

DISCUSSION

The web design in adult spiders related differently with the various body size measures. Our study was to affirm the query whether the lengths of body parts, weight correlates with the capture area of the spider web.

Our result shows that for *Neoscona rumpfi* the leg length and carapace width are significantly correlated with capture area. The capture area is positively correlated with leg length and carapace width. However body length, abdomen length and wet weight were not significantly correlated with the capture area of the spider. Interestingly Heiling and Herberstein (1998) also reported that *Nuctenea sclopetaria* (Araneae, Araneidae) also show the positive correlation between carapace width and capture area. They didn't find any correction between leg length and capture area. This indicates that even within the same family of spiders the capture area of the web of different species correlates differently to different body parameters.

Like *Neoscona rumpfi*, *L. decorata* also show significant positive correlation with leg length and carapace width and there was no correlation between capture area and wet weight. However in case of *L. decorata* unlike the *N. rumpfi* the correlation between capture area and body length, abdomen length was also statistically significant. Our result corroborate a with the report by Tahir *et. al.*, 2010 on *L. decorata* where the authors report a positive correlation between capture area and carapace width.

It has been previously shown that the capture area only increases with carapace width (Olive, 1980; Murakami 1983). In our present study we found the capture area is not only dependent on carapace width but also leg length and other body parameters. It will probably be correct to postulate that the body parameter that determines the capture area is specific for each species of orb web spider. A more detailed study with different species of spiders will enlighten this aspect.

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Figure 1. Happy Valley tea estate.

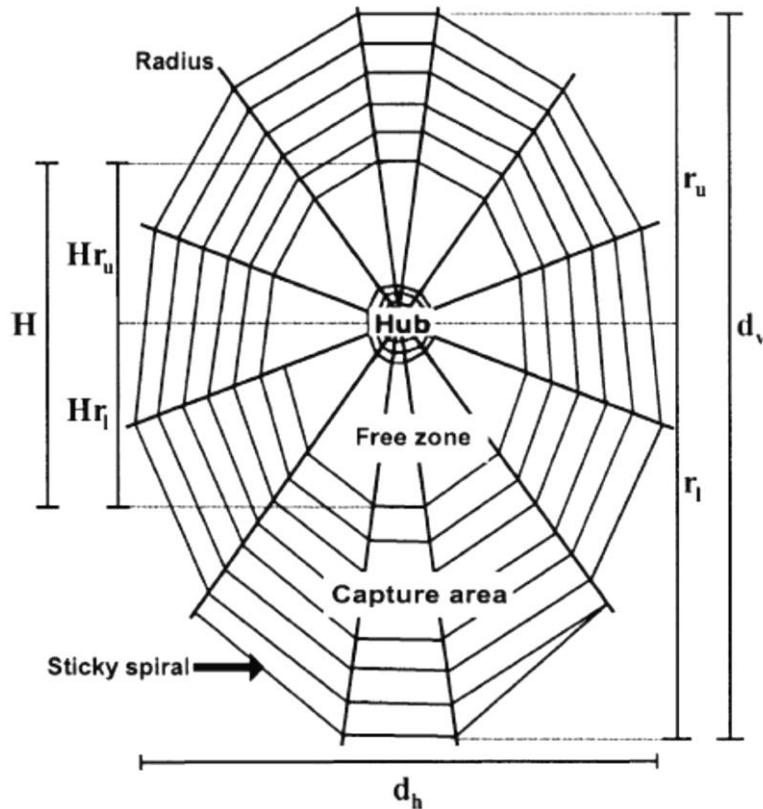


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of orb web, showing different measuring parameter.
(after Herberstein and Tso (2000))

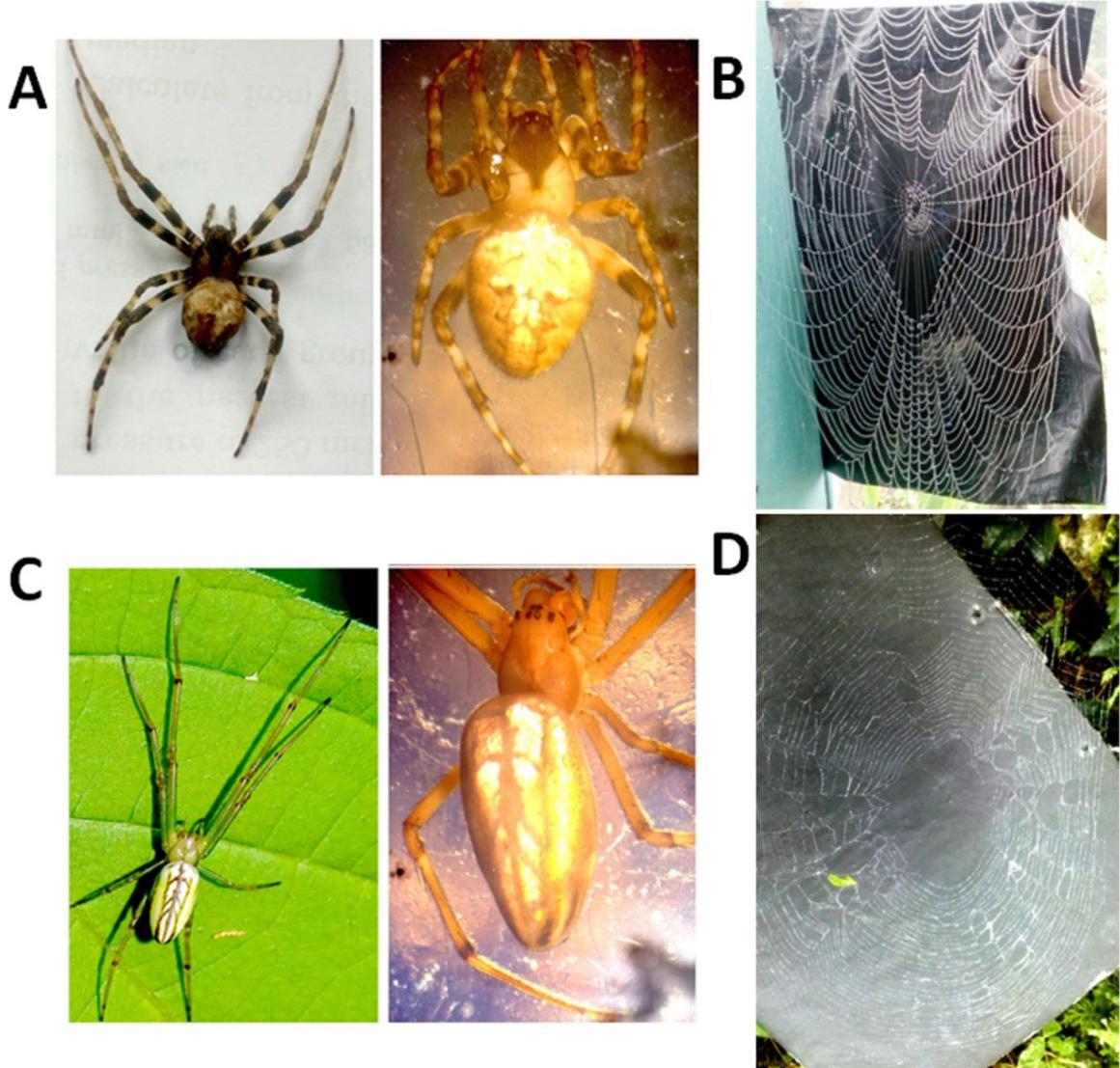


Figure 3. A. *Neoscona rumpfi* B. Web of *N.rumpfi* C. *Leucauge decorata* D. Web of *L. decorata*

Table 1. Web parameters, wody dimension, weight and capture area of *Neoscona rumpfi*

Specimen no.	Hr _u (Cm)	Hr _l (Cm)	r _u (Cm)	r _l (Cm)	d _h (Cm)	Body length (Cm)	Leg Length (Cm)	Abdomen length (Cm)	Carapace width (Cm)	wet weight (Gm)	Capture area (Cm ²)
1	5	4.3	18	18.7	34.2	1	2.9	1	0.5	0.506	917.39
2	3.1	3.2	11.9	11.8	21.4	0.8	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.138	366.98
3	1.8	3.5	8.6	13.5	18	0.81	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.157	290.22
4	3.5	7	23	32	44	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.074	1813.15
5	1.8	2.1	5.8	6.5	9	0.6	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.021	74.96
6	2	6.8	23	33	40	0.8	1.7	0.5	0.5	0.088	1697.61
7	6	10	23	34	40	0.8	1.5	0.55	0.3	0.158	1588.84
8	3	4	8.5	13.5	19	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.02	289.67
9	5.8	9.6	18.2	32.2	35.9	1.4	2.1	0.9	0.6	0.365	1234.18
10	1.4	1.8	3.3	6	7.4	0.6	0.8	0.35	0.15	0.019	45.99
11	1.9	3.8	9.4	15.6	16.5	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.03	298.31
12	4	6.8	15.9	19.1	26.8	1.6	2.2	0.6	0.3	0.245	644.77
13	1.7	3.6	9.3	11	15.7	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.15	0.024	228.14
14	1.5	3.5	9.6	14	19	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.025	332.37
15	2	3	11.5	12	16	0.65	0.85	0.5	0.15	0.026	275.54
16	2.5	5	22	27	33	0.8	0.99	0.3	0.2	0.046	1225.19
17	4.4	7.4	25	36.2	70.6	1.1	2	0.5	0.5	0.138	3282.46
18	2	4	13.5	21	24	0.55	0.9	0.3	0.15	0.034	621.72
19	3	6	17	25	32	0.75	0.9	0.5	0.15	0.045	991.46
Mean ± SEM						0.82 ± 0.06	1.30 ± 0.14	0.5 ± 0.04	0.297 ± 0.035	0.114 ± 0.03	853.62 ± 186.5

Table 2. Web parameters, body dimension, weight and capture area of *Leucauge decorata*

Specimen no.	Hr _u (Cm)	Hr _l (Cm)	r _u (Cm)	r _l (Cm)	d _h (Cm)	Body length (Cm)	Leg Length (Cm)	Abdomen length (Cm)	Carapace width (Cm)	Wet weight (Gm)	Capture area (Cm ²)
1	2.6	4.12	6.3	14.2	13.3	0.13	1.2	0.5	0.15	0.017	179
2	2.1	3.9	10.7	12.1	28.6	0.8	1.7	0.6	0.2	0.094	484
3	2.4	3.7	11.2	13.9	23	0.8	1.6	0.4	0.2	0.041	424
4	2.6	3.4	15.5	13.9	25.7	0.9	2	0.6	0.2	0.085	565
5	1.9	2	13.9	19.5	25	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.15	0.012	644
6	2.5	4.3	16.5	27.6	33.7	1	2.2	0.6	0.3	0.074	1130
7	2.5	3.2	11.3	12.9	26	0.9	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.058	468
8	2.9	4.1	13	17.3	25.6	0.9	1.6	0.6	0.2	0.075	570
9	2.1	2.3	8.4	10.2	16.9	0.8	1.4	0.5	0.2	0.055	232
10	2.8	2.3	17.8	9.8	30	1	1.5	0.5	0.2	0.045	630
11	2.4	2.9	10.2	15.7	28.4	0.9	1.7	0.7	1.5	0.06	555
12	3.2	3	10.5	11	25	0.9	1.6	0.5	2.5	0.033	392
13	2	3.5	15.5	11.8	26	0.7	1.5	0.6	0.2	0.068	533
14	2.3	3.6	6.4	8.4	20.4	0.8	1.6	0.5	0.1	0.044	210
15	1.9	3	9	12	23.9	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.15	0.049	375
16	2.5	2.7	8.8	8.8	20.2	0.9	1.6	0.5	0.2	0.05	258
17	2.7	3.6	10.1	14.5	23.3	0.7	1.4	0.5	1.5	0.046	419
18	2.5	2.4	8.5	19	29.5	0.9	1.6	0.5	0.1	0.022	618
19	2.4	3	9	10.4	21.5	0.7	1.5	0.5	0.2	0.048	305
20	3	2.9	12	10.8	23	0.6	1.5	0.5	0.2	0.026	384
21	1.9	1.9	7.2	12.3	21.9	0.9	1.9	0.3	0.15	0.02	324
Mean ± SEM						0.791± 0.04	1.57± 0.05	0.54± 0.02	0.42± 0.13	0.048± 0.004	461.79± 45.6

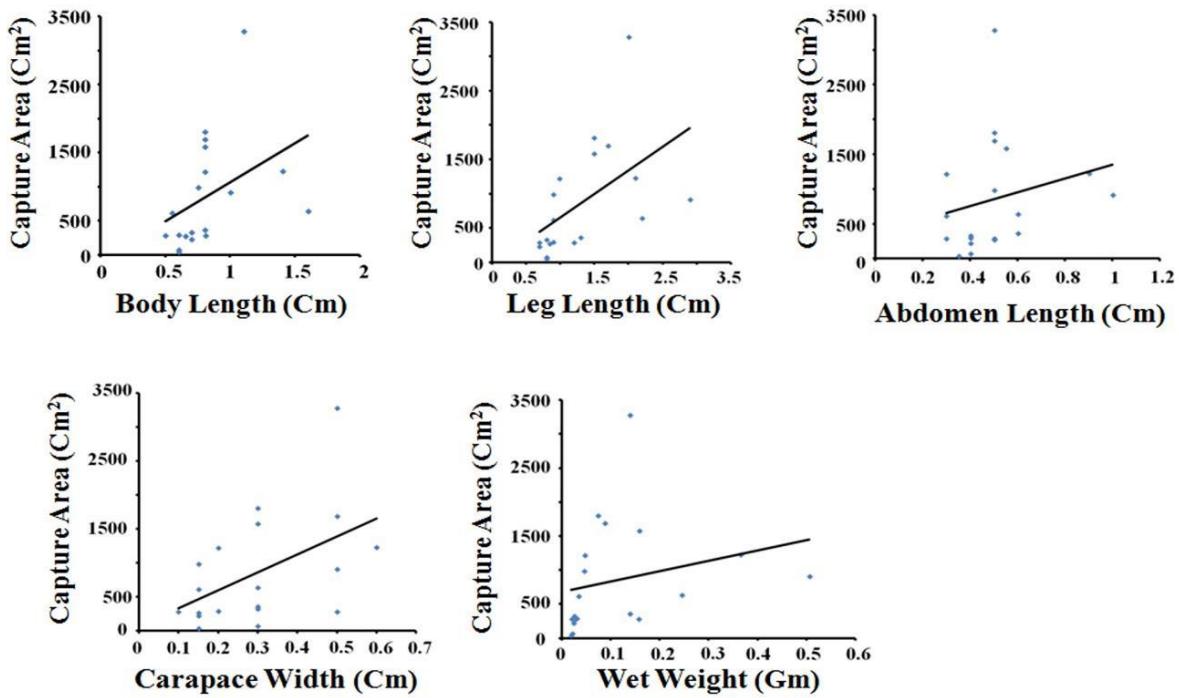


Figure 4. Graph showing correlation between body length, leg length, abdomen length, carapace width, wet weight and capture area of web of *Neoscona rumpfi*

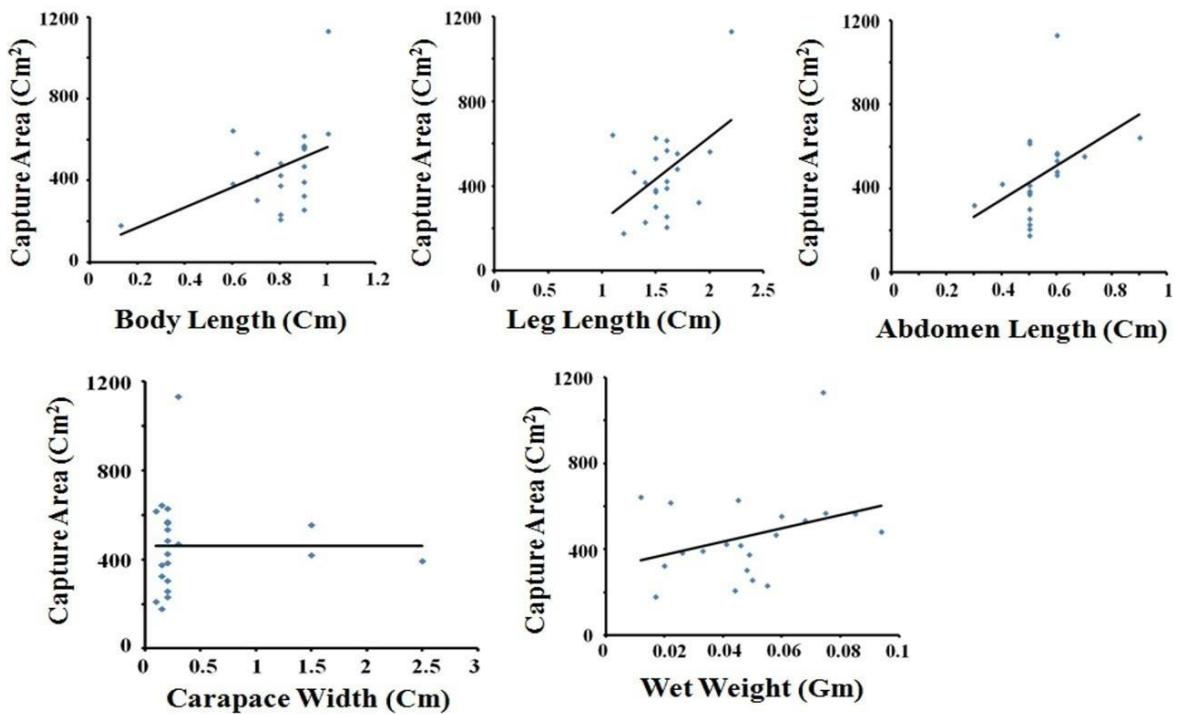


Figure 5. Graph showing correlation between body length, leg length, abdomen length, carapace width, wet weight and capture area of web of *Leucauge decorata*.

Table 3. Comparative account of r and p values.
[* denote statistical significance]

	Correlation between Body length and Capture area		Correlation between Leg length and Capture area		Correlation between Abdomen Length and Capture area		Correlation between Carapace width and Capture area		Correlation between Wet weight and Capture area	
	r value	p value	r value	p value	r value	p value	r value	p value	r value	p value
<i>Neoscona rumpfi</i>	0.39	0.09	0.53	0.018*	0.22	0.35	0.49	0.02*	0.244	0.31
<i>Leucauge decorata</i>	0.45	0.04*	0.48	0.02*	0.45	0.03*	0.43	0.04*	0.33	0.138

Araneidae: A Remarkable Orb-weaving Group in the Rice Land Ecosystem of South 24 - Parganas, West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

As a potential predator the importance of spiders, especially dwelling in rice land, needs to be properly addressed. Till date the information gathered in this field is insufficient. Due to various reasons, members of the family Araneidae Clerck, 1757, exhibit striking variability particularly in Gangetic delta. After sampling for two years, it is found that, *Neoscona theisi* (Walckenaer, 1841) is the most dominant group in the fields of South 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India, amongst araneids and their average sex ratio increases during kharif session due to multiple environmental factors including reproductive strategies.

Keywords: Orb-weavers, Araneidae, Rice Land, South 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India

INTRODUCTION

Spiders inhabiting rice land ecosystem necessarily demand serious consideration because of their fascinating adaptability and remarkable predatory efficiency (Nyffeler & Benz, 1987). In India, their role as a proficient bio-control agent is yet to be evaluated.(Sebastian & Chacko, 1994). Interestingly, the coastal ecosystem in the Gangetic Delta at the southern part of West Bengal, India, exhibits a wide variety of predatory spider population because of climatic fluctuation, soil quality and several other factors. Orb-weaving spiders appear to be of special importance in this context, as much more is entrapped than their actual consumption volume.

The present study is aimed at unfolding the diversity of the family Araneidae Clerck, 1757, the remarkably predominant group amongst many other orb-weavers found in rice fields of South 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India. As a result of a two-year sampling, from February 2014 to February 2016, it is found that spiders belonging to the families Tetragnathidae Menge, 1866 and Araneidae Clerck, 1757, (or typical orb-weaving spiders) are predominant. Considering richness and distribution, tetragnathids come before araneids and it is just the reverse when the species diversity is concerned. It is worthwhile to mention that Basu & Raychaudhuri, 2016 have elaborately dealt with the tetragnathids of the said ecosystem.

Being never on the ground, most of the araneids construct webs in the foliage, either high upon the trees or in shrubs, herbs or grass, with considerable geometrical precision and beauty. Many of them build a nest like retreat by folding a leaf or bunch of leaves which is little away from the web but directly connected with the web-centre by threads. Generally the

male araneids are much smaller than females and are not commonly found in the webs unlike females (Tikader, 1982 & Barrion *et.al.*, 1995).

Out of the 16 araneid species under 7 genera so far recorded from the study site, interestingly, the members of the genus *Neoscona* Simon, 1864, is found to be the dominant group. Altogether, 6 discrete species of the genus are observed to be rotated through the two cropping sessions of paddy, of which, *N. theisi* (Walckenaer, 1841) is identified as the predominant member. Moreover, in terms of abundance, three genera, *Eriovixia* Archer, 1951, *Argiope* Audouin, 1826 and *Cyrtophora* Simon, 1864, come immediately after. In spite of varying environmental condition in the Gangetic delta, these four genera also exhibit a wide range of distribution. However, *Larinia* Simon, 1874 and *Gasteracantha* Sundevall, 1833, are considered as rare. Further, almost for all the genera, sex ratio increases typically during kharif session.

Study area:

South 24 Parganas (22.1352° N, 88.4016° E), a district of West Bengal, is located near the confluence of the river Ganges sharing a considerable part of the largest delta of the world. From 6 different blocks, 7 discrete areas are selected as sites for sampling. Fields in different locations are identified in such a manner so that they can provide a pen-picture of the faunal diversity of spiders of the district as a whole. Of them, 3 study areas are located at 3 different regions of Sundarbans where due to the proximity of Bay of Bengal, salinity and nutrient structure of soil vary to a considerable extent affecting the growth and distribution pattern of the agro-ecosystems. The study areas are as follows – 1. Narendrapur [NPUR] (Block-Sonarpur) (22.4391° N and 88.3968° E), 2. Arapanch[ARPH] (Block - Sonarpur) (22.4491° N and 88.3915° E), 3. Sarisha [SRSH] (Block - Diamond Harbour) (22.1987° N and 88.2023° E), 4. Manasadwip [MSDP] (Block - Sagar) (21.753° N and 88.106° E.), 5. Nimpith [NMPT] (Block - Jaynagar II) (22.1772° N and 88.4258° E), 6. Kakdwip [KKDP] (Block – Kakdwip) (21.8760° N and 88.1853° E), 7. Gosaba [GSBA] (Block - Gosaba) (22.1652° N and 88.8079° E) (for further details see Basu & Raychaudhuri, 2016).

Time of study :

Field visits were carried out in every month of any calendar year during the crop seasons. It was continued for two consecutive years, February 2014 to February 2016. The annual rainfall (average) in the district was 1796 mm. Temperature in the study areas varied from 10° C to 35° C during the course of study.

MATERIALS & METHODS

For collection of spiders, sweep nets, bush beating and collection in inverted umbrella, hand picking techniques were used. Several pit fall traps were laid in the collection localities to trap ground dwelling spiders. Samples after collection [collector: D. Basu] were preserved in 70% alcohol and later transferred to glass vials filled with Audman's fixative. Necessary labels were used to mark each of the samples. Data regarding locality, date of collection, collector's name were noted in a note book in the field itself. The samples were then studied under Stereo zoom Binocular Microscopes Olympus SZX 10 and SZX 16.

Deposition :

All materials are in the collection of Department of Agricultural Biotechnology, IRDM Faculty Centre, RKM Vivekananda University, Narendrapur.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total number of 557 araneid individuals distributed over 16 species under 7 genera is recorded of which 6 species belong to the genus *Neoscona* Simon, 1864. Genus *Eriovixia* Archer, 1951, contains 3 species while genera *Cyrtophora* Simon, 1864 & *Argiope* Audouin, 1826, have 2 species each. Rest 3 genera i.e. *Areneus* Clerck, 1757, *Larinia* Simon, 1874 and *Gasteracantha* Sundevall, 1833, have single species in each (vide Table 1, Plate 1 & Figure 1). Maximum number i.e. 7 araneid species are found from Narendrapur area and diversity wise Nimpith area is lowest (Figure 2). Moreover, Narendrapur also includes maximum of number of rare species (Figure 4). It is also evident that *Neoscona theisi* (Walckenaer, 1841) is the most dominant group amongst all araneids present in the rice land (Figure 3).

It is found that almost for all the genera, sex ratio increases typically during kharif session (October) while the number of male considerably reduces during Februray-March. In rabi session, the sex ratio in totality (male: female) is calculated as 1:32 which increases upto 1:7 during late monsoon. The possible reason may be the consumption of males by female individuals immediately after mating to fulfill the protein demand in their bodies; the presence of humidity in the environment and the upsurge of pests including other insects in agroecosystems at post rainy season (Figure 5).

Table 1. Details of the araneid taxa recorded

Family	Genus	Species
Araneidae, Clerck, 1757	(i) <i>Neoscona</i> Simon, 1864	(1) <i>theisi</i> (Walckenaer, 1841)
		(2) <i>punctigera</i> (Doleschall, 1857)
		(3) <i>bengalensis</i> Tikader & Bal, 1981
		(4) <i>yptinica</i> Barrion & Litsinger, 1995
		(5) <i>nautica</i> (L. Koch, 1875)
		(6) <i>vigilans</i> (Blackwall, 1865)
	(ii) <i>Eriovixia</i> Archer, 1951	(7) <i>excelsa</i> (Simon, 1889)
		(8) <i>poonaensis</i> (Tikader & Bal, 1981)
		(9) <i>laglaizei</i> (Simon, 1877)
	(iii) <i>Areneus</i> Clerck, 1757	(10) <i>ellipticus</i> (Tikader & Bal, 1981)
	(iv) <i>Larinia</i> Simon, 1874	(11) <i>phthisica</i> (L. Koch, 1871)
	(v) <i>Cyrtophora</i> Simon, 1864	(12) <i>cicatrosa</i> (Stoliczka, 1869)
		(13) <i>moluccensis</i> (Doleschall, 1857)
	(vi) <i>Gasteracantha</i> , Sundevall, 1833	(14) <i>kuhlui</i> C. L. Koch, 1837
	(vii) <i>Argiope</i> Audouin, 1826	(15) <i>pulchella</i> (Thorell, 1881)
		(16) <i>catenulata</i> (Doleschall, 1859)

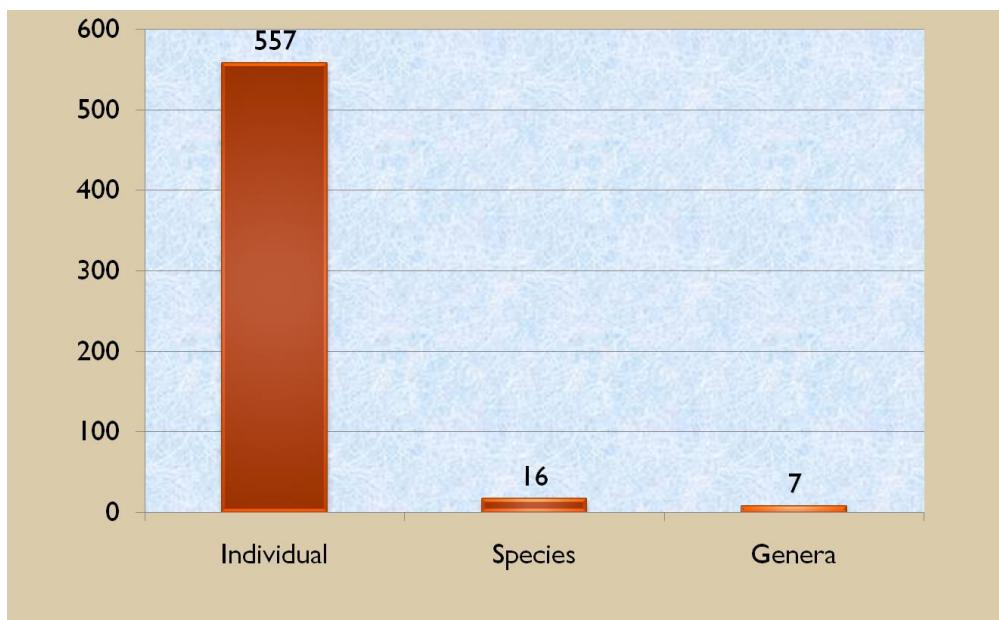


Fig. 1. Critical appraisal of the data showing total no. of araneid spiders Recorded from rice lands of South 24 Parganas

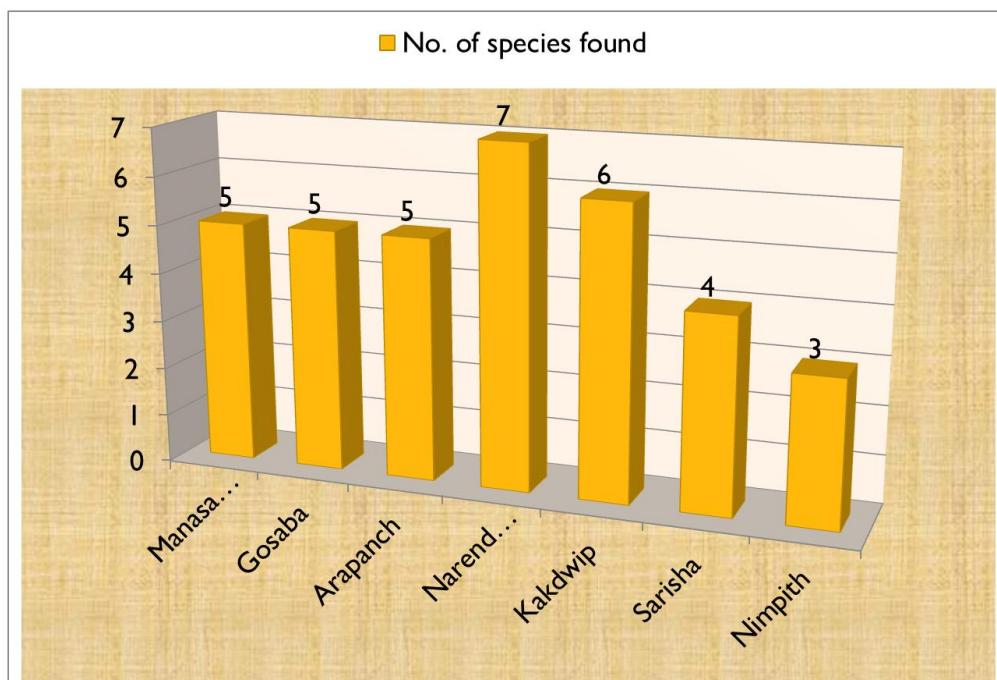


Fig. 2. Showing total no of species recorded from each study site

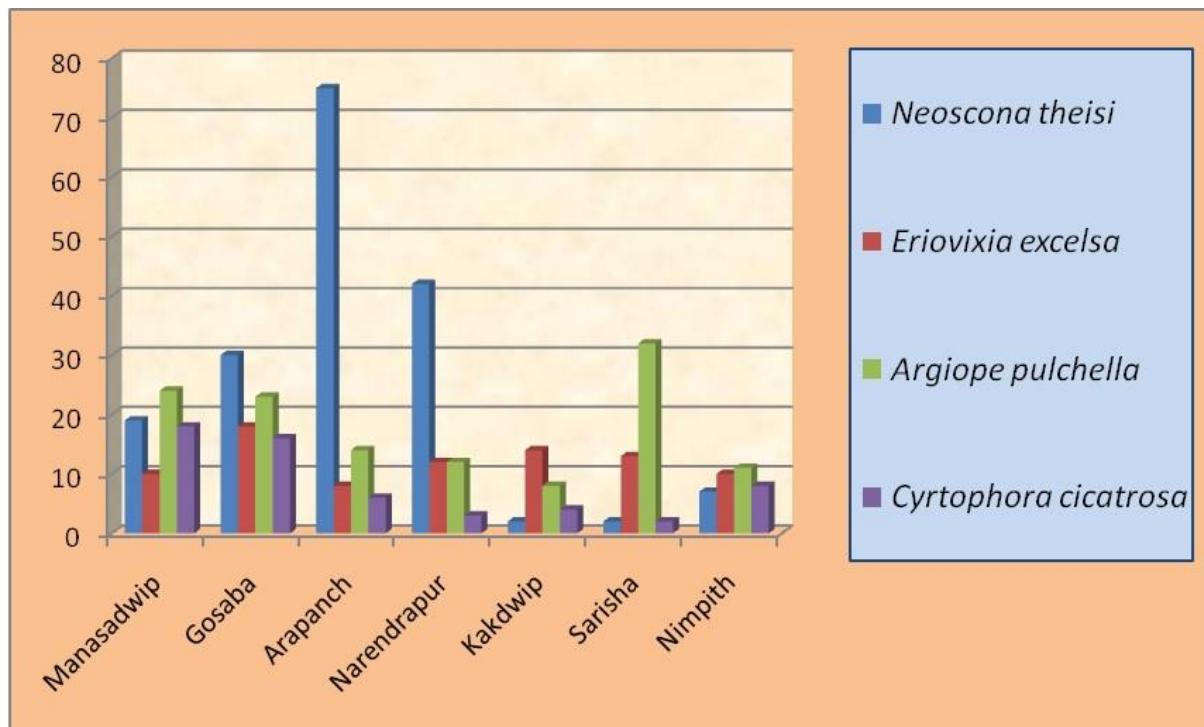


Fig. 3. Showing dominant species in the study sites

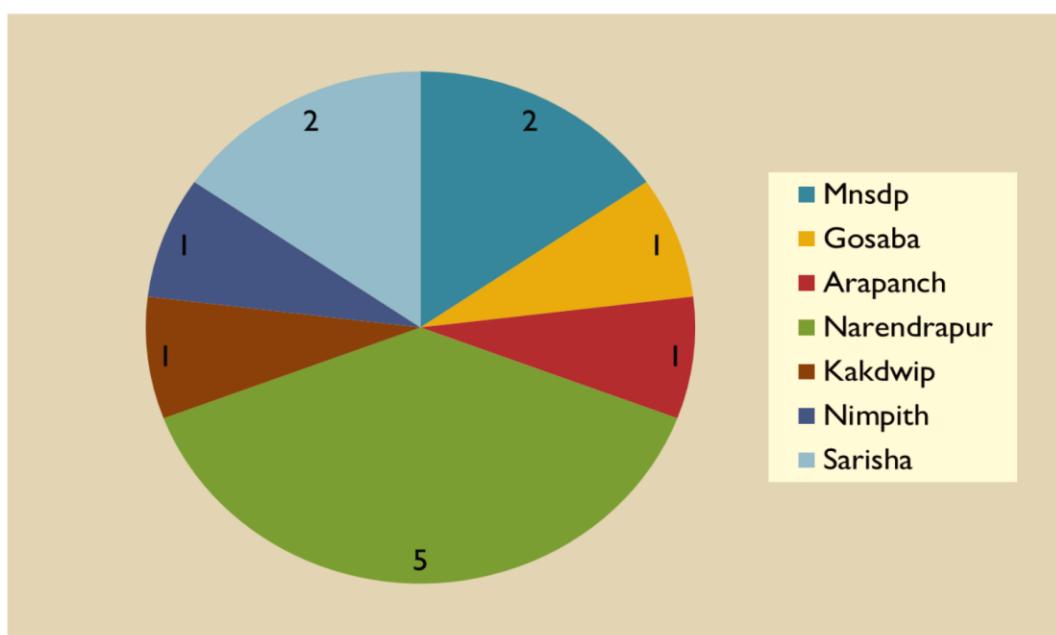


Fig. 4. Showing no of rare species in each of the study site



Fig. 5. Showing the ratio of male & female araneids in 2 cropping sessions

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Plate 1. Representatives of Orb-weaving genera recorded



Neoscona nautica (L. Koch)



Eriovixia excelsa (Simon)



Cyrtophora cicatrosa (Stoliczka)



Gasteracantha kuhii C. L. Koch



Argiope catenulata (Doleschall)



Araneus ellipticus (Tikader & Bal)



Larinia phthisica (L. Koch)

A Preliminary Report on Diversity of Mites (Acari) in Different Plants from Campus of Barasat Government College, West Bengal

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ABSTRACT

The present paper reports the occurrence of phytophagous and predatory mites from the campus of Barasat Govt. College, Dist. North 24 Parganas, West Bengal. A total of 38 species under 25 genera, 11 families and 2 orders are listed. Among which included 4 species of phytophagous mites under 3 genera, 2 families and 33 species of predatory mites under 21 genera and 8 families. This also includes one fungus feeding mite species, *Acarus* sp. of the family Acaridae. Hosts/habitats/economic importance of the listed species are also provided.

Keywords: Phytophagous mites, Predatory mites, Fungivorous mite, Economic importance
Barasat Government College Campus, West Bengal

INTRODUCTION

Mites and insects are most important and significant pests of agri-horticultural crops causing serious damages and crop losses. Though insect pests have received adequate attention in India but unfortunately mites have remained neglected probably due to their microscopic size and nature of exploiting concealed niches within plants. Information regarding phytophagous and predatory mites from India was given by Gupta (1985; 1992, 2012). Barasat Govt. College campus which is situated in North 24 Parganas, very rich with diverse array of vegetation, was found to have been infested with various types of mites. Since no survey was conducted earlier on mites occurring on different vegetation of the college campus, it was thought necessary to undertake a preliminary survey of the plants for occurrence of mites and to document those for the first time from this campus.

MATERIAL & METHODS

Collection of mites was made from diverse types of plants present within the campus of Barasat Govt. College during July- October, 2016. Leaves of different types of plants collected from campus were examined under stereo-binocular microscope (MSZ-TR70T0842) and mites were collected with fine brush moistened with alcohol and preserved in 70% ethanol. Samples after mounting in Hoyer's medium followed by gentle heating for proper stretching of appendages, were examined under stereo-research microscope (OLYMPUS CH-20iTr). Mites were identified following the literature of Gupta (2002, 2003).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identified mites are listed in Table 1 along with their hosts, habitats, and economic importance, if any. Altogether 38 species, under 11 families, 25 genera and 2 orders could be

recorded. This includes mites of both phytophagous and predatory groups. The former is represented by 4 species, under 3 genera and 2 families and the latter by 33 species, under 21 genera and 8 families. In addition, there is one fungivorous mite species, *Acarus* sp.. Among the phytophagous mites, the dominant species are *Tenuipalpus leptadinae* and *Brevipalpus deleoni* of the family Tenuipalpidae. It may be mentioned here that *Tenuipalpus leptadinae* was so far unknown from West Bengal. The predatory group is represented by four dominant species under Phytoseiidae viz. *Amblyseius largoensis*, *Phytoseius kapuri*, *Phytoseius minutus* and *Typhlodromus homalii*.

As far as their economic importance is concerned, *Brevipalpus deleoni* is found to cause brownish patches on Basak leaves, especially towards the margin and hundreds of mites could be seen on a single leaf. The mite was found to be readily fed by *Amblyseius largoensis*, the dominating predatory mite. The infested jarul (*Lagestroemia speciosa*) leaves when examined under microscope, *Euseius ovalis* was found actively feeding on *Eutetranychus maxima*. *Tenuipalpus leptadinae* is found to cause severe chlorosis on jarul and tulsi leaves.

This preliminary report indicates more abundance of predatory mites mostly of Phytoseiidae as compared to phytophagous ones. This is evident from the fact that predatory mites are represented by 33 species compared to only 4 species of phytophagous mites. Hence, the abundance and generic diversity is more among predatory mites than that of the phytophagous mites.

Since, this is a preliminary study conducted for a short duration, the observations presented here need not be considered as final result and for that more intensive study is needed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Table 1. List of mites collected from the campus of Barasat Govt. College during July, 2016 - October, 2016

Sl. No.	Order/Family/Genus/Species	Host & Habitat	Remarks
1.	A. PHYTOPHAGOUS GROUP ORDER I : PROSTIGMATA FAMILY 1 : Tenuipalpidae <i>Brevipalpus deleoni</i> (Pritchard & Baker) <i>Tenuipalpus leptadeniae mohansundaram</i> FA MILY 2 :Tetranychidae <i>Eutetranychus maxima</i> (Nassar & Ghai) <i>Eutetranychus orientalis</i> (Klein)	Jarul and Basak leaf. Jarul, Basak and Tulsi leaf. Mussaenda and Basak leaf Jarul and Basak leaf.	Produced brownish spot at points of feeding. Produced chlorosis of leaves, huge population earlier unreported from West Bengal. New record from West Bengal, poor population. Huge population on Jarul and Basak form new record.
5.	B. PREDATORY GROUP FAMILY 3 : Bdellidae <i>Bdella</i> sp.	Jarul and tekoma leaf.	Poor population, new habitat recorded.
6.	<i>Cyta</i> sp.	Kath-Tagar leaf.	Poor population, new habitat recorded.
7.	FAMILY 4 : Cheyletidae <i>Bak</i> sp.	Mussaenda leaf.	Interesting species, genus earlier unknown from West Bengal.
8.	<i>Chelacarosis</i> sp.	Mango leaf.	New genus record from West Bengal.
9.	<i>Hemicheyletia bakeri</i> (Ehara)	Arjun and Champak leaf.	New habitat recorded.
10.	FAMILY 5 : Cunaxidae <i>Cunaxa capreolus</i> (Berlese)	Jarul and Mussaenda leaf.	New habitat recorded.
11.	<i>Cunaxa cynodonae</i> (Gupta)	Jarul and Mussaenda leaf.	New habitat recorded.
12.	<i>Cunaxa mangiferae</i> (Gupta)	Mango leaf.	
13.	<i>Cunaxa setirostris</i> (Hermann)	Kath-Tagar leaf.	Very good predator of Tenuipalpid mites.
14.	<i>Cunaxoides croceus</i> (Koch)	Shiuli leaf.	New habitat recorded, rare occurrence.
15.	<i>Dactyloscirrus machairodus</i> (Oudemans)	Jarul and Arjun leaf.	New habitat recorded, rare occurrence.
16.	FAMILY 6 : Raphignathidae <i>Exothoris</i> sp.	Mango and Lemon leaf.	May be new species, new habitat recorded.
17.	FAMILY 7 : Stigmeidae <i>Agistemus fleschneri</i> (Summers)	Jarul and rangan leaf.	Known to be good predator but such behaviors not observed
18.	<i>Eryngiopus</i> sp.	Mussaenda leaf.	Interesting species but appear to be un-described.
19.	<i>Stigmaeus</i> sp.	Jarul and champak leaf.	New habitat recorded genus unreported from West Bengal.
20.	FAMILY 8 : Tydeidae <i>Parapronematus</i> sp.	Shiuli and Nut leaf	
21.	<i>Pronematus fleschneri</i> (Baker)	Guava and lemon leaf.	Abundantly available.
22.	ORDER II : MESOSTIGMATA. FAMILY 9 : Ascidae <i>Asca</i> sp.	Guava and Nut leaf.	
23.	FAMILY 10 : Phytoseiidae <i>Amblyseius largoensis</i> (Muma)	Mango and Guava leaf.	Abundantly available, good predator of tenuipalpid mites.
24.	<i>Amblyseius paraaerialis</i> (Muma)	Shiuli leaf.	Rare occurrence.
25.	<i>Amblyseius channabasavannai</i> (Gupta & Daniel)	Kath-Tagar leaf.	Rare occurrence.
26.	<i>Amblyseius herbicolus</i> (Chant)	Jarul and Basak leaf.	Rare occurrence.
27.	<i>Euseius ovalis</i> (Evans)	Hibiscus and jarul leaf.	Frequently available, good predator of spider mite.
28.	<i>Euseius rhododendronis</i> (Gupta)	Mussaenda and jarul leaf.	New habitat recorded.
29.	<i>Euseius coccineae</i> (Gupta)	Guava and lemon leaf.	
30.	<i>Paraphytoseius bhadrakaliensis</i> (Gupta)	Rose and Champak leaf.	Abundantly available.
31.	<i>Phytoseius kapuri</i> (Gupta)	Jarul leaf	Abundantly available.
32.	<i>Phytoseius namdaphaensis</i> (Gupta)	Nut and Arjun leaf.	Rare occurrence, earlier unknown from West Bengal.
33.	<i>Phytoseius minutus</i> (Narayanan, Kaur & Ghai)	Arjun and Jarul leaf.	
34.	<i>Phytoseius mizoramensis</i> (Gupta)	Hibiscus and Rose leaf.	Rare occurrence earlier unknown from West Bengal.
35.	<i>Scapulaseius suknaensis</i> (Gupta)	Guava leaf.	Common occurrence.
36.	<i>Typhlodromus himalayensis</i> (Gupta)	Tekoma And Jarul leaf.	Earlier unknown from West Bengal.
37.	<i>Typhlodromus homalii</i> (Gupta)	Mussaenda leaf.	Common occurrence.
38.	C. FUNGIVOROUS ORDER III : ASTIGMATA FAMILY 11 : Acaridae <i>Acarus</i> sp.	Mango, Jarul, Rose leaf.	Associated with fungus.

PLATE

Photographs of some of the phytophagous and predatory mites collected from Barasat Government College Campus.



Acaridae
(*Acarus* sp.)



Ascidae
(*Asca* sp.)



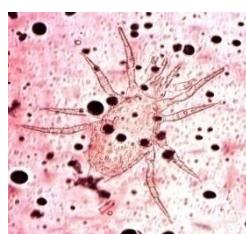
Cheyletidae
(*Cheletogenes ornatus*)



Cunaxidae
(*Cunaxa setirostris*)



Phytoseiidae
(*Amblyseius largenesis*)



Phytoseiidae
(*Euseius coccineae*)



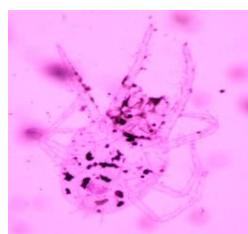
Stigmaeidae
(*Agistemus* sp.)



Raphignathidae
(*Exothorhis* sp.)



Tenuipalpidae
(*Tenuipalpus leptadeniae*)



Tetranychidae
(*Eutetranychus orientalis*)

Study of Changes in Genetic Diversities and Hepatic Histological Structures of Two Ichthyofauna as a Consequence of Water Pollution in Two Different Areas of West Bengal

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ABSTRACT

Water pollution affects biodiversity harshly. An attempt was made to find out the effect of aquatic pollution on the tissues of the fish, taking two different types of carps from two different areas of West Bengal (Barrackpore in North 24 Parganas and Raiganj in North Dinajpur). The carps used were *Labeo rohita* (major carp) and *Labeo bata* (minor carp) and were sampled from two different ponds within 1 km of each locality. The physicochemical parameters of the respective ponds were estimated from which the fishes were collected and comparisons were made. Liver tissues were taken from the fishes for histological and molecular analysis. From histological studies, it was found that there were some irregularities in the liver tissue structures which might be due to water pollution. DNA isolation from fish liver followed by gel electrophoresis was done to check whether water pollution affect the integrity of the extracted genomic DNA of the fish samples.

Keywords: Water pollution, ichthyofauna, physicochemical parameters, fish liver, histopathology, DNA gel electrophoresis

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, water pollution is one of the major environmental concerns, which implies several threats to biodiversity. Water is synonymous to life and is a primary driving force for major physical, chemical and biological changes all over the world. Water resources are declining day by day at a faster rate due to rapid urbanization and population load. Deterioration of the water quality is now a global problem (Mahananda *et al.*, 2010). From ancient times the rain water is being stored in small water body like ponds in most of the area in India. Several anthropogenic activities and interventions on pond as well as water bodies ultimately deteriorate the water quality, including accumulation of toxic chemicals and sediments, shrinkage of catchment area, loss of aesthetic value and biodiversity of the aquatic body. The accumulation of various kinds of pollutants and nutrients through the domestic sewage, municipal effluents, and agricultural runoff into the ponds leads to changes in the physico-chemical characteristics of fresh water. These physico-chemical parameters help us assess the quality of water and provide information regarding its being suitable for drinking and aquaculture. Fish is one of the most important constituent of the aquatic fauna. It provides a good source of animal protein in diet for humans and is widely used as a model organism for different biological studies and researches. Aquaculture is thus gaining importance day by day at national and international level. A good number of pesticides and fertilizers are used in aquaculture for eradication of enemies of fish as well as for growth of

plankton, the natural food of herbivorous fishes. However, the assessment of the ecotoxicological hazards caused by pesticides and fertilizers to ecosystems is based on the data on the toxicity and effects to non-target organisms. Fishes are among the group of non-target aquatic organisms. Histological changes provide a rapid method to detect effects of irritants, especially chronic ones, in various tissues and organs (Bernet *et al.*, 1999). The organs where changes can be adequately observed are the liver, kidney, gills etc in the fish (Bernet *et al.*, 1999). In the present study, the histopathology of the liver of *Labeo rohita* and *Labeo bata* has been studied. The histology of the liver varies among species, but there are general features that are found in the majority of species. The hepatic structure normally varies (and considerably) in direct relationship to gender, age, available food - especially with regard to glycogen and fat content, or temperature, and with endocrine influences strongly connected to the environmentally regulated breeding conditions (Genten *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, another objective of the study was to determine whether the integrity of DNA is by any way affected by the aquatic pollution.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Water samples were collected from the two ponds of Barrackpore area and are referred as S1 and S2 and two ponds from Raiganj in the North Dinajpur area which are referred to as S3 and S4 (Fig. 1). Samples were collected in glass containers previously cleaned by distilled water. During sampling, water taken from a depth of 30 centimeter below the surface of each pond and from four sites. The samples were labeled and transported to the laboratory, stored at 4 °C in the refrigerator for analysis of selected parameters including temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, dissolved free carbon dioxide, total hardness and total alkalinity using different methods. Temperature was measured by digital thermometer; pH was measured by portable pH meter and the rest were calculated by chemical methods (APHA, 1995; Michael, 1984). To study the hepatic histology, liver tissues were dissected out and cut into small pieces for preservation in Bouin's fixative for 18 hours. It is followed by dehydration, sectioning (Microtome machine used Leica RM 2125RTS) and lastly routine staining by Haematoxylin and Eosin stain and were observed under a compound light microscope with high resolution and eventually photographed with a digital camera attached to the microscope. Fish samples were collected from previously mentioned water bodies. Genomic DNA was isolated from the liver of the fishes collected from two water bodies. The genomic DNA extraction was carried out following the method of Shiozawal *et al.*, 1992 and Adriane *et al.*, 2003. The extracted genomic DNA was run in 0.8% agarose gel (prestained with 0.5µg/ml ethidium bromide) and electrophoresis was carried out at constant voltage and current (Horizontal Gel Apparatus GeNei Catalogue No. 106470GB), and followed by visualization of the gel in UV transilluminator and photographs were taken with a digital camera.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Data on the physicochemical parameters of water are shown in Table I. It was found that the pond in Site 2 (S2) and Site 4 (S4) are polluted as it has high level of biological oxygen demand (BOD) and low level of dissolved oxygen (DO) compared to the Site 1 (S1) and Site 3 (S3). The greenish colour of the water is due to the presence of green algae and cyanobacteria. The hardness of the water is also high compared to Site 1, suggesting the presence of carbonate and bicarbonate in the water due to the regular household runoffs by local inhabitants. BOD is highest in case of Site 4 and algal bloom was evident.

The histological sections are presented in Fig. 2. The histological sections of the liver of *Labeo rohita* and *Labeo bata* collected from the Site 1, has normal hepatocytes (Fig. 2a, 2c, 2e and 2f). But the fishes collected from Site 2, necrosis of hepatocytes and large void area was observed in section of *Labeo rohita* (Fig. 2b); and necrosis and cirrhosis of hepatocytes was observed in liver section of *Labeo bata* (Fig. 2d). Thus, it is evident from the histopathological studies that the water pollution might be an important factor for the histological tissue changes in the liver of the fishes.

The integrity of the genomic DNA of the fishes collected from the Site 2 was greatly affected due to water pollution compared to the less polluted Site 1 (Fig. 3). The genomic DNA is found to form smear (Fig 3b) in the agarose gel compared to the clear visible band in the samples collected from pollution free Site 1 (Fig 3a). The smear formation of the DNA extracted from the liver of the fish collected from polluted water body (Site 2) may be due to the fact of necrosis that occurs in the hepatocytes due to pollution.

CONCLUSIONS

Pollution is the introduction of contaminants into the natural environment that causes adverse change. Pollutants can be either foreign substances or naturally occurring contaminants. The adverse effect of aquatic pollutants can be well determined by observing the changes in the histopathology of the liver of the two most commonly found and consumed carps. The physicochemical parameters of the water of the two ponds clearly show that differences in the water quality of the aquatic bodies are responsible for the abnormal changes in fishes like the necrosis, cirrhosis and pyknosis of the hepatocytes. Since liver is the primary organ for detoxification of organic xenobiotics therefore any toxic by-products tend to accumulate in it and the organ suffers harmful effects (Hawkes, 1980). Hence, observation of the histological section of the liver can prove very useful indicator as any toxic effect will be reflected by the abnormalities of the liver cells. The smear formation of the extracted genomic DNA in the agarose gel is greatly related to the water pollution that affects the hepatocytes of the fish liver. Therefore, it can be concluded that pollution is related to abnormality of the hepatocytes in the fish. Moreover, a comparative molecular analysis like RAPD can be carried out with the fishes from different water bodies covering a large region, to further clarify and establish the relation of pollution with the tissue abnormalities in the aquatic organisms and the relation between same and the different species of fishes.

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The authors gratefully acknowledge UGC and DST-FIST for their financial assistance. The authors are also thankful to Shri Samiran Ghosh, Assistant Professor of Zoology, Bethune College for the study of histology of liver for the carps. The authors duly acknowledge Shri Tanmay Mukhopadhyay, Research Scholar of North Bengal University for helping in giving the informations about the physicochemical parameters in Raiganj ponds. Thanks are due to Shri Abhishek Dey, Assistant Professor of computer Science for processing of photography of the same during preparation of manuscript.

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Table 1. The physico-chemical parameters of various ponds (mean value)

Parameters	Sampling sites				Tolerance limit for freshwater fish culture Standards- BIS
	S1	S2	S3	S4	
pH	8.1	6.4	7.5	7.9	6.5 – 8.5
Total alkalinity (mg/l)	210	240	256	400	100-300
Hardness (mg/l)	146	264	152	356	80-150
Dissolved Oxygen(mg/l)	4.6	3.8	5.2	3.2	4 (minimum)
Biochemical Oxygen Demand (mg/l)	1.8	2.2	1.0	2.5	
Free carbon dioxide (mg/l)	2	6	1.7	1.2	12 (at sunrise) [maximum]
Colour	Grayish	Greenish	Clear	Greenish	
Temperature (°C) [average]	25.77	26.43	21	21.2	2-35 (range)
S1 = Barrackpore railway side pond, S2 = Barrackpore Andandapuri (Sumangalapuri) pond, S3 = Rajpukur Raiganj, S4 = Kasba in Raiganj					

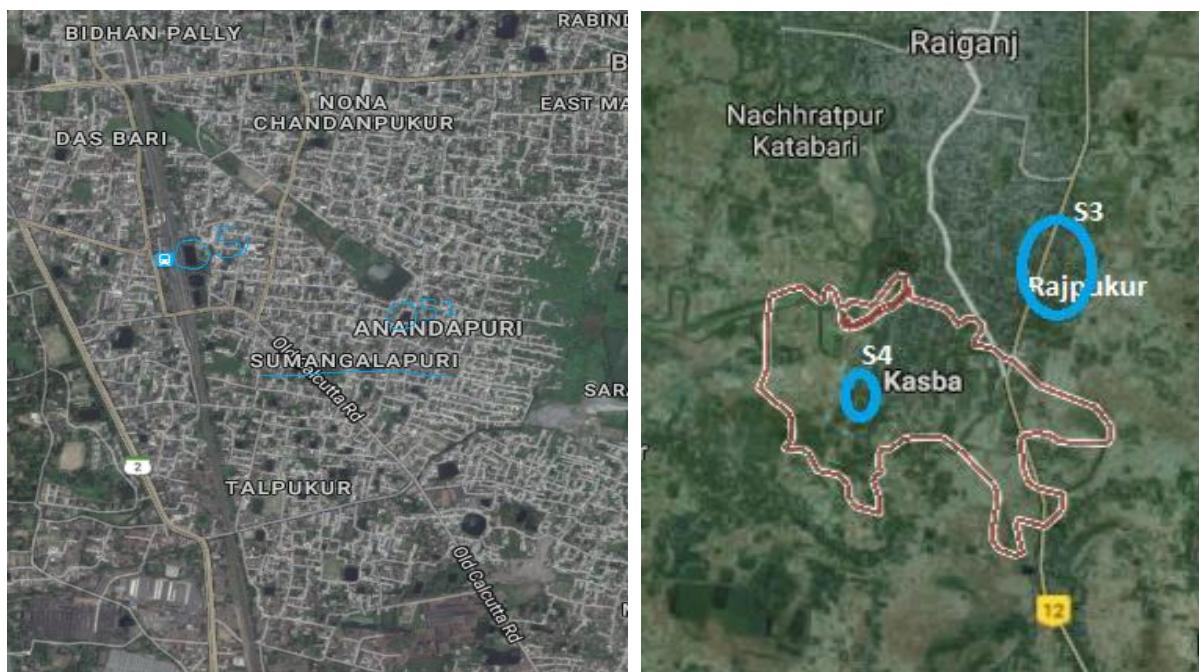


Fig. 1. Map showing two collection spots. S1 = Barrackpore railway side pond, S2 = Barrackpore Andandapuri (Sumangalapuri) pond, S3 = Rajpukur Raiganj, S4 = Kasba Raiganj

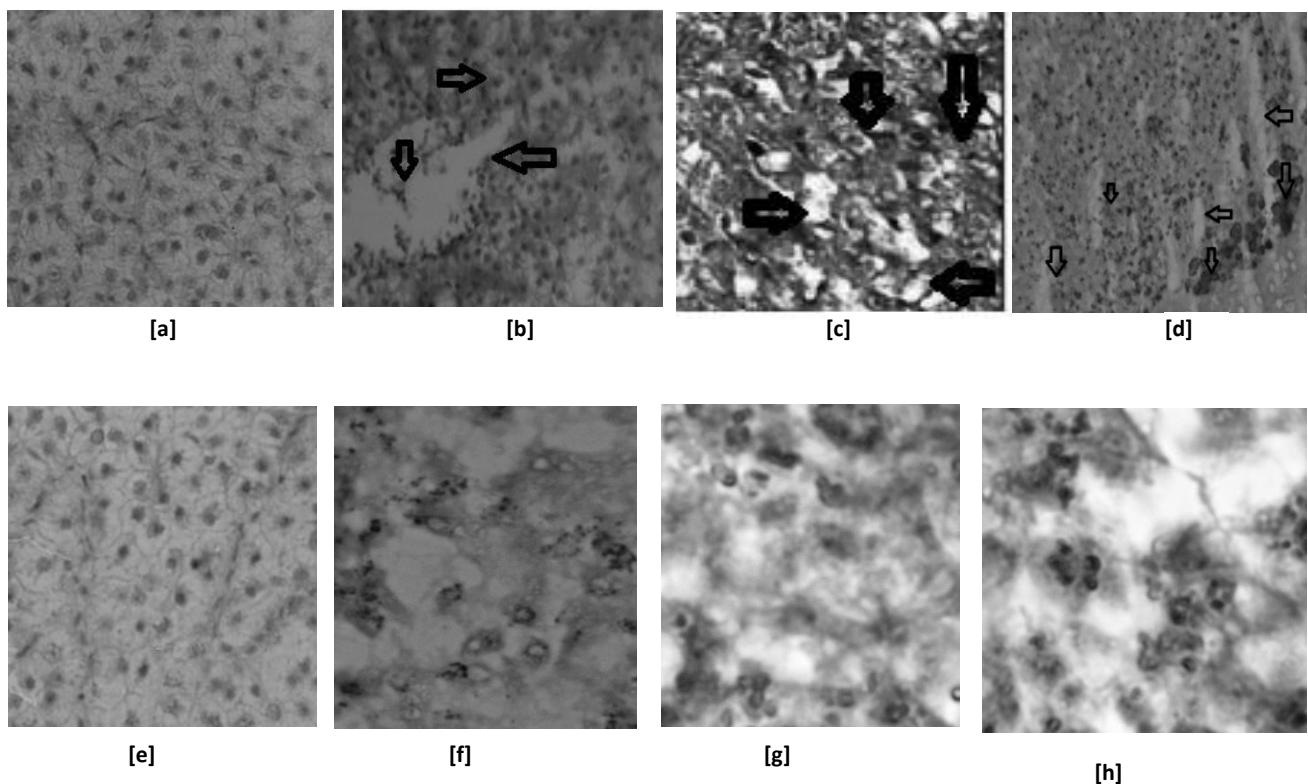


Fig. 2. Histological sections of fish liver from different location.a. *Labeo rohita* collected from S1 having normal hepatocytes, b. *Labeo rohita* collected from S2 with huge space and necrotic hepatocytes, c. *Labeo bata* collected from S1 showing normal hepatocytes, d. *Labeo*

bata collected from S2 showing abnormality in the hepatocytes, e. *Labeo rohita* collected from S3 having normal hepatocyte, f. *Labeo rohita* collected from S4 showing necrosis in hepatocyte, g. *Labeo bata* collected from S3 having ablesion and pyknosis in the hepatocytes , h *Labeo bata* collected from S4 having void space in the hepatocytes.

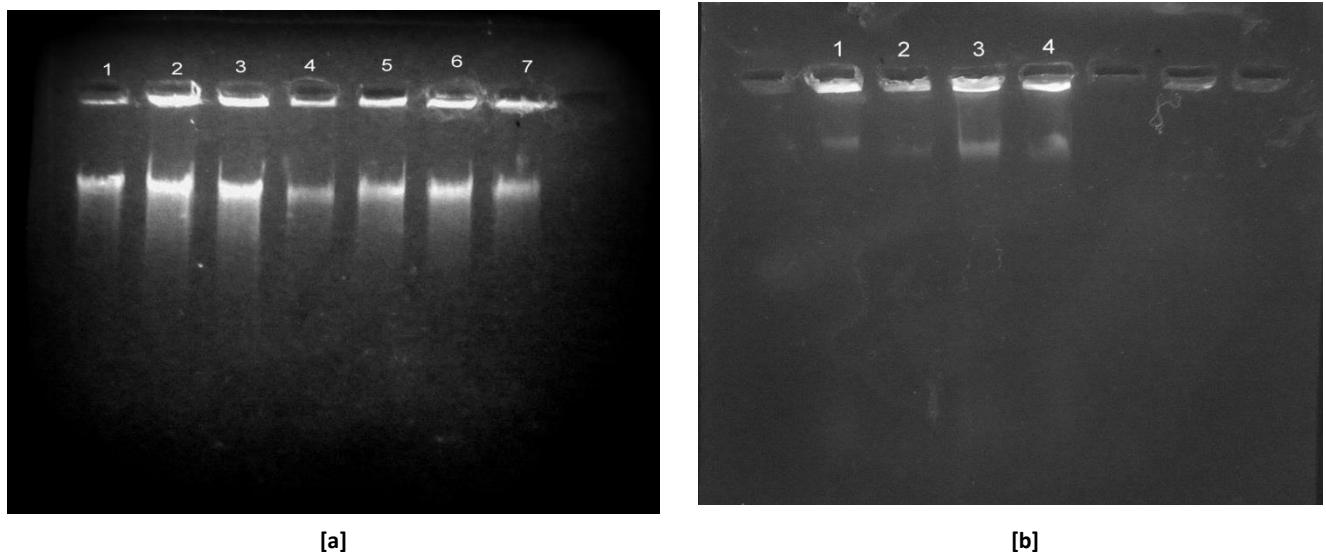


Fig. 3. 0.8% agarose gel of extracted DNA from fish liver of different locations.[a] DNA gel electrophoresis of extracted DNA from liver of *Labeo rohita* of S1 (Lane -1), S2 (lane-2,3), S3 (lane-4,5), S4 (6,7) [b] DNA gel electrophoresis of extracted DNA from liver of *Labeo bata* from S1 (lane 4), S2 (lane-3), S3 (lane-1), S4 (lane 2)

Food diversity and feeding preference of Black Molly (*Poecilia sphenops* (Valenciennes, 1846)), a common ornamental fish- A preliminary study

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ABSTRACT

Black mollies are one of the most popular ornamental fishes in the aquarium hobby. Most People have had at one time at least one of these gentle and attractive fishes in their fish tank. They are one of the most popular feeder fishes due to high growth rate, birth size, reproduction and brood number. During fish development, supply of suitable food during culture period is the most vital factor to achieve good growth ratio. Present study aims at unfolding the feeding preference of Black Molly for which eggs of Pomfret, Carp and *Tenualosa* sp. and semolina and poppy seeds were provided as food of animal and plant sources respectively. It was observed that food with more protein contents (i.e. food from animal sources) were mostly preferred by Black Molly. It is concluded that food from animal sources could be beneficial to get good growth and survival of Black Molly.

Keywords: Ornamental fish, Black Molly, Fish egg, Food preference, Feeding behavior

INTRODUCTION

Ornamental fish keeping is one of the most popular hobbies in the world including India (Nayar, 1996). Ornamental fishes are the important part of aquaculture providing aesthetic requirement and up keeping of the environment. Ornamental fish industry also has made an amazing progress in the areas of spawning and breeding, larval nutrition and health management which is directly related to fish-food production (Hardy, 2003). Among the various ornamental fishes, Black Molly (*Poecilia sphenops*) is the most popular one throughout the world and also frequently considered to be the first species reared by many ornamental fish enthusiasts because of its hardness. Taste preferences in ornamental fishes are highly species specific and even vary between the individuals of the same species (Carlberg *et al.*, 2015). The knowledge of nutritional requirements along with their acceptability is important for improving the productive development. Therefore, attempt is made to study the feeding preference of Black Molly (*Poecilia sphenops*) between foods from animal sources and plant sources,

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection and Acclimatization of Fish

Black Mollies of 6 months age group (35-40 mm) were collected from local pet store in Calcutta and were brought to the laboratory with oxygen packs. At first the fishes were kept in rearing tanks (18"X10"X10") at a density of 5 fishes per tank with proper aeration and temperature (27 ± 2 °C). They were then acclimatized to laboratory condition for one week and were supplied commercial feed.

Experimental Set up

The experiment was set up to know the food preference of Black Molly for individual food items when both animal and plant food items were given separately. For this experiment 5 Black Mollies were taken from the rearing tank and each was kept in 5 separate 5L tanks. The fishes were allowed to starve for 24 hours prior to the commencement of the experiment to standardize hunger level (Gupta and Banerjee 2009). Each fish was then provided with 50 Pomfret eggs, 50 carp eggs, 50 *Tenualosa* sp. eggs, 50 Poppy seeds, and 50 *Semolina* seeds for 20 days respectively. After 30 minutes, the number of left over unit food was recorded to calculate the intake number by the Black Molly.

Statistical Analysis

Feeding preference was calculated by counting the food unit (Number of fish egg/Number of plant seed) left in the aquarium after each experiment and subtracting the number from the introduced food units (i.e 50 units/experiment). The number was averaged and SE was calculated. (Table 1). One way ANOVA (Table 2:A) was performed to find out the significant difference in food preference among the different food types. Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table 2:B) was also performed to compare the food items in all possible pair with the help of Graph Pad Prism software.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1. The table shows the average food consumed as unit (Pomfret Egg, Carp Egg, *Tenualosa* Egg, Poppy Seed and *Semolina* Seed) by the Black Molly fishes.

	Pomfret Egg	Carp Egg	<i>Tenualosa</i> Egg	Poppy Seed	<i>Semolina</i> Seed
Average food unit consumed \pm SE	34.4 \pm 1.47	29.7 \pm 0.94	33.1 \pm 0.87	21.65 \pm 1.00	19.65 \pm 1.02

Table 2:A

P value	P<0.0001 ***		
P value summary			
Are means significantly Different? (P < 0.05)	Yes		
Number of groups	5		
F	25.46		
R squared	0.5174		

Table 2:B

ANOVA Table between columns)	SS	df	MS	Mean	Diff.	q	Significant? P < 0.05?	Summary
Pomfret Egg vs Poppy Seed	12.75	9.605	Yes	Tukey's Multiple Comparison Test			***	
Pomfret Egg vs Semolina Seed	14.75	11.11	Yes				***	
Carp Egg vs Poppy Seed	8.050	6.064	Yes				***	
Carp Egg vs Semolina Seed	10.05	7.571	Yes				***	
<i>Tenualosa</i> Egg vs Poppy Seed	11.45	8.626	Yes				***	
<i>Tenualosa</i> Egg vs Semolina Seed	13.45	10.13	Yes				***	
Pomfret Egg vs Carp Egg	4.700	3.541	No				ns	
Pomfret Egg vs <i>Tenualosa</i> Egg	1.300	0.9793	No				ns	
Carp Egg vs <i>Tenualosa</i> Egg	-3.400	2.561	No				ns	

Table 2A. Table shows the result of one way ANOVA to compare different food consumed by the molly. The mean unit food consumption are significantly different ($P<0.0001$) for the different food types **Table 2B:** Tukey's Multiple Comparison Test performed to compare the food items in all possible pair.

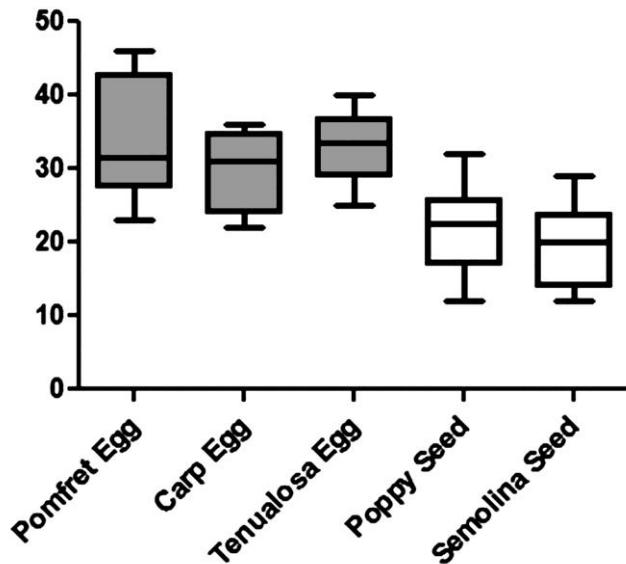


Figure 1. Vertical box and whiskers plot showing the minimum and maximum feeding of each food type by the molly. The pair-wise significant differences are shown as ($P<0.0001$)

Data obtained from one way ANOVA leads to infer that food acceptance of Black Molly differs significantly among the food types ($P<0.0001$). Tukey's multiple comparison test is suggestive of the fact that all the fish eggs (Pomfret, Carp and *Tenualosa* sp.) were consumed more frequently than all the food materials from the plant sources ($P<0.05$). No significant difference was found when comparing the feeding preference among different fish egg type. A vertical Box and Whisker plot summarizes the outcome of the entire study (Fig. 1).

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Short-term Impact of Chromium on Erythrocytic Profiles of *Channa punctatus* (Bloch)

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ABSTRACT

The tannery industries add chromium as one of the heavy metals to the aquatic environment and tannery waste waters continue to cause negative effects on the aquatic fauna. In the present study, the erythrocytic alterations produced on short-term exposure to sub-lethal concentration of chromium (20 mg/L) were investigated in fresh water air-breathing fish, *Channa punctatus* (Bloch) for 24h, 48h and 72h respectively. The 96h LC₅₀ of chromium salt, potassium dichromate was determined to be 33.125 mg/L. The results revealed statistically significant decrease in Total Erythrocytic Count (TEC), Haemoglobin (Hb) and Haematocrit (Hct %) in all experimental animals when compared to the control with an increase in exposure periods. The absolute corpuscular values like Mean Cell Haemoglobin (MCH) and Mean Cell Haemoglobin Concentration (MCHC) also exhibited significant increase in fishes of experimental groups. However, the Mean Cell Volume (MCV) contrarily exhibited a fluctuating pattern. The depression of erythrocytic parameters clearly indicates that the fishes have become anaemic due to sublethal exposure of chromium.

Keywords: heavy metals, chromium, *Channa punctatus*, erythrocytic parameters

INTRODUCTION

Water pollution by heavy metals has become a health hazard in recent years. With industrialization, heavy metals are released into natural waters in large quantities. Due to their high toxicity even in low concentrations, harmful effects may be produced in aquatic organisms, including teleosts. Chromium is extensively used in chrome plating, tanning and as a corrosion inhibitor in cooling tower operations. The wastewater generated by tanneries is a major source of chromium which contains Chromium (Cr⁶⁺) and their indiscriminate introduction in the aquatic ecosystem pose a serious threat to the growth and survival of the fish population. A considerable amount of experimental data on chromium toxicity to aquatic life was reviewed (Irwin *et al.*, 1997) but the data on chromium toxicity to Indian teleosts are scarce and are mostly restricted to the effects on biochemical or enzymological profiles (Sastry & Tyagi, 1982; Vutukuru, 2003). The present work was undertaken to examine the short-term acute toxicity of this heavy metal to a freshwater murrel, *Channa punctatus* and deals with alterations in the erythrocytic parameters viz.TEC (Total Erythrocytic Count), Hb (Haemoglobin), Hct% (Haematocrit) and absolute corpuscular values like Mean Cell Haemoglobin (MCH) and Mean Cell Haemoglobin Concentration (MCHC).

MATERIAL & METHODS

Live specimens of adult *Channa punctatus* (Family: Channidae) of length 13.78 ± 0.33 cm and 39.36 ± 2.35 g weight, were procured from clean and unpolluted local freshwater sources of the fish market. They were acclimatized in laboratory glass aquaria in clean tap water for 5 days prior to experimentation. Water used in the aquaria had a pH: 7.2 ± 0.05 , water temperature: 23 ± 2 °C, DCO₂: 3.4 ± 0.05 mg/L, DO: 7.5 ± 1 mg/L. APHA (2005) method was followed for the water quality determination. Fish were fed, *ad libitum*, with live *Tubifex* sp. and commercial dry pellets during the acclimatization period only. Two-third of the water was renewed every day to avoid accumulation of unutilized food or metabolic waste products. Analytical grade Potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$) by BDH (India) was used as a metal toxicant throughout the experiment and for the determination of LC₅₀ of chromium. The LC₅₀ value was determined according to the arithmetic method of Karber as adopted by Dede & Kaglo (2001) using the daily renewal bioassay system. Five test concentrations of narrow range viz. 30, 35, 40, 45 and 50 mg/L respectively and a control (without chromium) were selected to find the 96 h LC₅₀ value of the chromium. Eight fish were placed in each of the aquarium and duplicates were maintained for the each of the treatment as well as for control. In this experiment, no distinction was made between the sexes and no feeding was allowed. Dead fishes were removed from the aquaria immediately. The whole exposure medium was monitored on a regular basis with a view to maintain the desired concentration of chromium.

The percentage of mortality was recorded at 96 h interval for each of the test concentrations which was used to estimate LC₅₀ value of the $K_2Cr_2O_7$ at 96h. The fishes were divided into four groups each containing 8 individuals, one group was taken as control, with no chromium added to the water, and other 3 groups were exposed to chosen sublethal dose of chromium (20 mg/L) for 24, 48 and 72 h respectively after determining LC₅₀ value at 96h. During the exposure, mortality of the fish, if any, was monitored. Different blood parameters viz., TEC, Hb and Hct were measured following the methods earlier described (Hesser, 1960). Some modifications were made following the methods of Blaxhall & Daisley (1973), Dacie & Lewis (1984). After stipulated exposure periods, the control and experimental fishes were wiped dry before collecting the blood samples. Free flowing blood was collected by severing the caudal peduncle of fish without using anesthesia. TEC and TLC were analyzed following by standard clinical method, with the help of improved Neubaur double haemocytometer (Fein-OPTIK, Blankenburg, G.D.R.) using Hayem's solution as diluting fluid. The haemoglobin content (g %) of blood was determined with the help of Sahli's Haemometer. The Hct and Lct values were estimated by microhaematocrit method (Wintrobe, 1967) using microhaematocrit capillary tubes and a microhaematocrit centrifuge (3000 g for 25 min). The values of MCV, MCH and MCHC were calculated from the red cell count (TEC), haemoglobin (Hb) and haematocrit (Hct %) values using standard formulae. The results were presented as mean and standard error (mean \pm SE). Independent sample t-test was used to distinguish between means of significant differences. Treatments were taken to be significantly different where $P < 0.05$ and highly significant where $P < 0.01$.

RESULTS

The 96h LC₅₀ of chromium salt, $K_2Cr_2O_7$ for *C. punctatus* was determined to be 33.125 mg/L. The fish exposed to sublethal dose of chromium (i.e. 20 mg/L) exhibited erratic swimming and loss of equilibrium gradually. The exposure of *C. punctatus* to sublethal concentration of chromium for 24h, 48h and 72h caused remarkable and significant alterations in erythrocytic parameters as represented in Tables 1 and 2. As shown in Table 1,

the values of TEC ($\times 10^6$ /cmm) and haemoglobin concentration (g %) were found to be significantly decreased ($p < 0.01$) especially after 48 h and 72 h exposures of chromium when compared with control. A sharp decline ($p < 0.01$) of haematocrit count (Hct %) was observed from the first day onwards compared to control (Table 1).

Table 1. Changes in few erythrocytic parameters (TEC, Hb and Hct) of control and experimental freshwater fish, *Channa punctatus* exposed to sublethal dose of chromium (20 mg/L)

Erythrocytic parameters	Control	Experimental fish groups		
		24h	48h	72h
TEC ($\times 10^6$ /cmm)	3.07 ± 0.11	2.66 ± 0.41	2.15 ± 0.03 **	1.43 ± 0.13 **
Hb (g %)	11.3 ± 0.35	10.12 ± 0.47	8.63 ± 0.46 **	7.5 ± 0.11 **
Hct (%)	24.43 ± 0.04	15 ± 0.73 **	14 ± 0.57 **	14.25 ± 0.65 **

Values are expressed as Mean \pm S.E., n = 6. ** = significant at $p < 0.01$ level.

In Table 2, MCV values were found to be significantly low ($p < 0.05$) after initial exposure but gradually increased later on. MCH were found to be significantly different in chromium exposed groups (72h) when compared with control. MCHC values were significantly high ($p < 0.01$) in treated fish groups especially during 24h and 48h of exposure.

Table 2. Changes in absolute corpuscular values (MCV, MCH and MCHC) of control and experimental freshwater fish, *Channa punctatus* exposed to sublethal dose of chromium (20 mg/L)

Erythrocytic parameters	Control	Experimental fish groups		
		24h	48h	72h
MCV (fl)	79.91 ± 2.25	63.21 ± 3.02 *	65.16 ± 9.02	102.88 ± 7.58 *
MCH (pg)	37.09 ± 2.08	45.53 ± 6.86	40.22 ± 2.47	54.92 ± 5.41 *
MCHC (g/L)	46.28 ± 1.42	68.55 ± 5.0 **	61.81 ± 2.79 **	53.24 ± 2.81

Values are expressed as Mean \pm S.E., n = 6. * = significant at $p < 0.05$ level, ** = significant at $p < 0.01$ level.

DISCUSSION

Haematology is used as an index of fish health status in a number of fish species to detect different stress conditions like disease, hypoxia, and exposure to metals and pollutants etc (Blaxhall, 1972). In general, the results of the present study revealed that hexavalent chromium induces effects on erythrocytic parameters of the fish. The significant reduction in

TEC coupled with low Haemoglobin content may be due to destructive action of heavy metal on erythrocytes which was also reported by earlier workers (Karuppasamy, 2000; Bela Zutshi *et al.*, 2010). The decreased Haemoglobin count indicates the inability to provide sufficient oxygen to the vital organs in fish. The erythrocytic fragility following exposure to heavy metals might explain the initial anaemic condition observed in this short-term study. Prolonged reduction in haemoglobin content is harmful to oxygen transport and degeneration of the erythrocytes could be described as pathological condition in fishes exposed to heavy metals (Pamila *et al.*, 1991). The anemic condition of this experimental fish groups were further detected by haematocrit study. A distinct decrease in the level of Haemoglobin and Hct % after exposure to heavy metal chromium clearly suggests a haemodilution mechanism possibly due to gill damage or impaired osmoregulation. This study is in line with Smit *et al.* (1979) that heavy metal exposure exerts the decrease in RBC count, Hb and Hct values and that may be due to the impaired intestinal absorption of iron. Significant changes were recorded in the mean MCV, MCH, MCHC values and similar results have been reported in *Labeo rohita*, exposed to chromium (Venkatachalam & Natarajan, 2014). Cells released from the affected spleen, an erythropoietic organ in fish, would have lowered MCV values initially. A similar observation was reported in *C. carpio* after cadmium exposure (Koyama & Ozaki, 2002).

In conclusion, the present study clearly indicates that chromium in the form of $K_2Cr_2O_7$, a toxic heavy metal, experimentally introduced into aquatic environments induces severe anaemia and alterations in erythrocytic indices in the fresh water air-breathing fish, *Channa punctatus* at short-term exposures.

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Avifaunal Diversity of Bibhutibhushan Wildlife Sanctuary, West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

Birds are found in a variety of habitats, performing various functions. They are highly sensitive to even minor perturbation in ecosystems. Documentation of avian assemblages in different ecosystems is, therefore, becoming increasingly important from environmental monitoring perspective. In absence of comprehensive account of birds of Bibhutibhushan Wildlife Sanctuary, West Bengal, India, we made an attempt to document the birds thriving in this protected area. A total of 102 species of birds belonging to 13 orders and 46 families were recorded during the study period (June 2013 – May 2016). Maximum number of species belong to the order Passeriformes (49 species) and minimum under order Anseriformes (1 species). Among the total bird species, 83 species (81.37%) were resident, 15 species (14.71%) were winter visitor, three species (2.94%) were summer visitor and one species (0.98%) was passage migrant. We noted 38 species of birds (including 36 residents and two summer visitors) to breed within the sanctuary. Analysis of feeding guild data revealed that 46.08% were insectivore, 22.55% were carnivore, 15.69% were omnivore, 6.86% were granivore, 5.88% were frugivore, 1.96% were nectarivore and 0.98% were herbivore. Grey-headed Fish Eagle (*Icthyophaga ichthyaetus*) and Red-breasted Parakeet (*Psittacula alexandri*) are two Near Threatened (NT) species designated by IUCN. Present study is the first scientific documentation of avian assemblage of this protected area and will serve as a baseline data for future avifaunal research, as well as, will be useful in the preparation of Peoples' Biodiversity Register (PBR) of this area.

Keywords: Avifauna, species richness, feeding guild, *Bibhutibhushan* Wildlife Sanctuary, *Parmadan*

INTRODUCTION

Birds are ubiquitous, execute varied functional roles and provide many ecosystem services (Wellan *et al.*, 2008). Indian subcontinent, a part of the vast Oriental Bio-geographic regions, is very rich in biodiversity. With highly varied climatic conditions, diverse habitat and long stretch of vegetation, this region supports over 13% of the world's birds (Grimmett *et al.*, 1998, Ali, 2002). Despite of being present worldwide in nearly all habitats, they are very sensitive to environmental changes (Taper *et al.*, 1995; Olechnowski, 2009). Therefore, avian species assemblages are considered as key indicators for assessing the status of ecosystem health and

functioning (Turner *et al.*, 1990; Newton, 1995; Padoa-Schioppa *et al.*, 2006). Thus, exploration of richness and diversity of bird communities have been considered as an efficient tool to monitor various habitats, both qualitatively and quantitatively (Bilgrami, 1995).

Unfortunately global diversity of birds is decreasing incessantly primarily due to anthropogenic disturbances (Rapoport, 1993) and climate change (Chen *et al.*, 2011; Sekercioglu *et al.*, 2012). IUCN Red List of endangered birds has already recognized 1226 bird species as threatened globally and India with 88 threatened bird species (Bird Life International, 2010). Forests attract a large number of avifauna because they provide suitable habitats for most birds. But, even in tropical forests 1800 individuals of birds are decimated per hour while 16 million are killed annually on an average (Hughes *et al.*, 1997). In such an alarming situation, protected areas are also known to serve as important refuge for many avian communities and increasingly recognized as critical in supporting biodiversity. They also play key roles in essential ecological functions, such as ecosystem services, climatic stabilization, carbon sequestration, groundwater recharge, nutrient retention, and natural disaster prevention (Heal, 2000; DeFries *et al.*, 2007). So, understanding the diversity and structure of bird communities is essential to delineate their importance in avian conservation (Kattan & Franco, 2004). Therefore, documentation of avian assemblages along with the diversity of other key taxa of various protected areas has become very important. Although, avian species richness of some of the well known protected areas of West Bengal is documented (Inglis 1919; Mukherjee, 1959; Spillett 1967; Shahi, 1983; Allen *et al.*, 1992; Anonymous 1993; Kumar, 1998; Prakash *et al.*, 2001; Delany & Scott, 2002; Sanyal, 2002; Lobo, 2003; Shivakumar & Prakash, 2004; Gopal & Chauhan, 2006; Pramanik *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2012), yet studies on avian diversity of Bibhutibhusan Wildlife Sanctuary is almost non-existent. In view of these, the objective of the study was to prepare an up to date checklist of birds of this protected area for monitoring and conservation planning.

MATERIAL & METHODS

Study Area

Bibhutibhusan Wildlife Sanctuary (23.18°N , 88.77°E ; 0.64 sq km, henceforth BBWLS), locally known as *Parmadan* forest, is located in North 24 Parganas Forest Division, West Bengal, India on the banks of the *Ichhamati* river (Fig. 1). The forest land is bounded on all its three sides (i.e. north, south and east) by *Ichhamati* river while the eastern side is bounded by rural settlements (namely *Parmadan* and *Jhupa* villages). Natural vegetation of this protected area is comprised of varied assemblage of deciduous and non-deciduous trees, while the undergrowth is thick and dense, comprising mostly ferns, tall grasses and bushes. Floral biodiversity of the study area includes about 209 species of angiosperms including 59 trees, 98 herbs, 34 shrubs, 15 climbers and 3 creepers (Talukdar & Sanyal, 2013). Main trees of this forest are *Terminalia arjuna*, *Albizia saman*, *Senna siamea*, *Morus* sp., *Bombax ceiba*, and several species of bamboo. This forest is known to harbour more than 200 deer, birds, rabbit and a large number of langurs. The core area of the forest is fenced off and visitors are permitted to walk along the road by the fence. The climate is tropical, dry during winter (mid - November to mid-February) and humid during summer. Annual rainfall is 1,579 mm, temperature ranges between 41°C (in May) and 10°C (in January) and relative humidity varies between 50 % and 90 % (Talukdar & Sanyal, 2013).

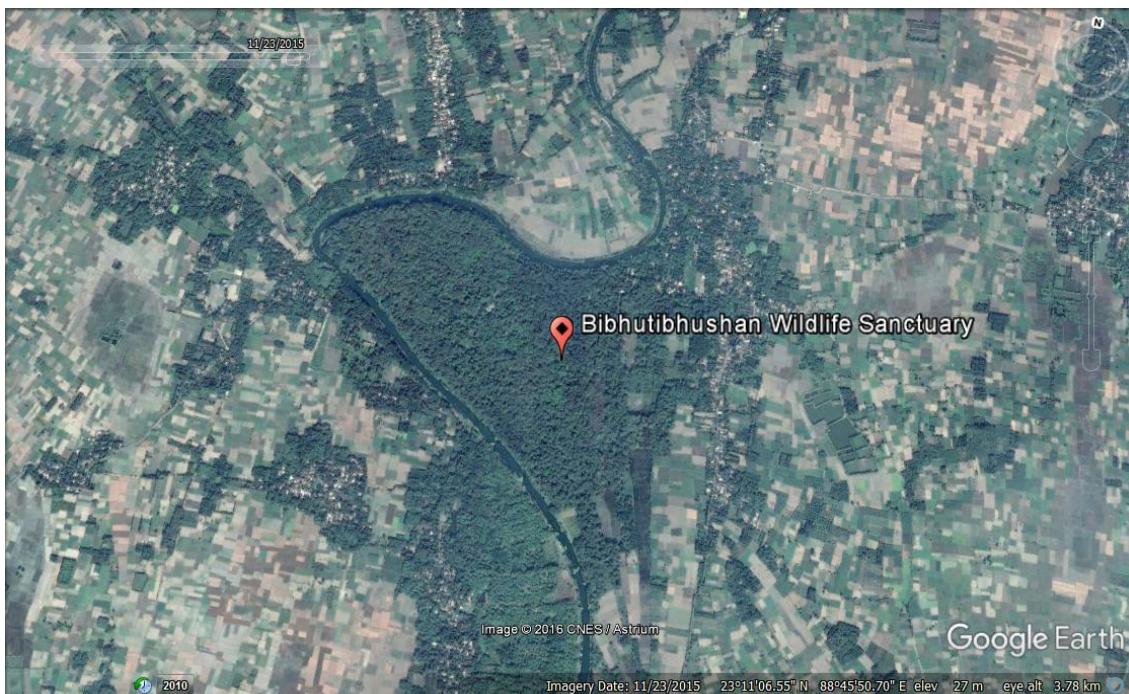


Fig. 1. The map of the study area, BBWLS, West Bengal, India

Methods

Fortnightly avifaunal surveys were carried out for three years (June 2013 -May 2016) in the study area. Field surveys were carried out during 0730-1030 hrs and 1500–1700 or 1800 hrs depending on the day length and morning and evening counts was altered between sites. During each visit, fixed-radius (25 m) point count method was carried out to record the species richness of avifauna at each count station (Bibby *et al.*, 2000; Sutherland, 2006). Observation points were randomly placed throughout the study area. We recorded bird species (seen or heard) in 25 m radius around each of those point count stations in 360° arc for 10 minutes. Besides, opportunistic observation of birds during other times and other places were also included to prepare a comprehensive checklist of avifauna of the study area. Field visits were carried out on foot only on days with ambient weather conditions (i.e., in the absence of rain or strong wind).

Birds were observed using a binocular (Olympus 7 x 35 DPS I) and were identified following Grimmett *et al.*, (1998). Photographs were taken with a digital camera (Nikon P600 / Canon EOS 7D Mark II) for documentation.

Birds were classified based on their seasonal dispersal pattern and were classified as resident (R), summer visitor (SV), winter visitor (WV) and passage migrants (P) following Grimmett *et al.* (1998). We also assigned a local status for each species following Khan & Naher (2009) where very common (Vc) are bird species which were recorded on 80–100 % of field visits, common (Co) are noted on 50–79 % of field visits, fairly common (Fc) are seen on 20–49 % of field visits and rare (Ra) are avian species which were recorded on less than 20 % of field visits. The study of avian feeding guilds is also important for understanding the complexity of ecosystem structure (Azman *et al.*, 2011). So, we classified the avian species into seven guilds, *viz.* carnivore (Ca), omnivore (O), frugivore (F), herbivores (H),

nectarivore (N), granivore (G) and insectivore (I). Systemic position (Order and Family), common name and scientific name of each species was accorded following Praveen *et al.*, (2016).

RESULTS

A total of 102 species of birds belonging to 13 orders and 46 families were recorded during the study period (Table 1), out of which order Passeriformes (49 species) dominated the avifauna in this area, followed by the orders Pelecaniformes (8 species), Piciformes (7 species), Accipitriformes, Coraciiformes, Cuculiformes (6 species each), Columbiformes (5 species), Strigiformes (4 species), Caprimulgiformes, Psittaciformes (3 species each), Charadriiformes, Gruiformes (2 species each) and Anseriformes (1 species).

Cuculidae, Accipitridae and Muscicapidae were three richest families each of which were represented by 6 species, followed by Columbidae (4 species), Sturnidae (4 species), Picidae (4 species), Alcedinidae (3 species), Campephagidae (3 species), Corvidae (3 species), Dicruridae (3 species), Turdidae (3 species), Rhamphastidae (3 species), Psittaculidae (3 species), Strigidae (3 species), Caprimulgidae (2 species), Meropidae (2 species), Rallidae (2 species), Cisticolidae (2 species), Estrildidae (2 species), Laniidae (2 species), Monarchidae (2 species), Motacillidae (2 species), Nectarinidae (2 species), Oriolidae (2 species), Phalacrocoracidae (2 species) and one species belonged to each of the Anatidae, Apodidae, Charadriidae, Scolopacidae, Coraciidae, Aegithiniidae, Artamidae, Hirundinidae, Irenidae, Leiothrichidae, Paridae, Passeridae, Pellorneidae, Phylloscopidae, Pittidae, Pycnonotidae, Vangidae, Zosteropidae, Ciconiidae and Tytonidae families (Table 1).

Analysis of their local abundance indicated that 24 species were Vc (very common), 41 species were Co (common), 22 species were Fc (fairly common), and 15 species were Ra (rare). Analysis of feeding guild data revealed that 46.08% were insectivore, 22.55% were carnivore, 15.69% were omnivore, 6.86% were granivore, 5.88% were frugivore, 1.96% were nectarivore and 0.98% were herbivore (Fig. 2). Seasonal dispersal pattern of the avian assemblage in the study area revealed that 81.37% birds were resident (83 species), 14.71% (15 species) were winter visitor, 2.94% (3 species) were summer visitor and 0.98% (1 species) was passage migrant (Fig. 3). We noted 38 species of birds (including 36 residents and 2 summer visitors) to breed within the sanctuary. Of all avian species, two species *viz.* Grey-headed Fish Eagle (*Icthyophaga ichthyaetus*) and Red-breasted Parakeet (*Psittacula alexandri*) fall under Near Threatened (NT) category of IUCN (Fig. 4). All the remaining species (n= 100) are placed in the Least Concern (LC) category.

DISCUSSION

Ecologically, birds are of tremendous importance to the human society. They act as a good medium for dispersing seeds, pollinating plants, biological control and they are important to continue the ecological cycle. (3-2-2). Despite small in size, this protected area supports diverse bird community and 10.89% of total avian species of this state (N = 937) are recorded here. Although we did not record the relative abundance of each species, still the avian diversity is comparable with many other protected areas of this state. For instance, Roy *et al.*, (2011) studied avifaunal diversity in three different national parks and reserve forest in North Bengal and recorded 117 bird species belonging to 42 families; Dubey *et al.*, (2015) noted 99

species belonging to 43 families, Pramanik *et al.*, (2010) reported 29 bird species of 20 families from Kulik Bird Santuary Raigang, and Patra & Chakrabarti (2014) observed 86 bird species belonging 10 orders and 35 families in Digha coast of West Bengal. Species composition of birds in an area is related to the type of vegetation, height above the sea level, availability of microhabitats and various other factors (Pramanik *et al.*, 2010). Perhaps heterogeneity of habitat in the study area augments availability of diverse resource, which in turn sustains different bird species with characteristic species richness.

Availability of food and suitable habitat attract resident and migrant birds to visit the sanctuary throughout the year. However, the species richness varies seasonally. This small protected area harbours 19 migratory species which include 15 winter visitors, 3 summer visitors and 1 passage migrant. Migratory birds displayed a definite species specific pattern for arrival at and departure from the study site. The basic requirements of migratory birds at their wintering ground are adequate food supply and safety (Lakshmi, 2006), which are fulfilled by BBWLS, nearby agricultural fields and also by river *Ichhamati*. This sanctuary also serve as important breeding habitat for 38 species (36 resident and 2 summer visitors) who construct nest within this wildlife sanctuary. This protected area serves as a regular breeding site for 'Near Threatened' (IUCN) Grey-headed Fish Eagle (*Icthyophaga ichthyaetus*). Hooded Pitta (*Pitta sordida*), a summer visitor to the region, recorded after 80 years from southern West Bengal (Law, 1938; Chakraborty *et al.*, 2016), also found to breed here.

Species assemblage within BBWLS also reflects possible variation in their functional roles, feeding habits and resource utilization pattern. The diverse feeding habit of the avifauna suggests that the study area provides a rich source of a variety of food resources. Insectivore species were highest in the study area, indicating rich abundance and easy availability of insects in this forested habitat. These insectivorous birds also play very important role in the biocontrol of insect pest thriving in the agriculture, horticulture, and forests (Mahabal *et al.*, 2005; Thakur *et al.*, 2010) of adjoining areas. But indiscriminate use of pesticides in surrounding paddy fields might lead to drastic decline in the insect abundance of these areas, leading to the lack of food for the insectivorous birds. If these birds forage on the insects exposed to such chemicals, then being in the higher trophic level they are at potential risk of decline suffering from toxic effects of bioaccumulation of chemical pesticides. So, monitoring insectivorous species of BBWLS might reflect the impact of pesticide use this avian guild.

Birds in different habitats are under threat due to increased anthropogenic activities resulting in habitat destruction and fragmentation (Baral & Inskip, 2005, Datta, 2011, Gautam & Kafle, 2007). Moreover, changes in climatic conditions in recent decades have been unanimously reported to influence bird diversity most negatively (Sekercioglu *et al.*, 2012). Inspite of the fact that conservation of global biodiversity has become the issue of prime importance in recent decades (Turner *et al.*, 1990; Ehrlich & Wilson, 1991), still most of the protected areas are presently inflicted with some major anthropogenic disturbances like urbanization, tourist pressure, livelihood dependence (mainly in the form of cattle grazing and fuel wood collection) and pollution (Islam & Rahmani, 2004; Mallick, 2010; Karmakar, 2011) and BBWLS is no exception. Presence of several villages around the sanctuary poses potentially high risk of encroachment, as well as, overexploitation of resources from this protected area. It has been observed during the course of this study that (legal or illegal) influx of large number of people within the sanctuary disturbed many shy and secretive bird species. Condition get even worse during mid winter (particularly during

December and January), while large number of people enter BBWLS for picnic, play loudspeakers and litter the area with leftover food, plastic and other materials. All these activities within any protected area are violation of the provisions of Wildlife (Protection) Act. These activities need to be urgently called off to protect the avifauna and other wildlife of BBWLS from sheer stress of habitat disturbance. Legislations should be more strictly implemented to prevent random human entry inside the sanctuary. Notifying a buffer area around the existing PA, if possible through community involvement, will ultimately decrease human pressure on the natural resources of the sanctuary.

This is the first scientific documentation of avian species richness in BBWLS, which supports a good number of birds. From the present study, the basic information of bird diversity and abundance patterns can be used for further ecological assessment & comparative research. Regular monitoring of avifauna is an excellent means of monitoring forest health, and it will also help to foster a sustainable improvement of the habitat. Monitoring avian community of this protected area might also provide an early indication if this ecosystem suffer from any detrimental change. This area constitutes a promising region for ecological and behavioural research of avifauna. In depth studies on population abundance, habitat use, nesting breeding and foraging behaviour and assessment of threats and conservation issues might be useful to bridge the gap of existing knowledge on avifauna of this study area.

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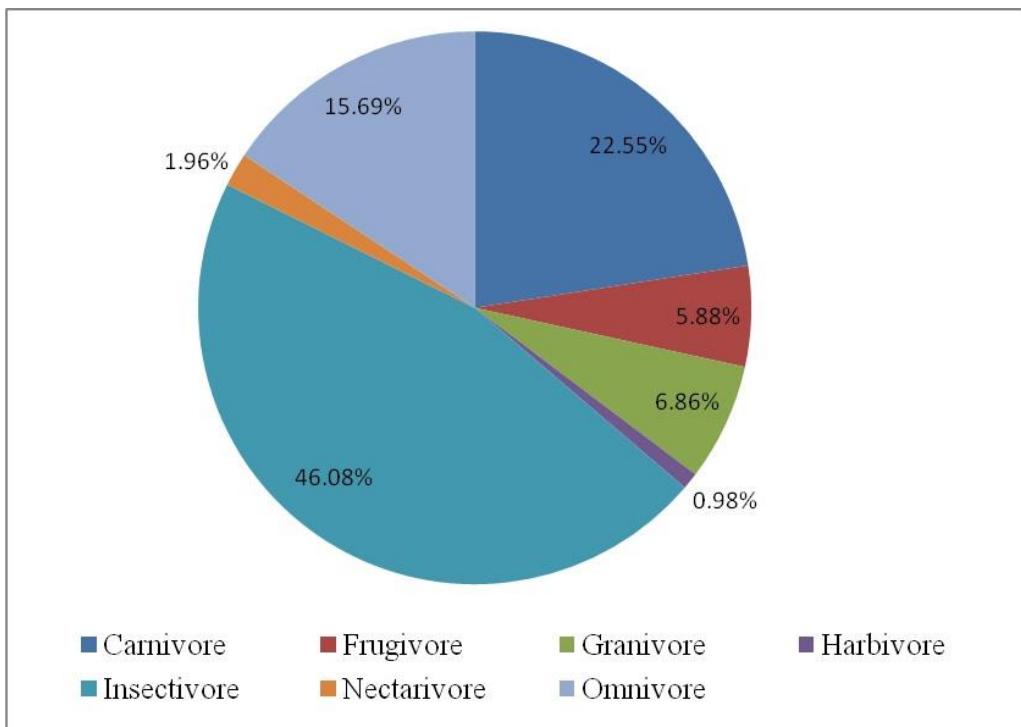


Fig. 2. Percentage of Feeding guilds

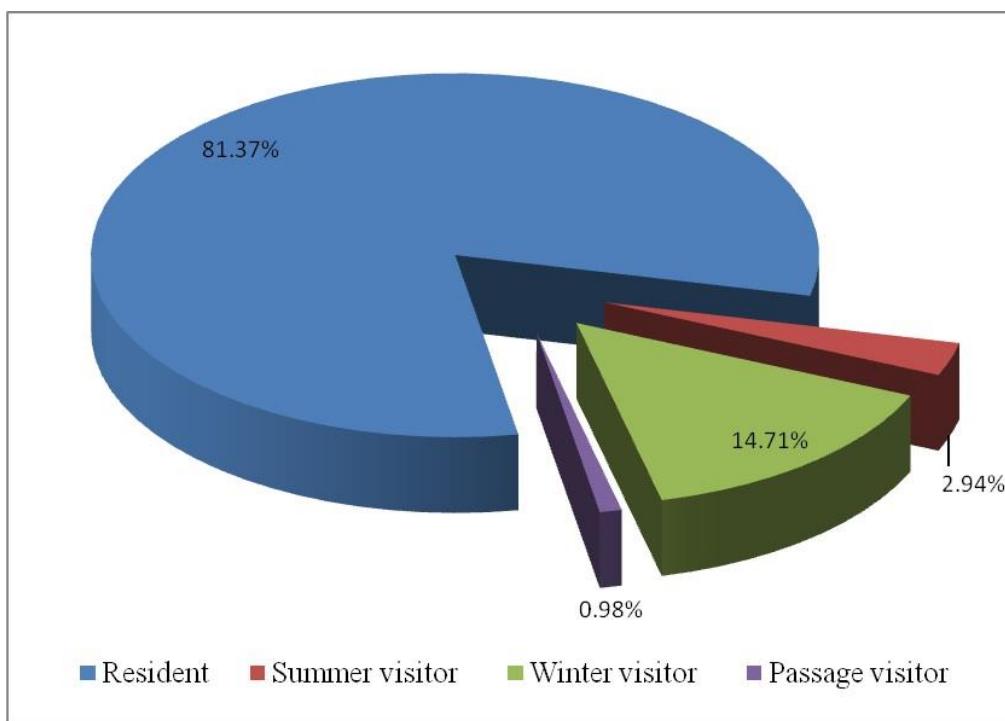


Fig. 3. Percentage of Seasonality

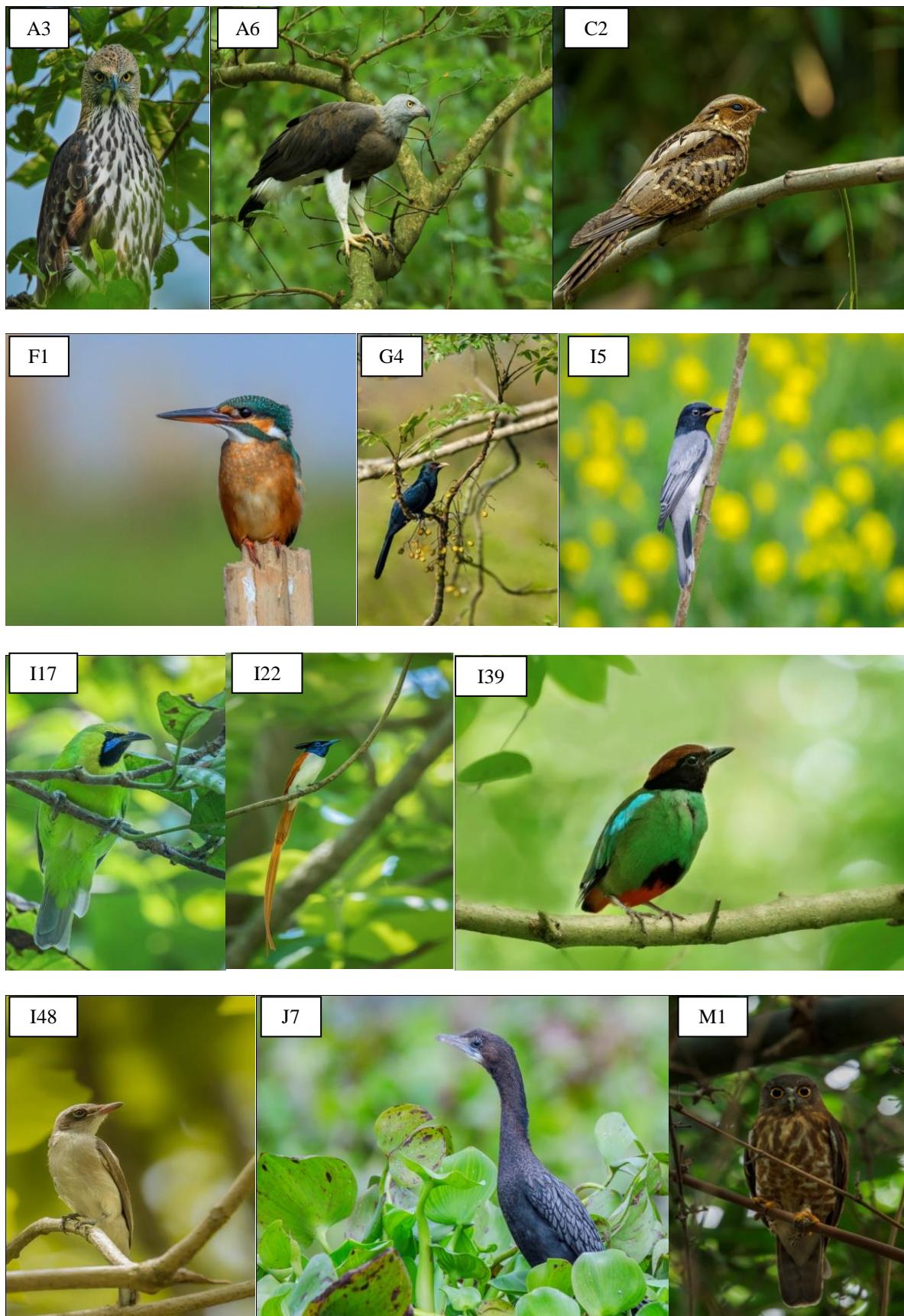


Fig. 4. Photographs of representative bird species
(see Table 1 for symbols and corresponding names)

Table 1. The bird species observed in Bibhutibhushan Wildlife Sanctuary, North 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India, along with respective feeding guild, seasonality and local status

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
Order: Accipitriformes					
A1	Accipitridae	Oriental Honey Buzzard (<i>Pernis ptilorhynchus</i>)	Ca	R	Co
A2		Crested Serpent Eagle (<i>Spilornis cheela</i>)	Ca	R	Fc
A3		Changeable Hawk Eagle (<i>Nisaetus cirrhatus</i>)	Ca	R	Co
A4		Booted Eagle (<i>Hieraetus pennatus</i>)	Ca	WV	Ra
A5		Shikra (<i>Accipiter badius</i>)	Ca	R	Fc
A6		Grey headed Fish Eagle (<i>Icthyophaga ichthyaetus</i>)	Ca	R	Co
Order: Anseriformes					
B1	Anatidae	Lesser Whistling-Duck (<i>Dendrocygna javanica</i>)	O	R	Vc
Order: Caprimulgiformes					
C1	Apodidae	Asian Palm Swift (<i>Cypsiurus balasiensis</i>)	I	R	Co
C2	Caprimulgidae	Large-tailed Nightjar (<i>Caprimulgus macrurus</i>)	I	R	Fc
C3		Indian Nightjar (<i>Caprimulgus asiaticus</i>)	I	R	Fc
Order: Charadriiformes					
D1	Charadriidae	Red-wattled Lapwing (<i>Vanellus indicus</i>)	Ca	R	Fc
D2	Scolopacidae	Green Sandpiper (<i>Tringa ochropus</i>)	I	WV	Fc
Order: Columbiformes					
E1	Columbidae	Rock Pigeon (<i>Columba livia</i>)	G	R	Vc
E2		Red Collared Dove (<i>Streptopelia tranquebarica</i>)	G	R	Co
E3		Spotted Dove (<i>Streptopelia chinensis</i>)	G	R	Vc

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
E4		Yellow-legged Green Pigeon (<i>Treron phoenicopterus</i>)	G	R	Co
E5		Emerald Dove (<i>Chalcophaps indica</i>)	G	R	Fc
Order: Coraciiformes					
F1	Alcedinidae	Common Kingfisher (<i>Alcedo atthis</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
F2		Stork-billed Kingfisher (<i>Pelargopsis capensis</i>)	Ca	R	Co
F3		White-throated Kingfisher (<i>Halcyon smyrnensis</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
F4	Coraciidae	Indian Roller (<i>Coracias benghalensis</i>)	I	R	Co
F5	Meropidae	Green Bee-eater (<i>Merops orientalis</i>)	I	R	Co
F6.		Chestnut-headed Bee-eater (<i>Merops leschenaultia</i>)	I	R	Ra
Order: Cuculiformes					
G1	Cuculidae	Greater Coucal (<i>Centropus sinensis</i>)	O	R	Vc
G2		Pied Cuckoo (<i>Clamator jacobinus</i>)	I	SV	Fc
G3		Chestnut-winged Cuckoo (<i>Clamator coromandus</i>)	I	P	Ra
G4		Asian Koel (<i>Eudynamys scolopaceus</i>)	O	R	Vc
G5		Common Hawk Cuckoo (<i>Hierococcyx varius</i>)	I	R	Co
G6		Indian Cuckoo (<i>Cuculus micropterus</i>)	I	R	Ra
Order: Gruiformes					
H1	Rallidae	White-breasted Waterhen (<i>Amaurornis phoenicurus</i>)	O	R	Co
H2		Watercock (<i>Gallicrex cinerea</i>)	H	R	Ra
Order: Passeriformes					
I1	Aegithinidae	Common Iora (<i>Aegithina tiphia</i>)	I	R	Co
I2.	Artamidae	Ashy Woodswallow (<i>Artamus fuscus</i>)	Ca	R	Co

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
I3	Campephagidae	Small Minivet (<i>Pericrocotus cinnamomeus</i>)	I	R	Co
I4		Rosy Minivet (<i>Pericrocotus roseus</i>)	I	WV	Ra
I5		Black-headed Cuckoo-Shrike (<i>Lalage melanoptera</i>)	O	R	Fc
I6	Cisticolidae	Plain Prinia (<i>Prinia inornata</i>)	I	R	Co
I7		Common Tailorbird (<i>Orthotomus sutorius</i>)	I	WV	Vc
I8	Corvidae	Rufous Treepie (<i>Dendrocitta vagabunda</i>)	I	R	Vc
I9		House Crow (<i>Corvus splendens</i>)	O	R	Vc
I10		Large-billed Crow (<i>Corvus macrorhynchos</i>)	O	R	Co
I11	Dicruridae	Black Drongo (<i>Dicrurus macrocercus</i>)	I	R	Vc
I12		Bronzed Drongo (<i>Dicrurus aeneus</i>)	I	R	Fc
I13		Hair-crested Drongo (<i>Dicrurus hottentottus</i>)	I	R	Ra
I14	Estrildidae	White-rumped Munia (<i>Lonchura striata</i>)	G	R	Co
I15		Scaly-breasted Munia (<i>Lonchura punctulata</i>)	G	R	Fc
I16	Hirundinidae	Barn Swallow (<i>Hirundo rustica</i>)	I	WV	Co
I17	Irenidae	Jerdon's Leafbird (<i>Chloropsis jerdoni</i>)	O	R	Co
I18	Laniidae	Brown Shrike (<i>Lanius cristatus</i>)	I	WV	Co
I19		Long-tailed Shrike (<i>Lanius schach</i>)	I	R	Co
I20	Leiothrichidae	Jungle Babbler (<i>Turdoides striata</i>)	O	R	Vc
I21	Monarchidae	Black-naped Monarch (<i>Hypothymis azurea</i>)	I	R	Fc
I22		Indian Paradise Flycatcher (<i>Terpsiphone paradise</i>)	I	SV	Co
I23	Motacillidae	Paddyfield Pipit (<i>Anthus rufulus</i>)	I	R	Co
I24		White Wagtail (<i>Motacilla alba</i>)	I	WV	Co

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
I25	Muscicapidae	Oriental Magpie-Robin (<i>Copsychus saularis</i>)	I	R	Vc
I26		Brown-breasted Flycatcher (<i>Muscicapa muttui</i>)	I	WV	Ra
I27		Blue-throated Flycatcher (<i>Cyornis rubeculoides</i>)	I	WV	Co
I28		Verditer Flycatcher (<i>Eumyias thalassinus</i>)	I	WV	Ra
I29		Taiga Flycatcher (<i>Ficedula albicilla</i>)	I	WV	Co
I30		Siberian Stonechat (<i>Saxicola maurus</i>)	I	WV	Fc
I31	Nectariniidae	Purple Sunbird (<i>Cinnyris asiaticus</i>)	N	R	Vc
I32		Purple-rumped Sunbird (<i>Leptocoma zeylonica</i>)	N	R	Co
I33	Oriolidae	Black-hooded Oriole (<i>Oriolus xanthornus</i>)	O	R	Co
I34		Indian Golden Oriole (<i>Oriolus kundoo</i>)	I	R	Fc
I35	Paridae	Cinereous Tit (<i>Parus cinereus</i>)	I	R	Fc
I36	Passeridae	House Sparrow (<i>Passer domesticus</i>)	O	R	Vc
I37	Pellorneidae	Abbott's Babbler <i>Malacocincla abbotti</i>	I	R	Co
I38	Phylloscopidae	Greenish Leaf Warbler (<i>Seicercus trochiloides</i>)	I	WV	Co
I39	Pittidae	Hooded Pitta (<i>Pitta sordid</i>)	I	SV	Co
I40	Pycnonotidae	Red-vented Bulbul (<i>Pycnonotus cafer</i>)	O	R	Vc
I41	Sturnidae	Asian Pied Starling (<i>Gracupica contra</i>)	O	R	Vc
I42		Chestnut-tailed Starling (<i>Sturnia malabarica</i>)	I	R	Co
I43		Common Myna (<i>Acridotheres tristis</i>)	O	R	Vc
I44		Jungle Myna (<i>Acridotheres fuscus</i>)	O	R	Vc
I45	Turdidae	Scaly Thrush (<i>Zoothera dauma</i>)	I	WV	Ra
I46		Orange-headed Thrush (<i>Geokichla citrina</i>)	I	R	Co

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
I47		Tickell's Thrush (<i>Turdus unicolor</i>)	I	WV	Ra
I48	Vangidae	Common Woodshrike (<i>Tephrodornis pondicerianus</i>)	O	R	Co
I49	Zosteropidae	Oriental White-eye (<i>Zosterops palpebrosus</i>)	I	R	Fc

Order: Pelecaniformes

J1	Ardeidae	Yellow Bittern (<i>Ixobrychus sinensis</i>)	Ca	R	Fc
J2		Indian Pond-Heron (<i>Ardeola grayii</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
J3		Cattle Egret (<i>Bubulcus ibis</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
J4		Intermediate Egret (<i>Ardea intermedia</i>)	Ca	R	Co
J5		Little Egret (<i>Egretta garzetta</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
J6	Ciconiidae	Asian Openbill (<i>Anastomus oscitans</i>)	Ca	R	Co
J7	Phalacrocoracidae	Little Cormorant (<i>Microcarbo niger</i>)	Ca	R	Vc
J8		Indian Cormorant (<i>Phalacrocorax fuscicollis</i>)	Ca	R	Fc

Order: Piciformes

K1	Picidae	Lesser Golden-backed Woodpecker (<i>Dinopium benghalense</i>)	I	R	Co
K2		Streak-throated Woodpecker (<i>Picus xanthopygaeus</i>)	I	R	Fc
K3		Greater Golden-backed Woodpecker (<i>Chrysocolaptes lucidus</i>)	I	R	Ra
K4		Fulvous-breasted Pied Woodpecker (<i>Dendrocopos macei</i>)	I	R	Co
K5	Ramphastidae	Lineated Barbet (<i>Psilopogon lineatus</i>)	F	R	Fc
K6		Blue-throated Barbet (<i>Psilopogon asiaticus</i>)	F	R	Vc
K7		Coppersmith Barbet (<i>Psilopogon haemacephalus</i>)	F	R	Fc

Order: Psittaciformes

L1	Psittaculidae	Red-breasted Parakeet	F	R	Ra
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Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Feeding Guild	Seasonality	Local Status
		(<i>Psittacula alexandri</i>)			
L2		Alexandrine Parakeet (<i>Psittacula eupatria</i>)	F	R	Co
L3		Rose-ringed Parakeet (<i>Psittacula krameri</i>)	F	R	Co
Order: Strigiformes					
M1	Strigidae	Brown Hawk Owl (<i>Ninox scutulata</i>)	Ca	R	Ra
M2		Spotted Owlet (<i>Athene brama</i>)	Ca	R	Co
M3		Collared Scops Owl (<i>Otus bakkamoena</i>)	Ca	R	Ra
M4	Tytonidae	Brown Fish Owl (<i>Ketupa zeylonensis</i>)	Ca	R	Fc

Diversity of Avifauna And Their Heterogeneous Habitat Preference In A Sub-Urban Area In West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

Avifauna are important for the ecosystem as they play various roles as scavengers, pollinators, seed dispersal agents and predators of insect pest and an important indicator to evaluate different habitats both qualitatively and quantitatively. A study was conducted during February 2012 to February 2015 in Chinsurah, the district town of Hooghly, West Bengal, India. This study was done in six different habitats present in the core region of the town. These are agricultural land, river bank, small woody area, small water body, grassland and human habitat. A total of 67 avian species were recorded during this study. These species show preferences to various habitats, where some are specialist to one of the habitats and some are generalist to different habitats. Abundance of birds in different habitats is different, most probably due to the variation in amounts of resources in these habitats. Due to loss of natural habitats habitat specialists are gradually replaced by habitat generalists.

Keywords : Avifauna, Chinsurah, Species richness, Habitat generalist, Habitat Specialist

INTRODUCTION

Study of biodiversity has been of prime focus towards the latter half of the last century. What started as a fashionable hobby in the Victorian era was gradually picked up with much seriousness, owing to the understanding of complex inter-relationships of different component of environment. More and more reports started to flow in and a panoramic overview of the global status of different organism began to emerge, of which the diversities of Indian bird populations have always been a topic of interest to ecologists. With the increase in number of natural and man made threats to the survival of different bird species, the diversity is subject to continuous changes. Bird-watching has gained much popularity, not just because of vibrant colours or the soothing notes of birds, but also because they are important members of any ecosystem and are serious markers of environmental fluctuations. A sharp decline in a specific bird's population can well mark the onset of catastrophe in an ecosystem. Hence to observe and analyse the changes, proper documentation of avifauna is necessary over different time span, in different ecosystems and geographical locations (Chaudhuri *et al.*, 2013).

Biodiversity conservation in urban areas has become significant not only because of increasing anthropogenic activities in urban centres but also because it is one of the innovative ways to conserve biodiversity as suggested by various global environmental conventions (Chaudhuri *et al.*, 2013). Progressive urbanization often leads to biotic homogenization whereby a few widespread and successful species replace a diverse avifauna

(Mc Kinney and Lockwood, 2001 & Crooks *et al.*, 2004). Study of avifaunal diversity in different urban habitats gives us proper knowledge about city planning and conservation.

Objective of this study is the quantification of avifaunal diversity from diverse habitat patches of Chinsurah, a sub-urban area in West Bengal, India. The changes in the population trends of bird species due to habitat alteration were also taken into account.

Study site

Present study is carried out in Chinsurah, the district town of Hooghly, West Bengal, India. It lies about 35 km. north of Kolkata. Chinsurah is at 22.90°N 88.39°E. The town is on the flood plain on the right bank of river Ganges (Bhagirathi-Hooghly). It is a town consisting of a large area of human habitation surrounded by small villages, farmlands and thin forest. Concretes as well as temporary colony like habitations cover most of the study area.



Fig. 1. Map of study site (Chinsurah)

This study was done in six different habitats (marked by various colours) present in different regions in the core region of Chinsurah. These habitats are agricultural land (YELLOW), river bank (BLUE), small woody area (GREEN), human habitat (RED), small water body and grassland. The last two are scattered all around the town.



Fig. 2. Habitat distribution in Chinsurah

MATERIALS & METHODS

Observations were made in the morning and afternoon from February 2012 to February 2015. Surveys were conducted at different locations like human habitats, large gardens, agriculture fields, wetlands, river banks, road side trees, rice research centre campus, mango orchards, and municipal damping area. At each sighting birds were counted using a binocular and identified. In case of doubtful identification, photographs were taken and the species is identified later by consulting experts. Area search method and opportunistic observations were used for sampling. Birds were observed using a binocular (Olympus 7 x 35 DPS I) and were identified following Grimmett *et al.* (1998) and Ali (2012). Photographs were taken with a digital camera (Nikon Coolpix S6200) for documentation.

The birds are divided into habitat specialist and habitat generalist. The species that use only one habitat is called Habitat Specialist and the species that use more than one habitat is called Habitat Generalist.

The abundance of bird species in different habitats is compared in graphical representation. Chi-square test is done to verify the significance of the observed data.

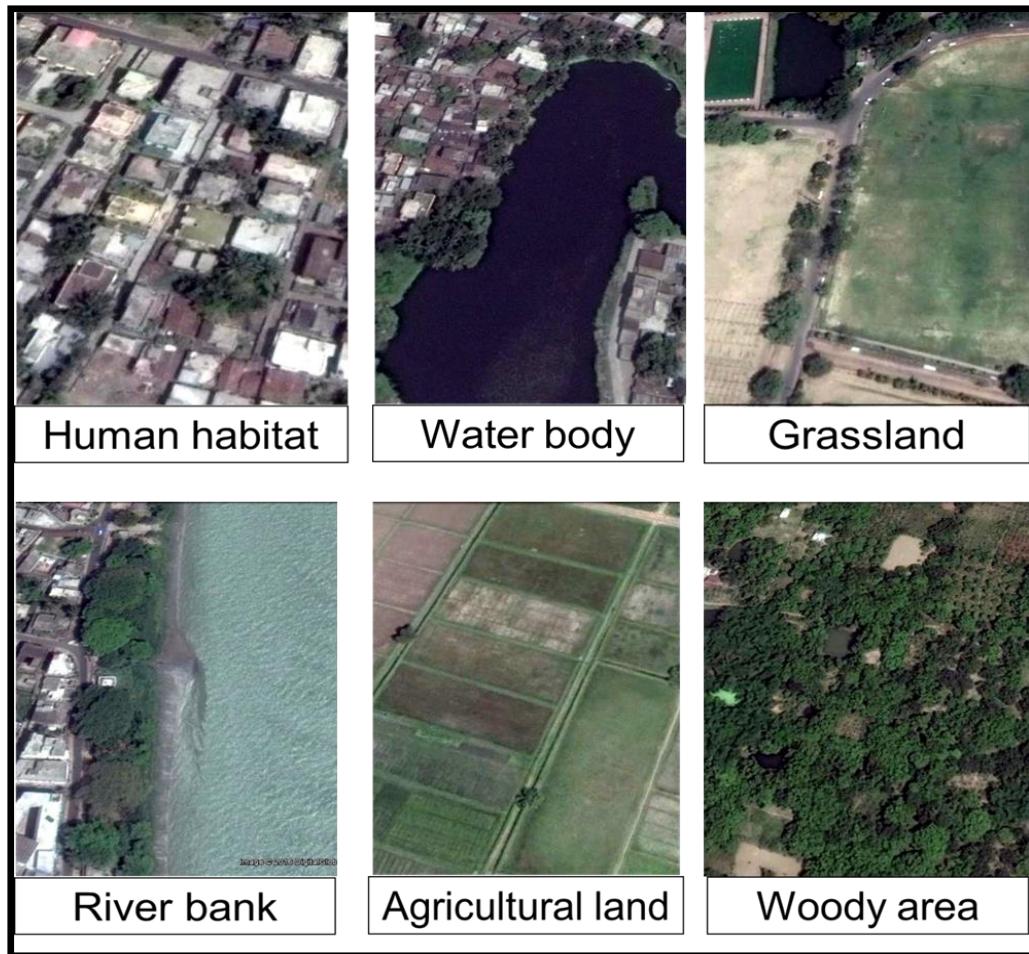


Fig. 3. Different types of habitats in Chinsurah

RESULTS

During the present study 67 bird species were observed and identified (Table 1; Plates 1 & 2). When the bird community of six different habitats were compared it was found that 23 species are found in 2 types of habitats; 6 species are found in 3 types of habitats; 3 species (Asian Pied Starling, Cattle Egret, Black Drongo) are found in the most no. (4) of habitats (Tables 2 & 3).

Table 1. The bird species observed in Chinsurah, West Bengal, India, along with respective habitats

(Abbreviation: HH- Human Habitat, AL- Agricultural Land, RB- River Bank, SWA- Small Woody Area, GL- Grassland, SWB- Small Water Body)

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Habitat
Order: Accipitriformes			
1	Accipitridae	Shikra <i>(Accipiter badiusi)</i>	SWA

Sl. No.	Family	Common Name (Scientific Name)	Habitat
2		Black Kite (<i>Milvus migrans</i>)	HH
Order: Caprimulgiformes			
3	Apodidae	Asian Palm Swift (<i>Cypsiurus balasiensis</i>)	HH, RB
4		House Swift (<i>Apus affinis</i>)	HH, RB
Order: Charadriiformes			
5	Scolopacidae	Common Sandpiper (<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>)	RB
Order: Columbiformes			
6	Columbidae	Rock Pigeon (<i>Columba livia</i>)	HH
7		Eurasian Collared Dove (<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>)	AL
8		Spotted Dove (<i>Streptopelia chinensis</i>)	HH, AL, SWB
9		Yellow-legged Green Pigeon (<i>Treron phoenicopterus</i>)	HH, SWA

Order: Coraciiformes			
10	Alcedinidae	Pied Kingfisher (<i>Ceryle rudis</i>)	SWB
11		Stork-billed Kingfisher (<i>Pelargopsis capensis</i>)	SWB
12		White-throated Kingfisher (<i>Halcyon smyrnensis</i>)	RB, SWB
13	Meropidae	Green Bee-eater (<i>Merops orientalis</i>)	HH, AL, SWA
14	Upupidae	Common Hoopoe (<i>Upupa epops</i>)	GL
Order: Cuculiformes			
15	Cuculidae	Greater Coucal (<i>Centropus sinensis</i>)	SWA
16		Pied Cuckoo (<i>Clamator jacobinus</i>)	HH
17		Asian Koel (<i>Clamator jacobinus</i>)	HH, SWA

Order: Passeriformes			
18	Alaudidae	Bengal Bush Lark (<i>Mirafra assamica</i>)	GL
19	Cisticolidae	Plain Prinia (<i>Prinia inornata</i>)	AL, SWA
20		Common Tailorbird (<i>Orthotomus sutorius</i>)	HH
21	Corvidae	Rufous Treepie (<i>Dendrocitta vagabunda</i>)	HH, SWA
22		House Crow (<i>Corvus splendens</i>)	HH, RB, GL
23		Large-billed Crow (<i>Corvus macrorhynchos</i>)	SWA
24	Dicruridae	Black Drongo (<i>Dicrurus macrocercus</i>)	HH, AL, SWA, GL
25	Estrildidae	Scaly-breasted Munia (<i>Lonchura punctulata</i>)	HH
26	Laniidae	Brown Shrike (<i>Lanius cristatus</i>)	HH, AL, SWA
27		Long-tailed Shrike (<i>Lanius schach</i>)	AL
28	Leiothrichidae	Jungle Babbler (<i>Turdoides striata</i>)	HH, SWA
29	Motacillidae	Paddy field Pipit (<i>Anthus rufulus</i>)	AL
30		Olive-backed Pipit (<i>Anthus hodgsoni</i>)	GL
31		White Wagtail (<i>Motacilla alba</i>)	GL
32		Western Yellow Wagtail (<i>Motacilla flava</i>)	GL
33	Muscicapidae	Oriental Magpie-Robin (<i>Copsychus saularis</i>)	HH, SWA
34		Taiga Flycatcher (<i>Ficedula albicilla</i>)	HH, SWA
35		Black Redstart (<i>Phoenicurus ochruros</i>)	HH, GL
36	Nectariniidae	Purple Sunbird (<i>Cinnyris asiaticus</i>)	HH
37		Purple-rumped Sunbird (<i>Leptocoma zeylonica</i>)	HH
38	Oriolidae	Black-hooded Oriole (<i>Oriolus xanthornus</i>)	HH, SWA
39		Indian Golden Oriole (<i>Oriolus kundoo</i>)	SWA

40		Black-naped Oriole (<i>Oriolus chinensis</i>)	SWA
41	Paridae	Cinereous Tit (<i>Parus cinereus</i>)	SWA
42	Passeridae	House Sparrow (<i>Passer domesticus</i>)	HH
43	Pycnonotidae	Red-vented Bulbul (<i>Pycnonotus cafer</i>)	HH, SWA
44		Red-whiskered Bulbul (<i>Pycnonotus jocosus</i>)	HH, SWA
45	Rhipiduridae	White-throated Fantail (<i>Rhipidura albicollis</i>)	HH, SWA
46	Sturnidae	Asian Pied Starling (<i>Gracupica contra</i>)	HH, AL, RB, GL
47		Chestnut-tailed Starling (<i>Sturnia malabarica</i>)	HH, SWA
48		Brahminy Starling (<i>Sturnia pagodarum</i>)	HH, SWA
49		Common Myna (<i>Acridotheres tristis</i>)	HH, AL, GL
50		Jungle Myna (<i>Acridotheres fuscus</i>)	HH, SWA
51		Bank Myna (<i>Acridotheres ginginianus</i>)	RB
Order: Pelecaniformes			
52	Ardeidae	Indian Pond-Heron (<i>Ardeola grayii</i>)	RB, SWB
53		Cattle Egret (<i>Bubulcus ibis</i>)	AL, RB, GL, SWB
54		Black-crowned Night Heron (<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i>)	RB
55	Ciconiidae	Asian Openbill (<i>Anastomus oscitans</i>)	SWB
56	Phalacrocoracidae	Little Cormorant (<i>Microcarbo niger</i>)	RB, SWB
57		Indian Cormorant (<i>Phalacrocorax fuscicollis</i>)	SWB
Order: Piciformes			
58	Picidae	Lesser Golden-backed Woodpecker (<i>Dinopium benghalense</i>)	HH, SWA
59		Yellow-crowned Woodpecker (<i>Leiopicus mahrattensis</i>)	SWA
60		Lesser Yellow nape (<i>Picus chlorolophus</i>)	SWA

61		Fulvous-breasted Woodpecker (<i>Dendrocopos macei</i>)	SWA
62	Ramphastidae	Blue-throated Barbet (<i>Psilopogon asiaticus</i>)	SWA
63		Coppersmith Barbet (<i>Psilopogon haemacephalus</i>)	HH, SWA
Order: Psittaciformes			
64	Psittaculidae	Alexandrine Parakeet (<i>Psittacula eupatria</i>)	SWA
65		Rose-ringed Parakeet (<i>Psittacula krameri</i>)	HH, SWA
Order: Strigiformes			
66	Strigidae	Spotted Owlet (<i>Athene brama</i>)	HH
67	Tytonidae	Barn Owl (<i>Tyto alba</i>)	HH, SWA

Table 2. Distribution of bird species among habitats
 (Abbreviation: HH- Human Habitat, AL- Agricultural Land, RB- River Bank, SWA- Small Woody Area, GL- Grassland, SWB- Small Water Body)

	HH	AL	RB	SWA	GL	SWB
HH	9	0	2	16	1	0
AL	0	3	0	1	0	0
RB	2	0	3	0	0	3
SWA	16	1	0	11	0	0
GL	1	0	0	0	5	0
SWB	0	0	3	0	0	4

*6 species are found in 3 types of habitats; 3 species (Asian Pied Starling, Cattle Egret, Black Drongo) are found in 4 types of habitats.

Table 3. Species diversity in different habitats

Habitat	Human habitat	Agricultural land	River bank	Small woody area	Grassland	Small water body
Species diversity	36	11	11	33	12	8

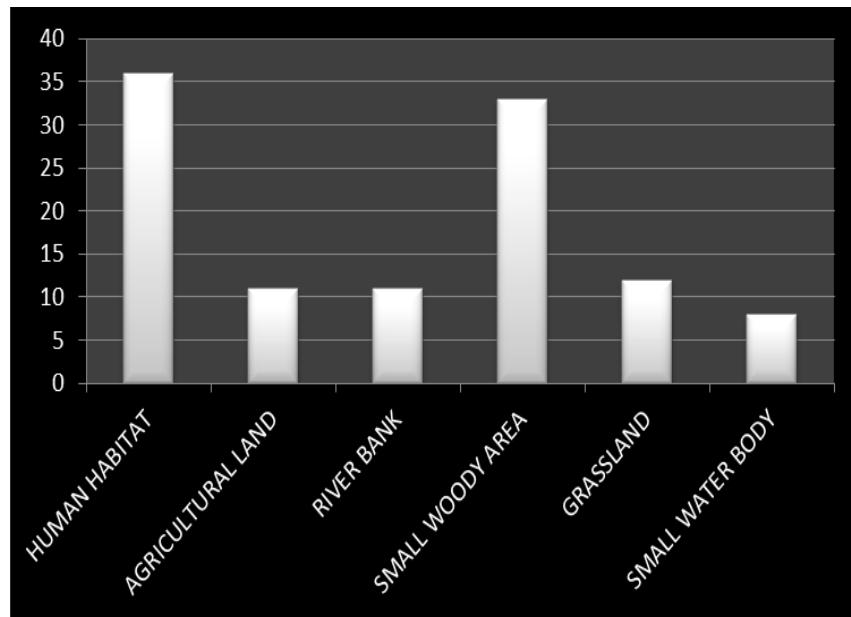


Fig. 4. Total no. of species in different habitat

A **chi-square test** was done to verify the significance of this data. The calculated value of chi-square = **42.24 > 11.07** = critical value of chi-square at 5% level of significance for degree of freedom 5. So, there is **significant variation** with the data. Now, it can be said that Human Habitat has highest species richness followed by Small Woody Area. Least amount of species richness is present in Small Water Body (Fig. 4).

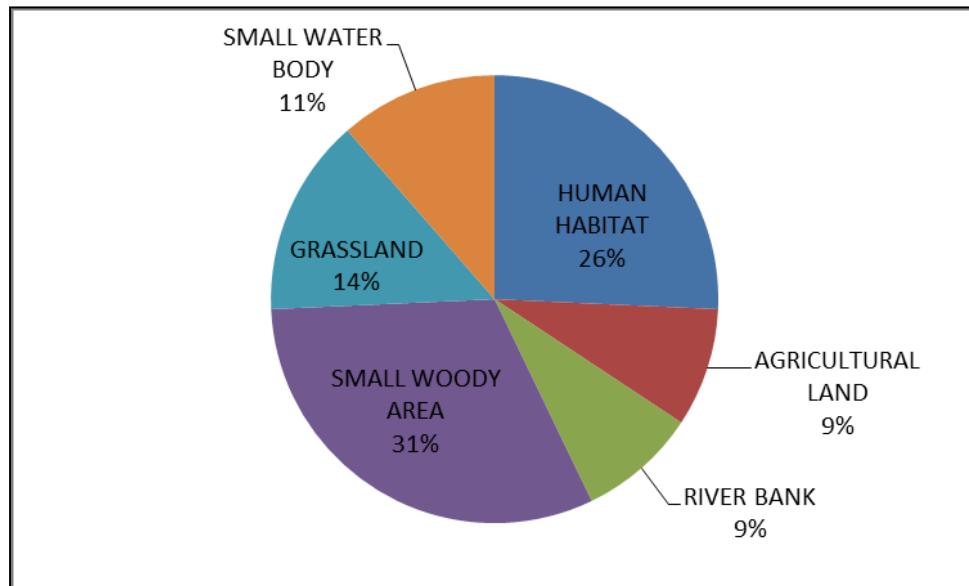


Fig. 5. Habitat preference by Specialist species

A **chi-square test** was done to verify the significance of the data of Table 4, in case of Habitat Specialist species. The calculated value of chi-square = **9.74 < 11.07** = critical value of chi-square at 5% level of significance for degree of freedom 5. So, there is **no significant variation** with the data.

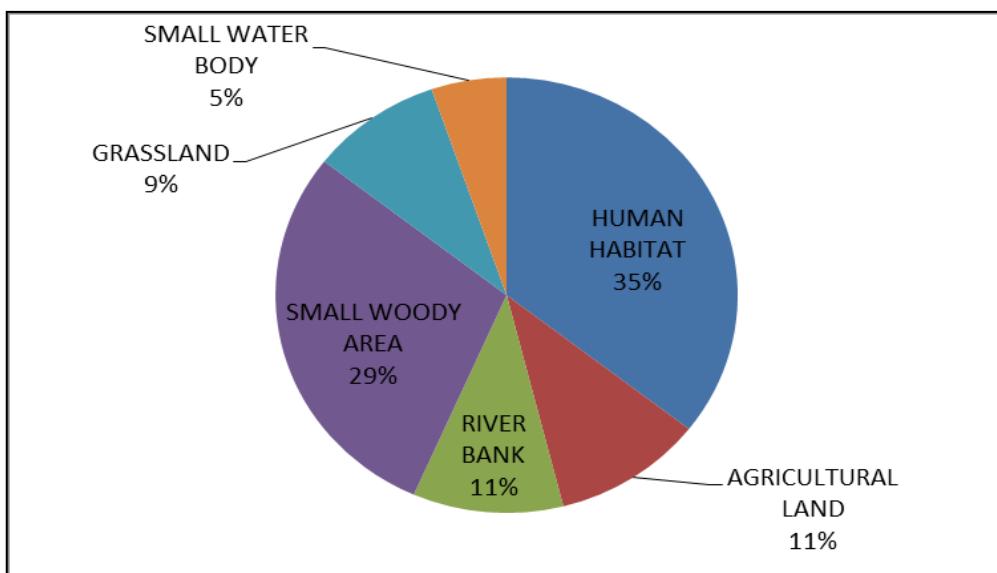


Fig. 6. Habitat preference by Generalist species

No. of Habitat specialist species (species that use only one habitat) found in this study is 35 and no. of Habitat generalist species (species that use more than one habitat) is 32.

Table 4. No. of Specialist species present in different habitats

Habitat	Human habitat	Agricultural land	River bank	Small woody area	Grassland	Small water body
No. of Habitat Specialist species	9	3	3	11	5	4

Table 5. No. of Generalist species present in different habitats.

Habitat	Human habitat	Agricultural land	River bank	Small woody area	Grassland	Small water body
No. of Habitat Generalist species	27	8	8	22	7	4

A **chi-square test** was done to verify the significance of the data of Table 5, in case of Habitat Generalist species. The calculated value of chi-square = **35 > 11.07** = critical value of chi-square at 5% level of significance for degree of freedom 5. So, there is **significant variation** with the data.

So, it can be said that there is no significant variation in the presence of Specialist species in different habitats; rather more or less all the habitats have its own species which are specialist in occupying those habitats. But in case of Generalist species, Human habitat contains most no. of species followed by small woody area.

DISCUSSION

Human habitats are enjoyed by most no. of species, probably due to presence of various resource materials in large amount that are exploited by the birds. The garbage and thrown away foods are a huge source of food materials which are only found in human habitats. Apart from these fruits from road side trees and ground insects help the human habitat to become a place with full of resource materials for birds. In Grassland, Small water body, River bank and Agricultural land, the total percentage of habitat specialist (43%) is more than the total percentage of habitat generalist (36%). This is most probably due to the availability of specialised resources in those habitats. As most habitat specialists have a special choice in their food preference, they occupy that habitat which has a plenty supply of that resource material. One severe problem, experienced during this study is that, the natural habitats for these avian species are being destroyed at an alarming rate due to anthropogenic activities. The trees are being cut for household and commercial purposes. The water bodies are being filled regularly for construction purposes. The agricultural systems are being disturbed by large scale grazing, courtesy domestic animals of the villagers. Due to loss of natural habitats, number of Habitat Specialist species are declining. Human Habitat, containing the most Habitat Generalist species, is engulfing the natural habitats. Habitat Specialists are solely dependent upon the habitats where they live. As those habitats are decreasing, the Habitat Specialists are being replaced gradually by Habitat generalists. Proper city planning and sustainable development are needed immediately. A balance in the total amount of all the habitats is required to protect the avifauna of this town. To save this urban avifaunal diversity awareness in the local people about the ecosystem and environment is needed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to Dr. Sumana Saha who constantly encouraged me to carry on the work. I am grateful to Dr. Kuladeep Roy for his support in this study. I would also like to thank Mr. Kunal Sarkar who helped me a lot in the field. My sincere thanks go to Google for using the satellite maps of the study areas.

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PLATE 1
Photographs of representative bird species
(see Table 4 for Sl. No. and corresponding names)
[17,46 – Human Habitat] [19,13 – Agricultural Land] [53,57 – River Bank]

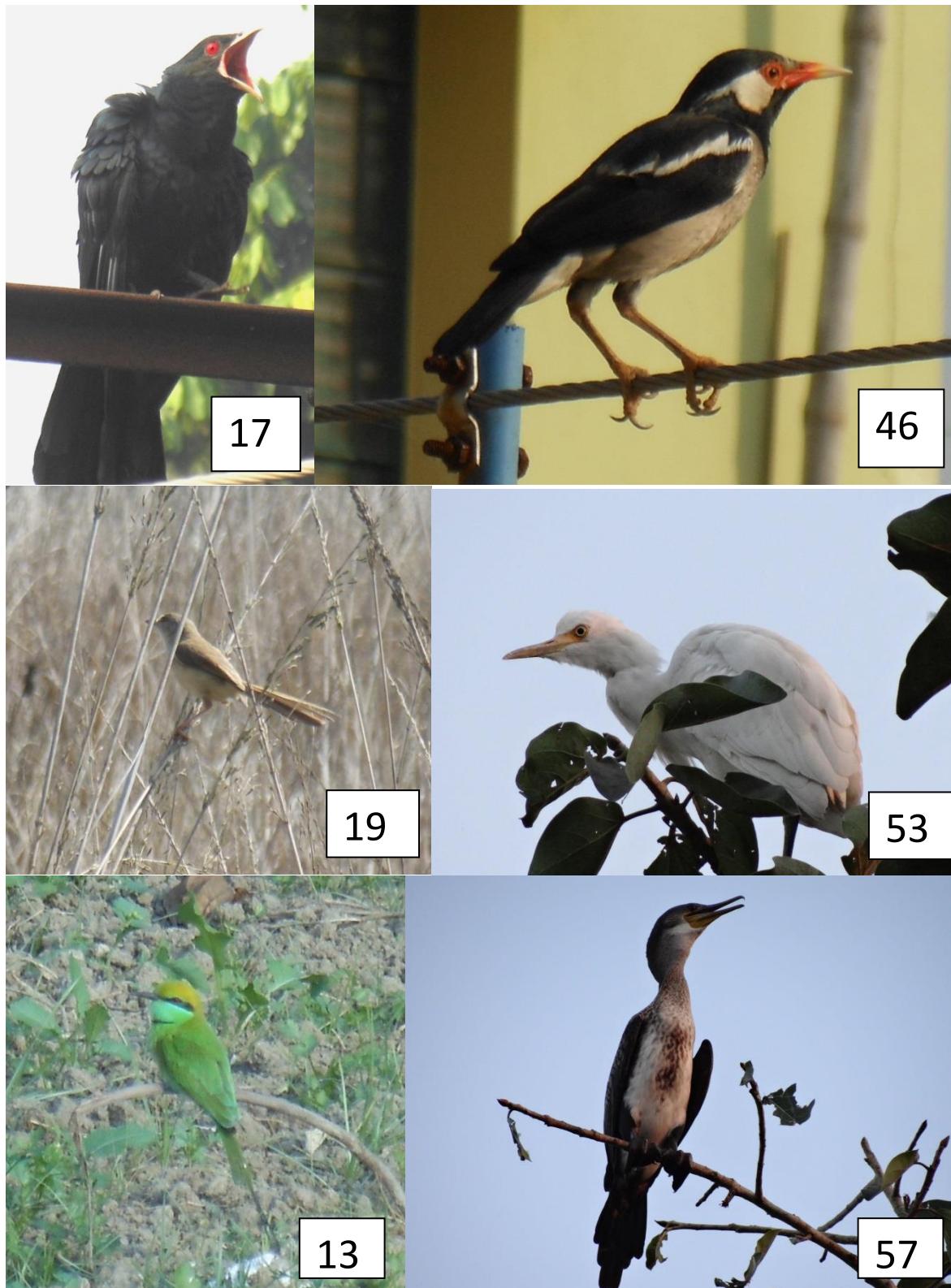
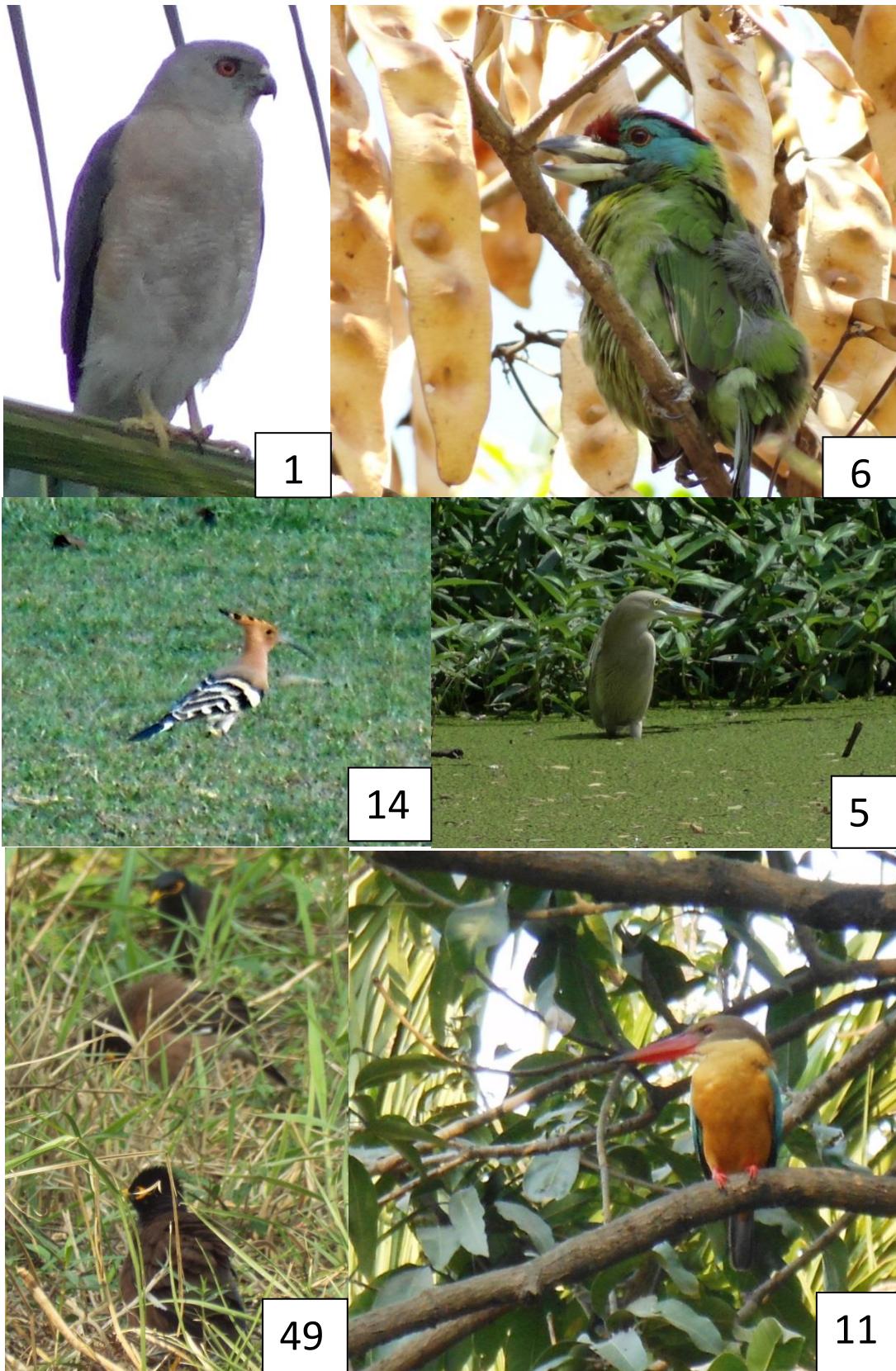


PLATE 2
Photographs of representative bird species
(see Table 4 for Sl. No. and corresponding names)
[1,6 – Small Woody Area] [14,49 - Grassland] [5,11 – Small Water Body]



Comparing Avifaunal Diversity In And Around Pench Tiger Reserve, Maharashtra And Madhya Pradesh

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ABSTRACT

Large tracts of natural habitat are being readily replaced by urban sprawl worldwide. We have limited knowledge about the anthropogenic activities on native species in these ecological regions. Human intervention has led to conversion of much of the global diversity by means of habitat alterations. Our conservation methods are also suffering from those superficial strategies. The present study was carried out to investigate the importance of habitat heterogeneity for the diversity, distribution and abundance of avifauna in and around Pench Tiger Reserve. In February 2014, a total of 79 bird species were recorded during the study period, applying the modified point count method. We compared species abundance and richness in Pench Tiger Reserve, considering four zones as metacommunity. Avifaunal community was distributed among Kolitmara (Western Pench, Maharashtra), Sillari (Maharashtra), Mansinghdeo (Maharashtra) and Seoni, Pench (Madhya Pradesh). Site specific biodiversity indices reflect the occurrence pattern of avifauna. Shannon –Wiener and Species diversity Index scored highest (9.56 and 1.78 respectively) in Mansinghdeo Wildlife Sanctuary. But species dominance was found high (0.62) in and around Sillari. Study areas with dense canopy closure were found to have more habitat specialist bird species, while areas having human settlements showed more opportunistic ones. An overall negative impact of human settlements on avian diversity, distribution and abundance was evidenced from the present study but more intensive study is needed to infer on the dynamics. Moreover, intensive studies may enrich us about avian diversity and distribution pattern of the study zone.

Keywords: Habitat alterations, Habitat heterogeneity, Avifauna, Species abundance, Biodiversity indices

INTRODUCTION

Pench Tiger Reserve (PTR) (77 °55'W to 79°35'E and 21 08' S to 22 00'N), lies in the south west region of the state of Madhya Pradesh. The Tiger reserve comprises of the sanctuary and the National park of the same name Covering an area of 757.85 sq.km. zoogeographically PTR is a part of Oriental region and floristically it belongs to the Indo-Malayan region. Among its huge fauna, avifauna includes 162 resident, 77 winter visitor, 5 summer visitor, 17 local migratory and 5 vagrant /straggler species of birds.



Diversity study was mainly confined to four areas, which are as follows : Site 1 – Kolitmara (Western Pench, Maharashtra), Site 2 – Sillari (Maharashtra), Site 3- Mansingdeo Wildlife Sanctuary (Maharashtra) and Site 4 – Seoni Pench (Madhya Pradesh).

In 1977 an area of 449.39 sq. km. was notified as the Pench Game Sanctuary (vide Madhya Pradesh State Forest Department Memo No. F/15/77-10(3) Bhopal, dated 30.09.1977). In March 1983, the Government of Madhya Pradesh notified its intention to constitute an area of 292.85 sq. km. as Pench National Park, to be carved out of the pre-existing Pench Sanctuary area [vide notification No. 15/5/82-10(2) Bhopal dated 01.03.1983 (3)]. The present Pench Tiger Reserve was included into the stream of the Tiger Reserves in 1992. This was then the 19th Tiger Reserve of India. The Pench River, from which the reserve derives the name, flows through the center of the park dividing it into the west Chindwara and the east Seoni block. The total area of the National Park is 292.85-sq. km. out of which 145.24 sq. km. lies in Seoni District and the rest in Chindwara District (Basu, 2012).

MATERIALS & METHODS

Point Count for Bird Census

We collected data on the relative abundance of individual bird species at multiple point-count locations. Point locations (with an inter station distance of 150 m) were sampled between 22- 25 February, 2015. Birds flying over the station were not recorded because they were unlikely to be breeding in the area. All bird surveys were conducted by the primary author on clear days during the first 4 hrs following sunrise, to coincide with peak singing activity. According to Sutherland (2006) point count method is the most effective for estimating avifaunal diversity from varied habitat types. In the present study a fixed radius circular plot method was used. At each point count observations were made for 10 minutes for all the birds seen and photographed if not identified immediately.

Birds seen or heard within the fixed radius plot were counted separately from those detected outside the plot. Grimmett *et al.* (1999), Ali (2002) were followed for identification. Replication in space rather than performing multiple point counts at fewer locations can be an advantage, because such replication leads to more certainty about the species-habitat

associations at the expense of certainty about a particular species' presence at any individual point (Bolger *et al.*, 1997, Goodinson, 2000).

Diversity indices

Structural associations (% abundance) were also analyzed from pooled data and finally enumerating avifaunal diversity by applying biodiversity indices (Brower *et.al.*,1997). These include- Shannon-Wiener index, Evenness index, Species diversity index and Species richness.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1. Recorded Avian Species.

Sl. No.	Name	Scientific Name	Family	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4
1.	Lesser whistling-Duck	<i>Dendrocygna javanica</i>	Anatidae	✓			
2.	Ruddy Shelduck	<i>Tadorna ferruginea</i>	Anatidae	✓			
3.	Spot-billed duck	<i>Anas poecilorhyncha</i>	Anatidae	✓			
4.	Lesser yellownape	<i>Picus chlorolophus</i>	Pividae			✓	✓
5.	Malabar Pied Hornbill	<i>Anthracoceros coronatus</i>	Bucerotidae		✓	✓	
6.	Common Hoopoe	<i>Upupa epops</i>	Upuidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
7.	Indian Roller	<i>Coracias benghalensis</i>	Coraciidae	✓		✓	✓
8.	Common kingfisher	<i>Alcedo atthis</i>	Alcedinidae	✓		✓	✓
9.	Stork-billed Kingfisher	<i>Halcyon capensis</i>	Alcedinidae	✓		✓	
10.	White Throated Kingfisher	<i>Halcyon smyrnensis</i>	Alcedinidae	✓		✓	
11.	Pied Kingfisher	<i>Ceryle rudis</i>	Alcedinidae	✓	✓		
12.	Green Bee Eater	<i>Merops orientalis</i>	Meropidae	✓	✓		
13.	Indian Cuckoo	<i>Cuculus micropterus</i>	Cuculidae	✓		✓	✓
14.	Asian Koel	<i>Eudynamys scolopacea</i>	Cuculidae	✓		✓	
15.	Greater Coucal	<i>Centropus sinensis</i>	Cuculidae			✓	
16.	Alexandrine Parakeet	<i>Psittacula eupatria</i>	Psittaculidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
17.	Rose Ringed Parakeet	<i>Psittacula krameri</i>	Psittaculidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
18.	Plum Headed Parakeet	<i>Psittacula cyanocephala</i>	Psittaculidae	✓	✓	✓	
19.	Asian Palm Swift	<i>Cypsiurus balasiensis</i>	Apodidae	✓	✓	✓	
20.	House Swift	<i>Apus affinis</i>	Apodidae	✓		✓	
21.	Spotted Dove	<i>Streptopelia chinensis</i>	Columbidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
22.	Eurasian Collared Dove	<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>	Columbidae		✓	✓	
23.	Emerald Dove	<i>Chalcophaps indica</i>	Columbidae		✓	✓	
24.	Yellow-footed Green Pigeon	<i>Treron phoenicoptera</i>	Columbidae		✓	✓	
25.	White Breasted Waterhen	<i>Amaurornis phoenicurus</i>	Rallidae	✓	✓		
26.	Common Coot	<i>Fulica atra</i>	Rallidae		✓	✓	

27.	Eurasian Thick-knee	<i>Burhinus oedicnemus</i>	Burhinidae		✓	✓	✓
28.	Black Winged Stilt	<i>Himantopus himantopus</i>	Recurvirostridae		✓	✓	
29.	Little Ringed Plover	<i>Chararadious dubius</i>	Charadriidae	✓		✓	
30.	Yellow- wattled Lapwing	<i>Venellus malabaricus</i>	Charadriidae	✓		✓	
31.	Red –wattled Lapwing	<i>Venellus indicus</i>	Charadriidae	✓		✓	
32.	River Tern	<i>Sterna aurantia</i>	Sternidae		✓	✓	
33.	Orient Honey-buzzard	<i>Pernis ptilorhyncus</i>	Accipitridae	✓			✓
34.	Black –shouldered Kite	<i>Elanus caeruleus</i>	Accipitridae	✓			
35.	Brahminy Kite	<i>Haliastur Indus</i>	Accipitridae	✓			
36.	Pallas's Fish Eagle	<i>Haliaeetus leucoryphus</i>	Accipitridae	✓			
37.	Egyptian Vulture	<i>Neophron percnopterus</i>	Accipitridae		✓		
38.	Crested Serpent Eagle	<i>Spilornis cheela</i>	Accipitridae		✓	✓	
39.	Shikra	<i>Accipiter badius</i>	Accipitridae		✓	✓	
40.	Little Grebe	<i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i>	Podicipedidae	✓			
41.	Darter	<i>Anhinga melanogaster</i>	Anhingidae	✓			
42.	Little Cormorant	<i>Phalacrocorax niger</i>	Phalacrocoracidae	✓			
43.	Great Cormorant	<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i>	Phalacrocoracidae	✓			
44.	Little Egret	<i>Egretta garzetta</i>	Ardeidae	✓	✓	✓	
45.	Grey Heron	<i>Ardea cinerea</i>	Ardeidae	✓	✓	✓	
46.	Purple Heron	<i>Ardea purpurea</i>	Ardeidae		✓	✓	
47.	Great Egret	<i>Casmerodius albus</i>	Ardeidae		✓	✓	
48.	Black Crowned Night Heron	<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i>	Ardeidae		✓	✓	
49.	Black –headed Ibis	<i>Threskiornis melanocephalus</i>	Threskiornithidae		✓	✓	
50.	Painted Stork	<i>Mycteria leucocephala</i>	Ciconiidae		✓	✓	
51.	Asian Open Bill	<i>Anas tomusoscitans</i>	Ciconiidae			✓	
52.	Black Stork	<i>Ciconia nigra</i>	Ciconiidae		✓	✓	
53.	Woolly-necked Stork	<i>Ciconia episcopus</i>	Ciconiidae		✓		
54.	Brown Shrike	<i>Lanius cristatus</i>	Laniidae			✓	✓
55.	Long –tailed Shike	<i>Lanius schach</i>	Laniidae			✓	✓
56.	RufousTreePie	<i>Dendrocitta vagabunda</i>	Corvidae	✓	✓		✓
57.	Black-hooded Oriole	<i>Oriolus xanthornus</i>	Oriolidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
58.	Large Cuckooshrike	<i>Coraci namacei</i>	Campephagidae		✓		
59.	Small Minivet	<i>Pericrocotus cinnamomeus</i>	Campephagidae	✓		✓	
60.	Long-tailed Minivet	<i>Pericrocotus ethologus</i>	Campephagidae			✓	
61.	Scarlet Minivet	<i>Pericrocotus flammeus</i>	Campephagidae			✓	
62.	Black Drongo	<i>Dicrurus macrocercus</i>	Dicruridae	✓	✓	✓	

63.	Orange-headed Thrush	<i>Zoothera citrina</i>	Turdidae		✓	✓	
64.	Oriental Magpie Robin	<i>Copsychus saularis</i>	Muscicapidae		✓	✓	
65.	Indian Robin	<i>Saxicoloides fulicata</i>	Muscicapidae		✓	✓	
66.	Black Redstart	<i>Phoenicurus ochruros</i>	Muscicapidae	✓			
67.	Common starling	<i>Sturnus vulgaris</i>	Sturnidae	✓			
68.	Asian Pied Sterling	<i>Sturnus contra</i>	Sturnidae		✓	✓	
69.	Common Myna	<i>Acridotheres tristis</i>	Sturnidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
70.	Red-vented Bulbul	<i>Pycnonotus cafer</i>	Pycnonotidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
71.	Common tailor Bird	<i>Orthotomus sutorius</i>	Cisticolidae	✓	✓	✓	✓
72.	Common Babbler	<i>Turdoides caudatus</i>	Leiothrichidae	✓	✓		
73.	Jungle Babbler	<i>Turdoides striatus</i>	Leiothrichidae		✓	✓	
74.	Forest Wagtail	<i>Dendronanthus indicus</i>	Motacillidae		✓	✓	
75.	White Wagtail	<i>Motacilla alba</i>	Motacillidae		✓	✓	
76.	Yellow Wagtail	<i>Motacila flava</i>	Motacillidae		✓	✓	
77.	Peacock	<i>Pavo cristatus</i>	Phasianidae				
78.	Grey Horn bill	<i>Ocyceros birostris</i>	Bucerotidae	✓		✓	
79.	Black sholdered Kite	<i>Elanus caeruleus</i>	Accipitridae			✓	✓

Table 2. Site specific biodiversity indices of recorded avian species

Diversity Indices	SITE 1		SITE 2	SITE 3	SITE 4
MARGALEF'S INDEX	4.61		1.107	4.29	3.32
PIELOU'S EVENNESS INDEX	0.79		4.29	6.89	0.99
SHANNON WIENER INDEX	1.553		1.293	9.563	0.692
SPECIES DIVERSITY INDEX	1.56		0.707	1.78	1.41
DOMINANCE DIVERSITY INDEX	0.4		0.625	0.4	-

The major objective of the study was to compare the avifaunal diversity (Table 1) in four different zones (sites) of Pench Tiger Reserve. These zones have little difference in respect to their topological characteristics or in ecological characters. The sites are different in terms of compactness of vegetation, canopy cover and most importantly the degree of human intervention and exploitation. The results show that Shannon- Wiener Index and Species Diversity Index (Fig. 1, 2) are higher in case of Mansinghdeo Wildlife Sanctuary i.e., 9.56 and 1.78 respectively, as compared to other zones. It is to note that as compared to other sites, Mansinghdeo has less exploitation and less human activities with highest vegetation compactness causing more bird species to assemble; whereas Dominance diversity index (Fig.3) of Sillari is 0.625 that appears much higher than other places. In Sillari, vegetation is less compact with more human activities, causing more of opportunistic species to take refuge. Though a little difference can be made in these zones, yet, more human activities has

been observed in case of Kolitmara and Sillari. Such a situation might have led to more of opportunistic birds who mostly stay in close proximity to humans, resulting in decrease of heterogeneity and higher dominance index (Fig 3). For example, Jungle Babbler, a completely opportunistic population, is much high in Sillari, as they basically depend on human leftovers (Table 1). Find of more of opportunistic species in Kolitmara may be related with the maximum human activity. High diversity recorded at Mansinghdeo speaks of habitat heterogeneity. Study areas with dense canopy cover were found to favour more habitat specialist bird species. An overall negative impact of human settlements on avian diversity, distribution and abundance was evidenced from the present study. However, more intensive study is needed to elaborate the explanation of diversity, distribution and abundance of avifauna in Pench Tiger Reserve.

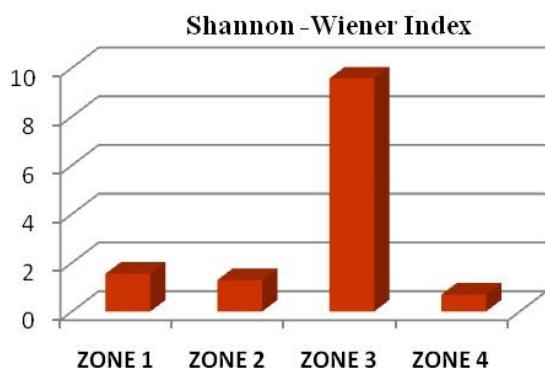


Fig. 1

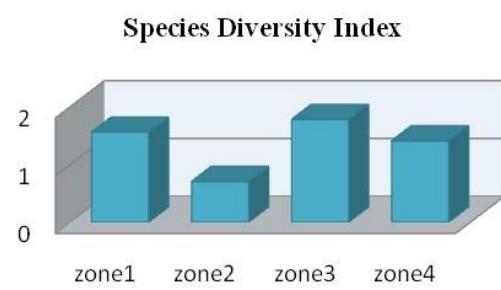


Fig. 2

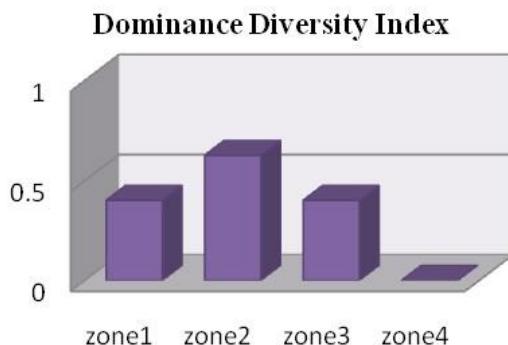


Fig. 3

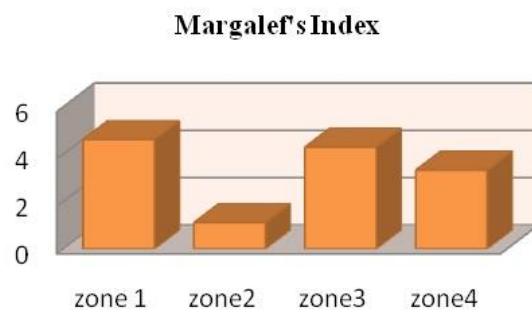


Fig. 4

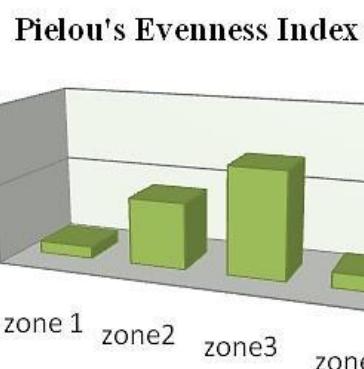


Fig. 5

CONCLUSION

Unprecedented rates of species extinctions have prompted extensive research into the consequences of biodiversity losses on ecosystem functioning especially in our country. The consequences of species loss for the functioning of ecosystems have been addressed through several major research programmes in recent years, mostly in terrestrial environments (Kinzig *et al.*, 2001; Loreau *et al.*, 2002). Biodiversity loss in ecosystems is an increasing phenomenon, mainly due to human activity (Abell, 2002). The main causes are habitat destruction and defragmentation, exotic species introduction and global climate change impacts (Saunders *et al.*, 2002).

Above study conducted leads to a conclusion that the entire park encompassing the area partly in Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra have different canopy cover type. As in Kolitmara, the canopy is moderately dense where as in Seoni, Pench (Madhya Pradesh) have low canopy cover, in contrast zones of Mansingdeo Wildlife Sanctuary and Silliary have much denser canopy cover .The most highlighted part of the study is that due to high human movements these areas are losing their heterogeneity and birds of more opportunistic type are inhabiting these areas who also have negative influences on the rest of the avifauna that are not accustomed with humans. Our short-term study involved only a few selected patches of forests; a more intensive study might unfold many more spectrum. Detailed study might improve the list of avian species and their characteristic distribution in different forest patches from the present location. The impact of anthropogenic alteration of the habitats in and around Pench National Park also needs further intensive study.

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Winter Avian Aggregation at Santragachi Jheel: An Urban Wetland in West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

India has an estimated 58.2 million hectares of wetlands that are important repositories of aquatic biodiversity. The variety of wetlands in India perfectly matches the diverse eco-climatic regimes of the country. This includes wetland systems ranging from high altitude cold desert wetlands to hot and humid wetlands in coastal zones with its characteristically diverse flora and fauna. Around 15 km away from the center of Kolkata city, West Bengal, lies a 12.77 ha (mean depth 1.5 m) freshwater lake, known as the Santragachi Jheel, in the district of Howrah of West Bengal, India (Lat. 22° 34' 60N Long. 88° 17' 60E; Altitude 8m msl) which has recently attracted the attention of avian migrant watchers India-wide. The Jheel plays an important role as the host of thousands (4000-5000) of migratory water birds as well as many resident species during the colder months of the year (October – March). More than twenty-five bird species colonize this lake during the winter months including the most abundant Lesser Whistling Duck and comparably infrequent Northern Pintail, Northern Shoveller, Gargany, Gadwall, Cotton Pigmy Goose, Common Teal and Baikal Teal. But this urban wetland most recently has been subjected to a wide variety of turbulences that includes incessant anthropogenic activities, improper development and management structures and lack of awareness about the vital role played by this ecosystem. So it was felt important to identify the status of Santragachi Jheel with reference to urbanization and various anthropogenic interventions to formulate suitable conservation, restoration and management strategies for this unique wetland with its magnificent avian repository.

Keywords: Conservation, Habitat alteration, Santragachi Jheel, Waterbirds, Winter migrants

INTRODUCTION

Wetlands being the transitional zone between land and water are perhaps the most attractive landscapes that have earned explicit global importance during the last few decades. These are the areas where, water being the primary factor controls the ecological functioning and associated wildlife and plant life. They provide important habitats for a wide variety of waterbirds. The Government of India has listed almost all of the 655 Prioritized Indian Wetlands for their importance as waterbirds habitat. However Rapid urbanization has led to the conversion of natural wetlands by means of addition of pollutants, nutrients, sedimentation and introduction of alien species. Ever increasing anthropogenic activities have resulted in the alteration of wetlands and as a consequence many of them around the globe are on the verge of decline and loss, leading to decrease in both wetland fauna and flora.

Despite of marked decline in the number of migratory waterbirds from the wetlands of West Bengal, a small lake (Santragachi Jheel) near the crowded and noisy Santragachi railway station, 20 km from the East Calcutta Wetlands (a Ramsar site), regularly supports 4000-5000 migratory waterbirds between the colder months of October to March. Lesser Whistling Ducks (*Dendrocygna javanica*) mostly dominate this lake, but several other species have also been reported from this lake (Mazumder *et al.*, 2005; Roy *et al.*, 2011). Unfortunately in recent years many of them have stopped migrating to this lake and most recent studies have reported that both the number and abundance of different waterbirds have reduced remarkably. Most probable cause of this waterbird loss is the immense pressure of different anthropogenic activities and increasing vegetation cover (mainly water hyacinth) over the lake.

Local people around Santragachi Jheel along with several dynamic Non-Government organizations and the State Government holistically have taken a number of notable measures to protect this lake. We carried out the present study with an objective to evaluate the effectiveness of the steps taken so far for saving the avian population of this lake and to spot light on the future perspective for management, restoration and conservation of Santragachi Jheel.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area



Figure 1. Satellite image of the Santragachi Jheel showing the infestation of water hyacinth and its intimate location to the Santragachi railway station.

The present study was undertaken during the colder months (October – March) of 2004 – 2014. Santragachi Jheel is an urban wetland situated adjacent to the Santragachi railway station, in the district of Howrah of West Bengal, around 8 km away from the center of Kolkata (Fig. 1). It is surrounded by dense human habitations, small scale industries and

railway yards. The lake lies in an area of around 12.77 hectare with an average depth of 1.5 m. The lake is generally dominated by *Eichhornia crassipes* which covers whole water surface of lake by its rapid propagation in the months of migratory bird non-colonization (*i.e.* during April – September). There are twelve small islands at the center of the lake that plays an important role as the shelter of many migratory waterbirds like lesser whistling duck, fulvous whistling duck, northern pintail, northern shoveller and gargany. A large number of local non-migratory bird species that include bronzed winged jacana, pond heron and cattle egret also inhabit this lake. The Jheel has large trees along its bank which provides shelter and food for many wetland dependent avian species like kingfishers and drongos. More than 25 species of waterbirds use this wetland as their roosting ground during the winter months of the year (October – March).

METHODOLOGY

Avian population estimation

For the estimation of the avian population of the lake mainly line transect method (Hutto *et al.*, 1986; Bibby *et al.*, 1992; Buckland *et al.*, 1993) was applied. Sampling was done randomly; however, each of the four sides of the lake was traversed at each sampling time; each side was traversed by walking along a transect line and all birds seen were counted within 50 m of the transect, all parts of which were at least 50 m from the edge of the shoreline. Birds were counted as seen more than 50 m in front or behind as long as they were within 50 m perpendicular to the transect (Fig. 2). The time and weather was recorded at the beginning of each sampling. Birds flying over the habitat were recorded separately from those using the habitat.

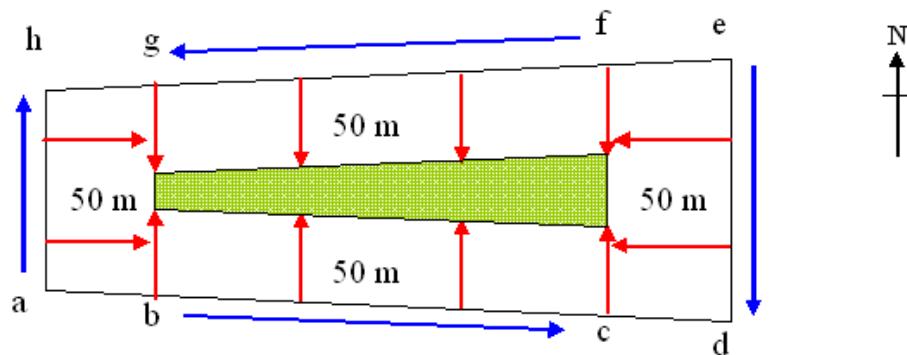


Figure 2. As Santragachi Jheel is almost rectangular in shape (average length X width = 1300 X 100 m) the line transect was laid at 50 m distance from shoreline (shown by red arrows in the figure). For north and south section of the lake, sampling was done from point f-g and from b-c respectively. The terminal 50 m left on both north and south sections were taken into account while sampling the east and west side of the lake *i.e.*, from point e-d and a-h respectively. Area falling beyond 50 m was sampled by hand frame method and binocular frame method, which ultimately were calculated and averaged together to supplement the transect counts.

But for more precise estimation random hand-frame method and binocular-frame counts (Gopal, 1995) of the birds were also applied in three selected distance-ranges, viz., 50m, 100m and 150m. Areas of both hand-frame and binocular-frame were standardized by the average of three measurements, working out the ground cover on land at the pre-set distances. Such frame-counts encompass all the avian species, either resting on the bank or

islands, or wandering on the water surface. Three individual counts at three time intervals were averaged to get the representative data of a particular month.

Observations were made by the help of Olympus 8x40 DPS I binocular while Digital cameras were used for identification and supporting pictures. Ali (1996), Grimmett *et al.* (1998) and Kazmierczak & Perlo (2000) were followed for avifaunal identification work and common and scientific names.

Measurement of anthropogenic pressure over the Jheel

Anthropogenic pressure in and around the lake was measured by direct count method of all solid and liquid pollutant sources that included domestic and wastewater inlets, garbage dumps and dustbins.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Santragachi wetland plays host to more than 5,000 migratory and resident birds while, more than twenty-five species of water birds use this wetland during the colder months of the year (October – March). Lesser Whistling Duck is most common in this lake and they occupy the lake invariably in the winter months. Northern Pintail, Northern Shoveller, Gargany, Gadwall, Cotton Pigmy Goose also visits this lake during the winter season. Table 1 shows the monthly density (Mean \pm SD Nos. ha^{-1}) and diversity of waterfowl during the study period. The abundance of different bird species was found to be highest in the month of December and January. But the matter of concern is that the number of birds has been found to decrease consistently during the study period. Though the population of most abundant bird species migrating to the lake i.e. the Lesser Whistling Duck was found to maintain regularity in their assemblage number, most other migratory bird species including Ferruginous Pochard, Common Teal and Fulvous Whistling-Duck was found to be disappearing from the lake in more recent years.

Table 1. Seasonal changes in the migratory waterfowl densities (Nos. ha^{-1}) and diversity at Santragachi Jheel during the study period (2004 - 2014). (0=Not Recorded; values given as Mean \pm SD)

Common Name	Scientific Name	October	November	December	January	February	March
Northern Pintail	<i>Anas acuta</i>	0.05 \pm 0.03	0.28 \pm 0.13	9.45 \pm 5.22	12.99 \pm 4.52	5.58 \pm 2.46	0.31 \pm 0.10
Mallard	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.06 \pm 0.03	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00
Lesser Whistling Duck	<i>Dendrocygna javanica</i>	11.56 \pm 7.87	142.25 \pm 26.78	245.23 \pm 22.45	198.54 \pm 16.14	158.18 \pm 11.63	46.16 \pm 18.67
Fulvous Whistling Duck	<i>Dendrocygna bicolor</i>	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.06 \pm 0.03	0.00 \pm 0.00	0.00 \pm 0.00
Gadwall	<i>Anas strepera</i>	0.26 \pm 0.15	0.85 \pm 0.33	6.90 \pm 2.40	5.29 \pm 2.47	2.56 \pm 1.15	0.61 \pm 0.24
Gargany	<i>Anas querquedula</i>	0.06 \pm 0.03	0.12 \pm 0.04	0.18 \pm 0.06	0.29 \pm 0.06	0.16 \pm 0.04	0.06 \pm 0.03

Northern Shoveller	<i>Anas clypeata</i>	0.00±0.00	0.06±0.03	0.39±0.12	1.46±0.63	1.27±0.58	0.09±0.03
Cotton Pigmy-Goose	<i>Nettapus coromandelianus</i>	0.25±0.09	0.57±0.18	7.36±5.21	6.09±3.87	0.89±0.53	1.67±0.87
Ferruginous Pochard	<i>Aythya nyroca</i>	0.06±0.03	0.06±0.03	0.12±0.06	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
White Breasted Waterhen	<i>Amaurornis phoenicurus</i>	0.45±0.11	0.67±0.23	0.58±0.32	0.57±0.49	1.47±0.88	0.89±0.42
Common Moorhen	<i>Gallinula chloropus</i>	0.06±0.03	0.29±0.07	0.85±0.32	1.74±0.41	1.24±0.48	1.39±0.61
Bronze Winged Jacana	<i>Metopidius indicus</i>	0.29±0.06	1.45±0.38	1.78±0.47	1.58±0.52	2.68±0.67	0.95±0.24
Common Coot	<i>Fulica atra</i>	0.00±0.00	0.36±0.12	0.58±0.29	0.68±0.31	0.47±0.23	0.00±0.00
Little Cormorant	<i>Phalacrocorax niger</i>	1.48±0.37	1.52±0.47	3.73±1.03	1.87±0.29	2.41±0.72	4.25±1.39
Asian Openbill	<i>Anastomus oscitans</i>	0.00±0.00	0.06±0.03	0.06±0.03	0.06±0.03	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
Pond Heron	<i>Ardeola grayii</i>	0.48±0.22	0.76±0.27	1.69±0.86	0.57±0.14	1.99±0.78	1.70±1.01
Grey Heron	<i>Ardea cinerea</i>	0.00±0.00	0.12±0.03	0.12±0.03	0.17±0.06	0.12±0.06	0.00±0.00
Purple Heron	<i>Ardea purpurea</i>	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.12±0.06	0.12±0.05	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
Common Sandpiper	<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.36±0.12	0.47±0.25	0.37±0.13	0.18±0.07
White Wagtail	<i>Motacilla alba ocularis</i>	0.38±0.16	0.35±0.15	0.46±0.16	0.34±0.14	0.28±0.11	0.10±0.04
Citrine Wagtail	<i>Motacilla citreola citreola</i>	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.26±0.07	0.12±0.06	0.00±0.00
Grey Wagtail	<i>Motacilla cinerea</i>	0.06±0.03	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00

Both the solid and liquid wastes were found to contaminate the Jheel and its water. Solid wastes especially domestic garbage was found to be dumped throughout the entire bank of the Jheel. Wastewater from train washing, industries, hotels and households come directly to the Jheel, untreated through inlets of different sizes. Though there are dustbins encircling the entire bank of Jheel, due to irregular cleaning and less aware inhabitants they were mostly found to be of no use. Solid and liquid wastes coming to the Jheel that contaminated the water of the Jheel found to deteriorate the habitat conditions affecting the bird population. The major causes of Santragachi Jheel contamination and degradation were generalized as follows:

- Dumps of domestic solid wastes throughout the bank of the Jheel, containing both biodegradable and non-biodegradable waste materials.

- Trains are regularly washed in the Santragachi Railway Station, the wastewater containing petroleum and other pollutants flows into the adjacent water bodies and through connectives the polluted water contaminates the Santragachi Jheel.
- There are many hotels adjacently located to the wetland and they have been found to use water of the wetland for various purposes like washing utensils. Leftovers of the hotels along with their other waste materials are directly released into the Santragachi Jheel. Further, there are about 40 shops around the lake that were found to use and pollute the Jheel's water in different ways.
- Unfortunately there is a slum located at the bank of the wetland. The inhabitants were found to use the Jheel's water for their daily uses such as bathing, washing clothes and cooking utensils. They also have open toilets, the wastewater was found to flow directly into the Jheel.
- Dustbins that were placed by Santragachi municipality encircling the bank of Jheel have been found rendered to be mostly of no use due to irregular cleaning and less aware inhabitants.
- The vegetation of the Jheel was found to be dominated by water hyacinth which covered almost the whole water surface of lake by its rapid propagation. As these plants cover the whole water body the dissolved oxygen and light penetration were found to decrease which altogether hampered the optimum physical condition of the Jheel. More than 50% of the Jheel ($57.92\pm13.15\%$) was found to remain covered by water hyacinth, during the early winter, when the water birds starts migrating to the lake the weed coverage remained to be the highest. Whimsical clearing of weeds by the Forest Department found to be of little help to winter migrants.

Santragachi Jheel which attracts a large population of water birds, have been observed to become degraded and polluted during the present investigation resulting in a decrease in the population of migratory water birds. To mitigate this problem and protect the migratory birds Government has already taken many steps that include:

- Fencing over the entire Jheel by iron net.
- Fishing, bathing, cloth washing and domestic use of water has been declared strictly prohibited.
- The wetland has been decaled to be protected from contamination of waste water and solid waste.
- Plenty of dustbins have been placed throughout the bank of lake /Jheel.
- The whole area has been proposed as a plastic free zone.
- Clearing of water hyacinth is performed ever year during the winter season for space allocation to waterbirds.
- Artificial roosting ground has been made for the water birds.

Though these governmental steps have an important role in conservation of the Jheel but still the sanctuary is suffering from various problems. Santragachi Jheel is unique in its characters and with thousands of migratory avifauna in the winter it becomes a perfect birders paradise. But of late it was found to face conversion, primarily from anthropogenic activities. To overcome these problems and restore the Jheel as a waterfowl habitat a proper scientific management plan is most urgently needed to be implemented.

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Studies on indirect evidences of presence of wildlife from different national parks of Dooars, West Bengal, India

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ABSTRACT

Observing wildlife at their natural habitat is practically a chance factor. However, there is alternative way by which it is possible to study the presence of wildlife and also their activities by indirect methods. North Bengal, especially Dooars is extreme rich in wildlife; therefore, there are many National Parks, Reserve forest as well as Wildlife Sanctuaries at this terrain. Studies on presence of wildlife by means of indirect evidences from different National Parks of Dooars reveals many untold stories. From this study it also evident that Dooars region is still harboring very good verities of wildlife, therefore, this is the demand of time to conserve these forests, as well as wildlife not only to save them from quick destruction but also to maintain human civilization.

Keywords: Jaldapara National Park, Gorumara National Park, Buxa National Park (Also Tiger Reserve), Species Diversity, Richness, Shannon index, Simpson index.

INTRODUCTION

In India as well as at global level there are a good number of forests available for eco-tourism and a handsome amount of revenue is generated from visitors or tourists. Like other parts of the world, in India also such forests are distributed in many states throughout the country. Every such forest are varied in their own characteristics, local climatic conditions, floral distribution and wildlife distribution pattern; but one thing is common for all these, i.e., after visiting one such forests maximum tourists express their opinion or rather complaints that there are no such wildlife visible in the forest. This view is also supported by the content of the Figure No. 1. And this is the inspiration that this research project is undertaken. Indirect evidences of presence of wildlife plays a vital role in the forest's studies for both academic and tourism interests.

There is very little literature available on studies of indirect evidences of presence of wildlife at national as well as at international level. At national level, a survey on carnivores and prey at Kalesar National Park was studied by Sharma *et. al.*, in 2013; in 2008 Datta *et. al.*, studied on large carnivore and prey abundance at Namdapha National Park and in 2013 Manoj *et. al.*, studied on forest and wildlife scenarios of Northern West Bengal. At international level, in 2002 Little *et. al.*, studied on wildlife passages at USA and in 2010 Callaghan *et. al.*, studied on abundance of koala at Australia by studying indirect evidence of plants. Therefore, this present work is highly significant in its nature and demand of the time.

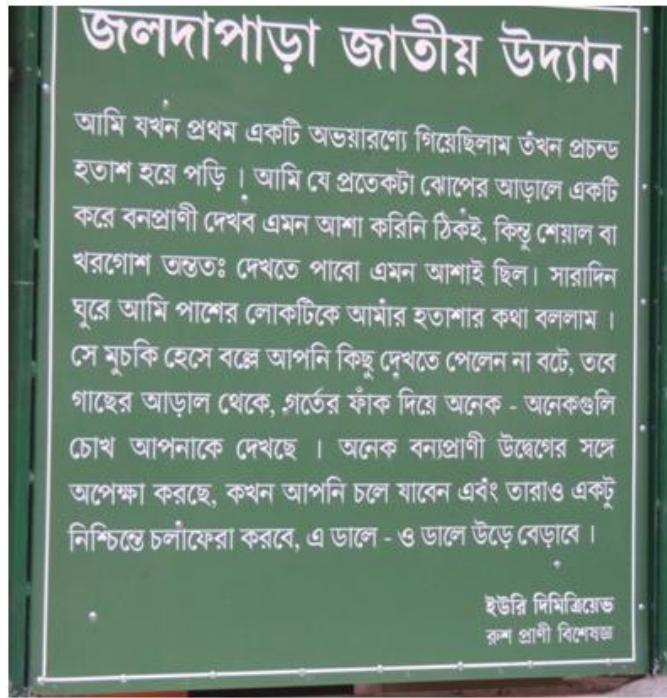


Fig.1: A wildlife related caption present at Jaldapara National Park (Quoted by Yuriy Dmitriev, A Russian Zoologist).

West Bengal is the fourth most populous state of India and is situated at the eastern region of the country. Out of its total geographical area, 13.38% comes under the recorded forest category compared to the national figure of 23.38%. Of the total forest area of West Bengal, 59.38%, 31.75% and 8.87% are categorized under reserved, protected and un-classed forests respectively. Furthermore, protected areas comprise 3.26% of its geographical area consisting of 14 Wildlife Sanctuaries and 6 National Parks. The state has two tiger reserves viz. Sundarbans and Buxa. Sundarbans (of Indian side) border the neighbouring country Bangladesh towards southeast while Buxa borders the mountainous country Bhutan in the north. Sundarbans has been declared a biosphere reserve which includes Sundarbans Tiger Reserve and Sundarbans National Park. In addition, two elephant reserves are also found in the state towards its northern and southern sides namely Eastern Dooars and Mayur Jharna respectively (Forest Survey of India, 2009). Encroachment of forests, loss of habitats, habitat degradation, and developmental activities like construction of roads and railway lines and increasing number of both human beings and wild animals, especially wild herbivores, are bringing human and wildlife in close proximity resulting in many human-wildlife conflicts in the state. For example, the state forest report of West Bengal details that during the years 2010-2011, 96 persons, 3 persons and 4 persons were killed by the wild elephants, leopards and gaurs respectively. In addition, 2 persons and 12 persons were also injured by the leopards and gaurs respectively. In the same period 2 elephants died to retaliatory killings and 19 met accidental death. One leopard and 4 gaurs were also reported to die due to accidents during 2010 - 2011 assessment years (State Forest Report, 2010-2011). Sometimes it is not possible to study wild animals directly, therefore, in this present study we are trying to study the presence of wildlife based on indirect evidences like pug mark, foot print, feeding signs, trails and tunnels, rub mark and scat (poop).

Forests and protected areas of North Bengal:

The northern part of West Bengal includes three districts viz. Jalpaiguri, Darjeeling and Cooch Behar. Current status of the forest areas in these three districts is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Current Status of forest areas in three districts of northern West Bengal

Fores Areas (All areas in km ²)	Districts			All over West Bengal	All over India
	Jalpaiguri	Darjeeling	Coachbehar		
Geographical area	6,227	3,149	3,387	88,752	3,287,240
Reserved forests	1,483	1,115		7,054	423,311
Protected forests	217		42	3,772	217,245
Un-classed state forests and others	90	89	15	1,053	127,881
Total recorded forest area	1,790	1,204	57	11,879	768,437
Recorded forest area in %	28.75	38.23	1.68	13.38	23.38

Table 2. Protected Areas of North Bengal

Protected areas	Area (km ²)	Bio-geographic zone	District
Wildlife sanctuaries (WLS)			
Buxa WLS	267.92	7B	Jalpaiguri
Chapramari WLS	9.60	7B	Jalpaiguri
Jorepokhri Salamander WLS	0.04	2C	Darjeeling
Mahananda WLS	158.04	7B	Darjeeling
Senchal WLS	38.88	2C	Darjeeling
National parks (NP)			
Jaldapara NP	216.51	7B	Jalpaiguri and Coochbehar
Buxa NP	117.10	7B	Jalpaiguri
Gorumara NP	79.45	7B	Jalpaiguri
Neora Valley NP	88.00	2C	Darjeeling
Singalia NP	78.60	2C	Darjeeling
Reserve Forests			
Buxa Tiger Reserve	Core area: 977.51 Buffer area: 370.29	7B	Jalpaiguri
Eastern Dooars Elephant Reserve	Core area: 484 Buffer area: 493.51	7B	Jalpaiguri

Jalpaiguri has the largest geographical area of 6,227 sq. km followed by Cooch Behar (3,387 sq. km) and Darjeeling (3,149 sq. km). Recorded forest areas, however, do not follow this trend as Cooch Behar has the least area under forest, being just 57 sq. km, which in percentage comes out to be minuscule 1.68% of the geographical area of the district. Moreover, although Jalpaiguri has more recorded forest area (1,790 sq. km) than Darjeeling (1,204 sq. km) in terms of their respective geographical areas, district Darjeeling is more forested (38.23%) as compared to Jalpaiguri (28.75%). More distinctively the data show that although Jalpaiguri is almost double the size of Darjeeling it lags behind the former by about 10 percentage points in terms of recorded forests. More disturbing scenario is observed for the Cooch Behar district, which is almost similar in size to Darjeeling but lags way behind in terms of the area under forest. The Buxa forest region is situated around 180 km from the Siliguri town and is known for tiger, leopard, elephant, clouded leopard, Himalayan black bear, gaur, pangolin and python.

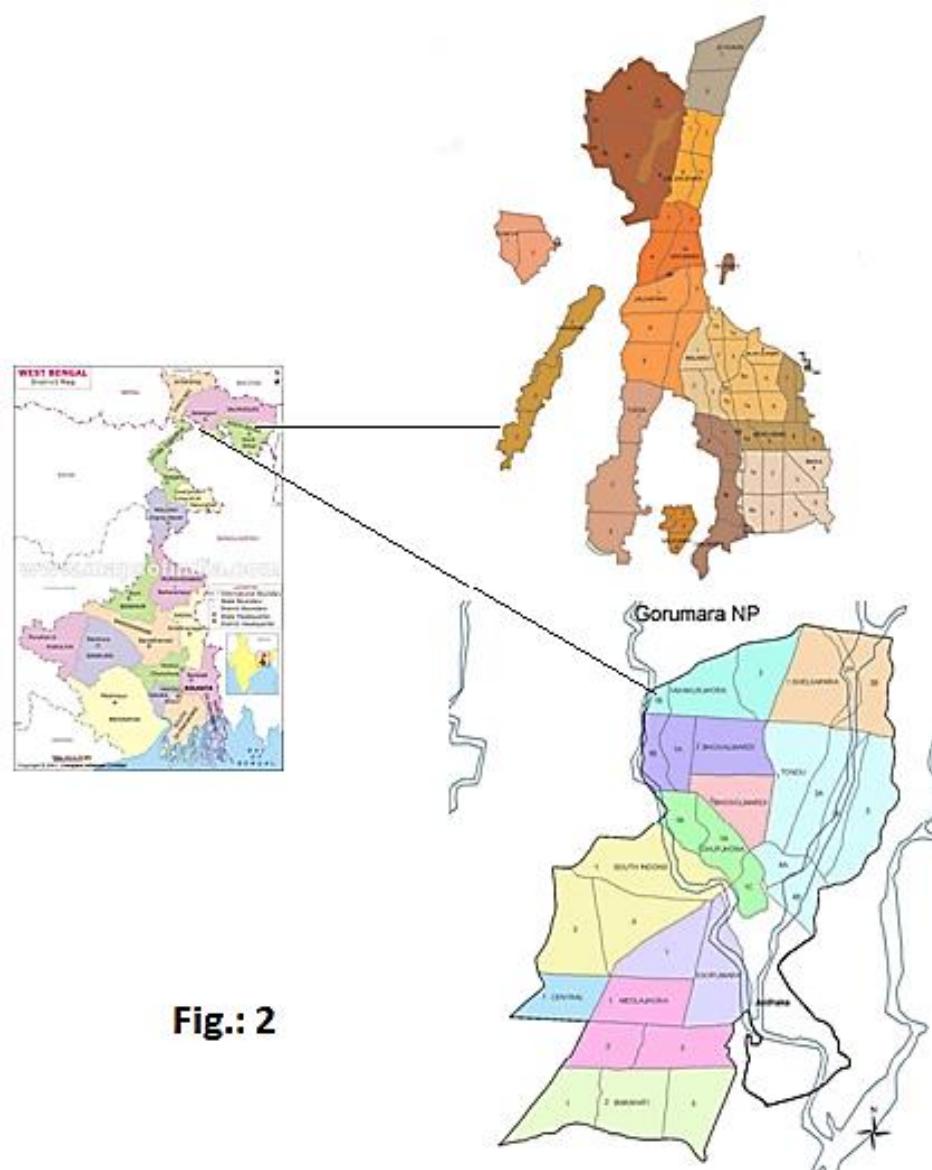
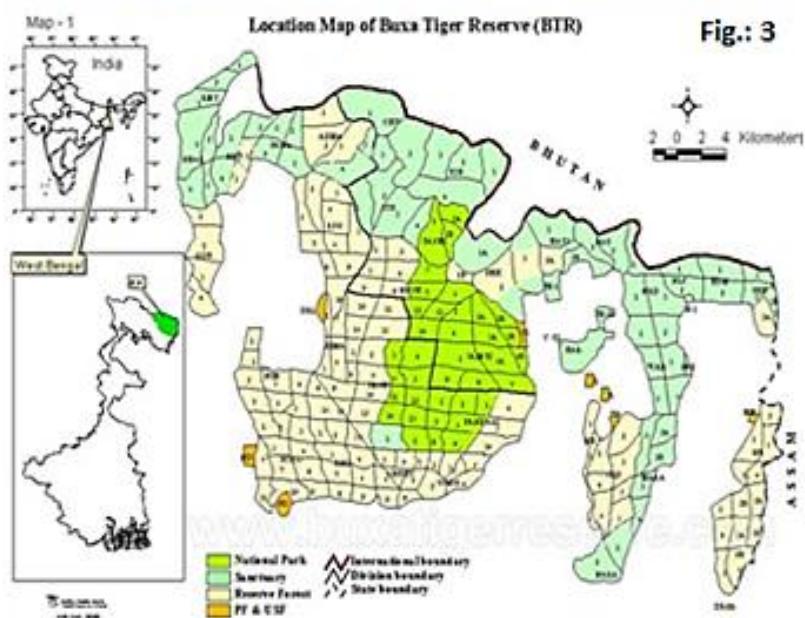


Fig.: 2

Fig. 2: Location map of Gorumara N P and Jaldapara N P. **Fig. 3:** Location map of Buxa Tiger Reserve as wel as National Park (N P)



The forest can be further categorised into Buxa National Park, Buxa Wildlife Sanctuary and the Buxa Tiger Reserve. It shares the boundary with the Phipsu Wildlife Sanctuary of the neighbouring country Bhutan and thus serves as an international migratory tract and corridor for the elephants between Manas National Park (Assam, India) and the forests of Bhutan. Chapramari forest, in Kalimpong subdivision of the Jalpaiguri district, is located on the banks of river Murti and close to the National Highway 31, which connects the northeast region with the rest of India. Chapramari Wildlife Sanctuary is distinctively known for its elephant population. Jaldapara National Park, in Alipurduar subdivision of Jalpaiguri district, is situated about 121 km from Siliguri and is home to a great diversity of flora and fauna. It is home to the great Indian one horned rhinos. Chilapata forest, which forms an important elephant corridor between Buxa Tiger Reserve and Jaldapara National Park, is spread near Jaldapara in the Dooars. Located about 72 km from Siliguri and further to the north of Jaldapara is Gorumara National Park.

It has similar fauna to Jaldapara National Park with leopards and elephants too. Towards western parts of the Dooars in the Tarai region and between the Teesta river to the east and the Mahayana river to the west is spread Baikunthapur forest. The forest area is spread over both the Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling districts. Mahananda Wildlife Sanctuary also comes under Darjeeling Wildlife Division 2, 6. A brief description of National Parks and Wildlife Sanctuaries is given in Table-2. Here forest data of entire North Bengal is given, however, our study area is only confined to National Parks of the Dooars / Duars region only (Fig. 2 & 3).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This entire study is strictly based upon observation and in possible cases collection. We studied the presence of indirect evidences of wildlife at three National Parks viz. Jaldapara,

Gorumara and Buxa (Also Tiger Reserve) for one year duration from September, 2014 to August, 2015 with appropriate permission of the authorities.

During this one year study period we visited those mentioned places at least twice in a month and all the data are noted with finer details and record also maintained chronologically.

In every possible case photography has been done with Canon 60 E digital camera. During this study we also collect the pug marks by using plaster of Paris in the presence of Staff of the Forest Department (Figs. 4-7). We also collected both dry and fresh scat, also called poop absolutely in the presence of Forest Staff for future use (Figs. 8-11). At all the location of evidence collection we recorded the location points by using GPS device.

For collection of evidences we follow the path in the jungle showed by the Staff of the Forest Department (Figs. 12-13). In some cases we went beside the pond/ pool/ lake/ river etc. water resources within the forest in search of presence of evidences of wildlife with proper permission from the authorities (Figs. 14-16).



Fig. 4-7. Different steps of collection of pug mark (of Leopard).

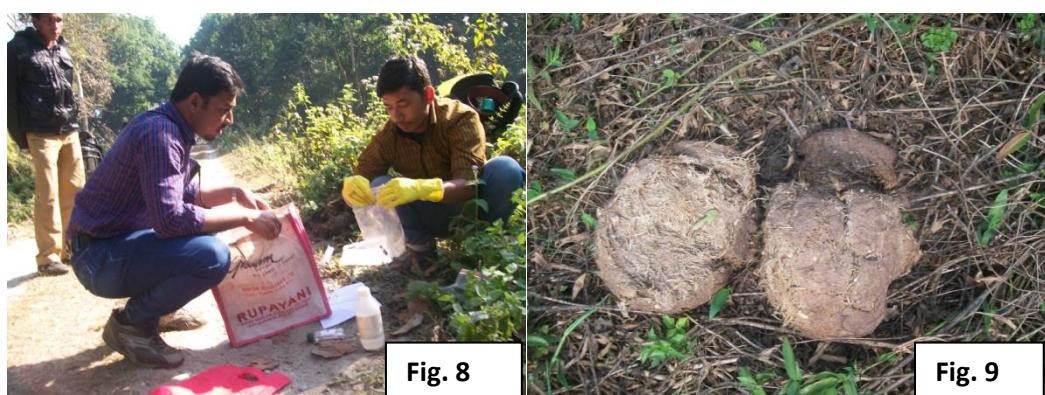




Fig. 10



Fig. 11

Figs. 8-11. Collection of scat of rhino, elephant, leopard and sambar.



Fig. 12



Fig. 13

Figs. 12-13. Venture in the forest in search of presence of wildlife evidences.



Fig. 14



Fig. 15

Figs. 14-15. Visit beside water body within the forest in search of presence of wildlife evidence.



Fig. 16. Showing location of different forests at Dooars. Our study sites are marked with circles.

For quantitative analysis of data we use one computer programme, known as “Past”. By using this programme we analyze different parameters like, Dominance; Diversity index, Richness, Shannon index, Simpson index etc. The details of different parameters are as below:

Dominance

Ecological dominance is the degree to which a taxon is more numerous than its competitors in an ecological community, or makes up more of the biomass. Most ecological communities are defined by their dominant species.

Diversity Index

A diversity index is a quantitative measure that reflects how many different types (such as species) there are in a dataset, and simultaneously takes into account how evenly the basic entities (such as individuals) are distributed among those types. The value of a diversity index increases both when the number of types increases and when evenness increases. For a given number of types, the value of a diversity index is maximized when all types are equally abundant.

When diversity indices are used in ecology, the types of interest are usually species, but they can also be other categories, such as genera, families, functional types or haplo types. The entities of interest are usually individual plants or animals, and the measure of abundance can be, for example, number of individuals, biomass or coverage. In demography, the entities

of interest can be people, and the types of interest various demographic groups. In information science, the entities can be characters and the types the different letters of the alphabet. The most commonly used diversity indices are simple transformations of the effective number of types (also known as 'true diversity'), but each diversity index can also be interpreted in its own right as a measure corresponding to some real phenomenon (but a different one for each diversity index). [Hill, 1973; Jost, 2006; Tuomisto, 2010a and Tuomisto, 2010b].

True diversity, or the effective number of types, refers to the number of equally abundant types needed for the average proportional abundance of the types to equal that observed in the dataset of interest (where all types may not be equally abundant). The true diversity in a dataset is calculated by first taking the weighted generalized mean M_{q-1} of the proportional abundances of the types in the dataset, and then taking the reciprocal of this. The equation is [Tuomisto, 2010a and Tuomisto, 2010b]:

$${}^qD = \frac{1}{M_{q-1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[q-1]{\sum_{i=1}^R p_i p_i^{q-1}}} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^R p_i^q \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

The denominator M_{q-1} equals the average proportional abundance of the types in the dataset as calculated with the weighted generalized mean with exponent $q-1$. In the equation, R is richness (the total number of types in the dataset), and the proportional abundance of the i th type is p_i . The proportional abundances themselves are used as the nominal weights. When $q = 1$, the above equation is undefined. However, the mathematical limit as q approaches 1 is well defined and the corresponding diversity is calculated with the following equation:

$${}^1D = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^R p_i^{p_i}} = \exp \left(- \sum_{i=1}^R p_i \ln(p_i) \right)$$

which is the exponential of the Shannon entropy calculated with natural logarithms (see below).

The value of q is often referred to as the order of the diversity. It defines the sensitivity of the diversity value to rare vs. abundant species by modifying how the weighted mean of the species proportional abundances is calculated. With some values of the parameter q , the value of M_{q-1} assumes familiar kinds of weighted mean as special cases. In particular, $q = 0$ corresponds to the weighted harmonic mean, $q = 1$ to the weighted geometric mean and $q = 2$ to the weighted arithmetic mean. As q approaches infinity, the weighted generalized mean with exponent $q-1$ approaches the maximum p_i value, which is the proportional abundance of the most abundant species in the dataset. Generally, increasing the value of q increases the effective weight given to the most abundant species. This leads to obtaining a larger M_{q-1} value and a smaller true diversity (qD) value with increasing q .

When $q = 1$, the weighted geometric mean of the p_i values is used, and each species is exactly weighted by its proportional abundance (in the weighted geometric mean, the weights are the exponents). When $q > 1$, the weight given to abundant species is exaggerated, and when $q < 1$, the weight given to rare species is. At $q = 0$, the species weights exactly cancel out the species proportional abundances, such that the weighted mean of the p_i values equals $1/R$ even when all species are not equally abundant. At $q = 0$, the effective number of species, 0D , hence equals the actual number of species R . In the context of diversity, q is

generally limited to non-negative values. This is because negative values of q would give rare species so much more weight than abundant ones that qD would exceed R [Tuomisto, 2010a and Tuomisto, 2010b].

The general equation of diversity is often written in the form [Hill, 1973 and Jost, 2006]:

$${}^qD = \left(\sum_{i=1}^R p_i^q \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

and the term inside the parentheses is called the basic sum. Some popular diversity indices correspond to the basic sum as calculated with different values of q [Jost, 2006].

Richness

Richness R simply quantifies how many different types the dataset of interest contains. For example, species richness (usually notated S) of a dataset is the number of different species in the corresponding species list. Richness is a simple measure, so it has been a popular diversity index in ecology, where abundance data are often not available for the datasets of interest. Because richness does not take the abundances of the types into account, it is not the same thing as diversity, which does take abundances into account. However, if true diversity is calculated with $q = 0$, the effective number of types (0D) equals the actual number of types (R) [Jost, 2006 and Tuomisto, 2010b].

Shannon Index

The Shannon index has been a popular diversity index in the ecological literature, where it is also known as Shannon's diversity index, the Shannon–Wiener index, the Shannon–Weaver index and the Shannon entropy. The measure was originally proposed by Claude Shannon to quantify the entropy (uncertainty or information content) in strings of text [Shannon and Weaver, 1948]. The idea is that the more different letters there are, and the more equal their proportional abundances in the string of interest, the more difficult it is to correctly predict which letter will be the next one in the string. The Shannon entropy quantifies the uncertainty (entropy or degree of surprise) associated with this prediction. It is most often calculated as follows:

$$H' = - \sum_{i=1}^R p_i \ln p_i$$

where p_i is the proportion of characters belonging to the i th type of letter in the string of interest. In ecology, p_i is often the proportion of individuals belonging to the i th species in the dataset of interest. Then the Shannon entropy quantifies the uncertainty in predicting the species identity of an individual that is taken at random from the dataset.

Although the equation is here written with natural logarithms, the base of the logarithm used when calculating the Shannon entropy can be chosen freely. Shannon himself discussed logarithm bases 2, 10 and e , and these have since become the most popular bases in applications that use the Shannon entropy. Each log base corresponds to a different measurement unit, which have been called binary digits (bits), decimal digits (decits) and natural digits (nats) for the bases 2, 10 and e , respectively. Comparing Shannon entropy values that were originally calculated with different log bases requires converting them to the same log base: change from the base a to base b is obtained with multiplication by $\log_b a$

[Shannon and Weaver, 1948]. It has been shown that the Shannon index is based on the weighted geometric mean of the proportional abundances of the types, and that it equals the logarithm of true diversity as calculated with $q = 1$ [Tuomisto, 2010a]:

$$H' = - \sum_{i=1}^R p_i \ln p_i = - \sum_{i=1}^R \ln p_i^{p_i}$$

This can also be written:

$$H' = -(\ln p_1^{p_1} + \ln p_2^{p_2} + \ln p_3^{p_3} + \cdots + \ln p_R^{p_R})$$

which equals:

$$H' = -\ln p_1^{p_1} p_2^{p_2} p_3^{p_3} \cdots p_R^{p_R} = \ln \left(\frac{1}{p_1^{p_1} p_2^{p_2} p_3^{p_3} \cdots p_R^{p_R}} \right) = \ln \left(\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^R p_i^{p_i}} \right)$$

Since the sum of the p_i values equals unity by definition, the denominator equals the weighted geometric mean of the p_i values, with the p_i values themselves being used as the weights (exponents in the equation). The term within the parentheses hence equals true diversity D , and H' equals $\ln(D)$ [Hill, 1973; Tuomisto, 2010a and Tuomisto, 2010b].

When all types in the dataset of interest are equally common, all p_i values equal $1/R$, and the Shannon index hence takes the value $\ln(R)$. The more unequal the abundances of the types, the larger the weighted geometric mean of the p_i values, and the smaller the corresponding Shannon entropy. If practically all abundance is concentrated to one type, and the other types are very rare (even if there are many of them), Shannon entropy approaches zero. When there is only one type in the dataset, Shannon entropy exactly equals zero (there is no uncertainty in predicting the type of the next randomly chosen entity).

Simpson Index

The Simpson index was introduced in 1949 by Edward H. Simpson to measure the degree of concentration when individuals are classified into types [Simpson, 1949]. The same index was rediscovered by Orris C. Herfindahl in 1950 [Herfindahl, 1950]. The square root of the index had already been introduced in 1945 by the economist Albert O. Hirschman [Hirschman, 1945]. As a result, the same measure is usually known as the Simpson index in ecology, and as the Herfindahl index or the Herfindahl–Hirschman index (HHI) in economics. The measure equals the probability that two entities taken at random from the dataset of interest represent the same type [Simpson, 1949]. It equals:

$$\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^R p_i^2$$

This also equals the weighted arithmetic mean of the proportional abundances p_i of the types of interest, with the proportional abundances themselves being used as the weights [Hill, 1973]. Proportional abundances are by definition constrained to values between zero and unity, but their weighted arithmetic mean, and hence $\lambda \geq 1/R$, which is reached when all types are equally abundant.

By comparing the equation used to calculate λ with the equations used to calculate true diversity, it can be seen that $1/\lambda$ equals 2D , i.e. true diversity as calculated with $q = 2$. The original Simpson's index hence equals the corresponding basic sum [Jost, 2006].

The interpretation of λ as the probability that two entities taken at random from the dataset of interest represent the same type assumes that the first entity is replaced to the dataset before taking the second entity. If the dataset is very large, sampling without replacement gives approximately the same result, but in small datasets the difference can be substantial. If the dataset is small, and sampling without replacement is assumed, the probability of obtaining the same type with both random draws is:

$$l = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^R n_i(n_i - 1)}{N(N - 1)}$$

where n_i is the number of entities belonging to the i th type and N is the total number of entities in the dataset [Simpson, 1949]. This form of the Simpson index is also known as the Hunter–Gaston index in microbiology [Hunter and Gaston, 1988].

Since mean proportional abundance of the types increases with decreasing number of types and increasing abundance of the most abundant type, λ obtains small values in datasets of high diversity and large values in datasets of low diversity. This is counterintuitive behavior for a diversity index, so often such transformations of λ that increase with increasing diversity have been used instead. The most popular of such indices have been the inverse Simpson index ($1/\lambda$) and the Gini–Simpson index ($1 - \lambda$) [Hill, 1973 and Jost, 2006]. Both of these have also been called the Simpson index in the ecological literature, so care is needed to avoid accidentally comparing the different indices as if they were the same.

Berger – Parker Index

The Berger–Parker [Berger and Parker, 1970] index equals the maximum p_i value in the dataset, i.e. the proportional abundance of the most abundant type. This corresponds to the weighted generalized mean of the p_i values when q approaches infinity, and hence equals the inverse of true diversity of order infinity ($1/{}^{\infty}D$).

RESULTS AND OBSERVATIONS

Data of different indirect evidences like scat, digging mark, pug mark, laying mark and scrapping mark on tree etc. of different animals were obtained from Jaldapara National Park which are showing at Table No. 3 and this table also shows different quantitative values which are generated by using “Past” programming.

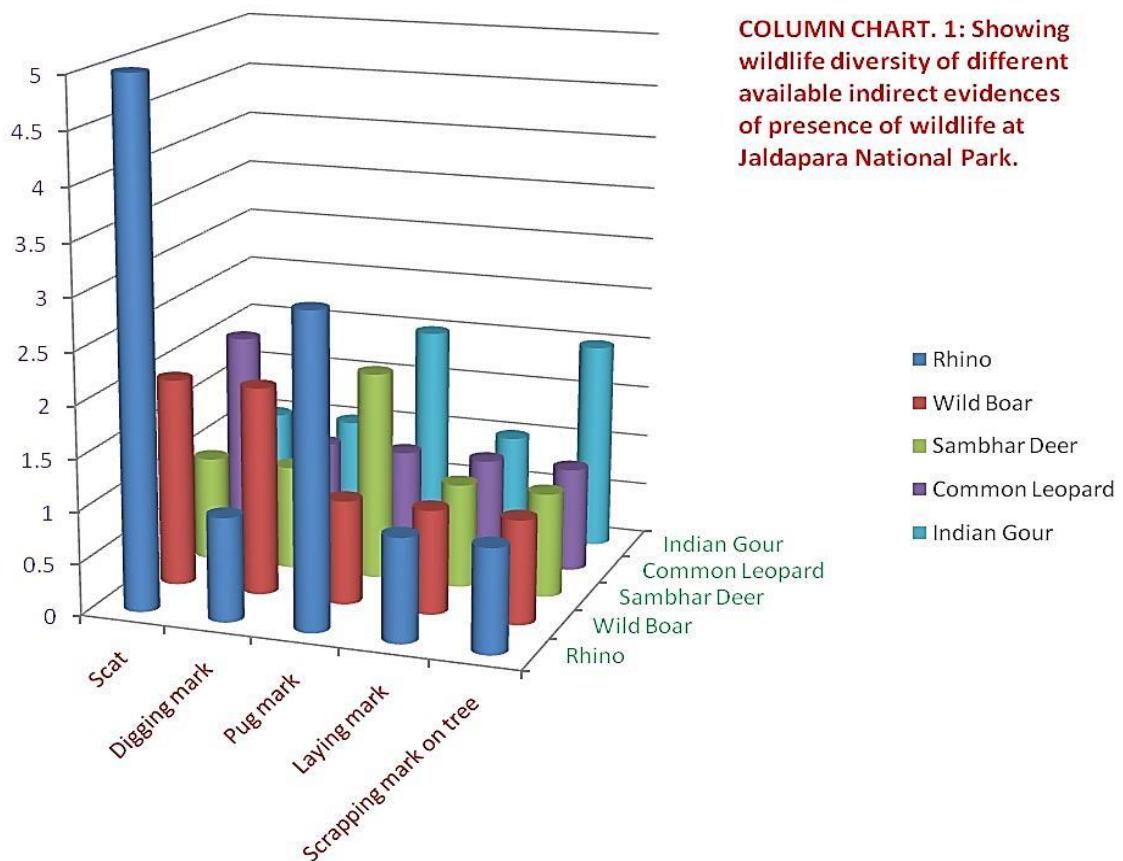
TABLE 3. AVERAGE ANNUAL DATA OF INDIRECT EVIDENCES OF WILDLIFE FOUND AT JALDAPARA NATIONAL PARK (Forest Area: 216.51 KM² / Survey Area: 16 KM)					
Name of the Animal	Scat	Digging mark	Pug mark	Laying mark	Scrapping mark on tree
Rhino	5	1	3	1	1
Wild Boar	2	2	1	1	1

Sambhar Deer	1	1	2	1	1
Common Leopard	2	1	1	1	1
Indian Gour	1	1	2	1	2
DIFFERENT INDEXES (Generated by PAST)					
0	A	B	C	D	E
Taxa_S	5	5	5	5	5
Individuals	11	6	9	5	6
Dominance_D	0.2893	0.2222	0.2346	0.2	0.2222
Shannon_H	1.414	1.561	1.523	1.609	1.561
Simpson_1-D	0.7107	0.7778	0.7654	0.8	0.7778
Berger-Parker	0.4545	0.3333	0.3333	0.2	0.3333

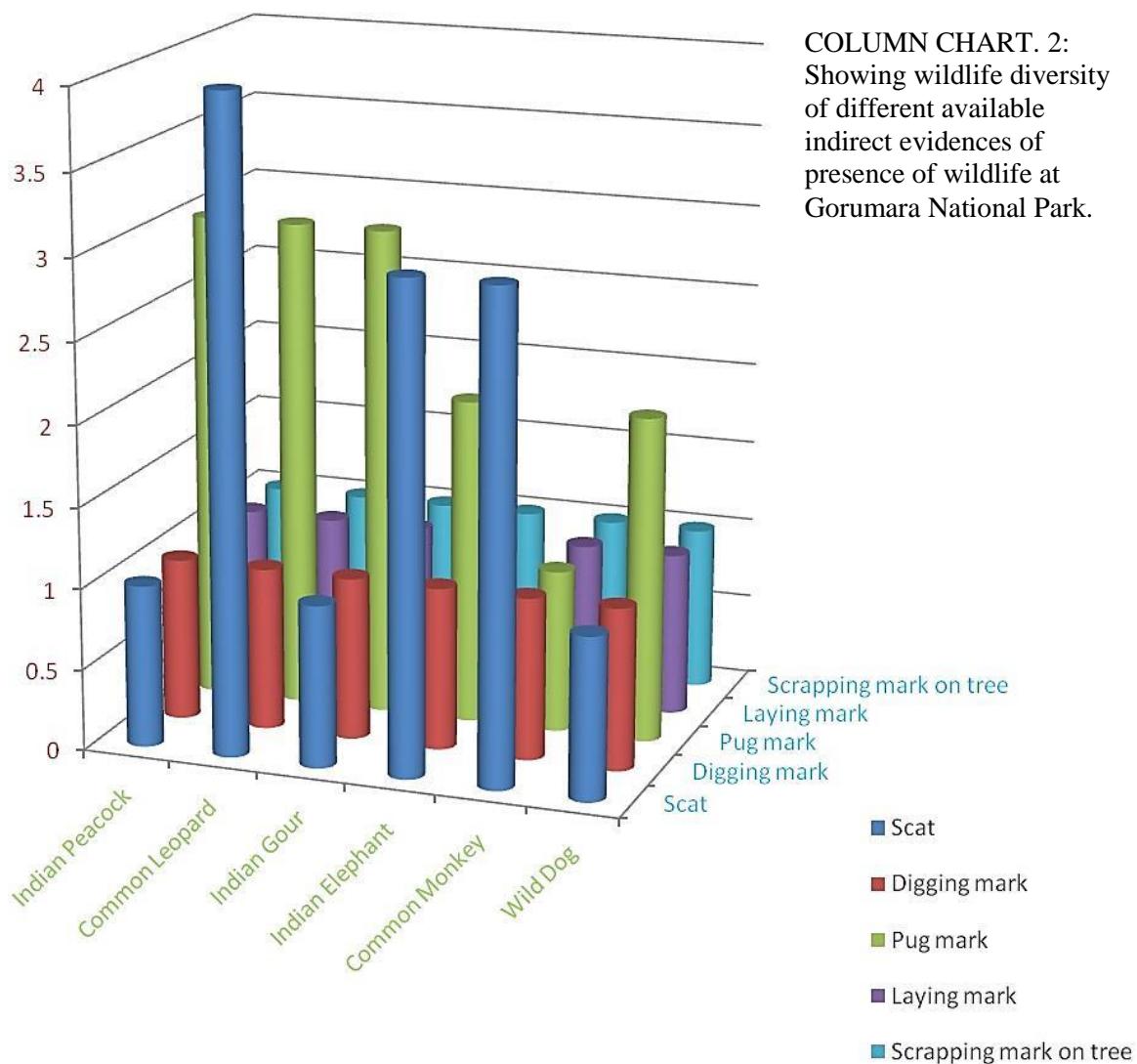
TABLE 4. AVERAGE ANNUAL DATA OF INDIRECT EVIDENCES OF WILDLIFE FOUND AT GORUMARA NATIONAL PARK (Forest Area: 79.45 KM² / Survey Area: 16 KM)					
Name of the Animal	Scat	Digging mark	Pug mark	Laying mark	Scrapping mark on tree
Indian Gour	1	1	2	2	1
Wild Boar	1	2	1	1	1
Common Monkey	3	1	1	1	1
Sambhar Deer	2	1	1	1	1
Indian Elephant	1	1	2	1	1
Leopard Cat	2	1	1	1	1
Common Leopard	2	1	2	1	1
Little Egret	2	1	1	1	1
Indian Peacock	1	1	2	1	1
DIFFERENT INDEXES (Generated by PAST)					
0	A	B	C	D	E
Taxa_S	9	9	9	9	9

Individuals	15	10	13	10	9
Dominance_D	0.1289	0.12	0.1243	0.12	0.1111
Shannon_H	2.119	2.164	2.138	2.164	2.197
Simpson_1-D	0.8711	0.88	0.8757	0.88	0.8889
Berger-Parker	0.2	0.2	0.1538	0.2	0.1111

Cylinder Column Chart: 1 also showing the pattern of distribution of indirect evidences and richness of wildlife at the Jaldapara National Park. By comparing the obtained data from Table No.: 3 and Chart: 1 this is found that *Rhinoceros unicornis* (rhino) is the most dominant wildlife at Jaldapara National Park, whereas, least dominance is found in case of common leopard, *Panthera pardus* and Sambhar Deer (*Cervus unicolor*). During our studies we obtained scat as maximum samples as indirect evidence with dominance value of 0.2893, the Shannon index is 1.414, Simpson index is 0.7107 and the Berger-Parker index is 0.4545. Minimum samples obtained as indirect evidences were found to be laying mark. A total five number of taxa were found including *Rhinoceros unicornis* (Indian One-horned Rhino), *Sus scrofa* (Wild Boar), *Cervus unicolor* (Sambhar Deer), *Panthera pardus* (Common Leopard) and *Bison bison* (Indian Gour).



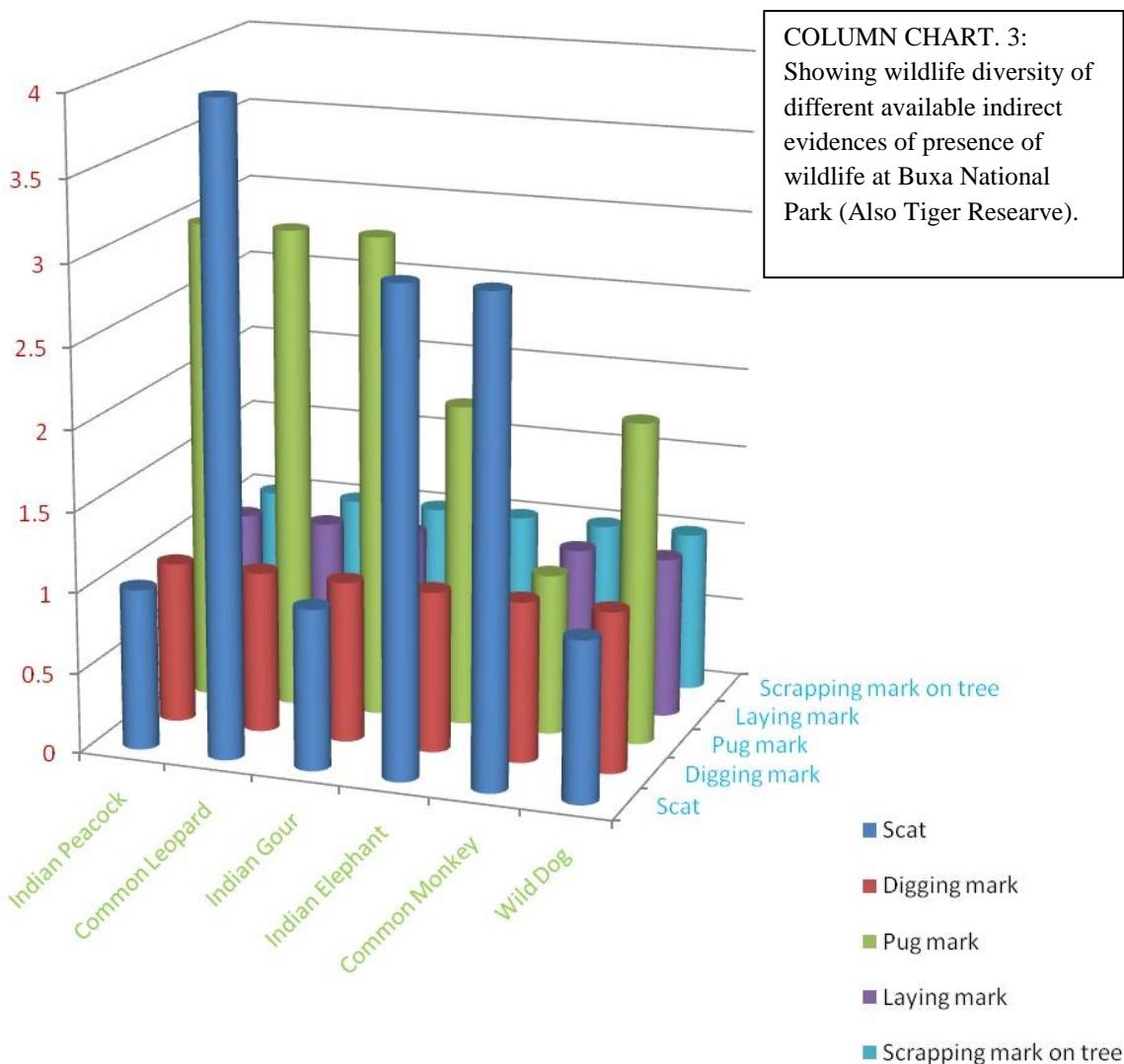
During our studies at the Gorumara National Park, this is found that Indian Gour or *Bison bison* and Common Leopard, *Panthera pardus* are the dominant wildlife of this forest. Maximum samples obtained as indirect evidences were found to be scat, followed by pug marks with dominance value of 0.1289 and 0.1243, the Shannon index of 2.119 and 2.138, Simpson index of 0.8711 and 0.8757 and the Berger-Parker index of 0.2 and 0.1538 respectively (See Table No. 4). The Gorumara National Park is very rich in its biodiversity and during our study we found presence of indirect evidences of nine species, viz. *Bison bison*, Indian Gour; *Sus scrofa*, Wild boar; *Macaca sp.*, Common Monkey; *Cervus unicolor*, Sambhar Deer; *Elephas maximus indicus*, Indian Elephant; *Felis bengalensis*, Leopard Cat; *Panthera pardus*, Common Leopard; *Egretta garzetta*, Little Egret; and *Pavo cristatus*, Indian Peacock. The abundance and distribution of presence of indirect evidences of different wildlife can also be observed at Cylinder Column Chart: 2.



Buxa Tiger Reserve is also an important National Park at Dooars. Here at Buxa, we found Common Leopard, *Panthera pardus* as the dominant wildlife (See Table No. 5). Beside *Panthera pardus* we also found here *Pavo cristatus*, Indian Peacock; *Bison bison*, Indian Gour; *Elephas maximus indicus*, Indian Elephant; *Macaca sp.*, Common Monkey; and most interestingly presence of *Cuon alpinus*, Wild Dog.

Table No. 5 showing the abundance and distribution of presence of various indirect evidences of wildlife at Buxa Tiger Reserve or Buxa National Park. Here as indirect evidence we obtained pug marks at maximum cases, followed by scat with dominance value of 0.1837 and 0.2189, the Shannon index of 1.735 and 1.631, Simpson index of 0.8163 and 0.7811 and the Berger-Parker index of 0.2143 and 0.3077 respectively. Digging mark, laying mark and scraping mark on tree are found least in number. Furthermore, among the scat we found maximum scat of common leopard of which one sample is very interesting, because we discovered undigested intact bony parts within that scat (Fig. No. 12). By analyzing the skeletal architecture it was very easy to estimate regarding the nature of prey. The abundance and distribution pattern of presence of indirect evidences of different wildlife at Buxa National Park can also be observed at Cylinder Column Chart: 3.

TABLE 5. AVERAGE ANNUAL DATA OF INDIRECT EVIDENCES OF WILDLIFE FOUND AT BUXA TIGER RESERVE / NATIONAL PARK (Forest Area: 117.10 KM² / Survey Area: 16 KM)					
Name of the Animal	Scat	Digging mark	Pug mark	Laying mark	Scrapping mark on tree
Indian Peacock	1	1	3	1	1
Common Leopard	4	1	3	1	1
Indian Gour	1	1	3	1	1
Indian Elephant	3	1	2	1	1
Common Monkey	3	1	1	1	1
Wild Dog	1	1	2	1	1
DIFFERENT INDEXES (Generated by PAST)					
0	A	B	C	D	E
Taxa_S	6	6	6	6	6
Individuals	13	6	14	6	6
Dominance_D	0.2189	0.1667	0.1837	0.1667	0.1667
Shannon_H	1.631	1.792	1.735	1.792	1.792
Simpson_1-D	0.7811	0.8333	0.8163	0.8333	0.8333
Berger-Parker	0.3077	0.1667	0.2143	0.1667	0.1667



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Beside natural reasons, there is no doubt that anthropogenic disturbances are the major causes of biodiversity loss, and Dooars is not an exception. The geographical position of various forests of Dooars is very crucial. At all direction of Dooars there is either international border line or international border is very close to them, therefore, poaching is the main obstruction for wildlife survival at this regions, because there is a high demand of rhino horn; claws, bones and furs of various wildlife at China and other countries and this is evident from daily news paper report. Another important anthropogenic problem is the presence of Railway track at some parts of forests at Dooars; hence, heavy casualties of wildlife are occurred regularly.

During this one year studies on presence of indirect evidences of wildlife at different National Parks of Dooars this is found that beside the above mentioned anthropogenic disturbances biodiversity of these National Parks are very rich. By analyzing the indirect evidences we found presence of many types of wildlife at Jaldapara, Gorumara and Buxa National Parks. As evidences we obtained scat, pug mark, laying mark, digging mark and scratching marks on tree at different places of the different forests which suggests indirectly presence of a rich biodiversity. However, there may be some question arise regarding the

independentness of scat or pug mark or other evidences that - are those evidences belonging to different wildlife or same individual? During our studies there is no such scope to analyze each and every sample evidences at molecular level; therefore, we depended upon the forest personnel and their experiences. Moreover, there is very little literature available on studies of presence of indirect evidences of wildlife; therefore, making any concluding comment might be an exaggeration. However, whatever data we obtained during our studies, from these this is evident that till date the National Parks of Dooars supporting a very rich wildlife.

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