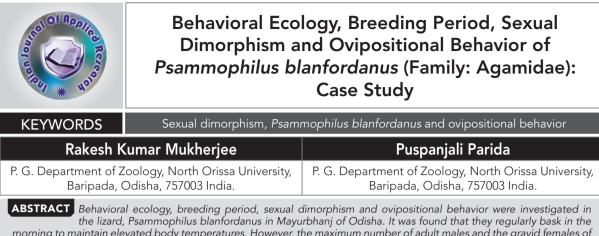
## Biology



the lizard, Psammophilus blanfordanus in Mayurbhanj of Odisha. It was found that they regularly bask in the morning to maintain elevated body temperatures. However, the maximum number of adult males and the gravid females of Psammophilus blanfordanus are usually found from May through July months of the year. Males acquired larger body sizes than females during breeding season. Eggs are laid in clutches of up to eight in numbers. The observed sexual dimorphism in body size, head size and body colouration in males to hold more number of females in their territory. This is the first described observation of the ovipositional behavior of Psammophilus blanfordanus. The ovipositional behavior consisted of digging a hole to lay eggs, laying the eggs, burrying the eggs, emergence of hatchlings from the burrow.

## INTRODUCTION

Blanford's Rock Agama (*Psammophilus blanfordanus*) is an agamid lizard found in Peninsular India and is named after William Thomas Blanford (1832-1905), member of the Geological Survey of India. In reptiles, patterns of daily activity range from nocturnal to diurnal with various intermediate conditions and in some cases activity rhythms are not encountered (Heatwole and Taylor, 1987; Zug et al., 2001; Winne and Keck, 2004). Many lizard species have distinct preferences for particular substrates, perch shape, vegetation densities or other aspects of habitat structure (Heatwole, 1977; Arnold, 1987; Hussein, 1994; 2000). Population dynamics, microhabitat use and activity pattern are the important components of animal ecology. The time of day when animals emerge from refuge and engage in activities such as basking, foraging, searching for mates and so on may be restricted to certain periods of the day or year. Indeed, most reptiles exhibit high activity during discrete times of the day/ year and the factors controlling such periodicity interact in a complex manner (Schoener, 1977; Heatwole and Taylor, 1987; Underwood, 1992; Zug *et al.*, 2001). Lizard communities may achieve resource partitioning by spatial or temporal separation in their activity patterns depending upon the habitat, prey availability and thermal ecology (Schoener, 1977; Heatwole and Taylor, 1987; Davis and Verbeek, 1972; Zucker, 1986; Martin and Salvador, 1997; Howard and Hailey, 1999; Melville and Schulte, 2001; Leal and Fleishman, 2002). Growth pattern is a key aspect in the life history of any species (Andrews, 1982; Sinervo and Aldoph, 1989; Roff, 1992; Arendt, 1997) and reproduction is the most costly event in an animal's life. Body size and growth rate are particularly important life history traits because of their relation to reproductive output, longevity, age at first reproduction, and so on (Andrews, 1982; Bauwens and Verheyen, 1985; Ferguson and Talent, 1993; Clobert et al., 1998; Lorenzon et. al., 1999; Bronikowski, 2000).

Reproduction is an important event in the life history of all organisms. Female body size, clutch/egg and offspring body sizes are the basic components of life-history traits. Oviparous reptiles show complex interrelationships among maternal body size, clutch and egg sizes. In lizards, clutch size varies with proximate climatic factors, food availability and fat body reserves (Vitt, 1992; Dunham, 1994; Schwarzkopf, 1994; Shanbhag, 2002; 2003). Even if sexual selection is responsible for the initial morphological divergence in body and head sizes, ecological factors may act either to constram or amplify this initial sexually selected difference (Shine, 1989; 1991). Unlike the other species, the male in breeding season has a brilliant red head and crest with black coloration dorso-laterally and ventrally. They are found mainly on rocks. The male displays with head nodding (Smith, 1941). From snout to vent they are about 10 cm long and the tail is about 20 cm. Females are slightly smaller than the males. Most studies on growth rates in lizards are mainly based on mark and recapture surveys (Bellairs, 1969; Jenssen and Andrews, 1984; Shine, 1988; James, 1991; Sugg et al., 1995; Allan et al., 2006) or on frequency distribution of individuals in a population collected at different points of time in a year (Andrews, 1976; Ferguson and Brockman, 1980; Bishop and Echternacht, 2003).

The information on the ecology and natural history of this species is limited. Though the peak breeding months seems to be June through August, the breeding behavior or ovipositional behavior has not been clearly documented. No information is available about its clutch size, incubation duration and about the hatchling. In this paper, we describe the ovipositional behavior, duration of time taken by a hatchling to emerge out from an egg and hatching success of this species for the first time were described.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

In the present study, ecology, sexual dimorphism, breeding period and ovipositional behavioral of Psammophilus blanfordanus was observed very closely in residential areas of Mayurbhanj, Odisha and the important events were recorded by the help of camera and also recorded the hatchling success. The behavior of different activities of Psammophilus blanfordanus were observed silently from 2 m away through unaided eye. The animal was not disturbed during observation. The nest soil was loosely packed and consisted of a mix-ture of sandy and clayey soil. The weather was hot and humid. The atmospheric temperature was noted as 27° C. The study site was surveyed twice a day (at 8:30 am and 4 pm). A female Psammophilus blanfordanus was observed in a residential area on 23 June 2011 between 12:23-12:48 pm digging a hole on a small hip of sands. The lizards were spotted and their day-to-day behavior, during their breeding period, their sexual dimorphism, body colouration, sex recognition, ovipositional behavior and hatching success were also noted. The egg size could not be measured accurately because handling the eggs might have affected their incubation.

# RESULT AND DISCUSSION

(A) Behavioral Ecology

Psammophilus blanfordanus are usually diurnal, and are he-

liotherms that regularly bask to maintain elevated body temperatures. Basking occurs mainly in the morning between ten and noon. Many temperate zone species actually spend only a few hours each day above the ground and thus spend most of the day in different retreats depending on the thermal properties of the retreat site. The aggregation of individuals in such retreats usually considered to be of thermoregulatory significance. The larger males take up higher perch positions (Radder et al., 2006a). They flatten their bodies when birds fly overhead (Radder et al., 2006b). Densities of about 90 lizards per hectare have been noted (Radder et al., 2005). Psammophilus blanfordanus are predominantly carnivores, preying largely on arthropods by using a sit-and-wait foraging behavior. Another interesting and rare behavior was came into noticed that this lizards was seen bathing in a small pool of water an also drinking droplets of rain water falling from the leaves surface.

### (B) Breeding Period

The species of agamids breed from pre-monsoon through post-monsoon periods (April-October) and the peak breeding months seems to be June through August. However, the maximum number of mature males and the gravid females of *Psammophilus blanfordanus* are usually found from May through July. During early monsoon, both sexes are found to be active and mating usually occurs during the day. Occasionally, the hatchlings and the juveniles of the species have been collected from May through August, which is indicative of even early breeding before May. The breeding season is typically March-May with eggs being laid in June-September during the season after the rains.

During the non-breeding season, (late November-early March) though the sexes look alike, Psammophilus blanfordanus does not show much displacement from their native sites. During the pre-breeding season (late March-early May) mature males establishes their territory to show their dominance over others. During their breeding season, the dominant males show much displacement from their inhabiting sites in search of mature females. Males may hold six or more females in their territory for breeding. During courtship, the male bobs his head to impress the female. Many lizards communicate by head-bobbing. This display is apparently useful in species recognition. Gravid females were seen to raise their tail when a courting male approaches the female. Sometimes, females initiate courtship by offering their hindquarters to the male and then running until he is able to catch up. Occasionally, the females tried to escape from other males of second rank which shows their non-receptivity behavior towards second rank males. During copulation, the male grasps the female by the neck and one hemipenis is inserted for less than half a minute in *Psammophilus blanfordanus*. Gravid females have up to eight eggs in their ovaries.

#### (C) Sexual Dimorphism and Breeding Colouration

Sexual dimorphism is a common and sometimes prominent feature of the animal world. In some lizards, though the sexes look alike outside the breeding season, male and female lizards can differ in many traits including body shape and size. Within sexes, body shape and size are important life-history traits that influence physiology, behavior, ecology and repro-ductive success (Shine, 1989; Cox *et al.*, 2003). Males and females differ in a variety of aspects; however, the vast majority of comparative studies of sexual dimorphism have focused only on size dimorphism (Fairbairn, 1997), with relatively few examining variation in shape (Selander, 1966; Dayan et al., 1990; Dayan and Simberloff, 1994; Emerson, 1994; Jablonski and Ruliang, 1995; Willig and Hollander, 1995; Brana, 1996). Sex differences in ecology (food and/or habitat) associated with shape dimorphism are known from many reptiles (e.g., Schoener, 1967, 1968; Schoener and Gorman, 1968; Lister, 1970; Schoener et al., 1982; Hebrard and Madsen, 1984; Powell and Russell, 1984; Shine, 1991; Vitt et al., 1996).

Table 1: Important events of Psammophilus blanfordanu	s
from non-breeding months to the emergence of hatch	-
lings from the eggs.	

SI No.	Events	Date	Reference figures
1	Unidentified sex of <i>Psammo-</i> philus blanfordanus are seen during non-breeding season	26 <sup>th</sup> March	1
2	During breeding season adult male in breeding colours along with adult female were noticed in the residential areas	14 <sup>th</sup> April	3,4
3	Copulation between male and female takes place	28 <sup>th</sup> May	_
4	Laying of eggs by the female	23th June	9,10
5	Incubation	23 <sup>rd</sup> June - 08 <sup>th</sup> June	11,12,13
6	Release of hatchlings from the eggs	08 <sup>th</sup> August	14,15,16



Fig. 1: Unidentified sex of *Psammophilus blanfordanus* during non-breeding season.

Fig. 2: Adult male in the pre-breeding season.

Fig. 3: Adult male in breeding colours during breeding season.

Fig. 4: Adult female (A) during breeding season.

#### Volume : 4 | Issue : 1 | Jan 2014 | ISSN - 2249-555X

In our present study young lizards of Psammophilus blanfordanus are olive-brown above, spotted or marbled with brown spots very similar to the female but often have a series of large, lozenge shaped, dark brown spots with pale centres on the back and tail. The body coloration of both male and female varies largely with the breeding cycle. In the breeding season, between April and September (Daniel, 2002; Das, 2002), adult males of Psammophilus blanfordanus develop a brilliant red head and crest with black coloration dorso-laterally and ventrally (Fig. 3); adult females develop a slaty-black coloration with reddish orange throat (Fig. 4 and 6). The colouration is very cryptic, especially the females, matches with that of the rocks among which they live. Outside the breeding season both sexes of Psammophilus blanfordanus look alike (olive brown; Fig. 1)

### (D) Ovipositional Behavior

The following are the ovipositional behavior of female Psammophilus blanfordanus.

#### 1) Digging the nest hole

A female Psammophilus blanfordanus was observed on 23

June 2011 between 12:23-12:48 pm. The lizard lifted the anterior part of its body using its forelimbs and looked around for about 13 minutes. The lizard repeatedly turned its head 180° six times, without moving its body (Fig. 9). The lizard began excavating the egg laying burrow with its right forelimb alternatively, scraping the sand out with its claws and its head was partially inside the small hole during the process of digging and throwing the sand towards its right hand side though its hind limbs was raised. This digging process continued for approximately 3 minutes. After that it stopped digging and looked around for approximately 5 minutes. Again the lizard repeatedly turned its head 180° three times. Again, the female continued digging the hole continuously for approximately 5 minutes. The hind-limbs were stretched as wide as possible (Fig. 10). After that, it continued to dig the hole for around 25 minutes, taking break for four times for 3 minutes each, to take rest. The process of looking around and digging was repeated several times before the completion of the burrow. The whole process spanned 32 minutes resulting in the completion of the excavation. The final hole was 87.2 mm deep and 67.8 mm in diameter.



Fig. 17: Broken egg shells on the Fig. 18: Two damaged or Fig. 19: Juvenile Psammophilus nesting site.

undeveloped eggs



blanfordamus.

### 2) Laying of the eggs

Following completion of digging, the female lizard stretched her hind-limbs as wide as possible and placed both its hindlimbs upon the burrow and began laying eggs by taking deep breaths as it pushed the eggs out. During egg laying the lizard repeatedly turned its head 180° three times, without moving its body (Fig. 9). Eight eggs were laid (Fig. 12). The eggs were pure white and elliptical. The whole process spanned about 2 minutes resulting in the completion of egg laying behavior.

### 3) Burying the eggs

After the eggs were laid, the female lizard resumed from the excavating position and started looking around for 5 minutes. Then the female lizard began to drag the sand towards the hole using its right fore-limb (Fig. 11). After dragging the soil for about 8 minutes, the lizard repeatedly turned its head 180° four times, without moving its body to look into the surrounding.

Then the lizard began pressing the soil with the anterior half of its lower jaw for 5 minutes. Then wait for 5 minute near the nest without any movement and then ran towards the garden.

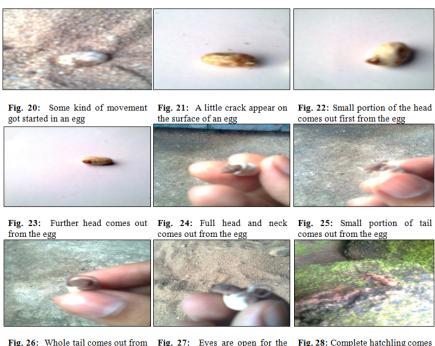
### 4) Emergence of hatchlings from the burrow

After 1 hour of burial of eggs in soil, the nest was examined and the no. of eggs were counted. The bottom of the nest was conical and the soil was soft, dark and wet. Finally the eggs were again buried in the same hole to hatch. After approximately two and half months, hatchlings were coming out from the nest. The young have to re-excavate the tunnel before they can emerge (Fig. 14, 15). The first hatchling comes out from a small hole at 08: 06 am in the morning. Then one by one hatchlings were coming out from their nest and the process of release of hatchlings from their nest continues till 1:20 pm. Important events and duration of time taken by a hatchling to emerge out from an egg of Psammophilus blanfordanus (Fig. 20-28) was described in table 2. The total time taken to complete all the events was noted to be 5 hours 13 minutes. In most of the case it was observed that the hatchling face of difficulties in breaking their own egg shell. However, hatchlings after a long period of strug-

gle able to break their egg shell but attach to the broken egg shell by means of some structure. At last it was found that three to five broken egg shells of Psammophilus blanfordanus were present inside their nest (Fig. 17). Empty nest did not contain any remnant of egg shell, as they are suspected to be eaten out by the ants. Eight eggs were laid by the female. Out of the eight eggs, only six hatchlings were able to hatch out from the eggs. Two of them were unable to hatch out from the eggs (unable to incubate properly) and were damaged (Fig. 18). Therefore, the hatching success in our study was 75 %.

SI No.	Events	Time dura- tions	Reference figures
1	Some kind of movement got started in an egg of Psammo- philus blanfordanus	08:07 am	20
2	A little crack appear on the surface of an egg	08:15 am	21
3	Small portion of the head comes out first from the egg	08:20am	22
4	Further head comes out	08:40 am	23
5	Full head and neck comes out from the egg	10:54 am	24
6	Small portion of tail comes out from the egg	10:59 am	25
7	Whole tail comes out from the half broken egg	11:01 am	26
8	Eyes are open for the first time	11:10 am	27
9	Complete hatchling comes out from the egg	1:20 pm	28
Total time taken to complete all the events		5 hours 13 minutes	

#### Table 2: Important events and duration of time taken by a hatchling to emerge out from an egg of Psammophilus blanfordanus.



the half broken egg

Fig. 27: Eyes are open for the first time



Fig. 28: Complete hatchling comes out from the egg

#### Volume : 4 | Issue : 1 | Jan 2014 | ISSN - 2249-555X

A few photographs and brief descriptions of Psammophilus blanfordanus are available in popular journals, books, internet and magazines but almost nothing exists on the pre and post mating behavior, egg laying behavior and their hatchlings. In addition Psammophilus blanfordanus is an endemic, rare species and therefore it may become extinct if their population does not increase. For such a situation to be achieved, studies on the habitat requirements and survival rates of these lizards are essential to strengthen its conservation

REFERENCE

1. Allan, G. M., Prelypchan, C. J., Gregory, P. T. (2006) Population profile of an introduced species, the common wall lizard (Podarcis muralis), 1. Allan, G. M., Prelypchan, C. J., Gregory, P. I. (2006) Population profile of an introduced species, the common wall lizard (Podarcis muralis), on Vancouver Island, Canada. Can. J. Zool. 84(1): 51–57. | 2. Andrews, R. M. (1976) Growth rate in Island and Mainland Anoline lizards. Copeia.
477–482. | 3. Andrews, R. M. (1982) Patterns of growth in reptiles. In: Biology of the Reptilia, Physiology D: Physiological Ecology, Gans, C., Pough, F. H. (EdS). Academic Press, New York. 13: 273–320. | 4. Arendt, J. D. (1997) Adaptive intrinsic growth rates: An integration across taxa. Quart. Rev. Biol. 72: 149–177. | 5. Arnold, E. N. (1987) Resource partition among lacertid lizard in Southern Europe. J. Zool. Series. B1: 739-782. | 6. Bauwens, D. and Verheyen, R. F. (1985) The timing of reproduction in lizards Lacerta vivpara: Differences between individual females. J. Herpetol. 19: 353. | 7. Bellairs, A. (1960) Growth, age and regeneration. In: The Life of Reptiles, Carrington, R. (Ed). Unwin Bros., Woking and London. 2: 458–487. | 8. Bishop, D. C., Echternacht, A. C. (2003) Winter growth and sex ratio of a Northern population of Anolis carolinensis (Sauria: Polychrotidae). Copeia. 906–909. | 9. Brana, F. (1996) Sexual dimorphism in lacertid lizards: Male head increase vs. female abdomen increase? Oikos. 75: 511–523. | 10. Bronikowski, A. M. (2000) Experimental evidence for the adaptive evolution of growth rate in the garter snake Thamnophis elegans. Evolution. 54: 1760–1767. | 11. Clobert, J., Garland, T. J. and Barbault, R. (1998) The evolution of demographic tactics in lizards. J. Evol. Biol. 11: 329–364. Telegais, Evolution 34, Tool-Tool, Th. Clobert, J., Garland, T.S. and Barbadin, K. (1776) the evolution of demographic tacks in fizards. So Look Biol, Th. 327-394, J. 2008, N., Skelly, S. L. and John-Alder, H. B. (2003) A comparative test of adaptive hypotheses for sexual size dimorphism in lizards. Evolution, 57: 1653–1669, J. 32. Daniel, J. C. (2002) The Book of Indian Reptiles and Amphibians. Oxford University Press, Mumbai, India, J. 14, Das, I. (2002) Snakes and Other Reptiles of India. New Holland Publishers, London, UK. J. 15. Davis, J. and Verbeek, N. A. M. (1972) Habitat preferences and distribution of Uta stansburiana and Sceloporus occidentalis in costal California. Copeia. 643–649, J. 16. Dayan, T., and Simberloff, D. (1994) Character displacement, sexual dimorphism, and morphological variation among British and Irish mustelids. Ecology. 75: 1063–1073, J. 17. Dayan, T., Simberloff, D., Tchernov, E. and Yom-Tov, Y. (1990) Feline canines: Community-wide character displacement and the active application of a standard and the active application of a standard and the active application of the active applicati and insh mustelias. Ecology. 75: 1053–1073. [17: Dayan, 1r. Simberion, U., Icherov, E. and fom-lov, T. (1990) Feiline Canines: Community-wide character displacement among the small cats of Israel. American Naturalist. 136: 39–60. ] 18. Emerson, S. B. (1994) Testing pattern predictions of sexual selection: A frog example. American Naturalist. 143: 848– 869. [19. Fairbairn, D. J. (1997) Allometry for sexual size dimorphism: Pattern and process in the coevolution of body size in males and females. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics. 28: 659–687. [ 20. Ferguson, G. W. and Brockman, T. (1980) Geographic differences of growth rate of Sceloporus lizards (Sauria: Iguanidae). Copeia. 259 – 264. [ 21. Ferguson, G. W. and Talent, L. G. (1993) Life history traits of the lizard Sceloporus undulates from two populations raised (adma. Iguandae), Copera. 297–204, [21, Ferguson, G. W. and Falent, L. G. (1973) the initial year is of the initial Schopbard Schopbard and Jack and American and Falent, L. G. (1973) the initial year is of the initial Schopbard Schopbard Schopbard and Jack and Falent, L. G. (1973) the initial year is of the initial year of the probability of Reptiles. Survey Beatty and Sons Limited, New South Wales, Australia. 129–138. [24. Hebrard, J. J. and Madsen, T. (1984) Dry season intersexual habitat partitioning by flap-necked chameleons (Chamaeleo dilepis) in Kenya. Biotropica. 16: 69–72. [25. Howard, K. E. and Hailey, A. (1999) Microhabitat separation among diurnal saxicolous lizards in Zimbabwe. J. Trop. Ecol. 15: 367–378. [26. Hussein, H. K. (1994) Effects of seasonal changes in the environment on niche shift, foraging strategies and social behavior of the lizard, Agama stellio. J. Egypt. Ger. Soc. Zool. 15: 405-424. [27. Hussein, H. K. (2000) The relationship between microhabitat selection and behavioural thermoregulation in two elevationally distinct populations in Laudakia stellio in Saudi Arabia. J. Egypt. Ger. Soc. Zool., 31: 67-80. [28. Jablonski, N. G., and Ruliang, P. (1995) Sexual dimorphism in the snub-nosed langurs (Colobinae: Rhinopithecus). American Journal of Physical Anthropology. 96: 251–272. [29. James, C. D. (1991) Growth rates and ages at maturity of sympatric scincid lizards (Ctenotus) in Central Australia. J. Herpetol. 25: 284–295. [30. Jenssen, T. A. and Andrews, R. M. (1984) Seasonal growth rates in Jamaican Lizard, Anolis opalinus J. Herpetol. 18: 338–341. | 31. Leal, M. and Fleishman, L. J. (2002) Evidence for habitat partitioning based on adaptation to environmental light in a pair of sympatric lizard species. Proc. R. Soc. London. 269: 351–359. | 32. Lister, B. C. (1970) The nature of niche expansion in West Indian Anolis lizards J: Ecological consequences of reduced competition. Evolution. 30: 659–676. | 33. Lorenzon, P., Clobert, J., Oppliger, A. and John-Alder, H. (1999) Effect of water constraint on growth rate, activity and body temperature of yearling common lizard (Lacerta vivipara). Oecologia. 118: 423–430. | 34. Martin, J. and Salvador, A. (1977) Microhabitat selection by the Iberian rock lizard Lacerta monticola: Effects on density and spatial distribution of individuals. Biol. Conserv. 79: 303–307. | 35. Melville, J. and Schule II, J. A. (2001) Correlates of active body temperatures and microhabitat occupation in nine species of central Australian againd lizards. Aust. Ecol. 26: 660–669. | 36. Powell, G. L., and Russell, A. P. (1984) The diet of the eastern short-horned lizard (Phrynosoma douglassi brevirostre) in Alberta and its relationship to sexual size dimorphism. Canadian Journal of Zoology. 62: 428–440. | 37. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, S. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, S. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, K. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, K. K. Saidapur, S. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, K. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, K. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006a) Big boys on top: Effects of body size, sex and reproductive state on perching behaviour in the tropical rock dragon, Psammophilus dorsalis. Animal Biology. 56(3): 311-321. | 38. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, K. K. S. Saidapur, S. K. S S. K., Shine, R., and Shanbhag, B. A. (2006b) The language of lizards: Interpreting the function of visual displays of the Indian rock lizard, Psammophilus dorsalis (Agamidae). Journal of Ethology. 24(3): 275-283. || 39. Radder, R. S., Saidapur, S. K. and Shanbhag, B. A. (2005) Population density, microhabitat use and activity pattern of the Indian rock lizard, Psammophilus dorsalis (Agamidae). Current Science. 89(3): 560-566. | 40. Roff, D. A. (1992) The evolution of life histories: Theory and Analysis. Chapman and Hall, New York. | 41. Schoener, T. W. (1967) The ecological significance of sexual dimorphism in size in the lizard Anolis conspersus. Science. 15: 474-476. [42. Schoener, T. W. (1978) The Anolis lizards of Birmini: Resource partitioning in a complex fauna. Ecology. 49: 704–726. [43. Schoener, T. W. (1977) Competition and niche. Ecology and Behavior. In: Biology of Reptilia. Gans, C. and Tinkle, D. W. (eds.). Academic Press, New York. 7: 35–136. [44. Schoener, T. W. and Gorman, G. C. (1968) Some niche differences in three Lesser Antillean lizards of the genus Anolis. Ecology. 49: 819–830. [45. Schoener, T. W., and Gorman, G. C. (1968) Some niche differences in three Lesser Antillean lizards of the genus Anolis. Ecology. 49: 819–830. [45. Schoener, T. W., 3160–157. [44. Schoener, T. W. Measuring trade-offs. Lizard Ecology: Historical and Experimental Perspective. Vitt, L. J. and Pianka, E. R. (eds.). Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton, NJ. 7–29. | 47. Selander, R. K. (1966) Sexual dimorphism and differential niche utilization in birds. Condor. 68: 113–151. | 48. Shanbhag, B. A. (2002) Reproductive biology of Indian reptiles. Proc. Indian Natl. Sci. Acad. B68: 497–528. | 49. Shanbhag, B. A. (2003) Reproductive strategies in the lizard Calotes versicolor. Curr. Sci. 84: 646–652. | 50. Shine, R. (1988) The evolution of large body size in female: a critique of Darwin's fecundity advantage model. Am. Nat. 131: 124–131. | 51. Shine, R. (1989) Ecological Shine, R. (1988) The evolution of large body size in female: a critique of Darwin's fecundity advantage model. Am. Nat. 131: 124–131. | 51. Shine, R. (1989) Ecological causes for the evolution of sexual dimorphism: A review of the evidence. Quarterly Review of Biology. 64: 419–461. | 52. Shine, R. (1991) Intersexual dietary divergence and the evolution of sexual dimorphism in snakes. American Naturalist. 138: 103–122. | 53. Sinervo, B. and Aldoph, S.C. (1989) Thermal sensitivity of growth rate in hatchling Sceloporus Iizards: Environmental, Behavioral and Genetic Aspects. Oecologia. 78: 411–419. | 54. Smith, M. A. (1941) Fauna of British India. Reptilia and Amphibia. Taylor and Francis, London. 2: 210. | 55. Sugg, D. W., Fitzgerald, L. E. and Snell, H. L. (1995) Growth rate timing of reproduction, and size dimorphism in the Southwestern earless Iizard (Cophosaurus texanus scitulus). The Southwestern Naturalist. 40: 193–202. | 56. Underwood, H. (1992) Endogenous rhythms: Hormones, Brain, and Behaviour, Physiology E. In: Biology of Reptilia. Gans, C. and Crews, D. (eds.). University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 18: 229–297. | 57. Vitt, L. J. (1992) Diversity of reproductive strategies among Brazilian Iizards and snakes: The significance of lineage and adaptation. In: Reproductive Biology of South American Vertebrates. Hamlett, W. C. (ed). Springer-Verlag, New York. 135–149. | 58. Vitt, L. J. Zani, P. A. and Caldwell, J. P. (1996) Behavioural ecology of Tropidurus hispidus on isolated rock outcrops in Amazonia. Journal of Tropical Ecology. 12: 81–101. | 59. Willig, M. R. and Hollander, R. R. (1995) Secondary sexual dimorphism and phylogenetic constraints in bats: A multivariate approach. Journal of Marmology. 76: 981–992. | 60. Winne, C. T. and Keck, M. B. (2004) Daily activity patterns of whitotail Ilizards (Souamata: Teiridae: Aspidoscosies to environmental conditions or an endogenous thythm? Funct. Ecol. 18: 314–321. | 61. Zucker. whiptail lizards (Squamata: Teiidae: Aspidoscelis): A proximate response to environmental conditions or an endogenous rhythm? Funct. Ecol. 18: 314–321. | 61. Zucker, N. (1986) Perch height preferences of male and female treatistic listance in a strategy of the strategy of the