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# Seed dispersal by greater one-horned rhinoceros (Rhinoceros unicornis) and the flora of Rhinoceros latrines

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Summary. — Rhinoceros unicornis in Royal Chitwan National Park, Nepal ingested the fruits of at least 23 species of herbaceous and woody plants. Seeds manured into grassland latrines used by Rhinoceros yielded distinct floras of dicotyledonous plants in flood plain grassland associations. Trewia nudiflora, the most common riverine forest tree in Chitwan and Cassia tora, a weedy herb, accounted for most of the plant cover. A survey of the woody flora of Chitwan revealed that <10 % of plants are dispersed by large mammals but large-mammal dispersed species represented the most common trees in flood plain forest and savannah associations.

Résumé. — Dans le Royal Chitwan National Park du Népal, le grand rhinocéros unicorne se nourrit des fruits d'au moins 21 espèces de plantes herbacées et ligneuses. Les graines, qui ont trouvé un engrais dans les latrines de savanes herbeuses des rhinocéros, y ont donné des ensembles de plantes dicotylédones distinctes des associations caractéristiques des savanes de plaine inondée. Trewia nudiflora est l'arbre le plus commun des forêts galeries à Chitwan, et Cassia tora une mauvaise herbe généralement considérée comme une plante de couverture. L'étude de la flore ligneuse de Chitwan révèle que moins de 10 % des plantes sont dispersées par des grands mammifères mais que celles-ci représentent les arbres les plus communs dans les associations de forêt de plaine inondée et de savane.

#### INTRODUCTION

Greater one-horned rhinoceros (hereafter referred to as *Rhinoceros*) are mostly grazers but also eat fruit in abundance (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988). During a four-year field study (1984-1988) of *Rhinoceros unicornis* in Royal Chitwan National Park, Nepal, I observed that *Rhinoceros* frequently ingested the fruits of at least 23 species of plants. Many intact seeds, embedded in boluses of dung, were deposited on latrine sites. Seeds of most species germinated quickly and by the end of a single growing season (Feb-Oct), grassland latrines supported a conspicuous, *Rhinoceros*-generated flora. Studies in Nepal have revealed that latrines in flood plain grasslands served as important colonization sites for the most common riverine forest tree, *Trewia nudiflora* (Euphorbiaceae) (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988), which produced a large hard berry sought out by *Rhinoceros*.

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The purpose of this study was to quantify the flora of flood plain grassland latrines and to identify which fruiting species found on latrines were dispersed by Rhinoceros and which species merely colonized latrines via other dispersal modes (e.g. wind or defecation by perching birds). Janzen and Martin (1982) outlined a suite of plant traits associated with dispersal by large mammals, dubbed the megafaunal dispersal syndrome. Traits included : large fruit size, tough endocarps or husks, hard seeds or tough seed coats to survive the molar mill and lengthy gut passage, fruit fall soon after ripening or lack of removal by arboreal or volant frugivores after ripening, and occurrence of megafauna-dispersed plants on flood plains, where large herbivores tend to be most common. The consistency of these fruit traits and in some instances the importance and magnitude of the large mammal/« megafauna fruit » interaction has been questioned (Howe 1985). The best sites to determine the magnitude of interactions between large mammals and fleshy-fruited plants are reserves like Royal Chitwan National Park, where frugivory can be observed directly and where giant fruit-eaters are still common (Dinerstein 1989). To this end, I evaluate the fruit traits of plants disseminated by Rhinoceros and survey the woody flora of Chitwan to identify the role of megafaunal dispersal among other dispersal modes.

## STUDY SITE AND METHODS

I measured plant cover at 37 grassland latrines using the line intercept method (Canfield 1941). Prior to sampling I selected a random compass bearing along which all intercepts (a total of 306 m) traversing latrines were sampled. Sampling was stratified vertically to distinguish between seedling, sapling, shrub, and tree cover. The sum of total plant cover at latrine sites exceeded 100 % because cover for each species over the line-intercept was calculated separately. I restricted sampling only to those latrines > 1 m in diameter, sites that contained relatively fresh dung, and to latrines > 3 km from the border with agriculture. The study area included the Saccharum spontaneum grasslands of Icharni Island and the S. spontaneum and S. benghalensis-dominated grasslands along the Rapti River near Sauraha. These areas supported the highest densities of Rhinoceros in the park: 10.5/km² during the peak grazing season (Dinerstein and McCracken, in press). Plant sampling was conducted on 28 August 1984, when annual growth was nearing its peak.

To determine the fruit characteristics of the Chitwan woody flora, I measured fruit specimens in the field or else referred to data from Kanjilal (1928). Frugivory by large mammals other than *Rhinoceros* was documented by direct observation of frugivory or examination of fecal material (Dinerstein 1989).

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physical characteristics of latrines.

In two grasslands, 78 % (N=18) and 83 % (N=6) of all grassland latrines supported dense tussocks of *Saccharum benghalensis*. The distinct bluish color and robust foliage of this 5-7 meter tall grass enabled me to recognize active

latrines at a distance from elephant-back. Tussocks of S. benghalensis > 3 m from latrines were more green in hue and shorter than conspecifies on dung piles. Rhinoceros do not ingest the infructescenses of S. benghalensis which produce tufted seeds dispersed by wind.

On closer inspection, *Rhinoceros* latrines in flood plain grasslands were easy to identify because of the large quantities of dung deposited at them. Ten latrines removed from the field for seedling growth experiments were weighed and all contained > 100 kg of fresh dung. Twenty-four hr activity watches on radio-collared animals revealed that *Rhinoceros* averaged 11.1 kg/defecation (sd = 6.7 range = 3.7-24.3 kg N = 9 for weight of observed defecations) and defecated 1-3 times/day (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988). Latrines were usually elliptical in shape and averaged 8.1 m in length (sd = 3.3 N = 37) along the longest axis of the ellipse. The amount of dung found at any latrine varied, depending upon such factors as how actively the latrine was being visited by *Rhinoceros*, how many *Rhinoceros* used the area, and time of year (dung decomposed rapidly during the summer monsoon and more slowly in winter).

Laurie (1978) showed that latrines were distributed non-randomly, being most common along well-used trails in tall grasslands and along the edge of old and new river terraces. In the lower Icharni grassland, where Rhinoceros occur in high densities, I found 45 latrines in a 0.5 km² area. Overall, 33 % of all observed defecations from free-ranging animals during the monsoon occurred in grassland latrines and the remainder on forest latrines (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988). In an adjacent patch of riverine forest, I found only 10 active latrines. The large size of these latrines indicated that Rhinoceros probably defecated more frequently at the same latrines in forested habitats that in grasslands. Lauric (1978) noticed that 85 % of all defecations occurred at existing latrine sites, regardless of habitat, and the remainder as single defecations.

During heavy monsoon floods, latrines within 100 m of riverbanks were sometimes swept away or buried in a 25 cm layer of silt. At five such latrines, *Rhinoceros* began defecating again on the pre-existing sites within 1 month, even when no visible sign of the old latrine remained. The rapid accumulation of dung at latrines and the predictability of the latrine locations may explain why latrines serve as habitat for flood plain rodents (*Mus* spp.), estivating amphibians (*Rana tigrina*), and possibly as a site to deposit eggs for incubation for a turtle species (*Melanochelys trijuga*, Dinerstein *et al.* 1987).

#### Plant cover.

I recorded 38 species of plants on the flood plain latrines. These included saplings of 4 tree species, 16 species of woody shrubs, 6 forbs, 5 grasses and 7 species of herbaceous climbers (Table 1). If cover values for taxa are summed across growth forms, the seedlings, saplings, and small trees of *Trewia nudiflora* had the highest cover value for any species. If growth forms are treated separately, the most common species encountered was *Cassia tora*, a common weed of overgrazed pastures outside the park. More than 1 km from the park borders, where domestic grazing was absent, *Cassia* is found only on *Rhinoceros* latrines (Joshi 1986). Five agricultural weeds (*Amaranthus spinosus*, *Xantium strumarium*, *Chenopodium album*, *Solanum xanthocarpum*, *S. indicum*) also common in overgrazed areas, like *Cassia*, occured inside the park either on *Rhinoceros* latrines

TABLE 1. — Plant cover on *Rhinoceros unicornis* latrines in the Sauraha area of Royal Chitwan National Park and some characterístics of the latrine flora. Latrines were sampled on 28 August 1984 (N = 37 latrines sampled).

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ipones quancilit	Convolvulaceae	hertisceous climber	0,1	rhinoceros, bird	riverine forest edge_scrub	0.5 cm. Long	capsule	brown

or in grasslands disturbed by floods (E. Dinerstein, pers. obs.). Twenty species accounted for less than 1 % each of the intercept covered.

Plant species richness on latrines > 3 km from the park border contained fewer species because *Rhinoceros* in these areas rarely strayed into croplands and thus, did not ingest agricultural weeds (Joshi 1986). Latrines under the riverine forest canopy were even more depauperate in plant species than in grasslands because most species which germinated in the dung on the forest floor, such as *Trewia*, were shade-intolerant (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988).

Dispersal modes of plants found on latrines.

By direct observations of frugivory by *Rhinoceros*, I estimated that 21 of the 38 species encountered on grassland latrines were dispersed at least in part by Rhinoceros (Table 1). Because the seeds of these 21 species were found embedded so deeply in boluses of dung, it was unambiguous that Rhinoceros had to be the major vector for dispersal to the latrine site. The two most common grasses found on latrines, Saccharum spontaneum and S. benghalensis, exceeded 4 m in height and experiments have shown them to be dispersed by wind and water (Lehmkuhl 1988). Rhinoceros ingested the inflorescences of these tall grasses only prior to seed set. Three other grasses, three members of the Asteraceae. and two other woody species produced seeds with attachments associated with wind-dispersal. A grass and several shrubs formed burrs and sticktights indicating dispersal via animal fur and at least 10 species produced bright-colored fleshy fruits eaten by birds. Bulbuls (Pycnonotus spp.), tits (Parus major), and mynahs (Acridotheres spp.) perched on the shrubs growing from latrines, ate fruits from these plants, and probably defecated seeds from other species into the latrines. Rhinoceros also fed on the fruits of two species of Solanum and the leaves of Amaranthus spinosus found growing on latrines.

The Chitwan woody flora, characteristics of large mammal fruits, and the megafaunal syndrome.

The Chitwan woody flora includes 77 fleshy-fruited species dispersed by vertebrates, 28 species of dry-pod legumes probably dispersed by vertebrates or gravity, 19 species adapted for wind dispersal, 6 species adapted for dispersal on animal fur, 2-3 species dispersed presumably by gravity, and 8 species whose dispersal mode has not yet been determined (E. Dinerstein, pers. obs.). Rhinoceros ingested the fleshy fruits of at least 20 species (26 %) of the common woody trees and shrubs that grow on or near the flood plain. However, among the species ingested by Rhinoceros, only a small portion exhibited all of the traits predicted by the megafaunal dispersal syndrome. Rhinoceros ingested fleshy fruits ranging in size from the 4 mm Callicarpa macrophylla berries (which occur in a clumped fruiting display) to the apricot-sized Trewia; most fruits ingested were less than 1 cm in diameter. Many fruits eaten by Rhinoceros also were eaten by smaller frugivores. Surprisingly, the dry-pod legumes were well-represented in the Chitwan woody flora (28 species), but Rhinoceros ate only the pods of the common climber Acacia concinna. Legumes are probably more common in the diets of wild elephants as they are in South India (R. Selvakumar pers. comm.) but free-ranging elephants are so few in Chitwan today that consumption and dispersal of legumes is difficult to evaluate. Large herds of elephants were common in Chitwan a century ago (Oldfield 1880).

The most common fruiting species ingested by *Rhinoceros* were grassland shrubs and forbs in areas close to croplands and disturbed sites. In areas far from agriculture, trees and woody climbers, as predicted by the megafaunal hypothesis, dominated the non-graminoid flora of latrine sites.

In contemporary Chitwan, the fruiting species known or thought to be dispersed by *Rhinoceros* or other large ungulates include *Trewia*, *Spondias pinnata*, *Terminalia belerica*, *Acacia concinna*, *Emblica officinalis*, *Xeromphis uliginosa* and *Aegle marmelos* (Table 2). The number of large mammal-dispersed plants

TABLE 2. — Characteristics of some common large fruits eaten by Rhinoceros unicornis or other large ungulates in Royal Chitwan National Park.

Spec les	family	Crowth	Habital <sup>a</sup>	Fruit Stae	fruit Type	fruit Color	Inducerp	fruit fall just after Ripening	Seed	
							at tipening		number.	
Trovia rudiflora	Euphortiscese	tree	fef flood plain grasslands	2.5 cm d	berry	yellov- green	hard throughout	yes	1-5	
Spondies pinnete	Anacardiaceae	tree	101/01	5.0 cm 1	drupe	yellow	herd throughout	yes	often 2-9 1 perfect	
terminatia beteriça	Combretacese	tree	uf	2.5 cm T	drupe	brown	hard throughout	yes	†	
tracta conclina	Himusaseae	woody at later	101	6.0 cm 1	legume	brown	woody with fleshy interior	ye:	6-10	
imblica officinalis	Euphorbiaceae	small tree	ur	2.4 cm u	drupe	green	hard throughout	Yes	١	
teromphis utiginose	Publiscese	small tree	(PI/UI/ grassland	5.4 cm t 4,4 cm c	berry	yellow	hard Infoughout	yes	<b>4100</b>	
egic marmelos	Rutaceae	tree	101/21	6.0 cm d	twicky	ye. :	tind shells	100	30-100	

\*Habitat Eey

12f + flood plate forest

us a Upland forest (i.e. above the silver terraces).

in Chitwan yields a shorter species list and a smaller proportion (> 10%) of the total woody flora in comparison with the Tai Forest, the Ivory Coast, where over 30% of the trees are dispersed by elephants (Alexandre 1978).

All of the Chitwan species (Table 2) produce large, hard, dull-colored, indehiscent fruits, drop fruit prior to or just after fruit ripening, and occur on the flood plain. All, with the exception of Aegle, contained a single hard seed or seeds. Aegle fruits contained soft seeds but was one of the hardest fruits in Chitwan. The pressure required to crack the shell ( $\bar{x}=347.5$  lbs. pressure) and large fruit size implied that only elephants and Rhinoceros among contemporary fruit-eaters possessed sufficient gape and jaw strength to crush fruits. The genus Feronia in South India and Sri Lanka produces fruits similar in type and size to Aegle and are dispersed by elephants (R. Selvakumar pers. comm.). The list of large mammal-dispersed fruits will probably increase as more data on dispersal of Xeromphis spinosa, Terminalia chebula, Dillenia indica and other trees becomes available.

Although large indehiscent fruits, such as the 7 species listed in Table 2, represent but a small proportion of the woody flora on the flood plain, interactions between these fruiting plants and the local megafauna are intense. Today, Trewia, dispersed mainly by Rhinoceros, sambar deer (Cervus unicolor), axis deer (Axis axis), and domestic cattle, is the most common tree in riverine forest (Dinerstein and Wemmer 1988). Xeromphis, dispersed mainly by hog deer (Axis porcinus), axis deer, and possibly gaur (Bos gaurus), is one of the most common tree species in grasslands and savannahs. The extent of dispersal interactions among large mammals and the other 5 species listed in Table 2 remains to be clarified. We found seeds of all species in the droppings of wild and domestic ungulates and Spondias, Terminalia and Emblica are also eaten by langur and rhesus monkeys in other reserves (Dinerstein 1980).

In addition to being abundant, both *Trewia* and *Xeromphis* produced heavy fruit crops (see Dinerstein and Wemmer, 1988) and their consumption is limited to large herbivores. Thus, it is highly likely that on the Chitwan flood plain, the amount of fleshy-fruit biomass ingested by large herbivores exceeds annually the amount of fruit biomass consumed by birds, bats, and rodents. The magnitude of the interactions observed between megafruits and megaherbivores in Chitwan also support the belief that in habitats now devoid of a large mammal fauna, seed shadows for fleshy-fruited species may be substantially different today than when large fruit-eaters were still abundant.

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# The species-genus relationship in Antillean bat communities

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Summary. — The ratio of the number of species to the number of genera in an island community has long been recognised as a potential proxy indicator of competitive interaction. An analysis of this relationship in the bat fauna of the Antillean archipelago demonstrates that the observed species-genus ratios are significantly depressed below null-model expectations, and that the magnitude of this depression is inversely proportional to the log of the appropriate island area. These observations are consistent with the hypothesis that interspecific competition may play an important role in structuring Antillean bat communities.

Résumé. — La proportion du nombre d'espèces par rapport au nombre des genres dans une communauté insulaire a été reconnue comme un indicateur d'interactions compétitives. Une analyse de cette relation dans la faune des chauves-souris de l'archipel des Antilles montre que les proportions d'espèces/genres que l'on observe sont réduites de manière significative par rapport à l'hypothèse du modèle et que l'importance de cette réduction est inversement proportionnelle au log. de la surface de l'île. Ces observations concordent avec l'hypothèse que la compétition interspécifiques peut jouer un rôle important dans la structuration des communautés de chauves-souris antillaises.

#### INTRODUCTION

Several authors (Elton 1946; Grant 1966) have noted the apparent decrease in the average number of species per genus in island communities when compared with their mainland equivalents. According to Darwin (1878: 59): « As species of the same genus have usually, though by no means invariably, some similarity in habits and constitution, and always in structure, the struggle will generally be more severe between species of the same genus, when they come into competition with each other, than between species of distinct genera ». If this is the case, then as Harvey et al. (1983) have noted, competitive exclusion might be expected to distance congeneric taxa so that local communities should exhibit

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