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Cover: Digital illustration of Smooth-coated Otter *Lutrogale perspicillata* by Dupati Poojitha. Reference from the picture taken by Rana & Sugandhi.



## Diversity and distribution pattern of geometrid moths (Insecta: Lepidoptera: Geometridae) along the altitudinal gradient, Kumaun Himalaya, India

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**Abstract:** Altitudinal gradients are frequently used to study Lepidoptera diversity. The study site, situated in the Munsiri Subdivision of Pithoragarh District, Kumaun Himalaya, was divided into transects along the altitudinal gradient, each 200 m wide, spanning elevations from 1,200–4,000 m. In each transect, a minimum of five sampling plots were established. Furthermore, the study area was divided into five broad zones based on vegetational cover. Moths were collected using automated light traps between 1900 h and 2300 h. The specimens were identified using the available literature and following standard protocols. Indicator species analysis was carried out as per Dufrière & Legendre. The present paper deals exclusively with the status and altitudinal distribution pattern of the Geometridae moths. Zone II, lying between 1,800–2,600 m, harboured highest species richness (98 species), as well as abundance (4,686 individuals), while the least species richness was encountered in Zone III. In terms of species diversity across the subfamilies, Ennominae comprised 93 species, followed by Larentiinae (49), Geometrinae (14), Sterrhinae (4), and Desmobjathrinae (1). In terms of distribution, 23 species, restricted to just one transect and exhibiting distribution for one month, could be categorised as highly specialized, while two species—*Euphyia subangulata* and *Eustroma melancholicum venipicta* (Larentiinae)—exhibiting distribution throughout the altitudinal gradient, along with an additional 23 species (all Ennominae) exhibiting presence across five or more transects, could be defined as generalists. Both categories are considered ‘indicator species.’

**Keywords:** Alpine, ecotone, environmental factor, habitat, indicator species, light trap, specialists, species richness, transects, western Himalaya.

**सार:** ऊँचाई के आधार पर होने वाले परिवर्तन (आल्टिट्यूडिनल ग्रेडिएंट) का उपयोग प्रायः लेपिडोप्टेरा की विविधता के अध्ययन के लिए किया जाता है। अध्ययन क्षेत्र, जो मुनस्यारी उपखंड (जिला, पिथौरागढ़, कुमाऊँ हिमालय) में स्थित है, को ऊँचाई के अनुसार ट्रांसेक्टों में विभाजित किया गया। प्रत्येक ट्रांसेक्ट की चौड़ाई 200 मीटर थी तथा यह 1,200–4,000 मीटर की ऊँचाई तक फैला हुआ था। प्रत्येक ट्रांसेक्ट में कम से कम पाँच नमूना प्लॉट स्थापित किए गए। इसके अतिरिक्त, अध्ययन क्षेत्र को वनस्पति आवरण के आधार पर पाँच प्रमुख क्षेत्रों (ज़ोन) में बाँटा गया। पतंगों का संग्रह सायं 7:00 बजे से रात्रि 11:00 बजे तक स्वचालित प्रकाश फंदों की सहायता से किया गया। नमूनों की पहचान उपलब्ध साहित्य और मानक विधियों के अनुसार की गई। संकेतक प्रजाति विश्लेषण Dufrière & Legendre की विधि के अनुसार किया गया। यह शोधपत्र विशेष रूप से Geometridae कुल के पतंगों की स्थिति तथा ऊँचाई के अनुसार उनके वितरण पैटर्न पर केंद्रित है। ज़ोन II (1,800–2,600 मीटर) में सर्वाधिक प्रजाति समृद्धि (98 प्रजातियाँ) तथा अधिकतम संख्या (4686 व्यक्तियों) दर्ज की गई, जबकि न्यूनतम प्रजाति समृद्धि ज़ोन III में पाई गई। उपपरिवार स्तर पर, Ennominae में 93 प्रजातियाँ, इसके बाद Larentiinae में 49, Geometrinae में 14, Sterrhinae में 4 तथा Desmobjathrinae में 1 प्रजाति दर्ज की गई। वितरण के आधार पर, 23 प्रजातियाँ केवल एक ही ट्रांसेक्ट तक सीमित थीं और केवल एक माह तक ही पाई गईं, जिन्हें अत्यधिक विशिष्ट (विशेषज्ञ) श्रेणी में रखा जा सकता है। वहीं, दो प्रजातियाँ—*Euphyia subangulata* तथा *Eustroma melancholicum venipicta*—पूरे ऊँचाई क्षेत्र में पाई गईं। इसके अतिरिक्त, 23 अन्य प्रजातियाँ (सभी Ennominae) पाँच या उससे अधिक ट्रांसेक्टों में उपस्थित रहीं, जिन्हें सामान्यवादी श्रेणी में रखा जा सकता है। इन दोनों श्रेणियों को संकेतक प्रजातियाँ माना गया है।

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## INTRODUCTION

Moths and butterflies belong to the insect order Lepidoptera, characterized by two pairs of scale-covered wings, and, in most groups, reduced mandibles. Butterflies are primarily day-flying and usually brightly coloured, while most moths are nocturnal and tend to be more cryptically coloured. Currently, approximately 158,000 Lepidoptera species have been reported worldwide; new discoveries are made each year, and the actual total is estimated to range 300,000–400,000 (Kristensen et al. 2007). Even though butterflies are relatively better known than moths, the latter, outnumber the butterflies by at least 10 to one (Hill et al. 2021). Moths are a significant component of terrestrial ecosystems as herbivores and pollinators, and they also play a role in nutrient cycling; therefore, disturbances to their natural habitats, primarily due to anthropogenic activities, affect their population dynamics (Lomov et al. 2006). In fact, on account of their sensitivity towards habitat change, moths have been recently targeted as ‘indicator species’ that reflect upon habitat changes, such as forest fragmentation, land-use patterns, deforestation, and regeneration (Ricketts et al. 2001; Enkhtur et al. 2017). In terms of distribution and habitat preferences, moths exhibit both narrow and wide distributions. Both narrow, highly niche specialized (confined to 200–400 m breadth segments), and widely distributed – the generalists, could act as ecological indicators; for any change in their availability or numbers would relate to habitat change or its quality. The distribution of moths across an altitudinal gradient, thus, provides an opportunity to study the range of their distribution pattern, the diversity – both richness and abundance, and relate these with the above-ground vegetation profile, as well as the anthropogenic disturbance. Moreover, any depletion in numbers, as well as the availability of specialist moths in particular, could be monitored, since moths exhibit ‘assemblages’ that are easy to monitor.

Variation in moth diversity along altitudinal gradients can be an effective way to study the effects of climate change on ecological communities (Kitching et al. 2011). Forested elevational gradients representing sets of adjacent climates are excellent tools for such studies; encompassing, in a small geographical area, a range of environmental factors that shift predictably (Rahbek 2005; Fiedler & Beck 2008; Fischer et al. 2011; Kitching et al. 2011). For example, it is well established that for every 100 m increase in elevation, the temperature decreases by approximately 0.6 °C (Jacobson 2005).

Concomitantly, a set of other biotic-abiotic factors, for example, mean annual temperature, precipitation change, and others, too, shift in concert, inclusive of soil physico-chemical properties (Strong et al. 2011), along elevational gradients (Stevens 1992; Kessler et al. 2001; Lomolino 2001; Foster 2010).

Understanding how moth assemblages change along the altitudinal gradient is therefore important for assessing likely future changes in diversity, for example, climate change (Doran et al. 2003). It will also allow us to observe the current distributions of different species, and make predictions about how they would respond to climate change based on their current climatic envelopes, thereby leading us to identify species (indicator species), which would then be used to monitor future range shifts (Kitching & Ashton 2014; Nakamura et al. 2016). Moths are ideal as ‘Indicator species’ for use in climate monitoring, since (i) they are sensitive to environmental variables, and (ii) their herbivorous life histories bind them invariably to larger community-level shifts (Schulze et al. 2001). Other features, like their being easy to sample in large numbers (principally, making use of automated light traps), giving strong statistical power, and their being relatively well known taxonomically (Holloway 1985ab–1997) make them ideal species to monitor climate change.

An elevational change of just 200 m drives significant changes in moth assemblage composition, particularly for forest-inhabiting moths (Ashton et al. 2016); these changes have considerable implications for conservation under climate change scenarios. Because moths, as herbivores, are closely linked to the availability of appropriate larval host plants, this could lead to a mismatch between the upward movement of herbivores and their host plants when host plants respond more slowly and track climatic envelopes (Rehm 2014). To understand how species respond to climate change, we need to generate baseline data on their current distributions. By examining species distributions and investigating how their altitudinal ranges are driven by environmental variables across altitudes, we will be better able to predict how these species may respond to further climate warming.

Many recent studies on altitude-diversity patterns have been conducted in tropical systems, including studies of moths (e.g., Axmacher et al. 2004; Brehm et al. 2007; Beck & Chey 2008; Fiedler et al. 2008; Beck & Kitching 2009). Comparable data regarding methods and studies are conspicuously lacking for the temperate moths. Consequently, little is known about the altitudinal diversity patterns of temperate taxa, and information

on the seasonal variation in these patterns is scarce (Summerville & Crist 2003). Also, as concerns India, most studies related to the diversity and distribution of moths along the altitudinal gradient are restricted to tropical or sub-temperate regions (Axmacher et al. 2004; Beck & Chey 2008; Beck & Kitching 2009; Ashton et al. 2016), with an exception (Dey et al. 2015) conducted across four protected areas within the state of Uttarakhand. Further, only one single attempt (Sanyal et al. 2017) has addressed the 'indicator properties' of moth assemblages in assessing habitat quality. The present study aims to address this gap. Further, most, if not all, studies on moths are relegated to macromoths, and micromoths, if any, remain mostly unexplored. This fact becomes all the more obvious when it concerns studies in the sub-alpine and alpine zones of the Himalaya, which remain unexplored. However, one positive outcome of such a scenario is that the likelihood of discovering entirely new species or documenting their presence increases, as evidenced by the present study.

Geometrid moths occur in large numbers and have a wide elevational distribution, making them an ideal group for studies along elevational transects (Toko et al. 2023). Their sensitivity to habitat alteration and climate variation, as reflected in their distribution patterns, makes them a valuable bioindicator of environmental change (Scoble 1992; Choi 2006; Ashton et al. 2011; Alonso-Rodrigue et al. 2017; Enkhtur et al. 2020). Approximately 24,000 species of Geometridae have been described worldwide (Brehm et al. 2005). The present study thus examines (i) the diversity of the family Geometridae, and (ii) indicator species vis-à-vis the spatial distribution of each individual species, along the elevational gradient.

## MATERIALS & METHODS

The study site (Figure 1), situated in Munsiri Subdivision, Pithoragarh District, Kumaun Himalaya, between 30.111°–30.144° N and 80.254°–80.304° E, extending from base 1,200 m to 4,000 m, was divided along the altitudinal gradient into transects, measuring 200 m in breadth. In each transect, a minimum of five sampling plots were established, spaced at least 20 m apart, ensuring that a light device (UV light source) did not impede the other light device. Light traps were set using a light-sensitive solar-powered lantern. Solar light traps remained an effective tool for insect collection; they are fully automatic, switch on at night, and are absolutely safe to handle. The solar light trap was positioned at

a right angle in relation to the direction of movement of the sun during daytime, for charging the battery to a maximum, so that it lasts for the complete duration (4 h) of the insect trap. Since temporal distribution remained one component of the study (though not included in the present manuscript), moth collections, in each transect, were carried out on average between 2–3 days per month, compounding to 10–15 days for the complete duration of the study of five months, annually, and replicated for two years.

The study area was further divided into five zones (I–V) based on vegetational cover and other features, such as interspersed habitat types and anthropogenic disturbance. Moths were collected using automated light traps, between 1900 h and 2300 h. The collected specimens were then pinned and partially spread according to standard techniques (Krogmann et al. 2010). The specimens were sorted into morphospecies and identified using the available literature, following standard protocols (Haruta 2000; Scoble & Hausmann 2007). The identification of moth specimens was based entirely on morphological features, following the BOLD system of taxonomy for moths of India, Nepal, and Borneo (Ratnasingham & Hebert 2007). The identified species were further classified into families, subfamilies, and genera.

Characteristic moth species restricted to specific transect/s were identified across the altitudinal gradient using the indicator species analysis (Dufrêne & Legendre 1997). For the calculation of the indicator value, abundance figures of each species confined either to a single or two belt transects were selected (since species spread out across more than two transects had a *p*-value greater than 0.01). Species with indicator values greater than 70% produced from ISA were regarded as good indicators for each habitat, while those with the Indicator Value lying between 50–70% were regarded as detector species, i.e., as a detector of a change in habitat (McGeoch et al. 2002). At each level of cluster (species group), indicator values (Ind. Val.) and their associated *p*-values for all moth species were calculated. We selected species with an indicator value greater than 70%. The Bray-Curtis similarity index was calculated as per Bray & Curtis (1957). Lastly, the data analysis was conducted using Past 4.17 and Excel Stat. The correlation coefficient between species richness and the altitudinal gradient was calculated using Pearson's (1895) method. While Zone I can be classified as sub-temperate or warm-temperate, the subsequent zones are classified as temperate or cool-temperate, sub-alpine, timberline,

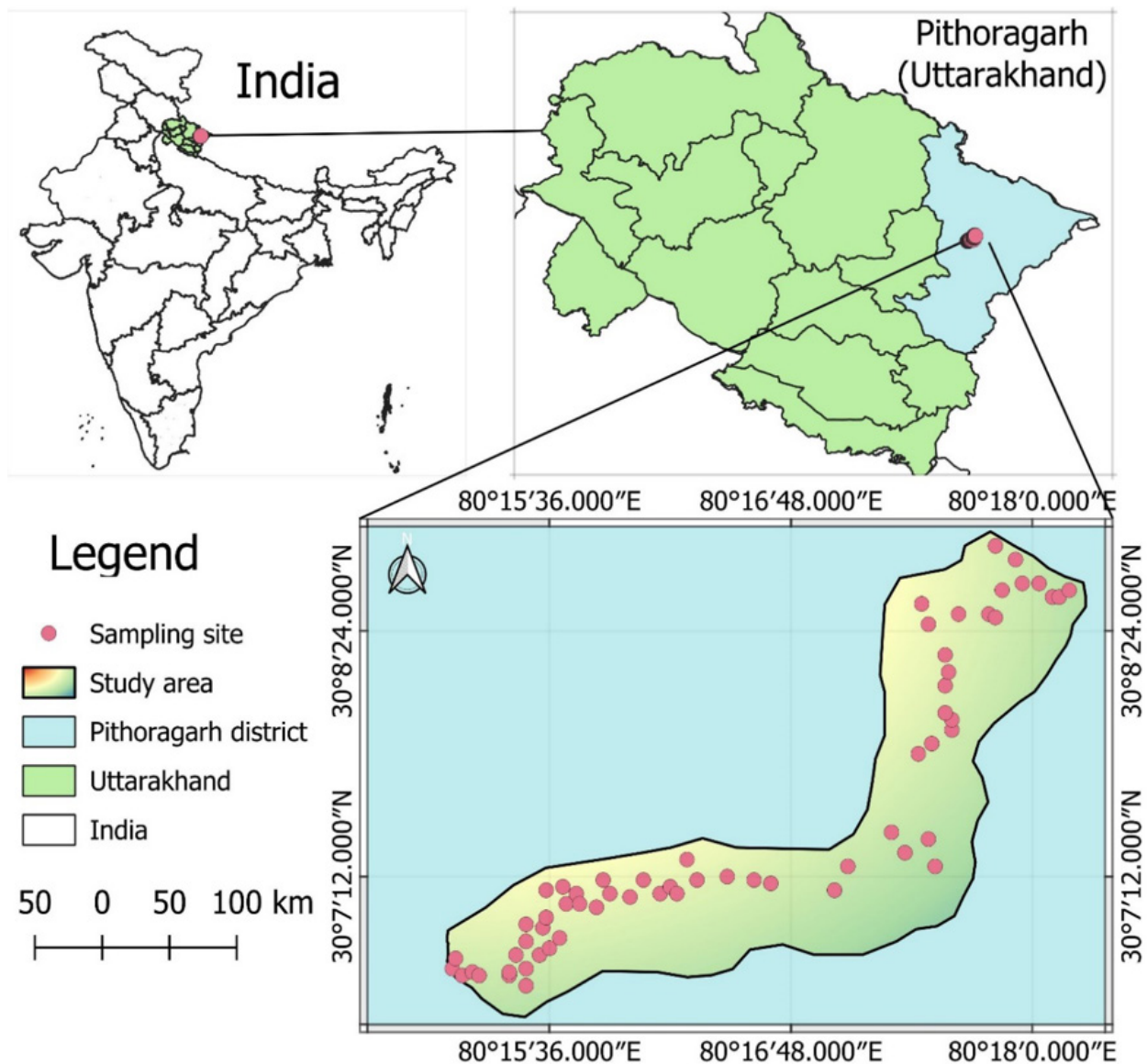


Figure 1. The study site: red dots represent the sampling sites of different altitudinal transects.

and alpine, respectively. Because the altitudinal range was extensive, changes in vegetation profiles across the altitudinal gradient were also observed, as were ecotones. The dominant plant species were *Quercus* spp., *Rhododendron* spp., *Alnus nepalensis*, *Neolitsea umbrosa*, and *Acer*; the was characterized by *Betula utilis*, while the alpine meadow was dominated by herbaceous species.

## RESULTS

A total of five subfamilies, representing 99 genera, and 161 species were collected. The maximum

species richness (98) and abundance (4,686 ind.) were encountered in zone II (1,800–2,600 m), followed by zone I (68 species and abundance 2,586 ind.) (Table 1). Species abundance declined with altitude; it increased rapidly in zone V (Table 1). The subfamily Ennominae exhibits the highest species richness, represented by 93 species (58% of the total, Figure 2), with the highest diversity encountered in the mid-altitudinal zone (1,800–2,400 m), and with transects at 2,200–2,400 m exhibiting the maximum diversity (58 species), followed by steady decline with an increase in altitude (Figure 3). The most dominant genera include *Arichanna* (7 spp.), followed by *Cleora* (4 spp.), *Opisthograptis* (4 spp.), and *Psyra* (4 spp.). The genera, *Abraaxas*, *Alcis*, *Biston*, *Dalima*,

Table 1. A brief statement of the five different zones, and their habitat description.

Altitudinal zone	Altitude (m)	Species	Species abundance	Temperature (°C)	Humidity (%)	Habitat description
Zone- I (warm temperate forest)	1200–1800	68	2586	21.19 ± 0.26	63.81 ± 1.12	Mixed forest, dominated by <i>Engelhardtia spicata</i> Lesch. ex-Blume and <i>Quercus leucotrichophora</i> A.Camus, with interspersed <i>Rhus punjabensis</i> . J.L.Stewart ex Brandis; and characterized by riverine ecosystem on its lower end, and interspersed grass-dominant patches.
Zone- II (Cool temperate forest)	1800–2600	98	4686	19.99 ± 0.19	67.22 ± 0.90	Mixed forest, dominated by <i>Quercus leucotrichophora</i> A. Camus and <i>Rhododendron arboreum</i> Sm., with interspersed <i>Alnus nepalensis</i> D.Don, <i>Neolitsea umbrosa</i> (Nees) Gamble., <i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i> L., and <i>Q. semecarpifolia</i> Sm. towards the upper reaches. The forest is marked by interspersed grass habitats and agricultural land
Zone- III (Timberline Forest)	2600–3000	35	1098	18.08 ± 0.27	70.33 ± 0.25	Mixed forest, dominated by <i>Q. semecarpifolia</i> and <i>R. arboreum</i> Sm., and further marked by <i>R. barbatum</i> . and <i>Acer acuminatum</i> Wall. ex D.Don, towards upper reaches. This zone is disturbed, characterized by lopping and removal of grass cover.
Zone- IV (Sub-alpine forest)	3000–3400	41	606	15.70 ± 0.85	72.81 ± 0.27	Ecotone, marked out by treeline and alpine meadow. The treeline is dominated by <i>Acer acuminatum</i> Wall. ex D.Don., <i>R. barbatum</i> , <i>R. campanulatum</i> D.Don. The tree line is marked by a steep slope and is dominated by grass cover
Zone- V (Alpine meadow)	3400–4000	46	1118	11.69 ± 0.95	78.02 ± 0.75	Alpine meadow, characterized by herbaceous vegetation, with few individuals of <i>R. campanulatum</i> .

*Medasina*, and *Ouraapterix*, are represented by three species each. Ennominae is followed by Larentiinae (49 species, and 31.05% dominance, Figure 2); exhibiting dominancy in the high-altitudinal zone (2,800–4,000m, Figure 3). Important genera include *Euphyia* (6 spp.), *Photoscotia* (5 spp.), *Entipheria* (5 spp.), *Eustroma* (4 spp.), and *Eupithecia* (2 spp.). The subfamily Geometrinae did not exhibit a consistent altitudinal gradient pattern, although it comprises 14 species (9% dominance, Figure 2) and is restricted to 2,800 m in distribution (Figure 3). *Pachyodes* was the dominant genus, with three species. The subfamily Sterrhinae was confined to the lower and mid-altitudinal zones (1,200–2,600 m) and comprised four species (Genera 3, Figure 2). Desmobathrinae was represented by a single species, distributed across three transects (2,000–2,600 m, Figure 3).

The Bray-Curtis Similarity Index (Bray & Curtis 1957) between the distribution pattern and species richness, along the altitudinal gradient, shows that the subfamily Ennominae exhibits maximum diversity at 1,600–2,400 m, and is represented throughout the altitudinal gradient; while Larentiinae exhibits maximum diversity at 3,400–3,600 m, as well as reciprocates Ennominae in its wide distribution, while the rest of the three subfamilies- Desmobathrinae, Geometrinae, and Sterrhinae, are restricted in distribution (Figure 4). Pearson correlation analysis revealed a significant negative relationship between altitude and the species richness of Ennominae ( $r = -0.597$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ),

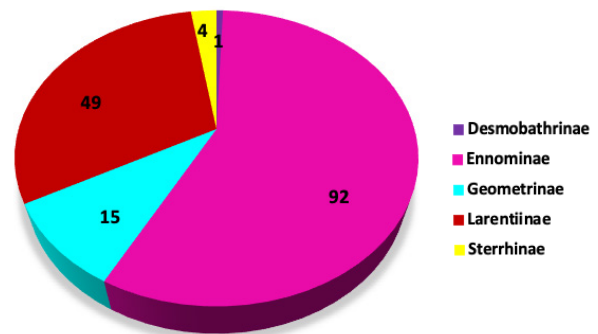


Figure 2. Geometrid species diversity within subfamilies.

Geometrinae ( $r = -0.545$ ,  $p = 0.044$ ), and Sterrhinae ( $r = -0.684$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ). In contrast, Larentiinae exhibits a strong positive correlation with altitude ( $r = 0.730$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), indicating an increase in species richness with elevation (Brehm et al. 2007). Desmobathrinae show no significant correlation with altitude ( $r = 0.290$ ,  $p = 0.320$ ), likely due to their extremely low and rare occurrence across the altitudinal gradient (Table 3).

Across transects and the altitudinal gradient, many species exhibit restricted distributions or highly specialized niches. These include 17 species restricted to just one transect, 37 species restricted to just two transects, totalling 54 species, which could be categorised as highly specialized, while two species—*Euphyia subangulata* and *Eustroma melancolicum venipicta* (Larentiinae)—exhibited distribution throughout the

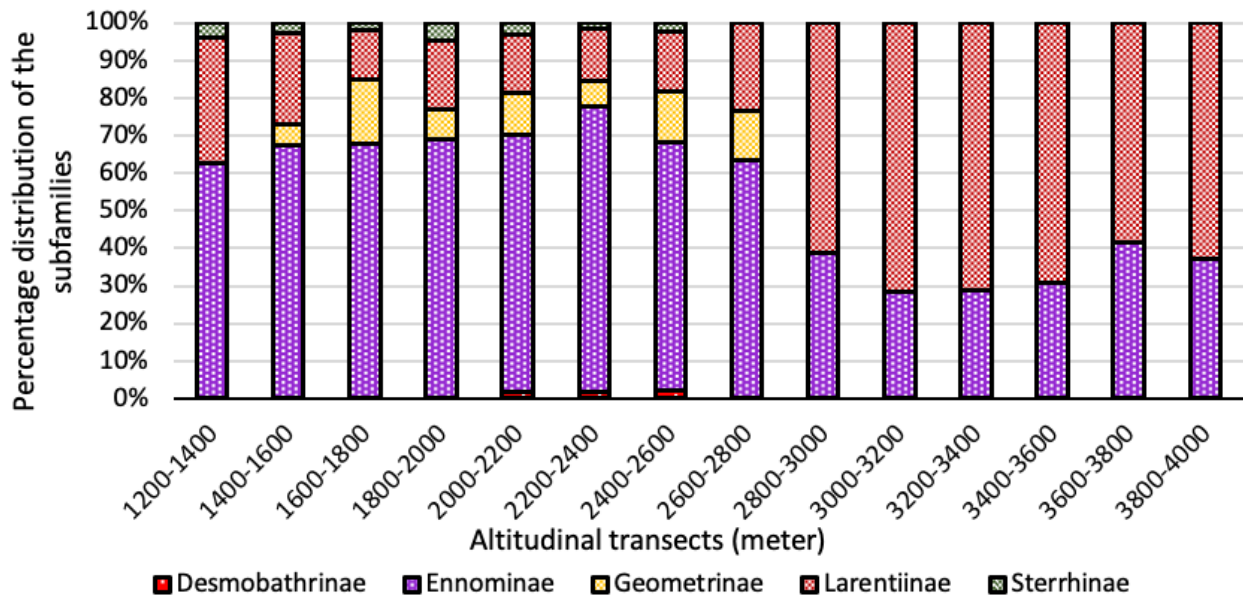


Figure 3. Distributional pattern of each geometrid subfamily along the altitudinal gradient.

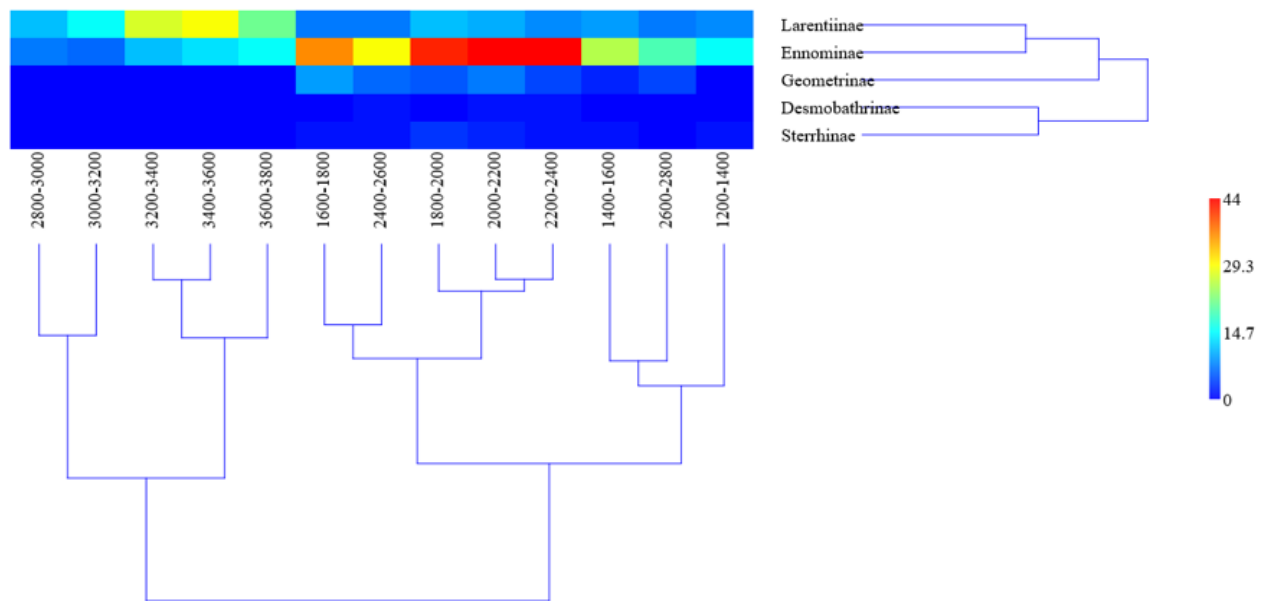


Figure 4. Bray-Curtis similarity index between distribution pattern and species richness, along the altitudinal transects. The subfamilies are distinguished by different colour scales, highlighting their diversity and their wide distribution within the broad study area.

altitudinal gradient. However, in terms of relative distribution, the subfamily Ennominae, represented by 23 species and present across five or more transects, outperforms other families, principally Larentiinae. This is because these species are mostly polyphagous and hence relatively more widely distributed (Lindström et al. 1994).

The indicator values range 53.33–100 %. However,

the indicator value of a species was compounded with the *p*-value, which in the present study, should be less than 0.01. Of the 23 species analyzed, 13 exhibited high indicator values (70–100 %) and were therefore categorized as good indicator species, indicating a strong association with specific habitat conditions. The remaining 10 species, exhibiting moderate indicator values of 50–70 %, were classified as detector or early-

**Table 2. Distribution profile of individual species along the altitudinal gradient.**

	Species	Distribution of species across the transects*													
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<b>Subfamily Desmobathrinae (01)</b>															
1	<i>Ozola</i> sp.														
<b>Subfamily Ennominae (93)</b>															
2	<i>Abaciscus tristis</i> Butler, 1889														
3	<i>Abraxas permutans</i> Wehrli, 1931														
4	<i>Abraxas praepiperata</i> Wehrli, 1935														
5	<i>Abraxas</i> sp.														
6	<i>Alcis paraclarata</i> Sato, 1993														
7	<i>Alcis praevariegata</i> Prout, 1929														
8	<i>Alcis variegata</i> Moore, 1888														
9	<i>Anonymia grisea</i> Butler, 1883														
10	<i>Anonymia lativitta</i> Moore, 1888														
11	<i>Arichanna furcifera</i> Moore, 1888														
12	<i>Arichanna flavinigra</i> Hampson, 1907														
13	<i>Arichanna interplagata</i> Guenee, 1857														
14	<i>Arichanna sparsa</i> Butler, 1890														
15	<i>Arichanna tramesata</i> Moore, 1867														
16	<i>Arichanna</i> sp. 1														
17	<i>Arichanna</i> sp. 2														
18	<i>Blepharoctenucha virescens</i> Butler, 1880														
19	<i>Biston bengaliaria</i> Guenee, 1858														
20	<i>Biston falcata</i> Warren, 1893														
21	<i>Biston siontibetica</i> Warren, 1941														
22	<i>Cabera quadrifasciaria</i> Packard, 1873														
23	<i>Cassyma deletaria</i> Moore, 1888														
24	<i>Chiasmia cymatodes</i> Wehrli, 1932														
25	<i>Chiasmia</i> sp.														
26	<i>Chorodna vulpinaria</i> Moore, 1867														
27	<i>Cleora alienaria</i> Walker, 1860														
28	<i>Cleora fraternal</i> Moore, 1888														
29	<i>Cleora</i> sp. 1														
30	<i>Cleora</i> sp. 2														
31	<i>Corymica pryeri</i> Butler, 1878														
32	<i>Corymica spatiosa</i> Prout, 1925														
33	<i>Dalima apicata</i> Moore, 1868														
34	<i>Dalima schistacearia</i> Moore, 1868														
35	<i>Dalima truncataria</i> Moore, 1868														
36	<i>Deinotrichia scotosiaria</i> Warren, 1893														
37	<i>Euclidiodes meridionalis</i> Wallengren, 1860														
38	<i>Epigynopteryx</i> sp.														
39	<i>Erebabraxas metachromata</i> Walker, 1862														
40	<i>Erebomorpha fulgurita</i> Walker, 1860														
41	<i>Eutoea heteroneurata</i> Guenee, 1858														

	Species	Distribution of species across the transects*													
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
42	<i>Fascellina plagiata</i> Walker, 1866														
43	<i>Gareus</i> sp.														
44	<i>Harutalcis vialis</i> Moore, 1888														
45	<i>Hirasa scripturaria</i> Walker, 1866														
46	<i>Hyalinetta circumflexa</i> Kollar, 1848														
47	<i>Hypephyra cyanargentea</i> Wehrli, 1925														
48	<i>Hypochrosis amaurospila</i> Yazaki, 1995														
49	<i>Lassaba albidaria</i> Walker, 1866														
50	<i>Lomographa vestaliata</i> Guenee, 1857														
51	<i>Loxaspilates hastigera</i> Butler, 1889														
52	<i>Luxiaria amasa</i> Butler, 1878														
53	<i>Medasina albidaria</i> Walker, 1866														
54	<i>Medasina combustaria</i> Walker, 1866														
55	<i>Medasina</i> sp.														
56	<i>Micronidia simpliciata</i> Moore, 1868														
57	<i>Mimomiza cruentaria</i> Moore, 1867														
58	<i>Menophra nigrifasciata</i> Hampson, 1891														
59	<i>Menophra</i> sp.														
60	<i>Odontopera kanchia</i> Moore, 1883														
61	<i>Odontopera</i> sp.														
62	<i>Ophthalmitis cordularia</i> Swinhoe, 1893														
63	<i>Opisthograptis luteolata</i> L., 1758														
64	<i>Opisthograptis tridentifera</i> Moore, 1888														
65	<i>Opisthograptis rumiformis</i> Hampson, 1902														
66	<i>Opisthograptis sulphurea</i> Butler, 1880														
67	<i>Orthofodonia</i> sp. 1														
68	<i>Orthofodonia</i> sp. 2														
69	<i>Ourapteryx clara</i> Butler, 1880														
70	<i>Ourapteryx consociata</i> Inoue, 1993														
71	<i>Ourapteryx sambucaria</i> L. 1758														
72	<i>Oxymacaria penumbrata</i> Warren, 1896														
73	<i>Paradarisa consonaria</i> Hübner, 1799														
74	<i>Paraleptomiza bilinearia</i> Leech, 1897														
75	<i>Parectropis subflava</i> Bastelberger, 1909														
76	<i>Percnia belluaria</i> Guenee, 1858														
77	<i>Percnia foraria</i> Guenee, 1858														
78	<i>Plagadis inustaria</i> Moore, 1868														
79	<i>Plutodes costatus</i> Butler, 1886														
80	<i>Pseudomiza cruentaria</i> Moore, 1867														
81	<i>Pseudopanthera himalayica</i> Kollar, 1848														
82	<i>Psilalcis conspicuata</i> Moore, 1888														
83	<i>Psyra angulifera</i> Walker, 1867														
84	<i>Psyra cuneata</i> Walker, 1860														
85	<i>Psyra falcipennis</i> Yazaki, 1994														

	Species	Distribution of species across the transects*													
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
86	<i>Psya spurcataria</i> Walker, 1863		■	■	■										
87	<i>Racotis petrosa</i> Butler, 1879													■	
88	<i>Scioglyptis externaria</i> Walker, 1866					■	■	■	■						
89	<i>Sirinopteryx rufivinctata</i> Walker, 1862	■	■	■	■	■									
90	<i>Stenorumia ablunata</i> Guenee, 1858		■	■	■	■	■								
91	<i>Stenorumia duplilinea</i> Hampson, 1895											■	■	■	
92	<i>Tanaoetenia haliaria</i> Walker, 1861	■	■												
93	<i>Thinopteryx crocoptera</i> Kollar, 1844							■							
94	<i>Xandrames albofasciata</i> Moore, 1868			■	■	■									
<b>Subfamily Geometrinae (14)</b>															
95	<i>Chloroglyphica variegata</i> Butler, 1889			■	■										
96	<i>Chlororithra fea</i> Butler, 1889							■							
97	<i>Comostola minutata</i> Druce, 1893			■	■										
98	<i>Dichorda</i> sp.							■	■	■					
99	<i>Gelasma inaptaria</i> Walker, 1863			■	■										
100	<i>Idiochlora approximans</i> Warren, 1897		■	■	■	■	■	■							
101	<i>Lotaphora iridiocolor</i> Butler, 1880							■	■						
102	<i>Orothalassodes falsaria</i> Prout, 1912							■	■	■					
103	<i>Pachyodes erionoma</i> Swinhoe, 1893			■	■	■									
104	<i>Pachyodes moelleri</i> Warren, 1893					■	■	■	■						
105	<i>Pachyodes ornataria</i> Moore, 1888					■	■	■	■						
106	<i>Pelagodes</i> sp. 1		■	■	■										
107	<i>Pelagodes</i> sp. 2			■	■	■									
108	<i>Tanaorhinus formosanus</i> Okano, 1959			■											
<b>Subfamily Larentiinae (49)</b>															
109	<i>Agnibesa pictaria brevbasis</i> Prout, 1938			■	■	■									
110	<i>Amnesicoma bicolor</i> Oberthur, 1893									■	■	■	■	■	
111	<i>Amnesicoma</i> sp.											■	■	■	
112	<i>Baynia odontata</i> Prout, 1910												■	■	
113	<i>Colostygia</i> sp.		■	■	■	■									
114	<i>Dysstroma</i> sp. 1											■	■		
115	<i>Dysstroma</i> sp. 2													■	■
116	<i>Ecliptopera postpallida</i> Prout, 1940											■	■	■	
117	<i>Ecliptopera umbrosaria</i> Motschulsky, 1861											■	■	■	
118	<i>Elophos</i> sp.	■	■	■											
119	<i>Entephria caesiata</i> Denis & Schiffmuller, 1775											■	■	■	
120	<i>Entephria nobiliaria</i> Herrich-Schaffer, 1852											■	■	■	
121	<i>Entephria</i> sp. 1											■	■	■	
122	<i>Entephria</i> sp. 2											■	■	■	
123	<i>Entephria</i> sp. 3											■	■	■	
124	<i>Epirrita dilutata</i> Schiffmuller, 1775											■	■	■	
125	<i>Epirrita</i> sp.											■	■	■	
126	<i>Epirrhoe galiata</i> Denis & Schiffmuller, 1775	■	■	■											
127	<i>Eupithecia</i> sp. 1											■	■	■	

	Species	Distribution of species across the transects*													
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
128	<i>Eupithecia</i> sp. 2														
129	<i>Euphyia coagulata</i> Prout, 1914														
130	<i>Euphyia setellata</i> Warren, 1893														
131	<i>Euphyia subangulata</i> Kollar, 1844														
132	<i>Euphyia</i> sp. 1														
133	<i>Euphyia</i> sp. 2														
134	<i>Euphyia</i> sp. 3														
135	<i>Eustroma chalcoptera</i> Hampson, 1895														
136	<i>Eustroma melencolicum venipicta</i> Butler, 1878														
137	<i>Eustroma</i> sp. 1														
138	<i>Eustroma</i> sp. 2														
139	<i>Heterothera sororcula</i> Bastelberger, 1909														
140	<i>Hydrelia bicolorata</i> Moore, 1868														
141	<i>Hysterura multifaria</i> Swinhoe, 1890														
142	<i>Laciniodes plurilinearia</i> Moore, 1867														
143	<i>Laciniodes unistirpis</i> Butler, 1878														
144	<i>Lampropteryx otregiata</i> Metcalf, 1917														
145	<i>Larentia</i> sp.														
146	<i>Lobogonodes multistriata</i> Butler, 1889														
147	<i>Melanthia alaudaria</i> Freyer, 1846														
148	<i>Perizoma bicolor</i> Warren, 1893														
149	<i>Pseudopolynesia</i> sp.														
150	<i>Photoscotosia chlorochrota</i> Hampson, 1902														
151	<i>Photoscotosia dejeani</i> Oberthur, 1893														
152	<i>Photoscotosia indecora</i> Prout, 1940														
153	<i>Photoscotosia insularis</i> Bastelberger, 1909														
154	<i>Photoscotosia metachryseis</i> Hampson, 1896														
155	<i>Physetobasis dentifascia</i> Hampson, 1895														
156	<i>Stamnodes danilovi</i> Erschoff, 1877														
157	<i>Stamnodes pauperaria</i> Eversmann, 1877														
<b>Subfamily Sterrhinae (04)</b>															
158	<i>Organopoda carnearia</i> Walker, 1861														
159	<i>Scopula calcarata</i> D.S. Fletcher, 1958														
160	<i>Scopula</i> sp.														
161	<i>Timandra correspondens</i> Hampson, 1895														

\*1—1200–1400 m | 2—1400–1600 m | 3—1600–1800 m | 4—1800–2000 m | 5—2000–2200 m | 6—2200–2400 m | 7—2400–2600 m | 8—2600–2800 m | 9—2800–3000 m | 10—3000–3200 m | 11—3200–3400 m | 12—3400–3600 m | 13—3600–3800 m | 14—3800–4000 m.

warning species (Table 4). Both these categories of indicator species, however, reflect upon the habitat changes, habitat modification, environmental stress, or successional shifts (Bandyopadhyay 2021).

The highest number of indicator species were recorded from Ennominae subfamily (14 spp.), followed by Larentiinae (7 spp.), Sterrhinae (1 sp.), and Geometrinae (1 sp.) (Table 4). In terms of distribution profiles, a significant number of species (5) were confined to transects, ranging 2,200–2,400 m, followed by four species confined to the transects lying at 1,800–2,000 m; in three transects (1,200–1,400 m, 2,400–2,600 m, and 3,600–3,800 m) each have three spp.; in transects at altitudes of 1,600–1,800 m and 2,600–2,800 m two spp. were recorded from each; and the transect 2,800–3,000 m contain only a single indicator species (Table 4). In terms of the distribution of representative indicator species across the families Geometridae exhibiting species distribution across the whole transect area, from 1,200 m at the bottom to 4,000 m, characteristically is marked by the absence of any indicator species between the six transects lying between 1,400–1,600 m, 2,000–2,200 m, 3,000–3,600 m, and 3,800–4,000 m (Table 4).

Several species (Images 1–7) are reported for the first time from Uttarakhand, most of which belong to the subfamily Ennominae. These include- *Chiasmia cymatodes* Wehrli, 1932, *Cleora alienaria* Walker, 1860, *Dalima apicata* Moore, 1868, *Harutalcis vialis* Moore, 1888, and *Micronidia simplicata* Moore, 1868; while two species- *Agnibesa pictaria brevibasis* Prout, 1938 and *Physetobasis dentifascia* Hampson, 1895, belong to the Larentiinae. Of greater importance are the two species, *Euclidiodes meridionalis* Wallengren, 1860, and *Hypochrosis amaurospila* Yazaki, 1995 (Ennominae, Images 8 & 9), reported for the first time from the country.

## DISCUSSION

Changes in subfamily composition of geometrid moths along elevational transects show different patterns of distribution (Brehm & Fiedler 2003). The maximum diversity encountered in zones I and II (altitude 1,200–2,600 m), reflects the findings of Brehm et al. (2003). Also, the finding that Ennominae accounts for the highest proportions at low elevations (1,200–2,800 m), while Larentiinae dominates at higher elevations (2,800–4,000 m), is consistent with Brehm & Fiedler's (2003) findings in the Ecuadorian Andes.

The declining trend in species diversity, along the

altitudinal gradient, could be ascribed to open patches and anthropogenic disturbance, principally in zone III, while the other factors could be declining temperature ( $21.19 \pm 0.26$  to  $11.69 \pm 0.95$ ) and concomitant increase in humidity ( $63.81 \pm 1.12$  to  $78.02 \pm 0.75$ ), with altitude (Table 1). The subfamily Ennominae exhibits a strong positive correlation with ambient temperature ( $r = 0.61$ ) and a negative correlation with humidity ( $r = -0.57$ ). In contrast, Larentiinae exhibits a strong negative correlation with temperature ( $r = -0.78$ ), but a strong positive correlation with humidity ( $r = 0.74$ ). This contrasts with the findings of Colwell & Lees (2000) and Colwell et al. (2004), which indicate that Ennominae exhibits a positive relationship with both humidity and temperature. With respect to Larentiinae, our findings further support those of Colwell & Lees (2000) and Colwell et al. (2004), namely that species diversity within Larentiinae is positively correlated with humidity.

Overall, for Geometridae, a positive correlation with temperature ( $r = 0.35$ ) and a negative correlation with humidity ( $r = -0.32$ ) were observed. It would thus be safe to conclude that changes in species diversity, along the altitudinal gradient, are influenced principally by the vegetation cover—tree species as host plants for Ennominae, and subsequently, herbaceous species in the case of Larentiinae. This feature is exemplified by a positive correlation ( $r = 0.59$ ) between Ennominae and tree diversity, and a negative correlation ( $r = -0.74$ ) between Larentiinae and tree diversity. The latter exhibit increased diversity with decreased forest cover and increased herbaceous diversity, as also indicated by their distribution pattern (Figure 3).

The marked increase in species richness in zone 2 relative to zone 1 could be attributed to the ecotonal effect between forest cover and species diversity. In zone 1 the ecotonal effect is between forest cover and agricultural patches. This ecotone effect on species diversity across zones III and IV is presumably offset by anthropogenic disturbance, primarily tree lopping and grass removal. On the other hand, the marked increase in species abundance in the alpine zone could be attributed to greater host plant diversity.

Various biotic and abiotic factors shape the diversity and distribution of Geometrid moths, governing species assemblages along elevational and vegetational gradients (Webb et al. 2002; Graham et al. 2009). One of the major factors determining the distribution pattern of moths is the availability of larval host plants. This is especially true for highly specialized species, as exemplified by 54 species restricted to one or two transects (Brehm et al. 2013). At the same time, 32 species, mostly belonging



1. *Agnibesa pictaria brevibasis* Prout, 1938



2. *Chiasmia cymatodes* Wehrli, 1932



3. *Cleora alienaria* Walker, 1860



4. *Dalima apicata* Moore, 1868



5. *Harutalcis vialis* Moore, 1888



6. *Micronidia simplicata* Moore, 1868



7. *Phyetobasis dentifascia* Hampson, 1895



8. *Euclidiodes meridionalis* Wallengren, 1860



9. *Hypochrosis amaurospila* Yazaki, 1995

Images 1–9. Moths from Pithoragarh District, Kumaon Himalaya. © Narendra Singh Lotani.

**Table 3. Correlation between species richness and altitudinal gradient.**

	Subfamilies	Altitudinal transects														Correlation coefficient	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	r-value	p-value
1	Desmobathrinae	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	+0.290	0.320
2	Ennominae	15	25	36	42	44	44	29	19	7	6	11	13	15	10	-0.597	0.024
3	Geometrinae	0	2	9	5	7	4	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	-0.545	0.044
4	Larentiinae	8	9	7	11	10	8	7	7	11	15	27	29	21	17	+0.730	0.003
5	Sterrhinae	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-0.684	0.007

\*1—1200–1400 m | 2—1400–1600 m | 3—1600–1800 m | 4—1800–2000 m | 5—2000–2200 m | 6—2200–2400 m | 7—2400–2600 m | 8—2600–2800 m | 9—2800–3000 m | 10—3000–3200 m | 11—3200–3400 m | 12—3400–3600 m | 13—3600–3800 m | 14—3800–4000 m.

**Table 4. Indicator species of the Geometridae family with their indicator value and significant p-value.**

	Subfamily	Species	Indicator value (%)	p-value	Transect
1	Ennominae	<i>Biston sionitibetica</i> Warren, 1941	100	0.0096	2600–2800 m
2	Ennominae	<i>Corymica spatiosa</i> Prout, 1925	100	0.0099	1200–1400 m
3	Ennominae	<i>Euclidiodes meridionalis</i> Wallengren, 1860	100	0.0096	2600–2800 m
4	Ennominae	<i>Odontopera kanchia</i> Moore, 1883	100	0.0098	2400–2600 m
5	Ennominae	<i>Psyra falcipennis</i> Yazaki, 1994	100	0.0096	2200–2400 m
6	Geometrinae	<i>Chlororithra fea</i> Butler, 1889	100	0.0096	2200–2400 m
7	Larentiinae	<i>Stamnodes danilovi</i> Erschoff, 1877	100	0.0096	2400–2600 m
8	Ennominae	<i>Gelasma inaptaria</i> Walker, 1863	83.33	0.0098	1800–2000 m
9	Ennominae	<i>Plagadis inustaria</i> Moore, 1868	82.35	0.0097	2400–2600 m
10	Ennominae	<i>Ophthalmitis cordularia</i> Swinhoe, 1893	73.21	0.0098	1800–2000 m
11	Larentiinae	<i>Perizoma bicolor</i> Warren, 1893	73.21	0.0099	1200–1400 m
12	Larentiinae	<i>Baynia odontata</i> Prout, 1910	71.66	0.0099	3600–3800 m
13	Larentiinae	<i>Eustroma chalcoptera</i> Hampson, 1895	70.23	0.0098	3600–3800 m
14	Ennominae	<i>Tanaoctenia haliaria</i> Walker, 1861	69.34	0.0098	1200–1400 m
15	Ennominae	<i>Cabera quadrifasciaria</i> Packard, 1873	68.18	0.0099	1600–1800 m
16	Larentiinae	<i>Melanthia alaudaria</i> Freyer, 1846	66.67	0.0099	1600–1800 m
17	Ennominae	<i>Hirasa scripturaria</i> Walker, 1866	64.71	0.0098	2200–2400 m
18	Sterrhinae	<i>Scopula</i> sp.	63.36	0.01	2200–2400 m
19	Ennominae	<i>Eutoea heteroneurata</i> Guenee, 1858	61.52	0.0098	2200–2400 m
20	Ennominae	<i>Lomographa vestaliata</i> Guenee, 1857	59.23	0.0096	1800–2000 m
21	Larentiinae	<i>Stamnodes pauperaria</i> Eversmann, 1877	58.06	0.0099	2800–3000 m
22	Larentiinae	<i>Hysterura multifaria</i> Swinhoe, 1889	53.85	0.0096	3600–3800 m
23	Ennominae	<i>Oxymacaria penumbra</i> Warren, 1896	53.33	0.0096	1800–2000 m

to Ennominae (23 species), exhibiting relatively wider distribution (more than 5 transects, which equals a significant distance of 1 km altitudinally), could be defined as ‘polyphagous’ and ‘generalists.’

The relative greater species richness as well as abundance of moths, predominantly belonging to the subfamily Larentiinae, in the alpine (zone V), compared to

immediate sub-alpine zones III and IV, could be ascribed to the fact that species occupying higher elevations have a larger range of tolerances (Brehm et al. 2007), and possess physiological characteristics to comply with the cooler temperatures and affiliation with the host plants that have colonized the upper areas (Brehm et al. 2013). It could be presumed that the Larentiinae

moths are better suited to cooler environments than the members of other subfamilies, especially Sterrhinae and Geometrinae (Brehm et al. 2013). The physiological properties, which allow moths of this subfamily to be unusually tolerant of unfavourable conditions, however, remain unknown (Brehm & Fiedler 2003). Furthermore, Larentiinae moths, owing to their relatively weaker body structure compared with other subfamilies, are weak flyers, which might benefit them in predator-free environments (Brehm & Fiedler 2003). Moderate host-plant specificity, as exhibited primarily by Ennominae, coupled with adaptability to cooler temperatures, as exhibited by Larentiinae, broadly describes patterns in species distribution across the altitudinal gradient (Brehm et al. 2013).

The indicator species were confined to a single transect, i.e., within an altitudinal breadth of just 200 m, which makes them not just highly specialized species (in terms of distribution), but more importantly, their niche specificity, relegated to biotic (mostly) and abiotic factors, would necessitate their greater monitoring. Any degradation of the habitat would invariably result in population decline and the loss of these species.

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