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An Examination on the several Varieties of spiders in the Biosphere Reserve

Smita

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University Department of Zoology

B.R.A Bihar University, Muzzaffarpur

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Abstract

Analytical methods to quantify spider diversity have never been used in any published research on the metropolis of Rio de Janeiro. There are 308 species of spiders in Tijuca National Park and 159 species in Marapendi Municipal Park, according to the sole data for spider populations in the vicinity. These figures are based, respectively, on a one-year survey and a quick survey. The distribution of the spider species in Pedra Branca State Park is better understood thanks to this research. We present a total of 14,626 spider specimens collected from this park, including at least 73 unidentified species. These specimens represent 49 families and 373 species or morphospecies. Additionally, the distribution range of 45 species was increased, and according to species accumulation curves, the studied regions are home to a minimum of 388 (Bootstrap) and a maximum of 468 (Jackknife2) species. These estimations suggest that the variety of spiders may be more than what has been seen.

Keywords: Arachnids, Analytical methods, Species, morphospecies

Introduction

One of the most common phyla of invertebrates is the Arthropoda. There is no other animal kingdom group that can compare to the variety and adaptability of the diverse arthropodan groups. Science has identified about 600,000 Arthropod species, and there are now over a million different types of them. For a long time, the bulk of scientists that studied Arthropoda focused only on insects and marine crustaceans. Zoologists started paying more attention to arachnids very

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recently. 'Numerous well-known species, including spiders, ticks, mites, and scorpions, belong to the class Arachnids. The average man has had a relationship with these creatures ever since the start of civilisation. He often either loved them or didn't like them, but he never disregarded spiders or scorpions. People have been particularly taken by the uniqueness of animals; for instance, the scorpion was given a position in the Zodiac. And these creatures have been the subject of many myths and superstitions. Spiders have been given unique mythical importance under their many common names. The majority of people despise large house spiders (Tegenaria) in their homes, whereas money spiders (Linyphiidae) are welcomed and preserved in Britain and the United States for better fortune; and crab spiders (Heteropoda) are found in India, 2 / Malaya, and Brazil for their propensity to eradicate cockroaches. The killing of spiders is said to bring bad luck in both Britain and the US. Because of this, no one kills spiders—not even Muslims or Europeans. Because of their alleged greater knowledge or their involvement in transporting spirits of the dead through rivers on their journey to the centre of the earth, the Bhils of India, the Ghibchas of Central America, and the Hausa tribes of Africa all practise spider worship.

Ecology and Geographical distribution of arachnids

Although the distribution of arachnids in the temperate region of the earth is very astounding, sub-tropical regions have a higher density and diversity of arachnids. Although they are the most noticeable arachnids in this area, mites and ticks are more numerous than spiders. The temperate zones have a significant presence of pseudoscorpions and opilionids. Along with these forms, a few species of time scorpions are also found in temperate temperatures. Under leaves, stones, or fallen logs, scorpions, palpigrades, and schizoids are regularly seen in tropical and subtropical areas. The dispersal of spiders, however, is often the most successful. They have been seen in a wide range of environments, including the polar area, the tropics, on the ground, in balloons aloft, in caves, on the summits of mountains, and even in the ocean. Although most spiders live outdoors, many also live inside homes. Any living thing will inevitably be dependent on the physical circumstances of its immediate environment. However, when faced with harsh environmental conditions, it must fight for existence. They engage in preening behaviour when they arrive in a

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livable neighbourhood and find a place where an arachnid can reside. When they return to favourable media, scorpions, spiders, and pseudoscorpions are shown to clean, anoint, and fry their body surface. All arachnids are constantly threatened by extreme heat. The cryptozoic way of life often avoids this. Animals conceal themselves under rocks, leaves, or logs and only come out at night, when the temperature is often low. By virtue of their stilted behaviour, scorpions can survive a larger increase in temperature up to a certain point. According to Dresco-Derouet (1961, 1964, and 1967), scorpions can endure a broad range of high temperatures.

Protection from enemies

By rapidly dropping a caught limb, arachnids often flee from their predatory predators. Crustaceans have a similar defence mechanism against predators. The terms autotorry, autospasy, autotilly, and autosalizy, which ostensibly include some level of choice or decision on the side of the animal, are used to characterise such ways of predator protection. Breaking a leg or loosing a body component undoubtedly makes it easier for the spider to flee from its predator. However, as there is no reflex response or specific mechanism involved, the data raise questions about whether the arachnid's choice to lose a leg in this manner was conscious.

Food and Feeding Behavior:

The issue of food has been addressed in numerous ways by arachnids. The diet and feeding habits of these animals are well understood. They primarily act as predators in their own eco-systems. Scorpions eat tiny insects, centipedes, spiders, and even snakes, lizards, and mice. Since ticks, mites, spiders, and pseudoscorpions eat creatures of different sizes, their eating habits may differ from species to species. The harvestman spider Phalangium opilio can ingest either living or dead stuff from its meal, unlike other arachnids that only suck fluid. Many researchers, like Dubale and Yyas, have studied the hunt for prey and real feeding activities (1973). It is surprising to learn about these creatures' food intake. A spider gets overfed with only one fly a day, which is all that captive arachnids need to consume (Savory, 1964). According to observations made by Bernard (1893), Blaekwall (1860–64), and Baerg (1958), some species of arachnids may go more than 14 to 30 months without eating talc.

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I.C. Phytogeny and Taxonomy

Spiders, scorpions, harvestmen, and mites are the arachnids that are most often observed, but the class also includes seven other minor families of terrestrial arthropods that are less well-known to the general public. The African scorpion Pandinus imperator, which may grow to a length of 18–20 cm, is the biggest and heaviest arachnid. The gall mites, which measure 80 m, may be the tiniest. By the standards of vertebrates, butterflies, or vascular plants, no group of arachnids is widely known. Only a few of the most prevalent spider species in Europe, North America, and Japan are covered in popular guides; all other species need specialised material and expert skills to identify. Numerous species are unknown and unexplored; at most, the 93,000 spider species that are now recognised represent just a third of the potential total and most likely substantially less. The majority of unnamed arachnid species are mites.

Arachnology is the study of arachnids. There are around 600 members of the main worldwide scientific association for nonacarines, although many more merely belong to provincial groups. Better ecological and biotechnological knowledge of arachnids is still hampered by the taxonomy of arachnids, although there are less and fewer arachnid taxonomists, and no new students are being taught. Although there are current "biologies" available for spiders, scorpions, solifuges, pseudoscorpions, and certain elements of mite biology, there are no complete arachnology textbooks suitable for university instruction (three exist for Acari).

Conclusion

Because the spider fauna reported for Tijuca is the product of a Rapid Ecological Survey with only one trip using standardized methodologies, sampling efforts must be taken into account in every survey. However, there are several scattered reports for this region dating back to the 19th century. As a result, it is currently not possible to compare the beta diversity of the faunas of Pedra Branca and Tijuca, although it is anticipated that the majority of the spider species may be similar. Our original expectations for the species richness of the study at Pedra Branca were exceeded, particularly in light of the significant human pressure on this park. It was anticipated that regions with these circumstances would only have a larger proportion of widely distributed species, giving

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them a better chance of surviving human impact and withstanding a wider range of environmental influences. Even more than in Tijuca, this urban forest's amazing richness may be attributed to its position in the western part of Rio de Janeiro, where human habitation just recently began. Another factor could be the prevalence of locations with steep hillsides, which makes it difficult to reach the park's protected parts. A further indication that the area of Pedra Branca State Park is still well conserved is the little number of cosmopolitan and pantropical species compared to the vast number of Brazilian species, particularly those endemic to the Southeastern region. However, the lack of comparison data from other regions makes it difficult to draw any conclusions at this time. So, in order to secure the conservation of what is left of this historically enormous territory, we finish our effort by admitting that even locations with heavy human pressure may yield crucial information.

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