

HOSTED BY



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

## Journal of Asia-Pacific Biodiversity

journal homepage: <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/japb>

## Original article

## Avifaunal diversity in the peripheral areas of the Maduruoya National Park in Sri Lanka: With conservation and management implications



Dinesh E. Gabadage<sup>a</sup>, W. Madhava S. Botejue<sup>a</sup>, Thilina D. Surasinghe<sup>b</sup>,  
 Mohomed M. Bahir<sup>a</sup>, Majintha B. Madawala<sup>c</sup>, Buddhi Dayananda<sup>d</sup>,  
 Vimukthi U. Weeratunga<sup>e</sup>, D.M.S. Sameera Karunarathna<sup>f,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Biodiversity Conservation Society, Number 150/6, Stanly Thilakarathne Mawatha, Nugegoda, Sri Lanka

<sup>b</sup> Department of Biology, Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, MN, USA

<sup>c</sup> South Australian Herpetology Group, South Australian Museum, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA, Australia

<sup>d</sup> Gemunu Mawatha, Rambukkana, Sri Lanka

<sup>e</sup> Dutugemunu Mawatha, Talahena, Battaramulla, Sri Lanka

<sup>f</sup> Nature Explorations and Education Team, Moratuwa, Sri Lanka

## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 9 March 2015

Received in revised form

15 April 2015

Accepted 27 April 2015

Available online 6 May 2015

## Keywords:

Dry zone forest

Fortification

Migrant birds

Red list category

Threatened birds

## ABSTRACT

A survey was randomly conducted in the marginal areas of Maduruoya National Park, Sri Lanka for a period of > 7 years. These study sites are located within the dry zone and the intermediate zone. The main vegetation type of the area is dry mixed evergreen forest. We recorded 196 bird species belonging to 66 families, and they included 161 breeding residents, 25 purely migrants, nine both resident and migrants, one vagrant, 14 nationally threatened, three globally threatened, and 10 endemic species. We also report the first-ever records of Chestnut-backed Owlet, Red-faced Malkoha, and Spot-winged Thrush from this dry area. However, these precious habitats and its species are threatened because of irresponsible human activities such as forest fires, land filings, hunting, road kills, encroachments, garbage dumping, agrochemicals, granite-rock blasting, logging, and road constructions. Therefore, we recommend that relevant authorities take immediate conservation action to increase the protection of these marginal areas or buffer zone in the near future.

Copyright © 2015, National Science Museum of Korea (NSMK) and Korea National Arboretum (KNA). Production and hosting by Elsevier. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

## Introduction

The tropical Island of Sri Lanka (5°55'–9°51' N and 79°41'–81°54' E) has a rich and diverse assemblage of avifauna that comprises a total of 453 species with 240 breeding residents and 213 purely migrants including 72 vagrants (Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012; Warakagoda et al 2012). Among Sri Lanka's residential breeders, 21 species are also represented by migrating populations (Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012). The number of endemic species has been disputed, and the number has fluctuated between 20 and 47 throughout the ornithological history of Sri Lanka (Kotagama et al 2006). Some ornithologists list 33 endemic

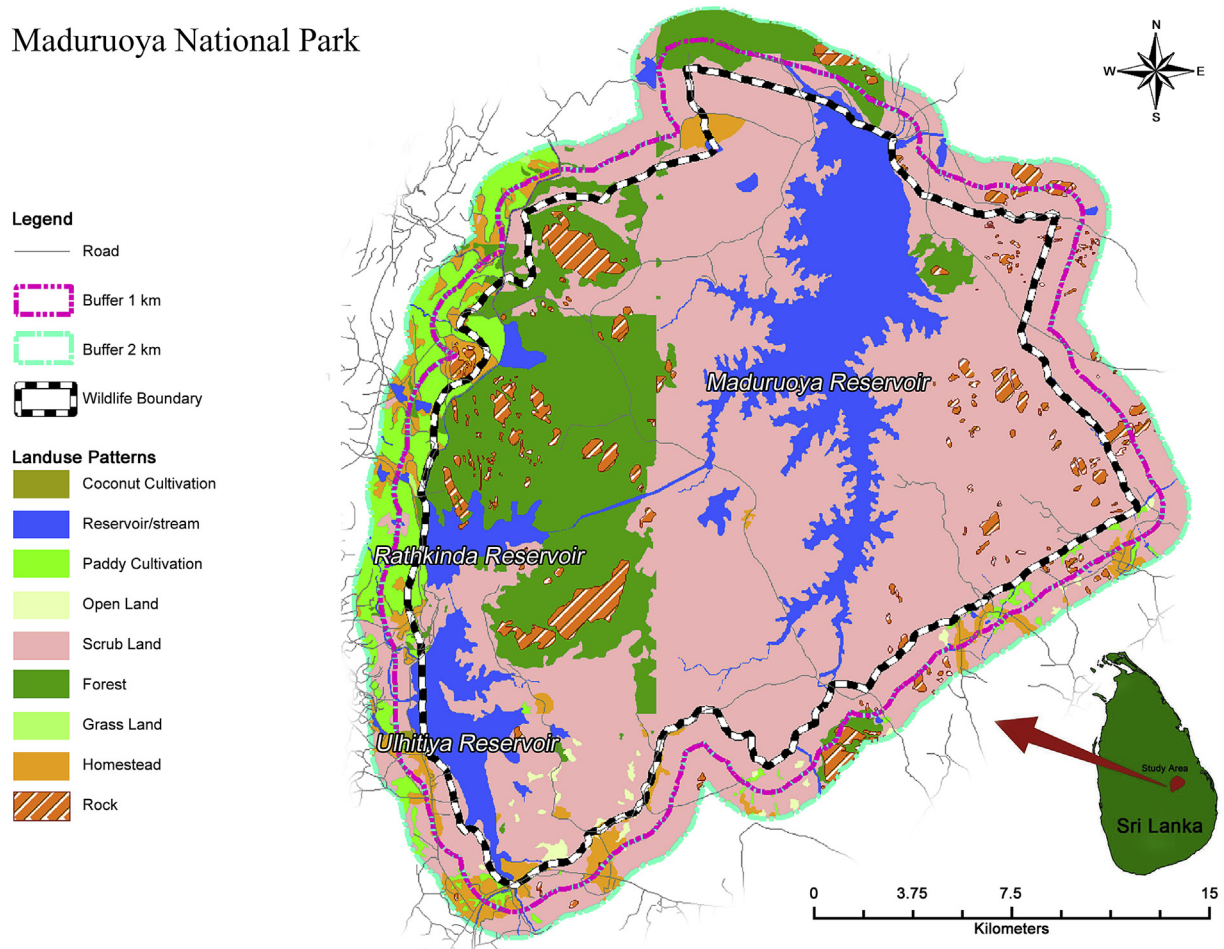
species (Rasmussen and Anderton 2005; Warakagoda and Sirivardana 2009; Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012), whereas others consider 27 species as being definitive endemic and the remaining six species as proposed endemics (Kaluthota and Kotagama 2009; Kotagama et al 2006; Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012). At present, 67 species including 18 endemic species are categorized as “nationally threatened [Critically endangered (CR), Endangered (EN), and Vulnerable (VU)] according to the National Red List 2012 of Sri Lanka (MOE 2012). The distribution and habitat preference of the birds within the island of Sri Lanka are primarily governed by the vegetation and geoclimatic parameters such as temperature variability, precipitation, hydrology, and altitude (Harrison and Worfolk 2011; Kotagama et al 2006). Some avifauna are island-wide in distribution, whereas for others a substantial proportion are only recorded from one or two bioclimatic zones (Warakagoda et al 2012). For instance, more than 60% of the residential species are restricted to the southwestern wet

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +94 776 329387.

E-mail address: [dmsameera@gmail.com](mailto:dmsameera@gmail.com) (D.M.S.S. Karunarathna).

Peer review under responsibility of National Science Museum of Korea (NSMK) and Korea National Arboretum (KNA).

## Maduruoya National Park



**Figure 1.** Map of the study area, located in North Eastern dry and intermediates zones of Sri Lanka, with different habitat types. Department of Wildlife Conservation of Sri Lanka (2004). A guide to national parks of Sri Lanka, Department of Wildlife Conservation, Colombo, Sri Lanka.

zone (annual average precipitation, >2000 mm) and the central highlands of Sri Lanka (Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012).

Approximately one-third of residential breeders of Sri Lanka are forest birds (Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012). Sri Lanka's forest covers constitute ~25% of the total land area (FAO 2010). Both primary and secondary forests in the island are rapidly diminishing and being severely fragmented as a result of expanding human settlements and agricultural lands, leading to adverse impacts on the rich native biodiversity (Bambaradeniya et al 2003; Senanayake et al 1977). Natural vegetation in Sri Lanka is represented by an adverse array of forest types with dry mixed evergreen forests, lowland evergreen rainforests, and moist montane forests being the most predominant (Gunatilleke and Gunatilleke 1990). The dry mixed evergreen forests of the dry zone (annual average precipitation, < 2000 mm) are the most extensive, covering 21% of the island (Wikramanayake et al 2001; FDGSL 2009). These forests are largely secondary in origin (resulting from secondary successions following abandonment of prehistoric agriculture and human civilizations), and distributed across most of the dry zone except in the Jaffna peninsula (Gunatilleke and Gunatilleke 1990; SDSL 2007). They have a mean annual temperature ~29°C, and the mean annual rainfall is ~1000–1500 mm. Most of the rain falls during the northeast monsoon season from October to February, and there is a noticeable dry period from May to August (Gunatilleke and

Ashton 1987; SDSL 2007). The dry zone topography can be described as flat lowlands not exceeding 300 m (the 1<sup>st</sup> peneplains). However, there is some high-elevation, rock-outcrop vegetation in a few isolated, residual peaks of the dry zone (SDSL 2007).

Because a substantial proportion (> 30%) of Sri Lanka's avifauna is composed of forest species, monitoring the status of bird communities through surveys and implementing conservation actions are foremost in importance (Kotagama et al 2006; Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012). The dry mixed evergreen forests of the north, north-central, and eastern regions of Sri Lanka remained relatively unexplored for about the past 30 years (1976–2009) owing to national security complications and civil unrests (Weerakoon and Gunawardena 2012). Given the greater spatial coverage of dry mixed evergreen forests in Sri Lanka, and the anthropogenic stressors that could potentially endanger these ecosystems, we intended to explore the avifaunal diversity in the vicinity of the Maduruoya National Park, a poorly-studied region covered with extensive dry mixed evergreen forests. Most faunal surveys in Sri Lanka has taken place inside protected areas with little to no attention given to the peripheral forests outside the park or reserve boundaries. Previous studies have underscored the importance of habitats surrounding the protected areas for the persistence of the native bird populations inside the park boundary (Wijesinghe and Brooke 2005; Gunawardene et al 2007). Our objectives for this

investigation were (1) to assess the bird diversity of the habitats bordering the Maduruoya National Park, (2) to identify threats that might endanger the native bird fauna of the region, and (3) to suggest conservation recommendations for the habitats adjoining the national park and to improve the habitat quality of the buffer area.

## Materials and methods

### Study area

Peripheral habitats around Maduruoya National Park are similar to those inside the park. Our study area is located within the dry zone with the southern edge of our study area bordering the intermediate bioclimatic zone (Figure 1), with close proximity to the Mahaweli development region (a government-sponsored, large-scale socioeconomic development scheme involving irrigation and reservoir construction through impoundments, establishment of human settlements, and infrastructure development), teak plantations, and unprotected woodlands that are subjected to repeated slash-and-burn cultivation (DWC 2004; IUCN 1990). The Maduruoya National Park (~58,850 ha; 7°23'–7°35' N and 81°05'–81°20' E) was established in the year 1983 (Gazette No. 270/9) under the Fauna and Flora Protection Ordinance as an integral part of the Mahaweli Protected Area Complex to provide habitats for the displaced wildlife and provide refuge for many other native fauna and flora, particularly elephants (DWC 2004; IUCN 1990; SDSL 2007). The Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas also serve as a catchment for five regional reservoirs (Henanegala, Maduruoya, Pimburettawa, Ratkinda, and Ulhitiya) developed under the Mahaweli Programme (DWC 2004; IUCN 1990).

The main vegetation type of the area is tropical dry mixed evergreen forests “dominated by *Manilkara* sp.” (Gunatilleke and Gunatilleke 1990). Given the forest regeneration aftermath of historical chena farms (a form of shifting agriculture) and early settlements, our study region has large areas of secondary vegetation and vast extensions of open dry tropical grasslands and wooded, lowland savannas (Premadasa 1990), and large wetlands (Figure 2A). The local topography can be described as mainly flat lowlands ranging from 30 m to 150 m in altitude, reaching a maximum at 685 m, and an 8-km stretch of rock-outcrop vegetation located southwest of Maduruoya National Park (Figure 2B). The mean annual temperature of our study area is ~27°C, and the mean annual rainfall is 1650 mm—received mostly during the northeast monsoon (from October to late January) season (DWC 2004; IUCN 1990). The Maduruoya National Park is not only significant from a biodiversity perspective but is also extremely rich in its archaeological heritage, housing a number of ruins and artifacts dating back to various periods of Sri Lanka’s imperial history.

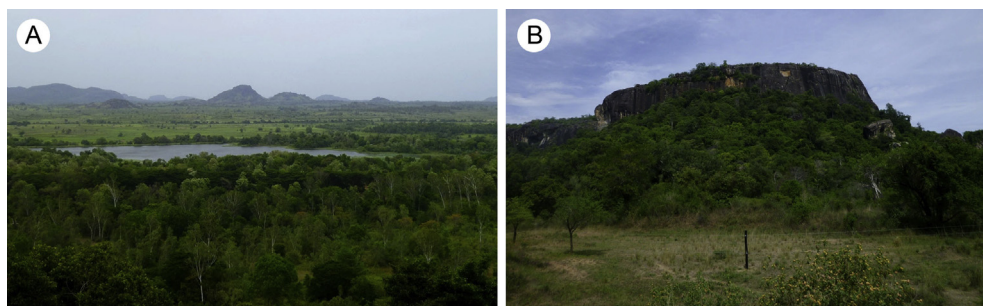
### Data collection

We conducted this survey for > 7 consecutive years (2007–2014). Our survey was based on a total of 36 field visits to multiple habitats adjoining Maduruoya National Park boundary (2 km buffer zone). We made observations through the unaided eye and (8 × 40) Nikon binoculars (Nikon Vision Co., Ltd. Tokyo, Japan) via multiple random walks. We used a Cannon EOS 50D SLR (Canon Inc., Tokyo, Japan) digital camera to take photographs and a Taylor digital thermometer (Taylor Precision Products Inc., Oak Brook, IL, USA) to measure and record some environmental parameters. The Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates were recorded using a Garmin Etrex 10 GPS receiver (Garmin International, Inc., Olathe, KS, USA), and the habitat map was made by using Arc Gis version 10.1 (Esri, Redlands, CA, USA) software. Indirect observations such as calls and presence of plunged (or dropped) feather, nests, and eggs were also recorded. Our survey encompassed diverse habitat types (wetlands, scrublands, grasslands, home gardens, homestead, farmlands, and teak plantations) that are closely associated with dry mixed evergreen forests. Surveys were conducted during both day and night (from 0600 hours to 0800 hours in the morning, from 1400 hours to 1600 hours in the afternoon, and from 2000 hours to 2200 hours in the night). We also interviewed villagers using our own questionnaire forms to assess their forest needs. All the bird species were identified with reference to Harrison and Worfolk (2011), Henry (1998), Kotagama and Fernando (1994), and Rasmussen and Anderton (2005). The classification, nomenclature, and common names of the checklist were compiled according to Rasmussen and Anderton (2012) and Birdlife International (2014a). According to Warakagoda et al (2012), species common names containing “Ceylon” are upgraded to “Sri Lanka”. The migratory and/or residential status was accorded with Rasmussen and Anderton (2012) and Warakagoda et al (2012). The national conservation status (Red List) is in accordance with MOE (2012), and the global conservation statuses are in accordance with IUCN (2014). The habitat types were determined according to the Birdlife International (2014b). The relative diversity (RDi) of orders was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{RDi} = \frac{\text{number of bird species in an order}}{\text{total number of species}} \times 100.$$

## Results

We recorded a total of 196 species of birds representing 66 families and 20 orders (Appendix 1); it represents ~43% of the islands’ native bird fauna. Among the avifauna of our study area, 161 (~82%) were breeding residents including 10 (~5%) endemics,



**Figure 2.** A, Man-made wetlands for agricultural practices (mainly for rice fields); B, Rock-out vegetations, with the electric elephant fence in border around Maduruoya National Park (photos: Madhava Botejue).

25 (~12%) were purely migrants, one vagrant, and nine (~5%) species with mixed resident–migrant status (Figure 3A). Among the recorded species, 14 were “nationally threatened” (1 CR, 3 EN, and 10 VU), three were VU, and 27 near threatened (19 nationally and 8 globally) according to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Global Red List. Furthermore, 156 of the recorded species were forest birds (of which 17 were migrants and 7 were mixed residents–migrants); 134 used croplands (of which 17 were migrants and 7 were mixed residents–migrants) (Figure 3B); 44 used built-up areas (of which 7 were migrants and 3 were mixed residents–migrants); 88 used scrublands (of which 12 were migrants and 1 was mixed resident–migrant); 68 used grasslands (of which 10 were migrants and 3 were mixed residents–migrants); 91 were inland aquatic birds (of which 14 were migrants and 6 were mixed residents–migrants). We also calculated species diversity abundance within bird orders (Table 1).

Out of the 196 species, *Passer domesticus* (House Sparrow) and *Tyto alba* (Common Barn-owl) used all six habitats for their forage; 22 preferred only five habitat types (of which 5 were migrants and 1 was mixed resident–migrant); 44 preferred only four habitat types (of which 5 were migrants and 2 were mixed residents–migrants); 58 preferred only three habitat types (of which 5 were migrants and 2 were mixed residents–migrants); and 25 preferred only a single habitat type (of which 3 were migrants and 2 were mixed residents–migrants). Endemic birds (10 species) that were recorded from the study are *Ocyrceros gingalensis* (Sri Lanka Grey Hornbill), *Phaenicophaeus pyrrhocephalus* (Red-faced Malkoha), *Xantholaema rubricapillus* (Sri Lanka Small Barbet), *Glaucidium castanotum* (Chestnut-backed Owlet), *Galloperdix bicalcarata* (Sri Lanka Spurfowl), *Gallus lafayetii* (Sri Lanka Junglefowl), *Loriculus beryllinus* (Sri Lanka Hanging parrot), *Pellorneum fuscicapillus* (Brown-capped Babbler), *Pomatorhinus melanurus* (Sri Lanka Scimitar-babbler), and *Geokichla spiloptera* (Spot-winged Thrush).

## Discussion

Our study revealed that areas around the Maduruoya National Park have a rich community of avifauna (Appendix 1 and Figure 4A–F), comprising ~67% of the breeding residents (out of the 240 breeding residents in Sri Lanka) and ~12% of migrants (out of the 213 purely migrants in Sri Lanka). In addition, this avifaunal species represents 37% of the islands' endemic bird fauna (out of the 27 endemic birds in Sri Lanka). These figures on endemism and

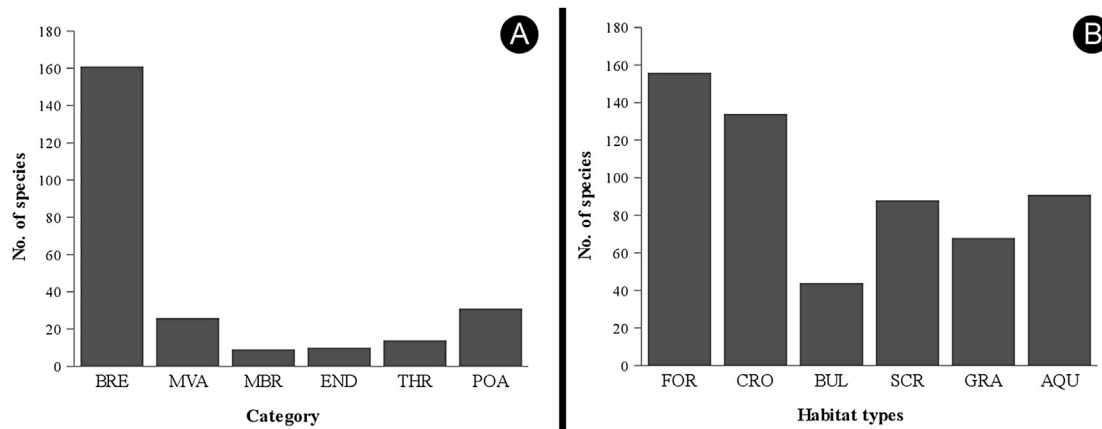
**Table 1.** Relative diversity (RDi) of various avifaunal orders at the buffer zone in Maduruoya National Park, Sri Lanka.

S. no.	Order	No. sp.	RDi
01	Accipitriformes	13	6.6
02	Anseriformes	3	1.5
03	Apodiformes	4	2.0
04	Bucerotiformes	2	1.0
05	Charadriiformes	14	7.1
06	Ciconiiformes	5	2.6
07	Columbiformes	6	3.1
08	Coraciiformes	10	5.1
09	Cuculiformes	12	6.1
10	Galliformes	4	2.0
11	Gruiformes	5	2.6
12	Passeriformes	71	36.2
13	Pelecaniformes	15	7.7
14	Piciformes	9	4.6
15	Podicipediformes	1	0.5
16	Psittaciformes	4	2.0
17	Strigiformes	12	6.1
18	Suliformes	4	2.0
19	Trogoniformes	1	0.5
20	Upupiformes	1	0.5
Total		196	100%

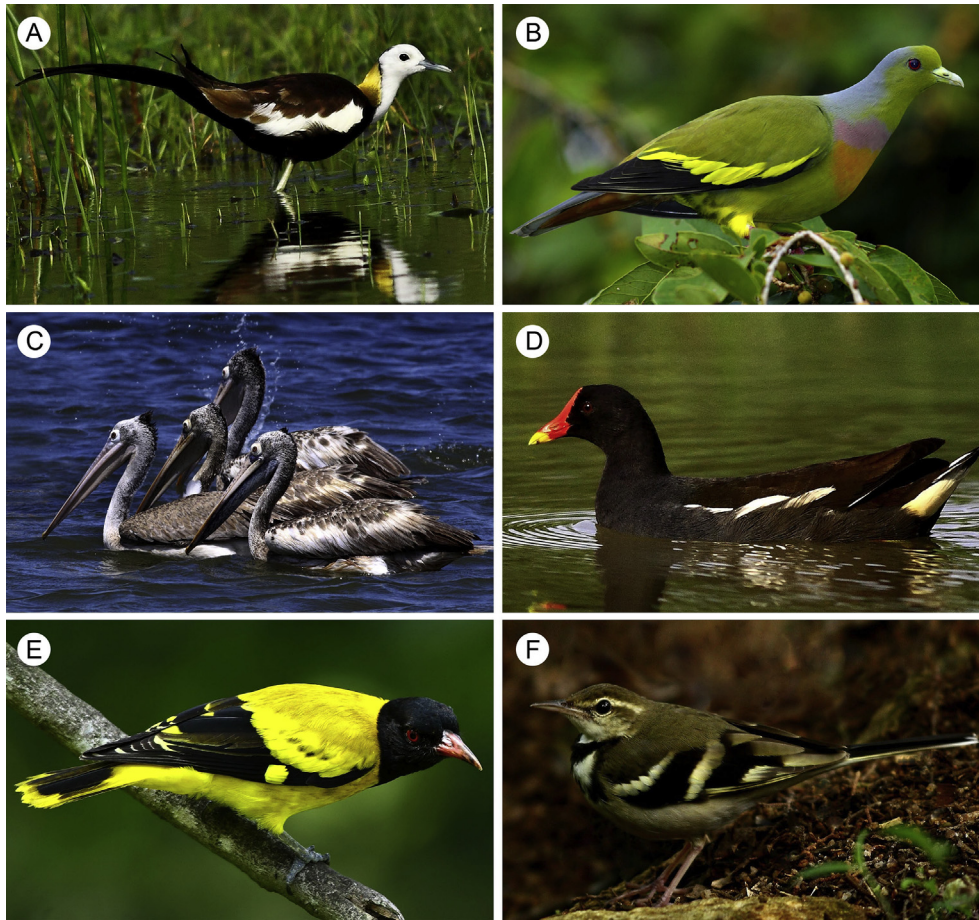
No. sp. = number of species; S. no. = serial number.

species richness is higher than those reported in many other dry zone forests (e.g., Ritigala Strict Nature Reserve: 97 species, including 5 endemics; Minneriya National Park: 135 including 3 endemics; Weerakoon and Goonatilake 2007). Biodiversity baseline surveys carried out in a regional national park (Wasgomuwa National Park) also resulted in comparable numbers (168 species in total including 8 endemics; DWC 2007, 2008). When compared to other similar regions of the dry zone, Maduruoya National Park and peripheral areas demonstrate similar or higher avifaunal richness in terms of residential and migrant species. It is followed by Galoya National Park (129 species, 5 migrants; Hettige et al 2000), Yala Protected Area Complex (168 species, 35 migrants; de Silva and de Silva 2004), Wilpattu National Park (137 species, 25 migrants; Weerakoon and Goonatilake 2007), and Panama area (143 species, 25 migrants; Somaweera et al 2004).

The high richness of birds in Maduruoya National Park and the surrounding areas can be attributed to the high habitat heterogeneity of both inland aquatic and terrestrial habitats of our study



**Figure 3.** A, Avifaunal richness around Maduruoya National park and the surrounding areas represented based on the migratory and residential status; B, Avifaunal diversity of the Maduruoya National Park and the surrounding areas represented based on habitat types. (AQU = inland aquatic; BRE = breeding residents; BUL = built-up; CRO = croplands; END = endemics; FOR = forested; GRA = grasslands; MBR = mixed breeding residents and migrants; MVA = migrants and vagrants; POA = poaching; SCR = scrublands; THR = threatened).



**Figure 4.** A, Pheasant-tailed Jacana (*Hydrophasianus chirurgus*), a native species, prefers inland aquatic habitat; B, Orange-breasted Green Pigeon (*Treron bicinctus*), a native species, prefers forested habitat; C, Spot-billed Pelican (*Pelecanus philippensis*), a native species, prefers inland aquatic habitat; D, Common Moorhen (*Gallinula chloropus*), a native species, prefers inland aquatic habitat; E, Black-hooded Oriole (*Oriolus xanthonus*), a native species, prefers forested habitat; F, Forest Wagtail (*Dendronanthus indicus*), a purely migrant species, prefers forested habitat (photos: Vimukthi Weeratunga).

region (Fernando 1996). The overall landscape of our study region comprises both “natural” and man-made habitats. Rivers and streams, semipermanent freshwater marshes, and seasonal waterholes are some of the “natural” aquatic habitats; perennial large tanks and reservoirs, seasonal small tanks, and rice fields serve as the man-made aquatic habitats. Natural terrestrial habitats comprise dry mixed evergreen forests, scrub forests, grasslands, riparian forests, and rock-outcrop (Perera 1975; Gunatilleke and Gunatilleke 1990), whereas man-made terrestrial habitats comprise farmlands, forest gardens, and home gardens (Nuberg et al 1994). Although the dominant vegetation type of the Maduruoya National Park and marginal areas is dry mixed evergreen forest, the core forests and ridge-top forests exhibit characteristics of the moist semievergreen forest of intermediate zone. Such mosaic habitat structure across the landscape may contribute to a highly diverse bird community in and around the Maduruoya National Park. Many previous studies in similar tropical dry habitats have suggested that landscape heterogeneity may lead to increased wildlife diversity (Turner and Corlett 1996; Da Silva and Bates 2002; Surasinghe and De Alwis 2010).

We encountered a high abundance of water birds (a total of 91 aquatic inhabitants, 12 exclusively water dwellers) in our study areas, especially during the migration period, indicating that habitats in and around Maduruoya National Park are high-density waterfowl area (see also Warakagoda and Sirivardana 2006). Moreover, our survey emphasized the importance of the

Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas for the conservation of forest birds given the high relative abundance (a total of 156 forest inhabitants, 24 exclusively forest species) of forest species we encountered. For instance, *Ciconia nigra* (Black Stork), one of the rarest birds found in Sri Lanka, was recorded twice in this area during our survey (December 2008 and March 2010). This bird was first recorded from Maduruoya area in 2004, which also was the fourth sighting in Sri Lanka (Gabadage 2007). Previously, the same species was recorded in Yala East National Park (Southeastern coastal area of Sri Lanka), near the estuary of Kalaoya and Kokmaduwa village near the Rajangane reservoir (later 2 from the Northwestern Sri Lanka) (Goonatilake 2006; Senaratna 2000). Our observations suggest that *Ciconia nigra* may associate with Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas more relatively frequently than previously considered.

Our survey indicated that the Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas hold ~43% of Sri Lanka’s overall avifaunal diversity (67% of the breeding residents and ~12% of purely migrants in Sri Lanka). Given the presence of multiple terrestrial and aquatic habitat types that provide refuge to both threatened and endemic birds, Maduruoya National Park and the surrounding areas are crucial for the conservation of birds. Among the endemic birds we found during our survey, *Glaucidium castanotum* (Chestnut-backed Owlet), *Phaenicophaeus pyrrhocephalus* (Red-faced Malkoha), and *Geokichla spiloptera* (Spot-winged Thrush) are remarkable. Red-faced Malkoha is a nationally and globally vulnerable species

(MOE 2012; IUCN 2014) and mainly found in a few remaining tropical lowland rainforest fragments and adjoining hills; few fragmented colonies exist in the dry zone forests (Henry 1998). Also, the Chestnut-backed Owlet is a nationally vulnerable species (MOE 2012) and mainly found in a few tropical lowland rainforest fragments and adjoining hills, with no previous records from the dry zone forests (Kotagama and Ratnavira 2010; Rasmussen and Anderton 2012; Warakagoda et al 2012).

Areas in and around Maduruoya National Park are considered an Important Bird Area (IBA) because they harbor ~21% of island's threatened species and three globally threatened (VU) species [*Ciconia episcopus* (Woolly-necked Stork), *Leptoptilos javanicus* (Lesser Adjutant), and *Phaenicophaeus pyrrhocephalus* (Red-faced Malkoha)]; Birdlife International 2014a]. Our study revealed that Maduruoya area is home to “globally common locally rare” species (least concerned in the Global IUCN Red List, but CR according to the National Conservation assessments) such as *Merops philippinus* (Blue-tailed Bee-eater). Although this species has a wide distribution at the global scale with viable populations, the resident populations of Sri Lanka are limited in distribution (area of occupancy, >100 km<sup>2</sup>) and suffer from habitat fragmentation as well as decline in their geographical distribution (MOE 2012). Likewise, *Columba livia* (Rock Pigeon) is considered CR in Sri Lanka, because the wild populations of this species are confined to few isolated locations in northeast to south, mainly in the offshore rocky islets of Sri Lanka (Henry 1998; Warakagoda et al 2012). This bird is found rarely on large dams and other anthropogenically altered habitats (Warakagoda et al 2012). Even though this bird is recorded from Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas, there were no considerable wild populations, but the domestic variety has a much larger population in the surrounding villages. The three nationally endangered rare species found here are the *Excalfactoria chinensis* (Blue-breasted Quail), *Eurystomus orientalis* (Dollarbird), and *Hierococcyx varius* (Common Hawk-cuckoo) are also noteworthy.

Nearly half (~47%) of Sri Lankan avifaunal diversity is composed of migratory birds. The geographic position and presence of multiple suitable habitats are the main reasons for the high number of migrants (Kotagama et al 2006). According to Kotagama and Ratnavira (2010), the eastern and the western routes are the major pathways for migrants entering the country. In addition, there is another route that brings birds from the Far East. Birds come via the eastern route, the Far East travel along the eastern coastline, and fly inland following the major river systems. Our study area is in close proximity to both eastern and the far eastern migratory routes. Nearly 12% of migrant species are found in and around the Maduruoya National Park, which accounts for a substantially high proportion. Maduruoya National Park and surrounding habitats in the vicinity of and within the Mahaweli river system provide the necessary refuge and stopover sites for birds traveling along the Mahaweli River, which then contribute to the high number of migrants species.

#### Prevalent threats

During our survey, we observed multiple environmentally adverse anthropogenic activities taking place in the Maduruoya National Park and the surrounding habitats. These stress factors have resulted in substantial degrees of habitat degradation and biodiversity loss. The most detrimental forms of habitat loss and overexploitation were illicit logging and extraction of nontimber products [firewood, medicinal plants, bird nests—especially of *Aerodramus unicolor* (Indian Swiftlet)]; poaching for bush meat; and encroachment of the national park boundary and adjoining public lands by clear-cutting and stashing-and-burning for cash crop farming and human settlements (see also Gunatilleke et al

2008). Land fillings, road kills, soil erosion, garbage dumping, rock exploitations, and fish net fences are all identified as additional reasons for habitat loss and fragmentation in the study area. Illegal logging and poaching have been imperiling the wildlife and other natural resources of the dry zone landscapes of Sri Lanka over several decades in the past (De Zoysa and Inoue 2008).

Large mammals, large reptiles (crocodiles and land monitors), and large birds such as endemic *Gallus lafayetii* (Ceylon Junglefowl), *Anastomus oscitans* (Asian Openbill), *Pelecanus philippensis* (Spot-billed Pelican), *Turnix suscitator* (Barred Buttonquail), *Ciconia episcopus* (Woolly-necked Stork), *Ducula aenea* (Green Imperial Pigeon), *Threskiornis melanocephalus* (Black-headed Ibis), and *Ichthyophaga ichthyaetus* (Grey-headed Fish-eagle), are killed for meat (sometimes people collect eggs); the latter is nationally and globally near threatened (MOE 2012). Officials of the Department of Wildlife Conservation in the area are doing creditable work to prevent these illegal activities. Yet, the lack of understanding of the principles of conservation science and knowledge on local and global biodiversity among the officials of the Department of Wildlife Conservation is a serious issue in Sri Lanka in relation to biodiversity conservation. Conservation is an important global issue, and it is incumbent upon educators, conservation managers, legal advisors, funding agencies, officials, and policy makers to work along with research scientists to ensure that accurate information is obtained because it is a vital tool to safeguard Sri Lanka's remaining endangered biodiversity treasures (Bahir and Gabadage 2009a, 2009b). Moreover, because of the lack of adequate and continuous patrolling, loopholes in the law enforcement system, and other logistical constraints, prevention of illicit human activities has become impractical. Improvements to address these problems should be geared to promote conservation of biological diversity. The threats we observed justify the need for innovative conservation actions superseding conventional fortress conservation.

#### Conservation actions

Given the high diversity and endemism among the avifaunal communities of the Maduruoya National Park and the surrounding areas, implementation of conservation actions is a pressing need. Effective conservation planning needs integration of four salient actions: (1) landscape-scale management of habitats, species, and ecosystem processes; (2) strengthening existing national policies on environmental management and biodiversity conservation; (3) continuous monitoring of habitat and population status, and promotion of ecology and conservation-driven research; and (4) raising public awareness of wildlife conservation and natural resource management (Groves et al 2002; Sanderson et al 2002; Pressey et al 2007; Sodhi et al 2010). The fact that Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas are an IBA signifies the global-scale importance of our study region and the urgent need for conservation.

The local inhabitants of Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas are constantly interacting with the wildlife and are highly dependent on many forest products and other natural resources (see Nuberg et al 1994). Therefore, conservation measures must be based on participatory management programs such as community forest management, local forest stewardship development, easement-like conservation-driven incentives, and shared governance through stakeholder participation (Klooster and Masera 2000; De Zoysa and Inoue 2008). With the high diversity of birds, along with high abundance of charismatic mega fauna such as elephants, community-based ecotourism may have some promising results not only as a source of local income but also as a

means of minimizing overutilization of natural resources (Kiss 2004). These improvements should target conservation of biological diversity. Furthermore, introduction of economically and environmentally sustainable agroforestry practices, forest gardening, subsistence farming, and delineation of biodiversity-integrated, resilient agricultural landscapes embedded with the Maduruoya National Park, other regional state protected areas, and relatively unaltered private lands may help mitigate some of the anthropogenic disturbances that are detrimental to avifauna and their habitats in our study area (Nuberg et al 1994; Bambaradeniya et al 2004; Harvey et al 2008).

Previous studies have emphasized the importance of the Maduruoya National Park and surrounding areas for multiple environmental and socioeconomic purposes: conservation of imperiled wildlife such as the Asian elephants, sloth bear, sambur, and Sri Lankan leopard (Ishwaran 1993; Ratnayeke et al 2007); capture fishery of inland water bodies (Amarasinghe and De Silva 1999); and watershed, water resource, and irrigation management (Hewavisenthi 1992). In addition, landscape-scale connectivity conservation through wildlife corridors, delineation of buffer zones, and preservation of riparian forests are vital actions to sustain the metapopulation and metacommunity dynamics and foraging movements of birds (Bonnot et al 2013; Trombulak and Baldwin 2010). In this study, we suggest that peripheral woodlands around the existing park boundary be demarcated as a buffer zone with minimal human activities.

To promote the conservation of water birds in the area, we recommend that the local water bodies found outside the park (wetlands and streams) and the associated uplands (such as riparian forests and wetland vegetation) be integrated into the buffer zone or declared as critical wildlife habitats to the Maduruoya National Park (see also Fischer and Fischenich 2000; Karunarathna et al 2008; Zhang et al 2014). Considering the occupancy of globally threatened species, range-restricted species, forest specialists, and migrants, the IBA of Maduruoya National Park should be expanded outwardly beyond the protected area boundary. Implementation of a conservation and management plan for the Wasgomuwa–Maduruoya–Galoya Protected Area Complex is crucial to ensure the long-term protection of these avifauna-rich landscapes. Conservation and management of this wilderness, conservation-forced research, and ecological monitoring should take place with the leadership of governmental conservation authorities and with the active participation of regional community-based organizations, private landowners, conservation research scientists, universities, and other affiliated accredited research institutes.

Much renovation needs to be undertaken with regard to the environmental and wildlife policies of Sri Lanka. Although Sri Lanka is a signatory to many international treaties (Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, especially as Waterfowl Habitat, Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and Biosphere Reserve Program and World Heritage Sites, Convention of Biological Diversity) that are strongly related to bird conservation, these international agreements have not had a substantial influence on national wildlife policies or environmental law framework. The three main bodies of law in Sri Lanka—the National Environmental Act, the Forest Ordinance, and the Fauna and Flora Protection Ordinance—do not provide a strong legal framework for the conservation of native avifauna and their unique habitats (see Zubair 2001). Furthermore, the support and encouragement given by the existing national environmental laws to research and education are grossly unsatisfactory (Pethiyagoda 2004). It is imperative that these laws be strengthened to safeguard the nation's biodiversity while encouraging scientific and academic explorations on Sri Lanka's wildlife. Because the security situation is favorable in the area, more in-depth and long-term research should be carried out to enhance our knowledge and to protect the rich biodiversity of the Maduruoya National Park and marginal areas. We hope that this study will influence and support future research and conservation measures in this area and also help other environmental educational programs in the future.

#### Acknowledgments

We thank three anonymous reviewers for providing valuable comments and helping to improve the manuscript, and express their sincere gratitude to Wasantha Kumara and his family, Lakshman Dayarathne, Mayura Dayarathne and their family, Late Wewatte Jaye, Grama Niladari (GN), and the villagers of Damminna for providing assistance in the field and all the other help and support. We also thank Nadeesh Gamage, Indika Peabotuwage, Panduka Silva, Tiran Abeyawardene, Gayan Edirisinghe, Chamila Soysa, Anushka Kumarasinghe, Asanka Udayakumara, Mahesh De Silva, Dilhari Weragodatenne, Niranjana Karunarathna, and Nirmala Perera (YZA) for their support during the field work and for helping us in numerous ways. Finally, we thank the Park Warden of the Maduruoya National Park, all the other officials of the Department of Wildlife at the Maduruoya National Park, Forest Department, and officials of Sri Lanka Army and Sri Lanka Police stationed at Maduruoya area for various help.

#### Appendix 1. Checklist of bird species recorded during a survey that lasted > 7 years around the Maduruoya National Park.\*

Order, family & species name	Common name	Forests	Croplands	Built-up	Scrublands	Grasslands	Inland aquatic	Migratory and breeding status
<b>Accipitriformes</b>								
<b>Accipitridae</b>								
<i>Accipiter badius</i>	Shikra	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<i>Circus aeruginosus</i>	Western Marsh Harrier		×				×	M
<i>Elanus caeruleus</i>	Black-winged Kite		×		×	×		Br
<i>Haliaeetus leucogaster</i>	White-bellied Sea-eagle						×	Br
<i>Haliastur indus</i>	Brahminy Kite	×		×			×	Br
<i>Hieraetus pennatus</i>	Booted Eagle	×			×			M
<i>Icthyophaga ichthyaetus</i> <sup>■,NT</sup>	Grey-headed Fish-eagle		×				×	Br

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Order, family & species name	Common name	Forests	Croplands	Built-up	Scrublands	Grasslands	Inland aquatic	Migratory and breeding status
<i>Ictinaetus malaiensis</i>	Black Eagle	×			×			Br
<i>Nisaetus cirrhatus</i>	Crested Hawk-eagle	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Pernis ptilorhynchus</i>	Oriental Honey-buzzard	×	×			×		Br
<i>Spilornis cheela</i>	Crested Serpent-eagle	×	×			×		Br
<i>Lophotriorchis kienerii</i>	Rufous-bellied Eagle	×						Br
<b>Pandionidae</b>								
<i>Pandion haliaetus</i>	Western Osprey	×					×	M
<b>Anseriformes</b>								
<b>Anatidae</b>								
<i>Dendrocygna javanica</i>	Lesser Whistling-duck	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Nettapus coromandelianus</i>	Cotton Teal						×	Br
<i>Querquedula querquedula</i>	Garganey					×	×	M
<b>Apodiformes</b>								
<b>Apodidae</b>								
<i>Aerodramus unicolor</i>	Indian Swiftlet	×			×			Br
<i>Apus affinis</i>	Little Swift	×			×	×		Br
<i>Cypsiurus balasiensis</i>	Asian Palm-swift	×		×	×			Br
<b>Hemiprocnidae</b>								
<i>Hemiprocne coronata</i>	Crested Treeswift	×						Br
<b>Bucerotiformes</b>								
<b>Bucerotidae</b>								
<i>Anthracoceros coronatus</i> <sup>■</sup>	Malabar Pied Hornbill	×						Br
<i>Ocyrceros gingalensis</i> <sup>E</sup>	Sri Lanka Grey Hornbill	×						Br
<b>Charadriiformes</b>								
<b>Burhinidae</b>								
<i>Burhinus indicus</i>	Indian Stone-curlew		×			×		Br
<i>Esacus recurvirostris</i> <sup>■</sup>	Great Thick-knee					×	×	Br
<b>Charadriidae</b>								
<i>Charadrius alexandrinus</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Kentish Plover						×	M+Br
<i>Charadrius dubius</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Little Ringed Plover	×	×	×		×	×	M+Br
<i>Pluvialis fulva</i>	Pacific Golden Plover	×	×		×		×	M
<i>Vanellus indicus</i>	Red-wattled Lapwing					×	×	Br
<i>Vanellus malabaricus</i>	Yellow-wattled Lapwing					×	×	Br
<b>Jacaniidae</b>								
<i>Hydrophasianus chirurgus</i>	Pheasant-tailed Jacana						×	Br
<b>Laridae</b>								
<i>Chlidonias hybrida</i>	Whiskered Tern		×				×	M
<b>Recurvirostridae</b>								
<i>Himantopus himantopus</i>	Black-winged Stilt		×			×	×	M+ Br
<b>Rostratulidae</b>								
<i>Rostratula benghalensis</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Greater Painted Snipe		×			×	×	Br
<b>Scolopacidae</b>								
<i>Actitis hypoleucos</i>	Common Sandpiper	×	×				×	M
<i>Gallinago stenura</i>	Pintail Snipe	×	×		×	×	×	M
<b>Turnicidae</b>								
<i>Turnix suscitator</i>	Barred Buttonquail	×			×	×		Br
<b>Ciconiiformes</b>								
<b>Ciconiidae</b>								
<i>Anastomus oscitans</i>	Asian Openbill		×				×	Br
<i>Ciconia episcopus</i> <sup>▲,NT</sup>	Woolly-necked Stork	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Ciconia nigra</i>	Black Stork						×	VG
<i>Leptoptilos javanicus</i> <sup>▲,VU</sup>	Lesser Adjutant	×	×				×	Br
<i>Mycteria leucocephala</i> <sup>■</sup>	Painted Stork	×	×				×	Br
<b>Columbiformes</b>								
<b>Columbidae</b>								
<i>Chalcophaps indica</i>	Emerald Dove	×	×					Br
<i>Columba livia</i>	Rock Pigeon (hybreated)	×	×					Br
<i>Ducula aenea</i>	Green Imperial Pigeon	×			×			Br
<i>Spilopelia chinensis</i>	Spotted Dove	×	×				×	Br
<i>Treron bicinctus</i>	Orange-breasted Green Pigeon	×	×				×	Br
<i>Treron pompadora</i>	Sri Lanka Green-pigeon	×						Br
<b>Coraciiformes</b>								
<b>Alcedinidae</b>								
<i>Alcedo atthis</i>	Common Kingfisher	×	×	×		×	×	Br
<i>Ceryle rudis</i>	Lesser Pied Kingfisher	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Ceyx erithaca</i>	Black-backed Dwarf Kingfisher	×	×				×	Br
<i>Halcyon smyrnensis</i>	White-throated Kingfisher	×	×	×			×	Br
<i>Pelargopsis capensis</i>	Stork-billed Kingfisher	×	×				×	Br
<b>Coraciidae</b>								
<i>Coracias benghalensis</i>	Indian Roller	×	×	×				Br
<i>Eurystomus orientalis</i> <sup>EN</sup>	Dollarbird	×	×	×	×			Br
<b>Meropidae</b>								
<i>Merops leschenaulti</i>	Chestnut-headed Bee-eater	×	×		×		×	Br
<i>Merops orientalis</i>	Little Green Bee-eater	×	×		×		×	Br



(continued)

Order, family & species name	Common name	Forests	Croplands	Built-up	Scrublands	Grasslands	Inland aquatic	Migratory and breeding status
<i>Merops philippinus</i> <sup>CR</sup>	Blue-tailed Bee-eater	×	×	×			×	M+Br
<b>Cuculiformes</b>								
<b>Cuculidae</b>								
<i>Cacomantis passerinus</i>	Grey-bellied Cuckoo	×	×		×	×		M
<i>Cacomantis sonneratii</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Banded Bay Cuckoo	×	×		×			Br
<i>Centropus parroti</i>	Southern Coucal	×	×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Clamator coromandus</i>	Chestnut-winged Cuckoo	×	×		×			M
<i>Clamator jacobinus</i>	Jacobin Cuckoo					×		Br
<i>Cuculus micropterus</i>	Indian Cuckoo	×						M+Br
<i>Eudynamis scolopacea</i>	Asian Koel	×	×					Br
<i>Hierococcyx varius</i> <sup>EN</sup>	Common Hawk-cuckoo	×	×	×	×			M+Br
<i>Phaenicophaeus pyrrhocephalus</i> <sup>▲,VU,E</sup>	Red-faced Malkoha	×						Br
<i>Phaenicophaeus viridirostris</i>	Blue-faced Malkoha	×			×			Br
<i>Surniculus dicruroides</i>	Drongo Cuckoo	×	×		×			Br
<i>Taccocua leschenaultii</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Sirkeer Malkoha	×			×			Br
<b>Galliformes</b>								
<b>Phasianidae</b>								
<i>Excalfactoria chinensis</i> <sup>EN</sup>	Blue-breasted Quail		×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Galloperdix bicalcarata</i> <sup>NT,E</sup>	Sri Lanka Spurfowl	×						Br
<i>Gallus lafayettii</i> <sup>E</sup>	Sri Lanka Junglefowl	×			×			Br
<i>Pavo cristatus</i>	Indian Peafowl	×	×		×			Br
<b>Gruiformes</b>								
<b>Rallidae</b>								
<i>Amaurornis phoenicurus</i>	White-breasted Waterhen	×	×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Gallixrex cinerea</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Watercock		×				×	Br
<i>Gallinula chloropus</i>	Common Moorhen						×	Br
<i>Gallirallus striatus</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Slaty-breasted Rail	×	×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Porphyrio poliocephalus</i>	Purple Swampphen						×	Br
<b>Passeriformes</b>								
<b>Acrocephalidae</b>								
<i>Acrocephalus brunnescens</i>	Indian Reed-warbler	×			×	×	×	Br
<i>Acrocephalus dumetorum</i>	Blyth's Reed-warbler	×			×	×	×	M
<b>Aegithinidae</b>								
<i>Aegithina tiphia</i>	Common Iora	×	×	×				Br
<b>Artamidae</b>								
<i>Artamus fuscus</i>	Ashy Woodswallow	×	×			×		Br
<b>Alaudidae</b>								
<i>Alauda gulgula</i>	Oriental Skylark		×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Eremopterix griseus</i>	Ashy-crowned Finch-lark				×	×		Br
<i>Mirafra affinis</i>	Jerdon's Bushlark	×	×		×			Br
<b>Campephagidae</b>								
<i>Coracina macei</i>	Large Cuckooshrike	×	×		×	×		Br
<i>Hemipus picatus</i>	Pied Flycatcher-shrike	×	×		×			Br
<i>Pericrocotus cinnamomeus</i>	Small Minivet	×	×		×			Br
<i>Pericrocotus flammeus</i>	Orange Minivet	×	×		×			Br
<i>Tephrodornis affinis</i>	Sri Lanka Woodshrike	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<b>Chloropseidae</b>								
<i>Chloropsis jerdoni</i>	Jerdon's Leafbird	×	×				×	Br
<i>Chloropsis aurifrons</i>	Golden fronted Leafbird	×	×					Br
<b>Cisticolidae</b>								
<i>Cisticola juncidis</i>	Zitting Cisticola		×	×	×	×	×	Br
<i>Orthotomus sutorius</i>	Common Tailorbird	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Prinia hodgsonii</i>	Grey-breasted Prinia	×	×		×			Br
<i>Prinia inornata</i>	Plain Prinia	×	×		×	×	×	Br
<i>Prinia socialis</i>	Ashy Prinia	×			×	×	×	Br
<i>Prinia sylvatica</i>	Jungle Prinia	×			×	×		Br
<b>Corvidae</b>								
<i>Corvus culminatus</i>	Indian Jungle Crow		×	×		×		Br
<i>Corvus splendens</i>	House Crow		×	×				Br
<b>Dicaeidae</b>								
<i>Dicaeum erythrorhynchos</i>	Pale-billed Flowerpecker	×	×	×				Br
<b>Dicruridae</b>								
<i>Dicrurus paradiseus</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Greater Racket-tailed Drongo	×	×					Br
<i>Edolius caerulescens</i>	White-bellied Drongo	×	×			×		Br
<i>Dicrurus leucophaeus</i>	Ashy Drongo	×			×	×		M
<i>Dicrurus macrocercus</i>	Black Drongo		×	×	×	×		Br
<b>Estrildidae</b>								
<i>Lonchura malacca</i>	Tricoloured Munia	×	×		×		×	Br
<i>Lonchura punctulata</i>	Scaly-breasted Munia	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<i>Lonchura striata</i>	White-rumped Munia	×	×		×	×		Br
<b>Hirundinidae</b>								
<i>Hirundo daurica</i>	Red-rumped Swallow	×	×	×	×		×	M
<i>Cecropis hyperythra</i>	Sri Lanka Swallow	×	×		×			Br

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Order, family & species name	Common name	Forests	Croplands	Built-up	Scrublands	Grasslands	Inland aquatic	Migratory and breeding status
<i>Hirundo rustica</i>	Barn Swallow		×	×	×	×	×	M
<b>Laniidae</b>								
<i>Lanius cristatus</i>	Brown Shrike	×	×	×	×	×		M
<b>Monarchidae</b>								
<i>Hypothymis azurea</i>	Black-naped Blue Monarch	×	×				×	Br
<i>Terpsiphone paradisi</i>	Asian Paradise Flycatcher	×	×	×	×			M+Br
<b>Motacillidae</b>								
<i>Anthus richardi</i>	Richard's Pipit		×			×		M
<i>Anthus rufulus</i>	Paddyfield Pipit		×			×	×	Br
<i>Dendronanthus indicus</i>	Forest Wagtail	×	×	×				M
<i>Motacilla cinerea</i>	Grey Wagtail		×	×		×	×	M
<b>Muscicapidae</b>								
<i>Saxicoloides fulicatus</i>	Indian Robin		×		×			Br
<i>Copsychus malabaricus</i>	White-rumped Shama	×	×		×			Br
<i>Copsychus saularis</i>	Oriental Magpie-robin	×	×	×	×		×	Br
<i>Cyornis tickelliae</i>	Tickell's Blue Flycatcher	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Muscicapa latirostris</i>	Asian Brown Flycatcher	×	×	×				M
<i>Muscicapa muttui</i>	Brown-breasted Flycatcher	×						M
<b>Nectariniidae</b>								
<i>Nectarinia asiatica</i>	Purple Sunbird	×	×		×		×	Br
<i>Nectarinia lotenia</i>	Loten's Sunbird	×	×		×			Br
<i>Leptocoma zeylonica</i>	Purple-rumped Sunbird	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<b>Oriolidae</b>								
<i>Oriolus xanthornus</i>	Black-hooded Oriole	×						Br
<b>Paridae</b>								
<i>Parus major</i>	Great Tit	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<b>Passeridae</b>								
<i>Passer domesticus</i>	House Sparrow	×	×	×	×	×	×	Br
<b>Pycnonotidae</b>								
<i>Iole indica</i>	Yellow Browed Bulbul	×	×				×	Br
<i>Pycnonotus cafer</i>	Red-vented Bulbul	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Pycnonotus luteolus</i>	White-browed Bulbul	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Pycnonotus melanicterus</i>	Black-capped Bulbul	×	×	×			×	Br
<b>Phylloscopidae</b>								
<i>Phylloscopus magnirostris</i>	Large-billed Leaf-warbler	×						M
<i>Phylloscopus nitidus</i>	Bright-green Warbler	×	×		×		×	M
<b>Pittidae</b>								
<i>Pitta brachyura</i>	Indian Pitta	×	×	×	×		×	M
<b>Ploceidae</b>								
<i>Ploceus manyar</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Streaked Weaver					×	×	Br
<i>Ploceus philippinus</i>	Baya Weaver	×	×		×	×		Br
<b>Rhipiduridae</b>								
<i>Rhipidura aureola</i>	White-browed Fantail	×	×	×	×	×		Br
<b>Sturnidae</b>								
<i>Acridotheres tristis</i>	Common Myna	×	×	×		×		Br
<i>Gracula indica</i>	Lesser Hill-myna	×	×					Br
<i>Pastor roseus</i>	Rosy Starling		×			×		M
<b>Timaliidae</b>								
<i>Pellorneum fuscicapillus</i> <sup>E</sup>	Brown-capped Babbler	×			×			Br
<i>Pomatorhinus melanurus</i> <sup>E</sup>	Sri Lanka Scimitar-babbler	×						Br
<i>Rhopocichla atriceps</i>	Dark-fronted Babbler	×	×		×		×	Br
<i>Turdoides affinis</i>	Yellow-billed Babbler		×		×	×		Br
<b>Turdidae</b>								
<i>Geokichla spiloptera</i> <sup>■,V,U,E</sup>	Spot-winged Thrush	×	×		×			Br
<b>Zosteropidae</b>								
<i>Zosterops palpebrosus</i>	Oriental White-eye	×			×			Br
<b>Pelecaniformes</b>								
<b>Ardeidae</b>								
<i>Ardea cinerea</i>	Grey Heron	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Ardea purpurea</i>	Purple Heron	×			×		×	Br
<i>Ardeola grayii</i>	Indian Pond-heron	×					×	Br
<i>Bubulcus coromandus</i>	Eastern Cattle Egret	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Dupetor flavicollis</i>	Black Bittern	×				×	×	M+Br
<i>Egretta alba</i>	Great Egret					×	×	Br
<i>Egretta garzetta</i>	Little Egret	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Egretta intermedia</i>	Intermediate Egret	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Ixobrychus cinnamomeus</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Chestnut Bittern	×	×			×	×	Br
<i>Ixobrychus sinensis</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Yellow Bittern	×				×	×	M+Br
<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Black-crowned Night-heron	×					×	Br
<b>Pelecanidae</b>								
<i>Pelecanus philippensis</i> <sup>■</sup>	Spot-billed Pelican	×					×	Br
<b>Threskiornithidae</b>								
<i>Platalea leucorodia</i>	Eurasian Spoonbill	×	×				×	Br
<i>Plegadis falcinellus</i>	Glossy Ibis						×	M

(continued)

Order, family & species name	Common name	Forests	Croplands	Built-up	Scrublands	Grasslands	Inland aquatic	Migratory and breeding status
<i>Threskiornis melanocephalus</i>	Black-headed Ibis	×				×	×	Br
<b>Piciformes</b>								
<b>Megalaimidae</b>								
<i>Megalaima zeylanica</i>	Brown-headed Barbet	×	×	×	×			Br
× <i>antholaema haemacephalus</i>	Coppersmith Barbet	×	×	×	×			Br
× <i>antholaema rubricapillus</i> <sup>E</sup>	Sri Lanka Small Barbet	×	×				×	Br
<b>Picidae</b>								
<i>Chrysocolaptes festivus</i> <sup>VU</sup>	White-naped Flameback	×	×		×			Br
<i>Chrysocolaptes stricklandi</i> <sup>VU</sup>	Crimson-backed Flameback	×	×		×			Br
<i>Dendrocopos nanus</i>	Indian Pygmy Woodpecker	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Dinopium benghalense</i>	Black-rumped Flameback	×	×					Br
<i>Micropternus brachyurus</i>	Rufous Woodpecker	×	×		×		×	Br
<i>Picus chlorolophus</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Lesser Yellownape	×	×		×			Br
<b>Podicipediformes</b>								
<b>Podicipedidae</b>								
<i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i>	Little Grebe						×	Br
<b>Psittaciformes</b>								
<b>Psittacidae</b>								
<i>Loriculus beryllinus</i> <sup>E</sup>	Sri Lanka Hanging-parrot	×	×		×			Br
<i>Psittacula cyanocephala</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Plum-headed Parakeet	×	×					Br
<i>Psittacula eupatria</i>	Alexandrine Parakeet	×	×		×			Br
<i>Psittacula krameri</i>	Rose-ringed Parakeet	×	×		×	×	×	Br
<b>Strigiformes</b>								
<b>Caprimulgidae</b>								
<i>Caprimulgus asiaticus</i>	Indian Little Nightjar	×	×		×			Br
<i>Caprimulgus atripennis</i>	Jerdon's Nightjar	×	×					Br
<b>Podargidae</b>								
<i>Batrachostomus moniliger</i>	Sri Lanka Frogmouth	×						Br
<b>Strigidae</b>								
<i>Glaucidium castanotum</i> <sup>M, VU, E</sup>	Chestnut-backed Owlet	×	×					Br
<i>Glaucidium radiatum</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Jungle Owlet	×			×		×	Br
<i>Ketupa nipalensis</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Forest Eagle-owl	×						Br
<i>Ketupa zeylonensis</i>	Brown Fish-owl	×	×				×	Br
<i>Ninox scutulata</i>	Brown Hawk-owl	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Otus bakkamoena</i>	Indian Scops-owl	×	×	×				Br
<i>Otus sunia</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Oriental Scops-owl	×	×	×	×			Br
<i>Strix leptogrammica</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Brown Wood-owl	×						Br
<b>Tytonidae</b>								
<i>Tyto alba</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Common Barn-owl	×	×	×	×	×	×	Br
<b>Suliformes</b>								
<b>Anhingidae</b>								
<i>Anhinga melanogaster</i> <sup>M</sup>	Oriental Darter	×					×	Br
<b>Phalacrocoracidae</b>								
<i>Microcarbo niger</i>	Little Cormorant	×	×				×	Br
<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Great Cormorant	×					×	Br
<i>Phalacrocorax fuscicollis</i>	Indian Shag	×					×	Br
<b>Trogoniformes</b>								
<b>Trogonidae</b>								
<i>Harpactes fasciatus</i> <sup>NT</sup>	Malabar Trogon	×	×					Br
<b>Upupiformes</b>								
<b>Upupidae</b>								
<i>Upupa epops</i>	Common Hoopoe	×	×	×		×		Br

■ = globally near threatened.

▲ = globally vulnerable; Br = breeding resident; CR = national critically; E = endemic; EN = nationally endangered; VU = nationally vulnerable; M = migratory; M + Br = mixed population of migratory and breeding residents; NT = nationally near threatened; VG = vagrant.

\* Reference sources: migratory/breeding status (Rasmussen and Anderton 2012; Warakagoda et al 2012), habitat type (Birdlife International 2014b), conservation status (IUCN 2014; MOE 2012).

## References

- Amarasinghe US, De Silva SS. 1999. The Sri Lankan reservoir fishery: a case for introduction of a co-management strategy. *Fish Manage Ecol* 6:387–400.
- Bahir MM, Gabadage DE. 2009a. Taxonomic and scientific inaccuracies in a consultancy report on biodiversity: a cautionary note. *J Threatened Taxa* 1:317–322.
- Bahir MM, Gabadage DE. 2009b. Taxonomic errors and inaccuracies in Sri Lanka's Red List: a cautionary note. *J Threatened Taxa* 1:525–529.
- Bambaradeniya CNB, Perera MSJ, Perera WPN, et al. 2003. Composition of faunal species in the Sinharaja World Heritage site in Sri Lanka. *Sri Lanka Forester* 26: 21–40.
- Bambaradeniya C, Edirisinghe J, De Silva D, et al. 2004. Biodiversity associated with an irrigated rice agro-ecosystem in Sri Lanka. *Biodivers Conserv* 13:1715–1753.
- BirdLife International. 2014a. Species factsheet: Phaenicophaeus viridirostris. In: *IUCN Red List for birds*. Available at: <http://www.birdlife.org> [Date accessed: 30 July 2014].
- BirdLife International. 2014b. Important Bird Areas factsheet: Maduruoya. In: *IUCN Red List for birds*. Available at: <http://www.birdlife.org> [Date accessed: 20 June 2014].
- Bonnot TW, Thompson III FR, Millspaugh JJ, et al. 2013. Landscape-based population viability models demonstrate importance of strategic conservation planning for birds. *Biol Conserv* 165:104–114.
- de Silva M, de Silva PK. 2004. *The Yala Wildlife Reserves biodiversity and ecology*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Wildlife Heritage Trust.
- Da Silva JMC, Bates JM. 2002. Biogeographic patterns and conservation in the South American Cerrado: a tropical savanna hotspot The Cerrado, which includes both forest and savanna habitats, is the second largest South American biome, and among the most threatened on the continent. *Bioscience* 52:225–234.
- De Zoysa M, Inoue M. 2008. Forest governance and community based forest management in Sri Lanka: past, present and future perspectives. *Int J Soc Forestry* 1:27–49.

- DWC. 2004. *A guide to national parks of Sri Lanka*. 2nd ed. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Department of Wildlife Conservation.
- DWC. 2007. *Biodiversity baseline survey: Wasgomuwa National Park*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Department of Wildlife Conservation.
- DWC. 2008. *Biodiversity baseline survey: Minneriya National Park*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Department of Wildlife Conservation.
- FAO. 2010. *Global forest resources assessment 2010: country report Sri Lanka*. FAO Forestry Department.
- Fernando HSK. 1996. *A comparative study on the ecology of woody vegetation of forest types in the Maduruoya National Park*. M. Phil thesis. Sri Lanka: Department of Botany, University of Peradeniya.
- FDGSL. 2009. *Sri Lanka forestry outlook study. Asia-Pacific Forestry Sector Outlook Study Working Paper Series No. APFSOS II/WP/2009/29*. Bangkok: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.
- Fischer R, Fischenich C. 2000. *Design recommendations for Riparian corridors and vegetated buffer strips*. USA.
- Gabadage DE. 2007. Sight record of a Black Stork *Ciconia nigra* at Maduruoya. *Siyoth* 2:44.
- Goonatilake WLDPTS de A. 2006. Third sight record of the black stork *Ciconia nigra* from Sri Lanka. *Siyoth* 1:34–35.
- Groves CR, Jensen DB, Valutis LL, et al. 2002. Planning for biodiversity conservation: putting conservation science into practice. *Bioscience* 52:499–512.
- Gunatilleke C, Ashton P. 1987. New light on the plant geography of Ceylon: Part II. The ecological biogeography of the lowland endemic tree flora. *J Biogeogr* 14: 295–327.
- Gunatilleke IAUN, Gunatilleke CVS. 1990. Distribution of floristic richness and its conservation in Sri Lanka. *Conserv Biol* 4:21–31.
- Gunatilleke N, Pethiyagoda R, Gunatilleke S. 2008. Biodiversity of Sri Lanka. *J Natl Sci Found Sri Lanka* 36:23–59.
- Gunawardene NR, Daniels DA, Gunatilleke I, et al. 2007. A brief overview of the Western Ghats–Sri Lanka biodiversity hotspot. *Curr Sci* 93:1567–1572.
- Harrison J, Worfolk T. 2011. *A field guide to the birds of Sri Lanka*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Harvey CA, Komar O, Chazdon R, et al. 2008. Integrating agricultural landscapes with biodiversity conservation in the Mesoamerican hotspot. *Conserv Biol* 22: 8–15.
- Henry GM. 1998. *A guide to the birds of Sri Lanka*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Hettige USB, Wikramasinghe LJM, Priyadarshna TGM, et al. 2000. Fauna of Gal-oya National Park. *Sri Lanka Nat* 3:55–61.
- Hewavisenthi DSA. 1992. Mahaweli water resources project. *Water Int* 17:33–43.
- Ishwaran N. 1993. Ecology of the Asian elephant in lowland dry zone habitats of the Mahaweli River Basin, Sri Lanka. *J Trop Ecol* 9:169–182.
- IUCN. 1990. *IUCN directory of South Asia protected areas*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, London: IUCN.
- IUCN. 2014. Threatened species of Sri Lanka. Version 2013.2. In: *IUCN Red List of Threatened Species*. Available at: <http://www.iucnredlist.org> [Date accessed: 14 May 2014].
- Kaluthota C, Kotagama S. 2009. *Revised avifaunal list of Sri Lanka*. Occasional Paper of Field Ornithology Group of Sri Lanka.
- Karunaratna DMSS, Abeywardena UTI, Asela MDC, et al. 2008. A preliminary survey of the amphibian fauna in Nilgala forest area and its vicinity, Monaragala District, Sri Lanka. *Herpetol Conserv Biol* 3:264–272.
- Kiss A. 2004. Is community-based ecotourism a good use of biodiversity conservation funds? *Trends Ecol Evol* 19:232–234.
- Klooster D, Masera O. 2000. Community forest management in Mexico: carbon mitigation and biodiversity conservation through rural development. *Glob Environ Change-Hum Policy Dimens* 10:259–272.
- Kotagama S, Fernando P. 1994. *Field guide to the birds of Sri Lanka*. Colombo: Sri Lanka Wildlife Heritage Trust.
- Kotagama S, Ratnavira G. 2010. *An illustrated guide to the birds of Sri Lanka*. Colombo: Sri Lanka Field Ornithology Group.
- Kotagama SW, De Silva RI, Wijayasinha AS, et al. 2006. Avifaunal list of Sri Lanka. In: Bambaradeniya CNB, editor. *Fauna of Sri Lanka: status of taxonomy, research, and conservation*. IUCN Lanka and Government of Sri Lanka. pp. 164–203.
- MOE. 2012. *The National Red List 2012 of Sri Lanka: conservation status of the fauna and flora*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Ministry of Environment.
- Nuberg I, Evans D, Senanayake R. 1994. Future of forest gardens in the Uvan uplands of Sri Lanka. *Environ Manage* 18:797–814.
- Premadasa M. 1990. Tropical grasslands of Sri Lanka and India. *J Biogeogr* 17:395–400.
- Perera N. 1975. A physiognomic vegetation map of Sri Lanka (Ceylon). *J Biogeogr* 2: 185–203.
- Pethiyagoda R. 2004. Biodiversity law has had some unintended effects — moves to prevent unfair exploitation of resources could restrict conservation research. *Nature* 429:129.
- Pressey RL, Cabeza M, Watts ME, et al. 2007. Conservation planning in a changing world. *Trends Ecol Evol* 22:583–592.
- Rasmussen PC, Anderton JC. 2005. *Birds of South Asia. The Ripley guide*, vols. 1 and 2. Washington, D.C. and Barcelona: Smithsonian Institution and Lynx Edition.
- Rasmussen PC, Anderton JC. 2012. *Birds of South Asia. The Ripley guide*. 2nd ed., vol. 2. Washington, D.C. and Barcelona: National Museum of Natural History–Smithsonian Institution, Michigan State University and Lynx Edition.
- Ratnayake S, van Manen FT, Pieris R, et al. 2007. Landscape characteristics of Sloth bear range in Sri Lanka. *Ursus* 18:189–202.
- Sanderson EW, Redford KH, Vedder A, et al. 2002. A conceptual model for conservation planning based on landscape species requirements. *Landsc Urban Plann* 58:41–56.
- Senanayake FR, Soule M, Senner JW. 1977. Habitat values and endemism in the vanishing rainforest of Sri Lanka. *Nature* 265:351–354.
- SDSL. 2007. *The national atlas of Sri Lanka*. 2nd ed. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Survey Department.
- Senaratna CV. 2000. The second sight record of black stork (*Ciconia nigra*) from Sri Lanka. *Sri Lanka Nat* 3:1–2.
- Sodhi NS, Posa MRC, Lee TM, et al. 2010. The state and conservation of Southeast Asian biodiversity. *Biodivers Conserv* 19:317–328.
- Somaweera R, Sarathchandra K, Karunaratne S, et al. 2004. A study on the avifauna and herpetofauna of Panama, Eastern Province, Sri Lanka. *Sri Lanka Nat* 6:1–9.
- Surasinghe TD, De Alwis C. 2010. Birds of Sabaragamuwa University Campus, But-tala, Sri Lanka. *J Threatened Taxa* 2:876–888.
- Trombulak SC, Baldwin RF. 2010. *Landscape-scale conservation planning*. London: Springer.
- Turner I, Corlett RT. 1996. The conservation value of small, isolated fragments of lowland tropical rain forest. *Trends Ecol Evol* 11:330–333.
- Warakagoda D, Inskipp C, Inskipp T, et al. 2012. *Birds of Sri Lanka*. London: Christopher Helm, an imprint of Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.
- Warakagoda D, Sirivardana U. 2006. Status of waterfowl in Sri Lanka. In: Bambaradeniya CNB, editor. *Fauna of Sri Lanka: status of taxonomy, research, and conservation*. IUCN Lanka and Government of Sri Lanka. pp. 204–215.
- Warakagoda D, Sirivardana U. 2009. The avifauna of Sri Lanka: an overview of the current status. *Taprobanica* 1:28–35.
- Weerakoon DK, Gunawardena K. 2012. The taxonomy and conservation status of birds in Sri Lanka. In: Weerakoon DK, Wijesundara S, editors. *The National Red List 2012 of Sri Lanka: conservation status of the fauna and flora*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Ministry of Environment. pp. 114–117.
- Weerakoon DK, Goonatilake WLDPTS de A. 2007. Diversity of avifauna in the Wil-pattu National Park. *Siyoth* 2:11–18.
- Wikramanayake E, Dinerstein E, Loucks C, et al. 2001. *Terrestrial ecoregions of the Indo-Pacific: a conservation assessment*. Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Wijesinghe MR, Brooke MDL. 2005. Impact of habitat disturbance on the distribution of endemic species of small mammals and birds in a tropical rain forest in Sri Lanka. *J Trop Ecol* 21:661–668.
- Zhang J, Liu F, Cui G. 2014. The efficacy of landscape-level conservation in Changbai Mountain Biosphere Reserve, China. *PLoS One* 9:e95081.
- Zubair L. 2001. Challenges for environmental impact assessment in Sri Lanka. *Environ Impact Assess Rev* 21:469–478.